Student teachers' and beginning teachers' coping with emotionally challenging situations

Henrik Lindqvist

Linköping Studies in Behavioural Science No. 217

Student teachers' and beginning teachers' coping with emotionally challenging situations

Henrik Lindqvist

Linköping Studies in Behavioural Science No. 217

Faculty of Educational Sciences

Linköping 2019

Linköping Studies in Behavioural Science No. 217

Distributed by:

Department of Behavioural Sciences and Learning

Linköping University

SE-58183 Linköping

Sweden

Henrik Lindqvist

Student teachers' and beginning teachers' coping with emotionally challenging situations

Edition 1:1

ISBN: 978-91-7685-078-7

ISSN: 1654-2029

©Henrik Lindqvist

Department of Behavioural Sciences and Learning, 2019

Published articles have been reprinted with the permission of the copyright holder

Cover picture: Kristofer Pasanen

Printed by: LiU-Tryck, Linköping, 2019

No more lying down
We've got to speak and move
No more righteousness
Everything is far too wrong
No more selfish tears
You haven't paid for them
No more dressing up
Please leave your costumes home
No more looking down
You might bump your head

The purpose is within yourself
The movement is within yourself

Your emotions are nothing but politics
So get control

Embrace (1987), *No More Pain*.

Acknowledgements

Being a teacher is an important line of work. In fact, teachers constantly engage in trying to improve their students' knowledge and possibilities to engage in society. For this reason, I find it important to acknowledge some hardships that might be involved with becoming a teacher. The focus of emotionally challenging situations grew out a project that focuses on both medical students and student teachers, as well as beginning medical doctors and teachers. I find this to be of importance, not least when reading headlines about the teacher shortage in Sweden and teachers reporting about a negative work environment. In relevance to this, I have also found it important to address emotionally challenging situations and coping with these situations.

Working with this project has given me the opportunity to learn more about teacher work, emotions, coping, as well as teacher education. I am grateful to all the participants of the studies, for sharing your hopes, fears, challenges and accomplishments with me.

I am also grateful to the research group consisting of Annika Wernerson, Håkan Hult, Astrid Seeberger, Maria Weurlander, Robert Thornberg and Annlena Lönn. I have highly valued the input from our research meetings, discussions we have had and the inspiration and sense of urgency this instilled in our collaborative efforts.

I wish to express a special thanks to supervisor, professor Robert Thornberg for timely and valued input. I have felt supported in choices made and I am grateful for challenging as well as wise and informed comments and guidance. Also, I thank Maria Weurlander, co-supervisor, for her energy and positive attitude, as well as insightful comments in the process. A special thank you to professor Annika Wernerson for her important contributions to papers included. In the process I have also received valuable comments that expanded my work from Eva Hammar Chiriack and Marie Karlsson in the review processes connected to the thesis. Thank you both for your contributions. Also, thank you to Håkan Löfgren and Gunnel Colnerud for helpful comments in the final stages of the process.

I also want to thank colleagues and fellow PhD-students at the *Division of Education, Teaching and Learning*. When working with the papers the higher seminar made inspiring and helpful input from my colleagues possible. I wish to acknowledge Elisabeth Eriksson,

Elisabeth Tenglet, Marlene Bjärehed, Joakim Strindberg, Tove Mattsson and Emilia Åkesson who helped proof-read the manuscript. Also, special thank you to Björn Sjögren and Camilla Forsberg for adventures in Philadelphia and New York.

I also want to thank my colleagues involved in the special education programmes for collaboration and discussions connected to my teaching in the programme. In addition, I would like to acknowledge Tove Mattsson, with whom I have shared an office. I appreciate our discussions regarding everything possible, but education and research in particular. Furthermore, warm thanks to Kristofer Pasanen for help with the cover and letting me use your photo. Last but not least, I wish to express my eternal gratitude to Ingo, Ronja and Catrin, for reminding me about what is important, as always.

Linköping, April 2019
Henrik Lindqvist

Contents

- LIST OF PAPERS1
- INTRODUCTION.....2
 - Attrition4
 - Burnout.....7
- DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS9
 - Emotionally challenging situations9
 - Student teachers9
 - Beginning teachers9
 - Work placement education10
- SWEDISH TEACHER EDUCATION AND CONTEXTUAL FACTORS10
- DESCRIPTION OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT12
- AIM12
- EMOTIONALLY CHALLENGING SITUATIONS, EMOTIONS AND COPING RELATED TO TEACHING14
 - EMOTIONALLY CHALLENGING SITUATIONS RELATED TO BEGINNING TO TEACH 14
 - EMOTIONS RELATED TO TEACHING16
 - Emotions in teacher education19
 - COPING STRATEGIES AMONG TEACHERS AND STUDENT TEACHERS20
 - Coping among student teachers: Self-efficacy, help-seeking and social support21
 - THE TRANSITION FROM BEING A STUDENT TEACHER TO THE TEACHING OCCUPATION22
 - New among more experienced colleagues25
 - REFLECTIVE SUMMARY26
- THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK30
 - PRAGMATISM30
 - Process and change.....31
 - Handling encountered problems.....32
 - SYMBOLIC INTERACTIONISM33
 - The perspective of symbolic interactionism.....34
 - The social self36
 - PERSPECTIVES ON EMOTIONS37
 - Emotions as action39
 - Emotional labour of teachers40
 - Emotions as a structural component of teachers’ work42
 - COPING42
 - The imbalance between resources and demands45
 - Problem-focused and emotion-focused coping46
 - REFLECTIVE SUMMARY47
- METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK50
 - CONSTRUCTIVIST GROUNDED THEORY50
 - PAPERS INCLUDED IN THE THESIS53

Background: Swedish teacher education	53
Participants	54
DATA COLLECTION	56
Focus groups	56
Semi-structured interviews	58
Self-reports	60
DATA ANALYSIS	61
Memos	64
Theoretical sensitivity	65
ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS	67
SUMMARY OF PAPERS	70
PAPER I	70
PAPER II	72
PAPER III	74
PAPER IV	76
GENERAL DISCUSSION	80
EMOTIONALLY CHALLENGING SITUATIONS IN TEACHER EDUCATION AND	
STARTING TO TEACH	81
THE KEY PROCESS OF COPING	86
Being part of a group	87
Changing their own approach	88
Trying to incorporate change	89
LEARNING WHEN COPING WITH EMOTIONALLY CHALLENGING SITUATIONS	90
BECOMING A TEACHER	92
STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS	94
FUTURE RESEARCH	98
PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS	99
REFERENCES	102
APPENDIX 1: INTERVIEW GUIDES	118

List of papers

This thesis is based on the following papers:

- I. Lindqvist, H., Weurlander, M., Wernerson, A., & Thornberg, R. (2017). Resolving feelings of professional inadequacy: Student teachers' coping with distressful situations. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 64, 270-279.
- II. Lindqvist, H. Student teachers' use of strategies to cope with emotionally challenging situations in teacher education (accepted for publication in *Journal of Education for Teaching*).
- III. Lindqvist, H., Weurlander, M., Wernerson, A., & Thornberg, R. Boundaries as coping: emotional work and relationship management in distressing teacher education situations (re-submitted).
- IV. Lindqvist, H., Weurlander, M., Wernerson, A., & Thornberg, R. Conflicts viewed through the micro-political lens: Beginning teachers' coping with emotionally challenging situations (submitted).

Introduction

Learning how to work as a teacher is a complex process of acquiring skills concerning meeting students' needs, as well as attaining subject knowledge to plan and carry out teaching (Bransford, Darling-Hammond, & LePage, 2005). Complexities of the teaching occupation are exposed both during the educational programme and when moving from being a student teacher to a beginning teacher. Student teachers grapple with trying to teach students skills, while at the same time guiding students to become democratic citizens. Studies of student teachers have shown the process of becoming a teacher to be an emotional journey (Malderez, Hobson, Tracey, & Kerr, 2007; Yuan & Lee, 2016). Previous research on teacher education has emphasised how student teachers and teachers view practical knowledge as the way to learn the profession (Korthagen, 2010). In addition, previous research has highlighted identity formation among student teachers and beginning teachers (Flores & Day, 2006; Izadinia, 2013), as well as student teachers' self-efficacy (Hascher & Hagenauer, 2016). Research has also been carried out on the challenges experienced by beginning teachers (McCormack & Thomas, 2003).

Situations that create emotional challenges in teacher education could weaken student teachers' motivation and commitment to be teachers, and concerns about working as a teacher are in part formulated during teacher education (He & Cooper, 2011). For instance, in a survey study Fokkens-Bruinsma and Canrinus (2014) found that at the end of the teacher education programme, student teachers were less motivated to become teachers than when starting the programme. One explanation offered is that during the work placement education at schools, student teachers' perceived ability to help students with personal growth decreased.

Studies have also shown that starting to teach after teacher education can be an overwhelming and exhausting experience, which has also been reported in a Swedish context (Lindgren, 2013). The transition to teaching from teacher education has been described as a reality shock, a practice shock, a cultural shock and a transfer shock (Caspersen & Raaen, 2014; Paquette & Rieg, 2016; Veenman, 1984). Student teachers' attrition and teachers leaving the profession within five years of service have been discussed as a problematic development

in many countries (Fantilli & McDougall, 2009). The teacher shortage is described as alarming in several countries (Fokkens-Bruinsma & Canrinus, 2014). By 2020, there is expected to be a teacher shortage in Sweden (Lindqvist, Nordänger, & Carlsson, 2014).

Working as a teacher has the duality of caring for students' well-being and personal growth, as well as for their academic achievements. In this duality, student teachers and beginning teachers might encounter uncertainty and limitations in terms of what it is possible to accomplish (Helsing, 2007; Le Maistre & Paré, 2010). Research on coping with tensions in teachers' work emphasises supportive school environments (Hong, Day, & Greene, 2018), with colleagues who value and talk about what teachers do instead of who they are, as a way of handling the complexity of emotional work of teaching (Lanas & Kelchtermans, 2015; Struyven & Vanthournout, 2014). Beginning teachers reported emotions of helplessness or anger, or an awareness of shortcomings. To cope with these emotions beginning teacher relied on significant others or tried to find a solution to their problems (Pillen, Beijaard, & den Brok, 2013). In a survey study, Reichl, Wach, Spinath, Brünken and Karbach (2014) found that student teachers' motivation for choosing the educational programme was related to burnout among student teachers. If student teachers chose the educational programme on the assumption that teacher education studies are easy, burnout was more likely. In contrast, coping strategies reliant on extraversion, conscientiousness and subject-specific interest were factors correlating with lower risk of burnout and thus affected coping among student teachers (Reichl et al., 2014).

The experiences of coping with emotional challenges are connected to learning as a student teacher and when starting to teach. The interest in student teachers' and beginning teachers' coping with emotionally challenging situations in the present thesis is motivated by emotions and coping being of importance when discussing teacher education. This thesis adds student teachers' and beginning teachers' perspectives to the aforementioned research, as well as a design that follows student teachers into their first jobs as teachers. The thesis adds a grounded theory methodology in studying the perspectives of student teachers and beginning teachers regarding emotionally challenging situations and coping.

Investigating emotions and learning to teach could be of value in order to understand coping strategies that might have an impact on attrition and burnout. Attrition and burnout have been two common concepts when reading literature about beginning teachers and emotions in teaching. Attrition and burnout are intertwined with the field of emotions in teaching, and as such are important concepts related to the current thesis. Attrition rates among Swedish beginning teachers have been as high as 30-50% (Swedish Government, 2010). Some estimates show that as many as one in six teachers had left the occupation in 2012 (Lindgren, 2013). Among student teachers in Sweden, the attrition rate from teacher education varies according to the programme and the intended grade to teach. An estimated 23-41% of the student teachers studying to teach grades 4-6 and 7-9 are likely quit their educational programme, with more men than women completing the education (UKÄ, 2016). Student teachers in Sweden with altruistic motives have been shown to be more likely to finish their studies, as opposed to student teachers with intrinsic or extrinsic motivation (Jungert, Alm, & Thornberg, 2014). Furthermore, Tiplic, Lejonberg and Elstad (2016) concluded that among beginning teachers in Sweden, mutual trust, emotional commitment and role clarification were negatively related to turnover to another school or attrition from the teaching occupation.

When it comes to burnout, this is commonly depicted as a serious concern among Swedish teachers. The teacher unions in particular use national statistics of reported long-term sick leave to argue that the demands placed on teachers lead to too much stress, which results in burnout (Lärarförbundet, 2018; Stridsman, 2016). According to a national survey, Swedish teachers are among the occupational groups with the highest risk of suffering from a psychiatric diagnosis as a consequence of work-related stress. Swedish teachers also report high levels of sleeping disorders as a consequence of work-related issues (Försäkringskassan, 2014).

Attrition

Emotions are a part of the teacher profession when starting to teach (McCormack & Thomas, 2003) and as a student teacher (Malderez et al., 2007). Early career decisions and personal teaching practice predict teacher attrition (Cochran-Smith et al., 2012). Several studies have aimed to understand why attrition of teachers is common. For example,

the attrition rates in the US have led to alarming views of a teacher shortage:

When it comes to leaving the profession, it has been found that up to 30–46% of new teachers quit teaching within the first 5 years and nearly 8–14% of all teachers leave teaching in any given year. (Newberry & Allsop, 2017, p. 863)

Attrition is a widely used concept, but needs to be defined, and attrition is discussed as self-evident when comparing between countries (Kelchtermans, 2017). Attrition is defined as having the education necessary and still leaving the profession. It does not include teachers who quit when they are close to retirement. Kelchtermans (2017) states that attrition should be based on the definition of teachers leaving the profession for the wrong reasons. This refers to teachers choosing to get away from something (e.g. working conditions at a school or education as an institution). Furthermore, Kelchtermans (2017) discusses teacher agency and structural conditions as interrelated, and attrition is “therefore best understood as the outcome of the interpretative negotiations between the sense-making agents on the one hand and the structural realities they find themselves in on the other” (p. 966).

Schaefer et al. (2012) concluded that research concerning attrition focused on either individual factors or contextual factors. Individual factors are associated with teachers who are depicted as not being resilient, committed or resourceful enough to cope with working, and are thus individually blamed for their attrition (Schaefer et al., 2012). Towers and Maguire (2017) exemplify in a case study how a professional identity crisis was a reason for a teacher to leave the profession, and value this as an alternative way of viewing why attrition takes place. In the American context, issues connected to the attrition of teachers have generally concerned wages, working conditions, curriculum (or having to teach a subject they were not specialised in), resources and emotional environment (Newberry & Allsop, 2017). Newberry and Allsop (2017) involved six former teachers with one to twelve years of teaching experience in gathering data about their decisions to enter and leave the teaching profession. The mitigating factor found was connected to relationships with colleagues. Other influential categories involved in attrition were workload, stress, beliefs and emotions. The combination and timing of these factors increased the intensity of the factors. A common theme was that the teachers had

problems with, or a lack of, a relationship with colleagues or people working at the school that led to decisions to leave the occupation. The isolation concerned physical, philosophical and emotional issues. Lortie's (1975) conclusion about the isolation of beginning teachers is still relevant today, as beginning teachers seem to be isolated from colleagues for most of the day. Furthermore, turning to colleagues can only amount to limited support. It is still the beginning teacher who has to make decisions and operate as the evaluator of the actions taken to resolve an issue (Lortie, 1975). Newberry and Allsop (2017) found that all teachers who left the occupation reported feeling undervalued in the organisation.

In a Swedish context Lindqvist, et al. (2014) studied attrition with longitudinal data from a cohort of teachers. They concluded that attrition is not a linear phenomenon, but is rather complex, with teachers leaving the profession but later returning. Some of their out-of-school experiences were used to enhance the quality of their teaching. In Finland and Norway, attrition is reported to be an increasing trend (Lanas, 2017; Smith & Ulvik, 2017). Lanas (2017) studied essays by and interviews with Finnish student teachers and beginning teachers, and found that the beginning teachers had to establish a subject position within the school. Smith and Ulvik (2017) report another aspect of attrition when describing four Norwegian teachers who left teaching without any negative experiences being involved. Their reasons focused on wanting more autonomy and more space.

At the beginning of a teaching career, there is an enhanced risk of attrition, and some student teachers will not start a teaching career at all (Struyven & Vanthournout, 2014). Struyven and Vanthournout (2014) found that male secondary teachers were most prone to leave the profession. The attrition reasons were concluded to be related to job dissatisfaction, school policies, workload, future prospects, and relations with students' parents. Beginning teachers are discussed as needing to have a realistic view of their own impact and needing to navigate within a new organisation (Kelchtermans, 2017). In contrast, in a Swedish context, Carlsson, Lindqvist and Nordänger (2019) problematise the attrition from the teacher profession and discuss how attrition is used to depict the educational system as being in a state of crisis, even though attrition among their sample is not larger than in comparable work groups.

Burnout

Student teachers are at schools during their work placement education. Therefore, they might encounter the concept of burnout among teachers, due to the prevalence of burnout in schools, or discussions about burnout among teachers in Sweden (Lärarförbundet, 2018; Stridsman, 2016). The term ‘burnout’ typically consists of three symptoms related to burnout: emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and reduced personal accomplishment (Fives, Hamman, & Olivarez, 2007; Kokkinos & Stavropoulos, 2016; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010). Emotional exhaustion has been conceptualised as a key symptom. For teachers, emotional exhaustion could be defined as

... the feeling of having given all that one can, that the teacher has put all of his or her energy and focus into the task of teaching and has finally run out of resources. (Fives et al., 2007, p. 918)

Arvidsson, Håkansson, Karlson, Björk and Persson (2016) found that in a sample of 490 Swedish teachers, 15% scored high levels in two of the three factors and 4% scored highly in all three factors:

Increasing levels of burnout were associated with increasing levels of job demands, emotional demands, and demands of hiding emotions as well as decreasing levels of job control, job support, leadership, and self-efficacy. (Arvidsson, Håkansson, Karlson, Björk, & Persson, 2016, p. 829)

Student teachers experience stress in relation to work placement education, but they also come into contact with a burnout discourse at the work places they encounter due to the prevalence of teacher burnout (Aloe, Amo, & Shanahan, 2014; Beltman, Mansfield, & Price, 2011; McCarthy, Lambert, Lineback, Fitchett, & Baddouh, 2016; Montgomery & Rupp, 2005). Kahn, Schneider, Jenkins-Henkelman and Moyle (2006) found that burnout and social support are determined by affectivity. Positive social support decreased emotional exhaustion and negative social support increased emotional exhaustion. Therefore, the social environment among colleagues in schools might function as a protective factor or as a risk factor depending on the quality of the support. In addition, Pietarinen, Pyhältö, Soini and Salmela-Aro (2013) concluded that teachers could learn strategies that reduce burnout, and co-construct a working environment that inhibits burnout symptoms.

Pietarinen et al. (2013) argue that learning different strategies is embedded in the schools' social interactions. The strategies included both self-regulation and co-regulation of the participants. Self-regulation referred to self-adaption to the working environment, and co-regulation was defined as utilising social resources. Both these strategies influenced the prevalence of burnout, and higher levels of self-regulation and co-regulation were negatively associated with burnout.

The affectivity of burnout among teachers in schools with low social support could come to affect future teachers as they encounter the social environment of work placement education. Work placement education has been shown to be an influential experience of student teachers (Deng, Zhu, Li, Xu, Rutter, & Rivera, 2018). Moreover, experiencing burnout symptoms correlates to the intent to leave the occupation (Martin, Sass, & Schmitt, 2012). Considering the emotional nature of burnout (emotional exhaustion), the concept has not been studied in correlation to emotions among teachers (Frenzel, 2004). Links between teachers' emotions and burnout would therefore be an important field of further research.

Conversely, in their study of 49 student teachers during work placement education, Fives et al. (2007) found that burnout symptoms decreased over time and efficacy beliefs increased. Student teachers completed surveys at two points during a 12-week placement, and as many as 80% of the student teachers scored lower on depersonalisation after the work placement education. In addition, being assessed by university supervisors was associated with greater depersonalisation of students. Fives et al. (2007) explain this by suggesting that university supervisors exert some sort of control, by asking the student teachers to plan their learning activities better. This creates stress that student teachers cope with by depersonalising their students. Learning coping strategies would therefore be of interest in trying to reduce burnout symptoms of student teachers, beginning teachers and the teacher population at large. These concepts are important, first and foremost, since they will have an effect on the quality of teaching in schools (Martin et al., 2012).

Discussions about attrition and burnout could be valuable in order to better understand what it means to become a teacher. Student teachers' and beginning teachers' hopes and fears are present in their experiences of emotionally challenging situations.

Definition of concepts

In current research literature, several concepts are used to describe similar, or even the same, practice or roles. For example, there are many ways to describe a person studying to become a professional teacher. There are nuances of differences among these words and I intend to make clear the choice of words that I have used frequently.

Emotionally challenging situations

Emotionally challenging situations are the fundamental issue of this project. Emotionally challenging situations should here be understood as situations that give rise to challenging emotions and that are assessed by student teachers as being necessary to cope with, similar to what Pfunda, Dawson, Francis, and Rees (2004) described in nursing. Emotionally challenging situations refer to the individuals' perceived experiences that give rise to challenging emotions, and therefore it is not my ambition to portray a complete picture of all situations that could lead to challenging emotions. This involves day-to-day stress from being a student teacher and anticipated stress working as a teacher (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). In paper one, 'distressful situation' is the concept used to describe emotionally challenging situations, and in paper two 'distressing situation' is used. In paper three and paper four, the term 'emotionally challenging situation' is used, as well as in this text.

Student teachers

'Student teacher' is the term used to describe a person who is going through an educational programme to become a teacher. The term is commonly used in research (Malderez et al., 2007). In other literature, 'preservice teachers' (Ruohotie-Lyhty & Moate, 2016) and 'prospective teachers' (Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990) have been used. I chose the term 'student teacher' since it is an accepted term among several scholars within the field, even though some scholars prefer another wording.

Beginning teachers

Similarly, there are many terms used to describe new teachers who have only been working for a limited time in schools. Here, I chose the term 'beginning teachers', which is also used by Fox and Wilson (2015).

Other terms, such as ‘first year teachers’, ‘novice teachers’ or ‘early career teachers’ are used in research to discuss being new at work (Caspersen & Raaen, 2014; Fitchett, McCarthy, Lambert, & Boyle, 2018; Schaefer et al., 2012). Paper four focuses on beginning teachers during their first year working after teacher education. This does not mean that they worked fulltime or finished and completed teacher education; some of the beginning teachers had assignments to do before receiving a teacher education certificate or degree. Being a beginning teacher does not mean having one year of experience. In the reported research, being a beginning teacher refers to having up to five years of experience of teaching.

Work placement education

I have used the term ‘work placement education’ because of the emphasis on being at a school as a part of the educational programme. Other terms are used interchangeably in research, such as ‘practicum’ (Kokkinos & Stavropoulos, 2016; Zhu, 2017) and ‘field experience/learning’ (Biermann, Karbach, Spinath, & Brünken, 2015). Being at a school in the Swedish context includes shadowing a teacher, and the more progress a student teacher makes, the more responsibility the student teacher is meant to have. Student teachers have supervising teachers as they go through their work placement education. This is sometimes referred to as ‘mentoring teacher’ (Long, 1997), but I use the term ‘supervising teacher’ (Talbot, Denny, & Henderson, 2018) to describe the person that guides, assesses and supervises the student teacher during work placement education.

Swedish teacher education and contextual factors

In Sweden, teacher education has been in the spotlight in political debate. Swedish politicians have used teacher education as a rhetorical tool for reform. Politicians in the Swedish parliament “clearly express that they want to use teacher education as a political instrument of control in the chain of factors that they believe affect students and hence the future” (Forssell, 2015, p. 726). The future is described as threatening by politicians, and the future can be changed with the use of schooling. Therefore, teacher education is connected to improving schools and

society (Sjöberg & Hansén, 2011). Hansén (1998) points towards the decentralisation of education in the Nordic countries in the 1980s and 1990s, and the implication that ensued in teachers' daily work as well as in teacher education adjustments. Hansén (1998) concludes that:

How teacher education should react to new trends is a controversial issue. Teacher education needs to have long-term orientation and thus it cannot be expected to react and adjust its programme to satisfy trends which might be of short duration. (pp. 176-177)

Nonetheless, Swedish teacher education has undergone several changes and is a part of the political debate (Forssell, 2015). It is apparent that in Sweden, education has been used as a political agenda (Beach, Bagley, Eriksson, & Player-Koro, 2014) in several elections. As a result, Swedish teacher education has undergone reform changes resulting in different versions of teacher education.

Swedish Teacher Education has been reformed twice in the last 12 years. Buzz words like professionalism and lifelong learning characterized the teacher education reform in 2001. However, moving from a system with numerous choices of subject specialization and age range, the teacher education reform of 2011 introduced a more specialized and controlled variety of teaching degree. (Edling & Frelin, 2015, p. 316)

Swedish teacher education is divided into applicants choosing preschool, primary grades of preschool class to grade three, primary grades four to six, secondary grades seven to nine, or upper secondary school.

Swedish teacher education varies in length from three to five years of fulltime studies, depending on the intended grade to teach. The most recent reform emphasised learning subjects in teacher education, and strengthened the reading, writing and mathematical content for student teachers studying to teach in primary schools. Teacher education also consists of courses in educational sciences (e.g., educational psychology, curriculum theory, educational assessment and classroom management).

In Sweden, the teaching occupation has been presented as a low-status occupation (OECD, 2015), and there are relatively few applicants for teacher education (OECD, 2015). OECD (2015) points to the decrease in applicants for teacher education as a result of this low status,

where teacher education once was more competitive and selective in terms of applicants. OECD (2015) proposes that Swedish teacher education should become more selective in terms of applicants. Using an aptitude test before admission to teacher education has been debated (Lindqvist & Nordäng, 2018), since applicants for teacher education are deemed not to have the right skills or knowledge to enter teacher education¹. This adds to the view of a school system in crisis. One suggested way to increase status and fix the school problem has been to have more men in teaching, regardless of what qualities they bring with them (Löfgren, 2012). Over time, there has been a decline in the number of male teachers in Sweden (Löfgren, 2012). The findings from this thesis should be viewed in the light of the contextual factors of Swedish teacher education, and the teaching occupation as a low-status occupation in Sweden.

Description of the research project

The thesis and the research presented in the following articles are part of a research project funded by the Swedish Research Council (grant number 2013-2310). The project is being conducted in collaboration between Linköping University and Karolinska Institutet. The project focuses on two student groups enrolled in educational programmes at university level – student teachers and medical students – and their first year in the occupation. The current thesis is limited to student teachers and beginning teachers. The Regional Ethical Board in Stockholm ethically approved the research project (registration number: 2014/1088-31/5), because of the collaboration between Karolinska Institutet and Linköping University.

Aim

The aim of the thesis was to examine student teachers' and beginning teachers' perspectives on emotionally challenging situations they encountered during teacher education and as beginning teachers. The aim also involved how student teachers and beginning teachers cope with emotionally challenging situations in teacher education and starting

¹ From an international perspective, Sirotnik (1990) argues for rigorous evaluations before admission to teacher education because “not just anyone should be a teacher, and not just anyone can be a teacher” (p. 318).

to teach. To explore different teacher education programmes, student teachers studying to become teachers from grades K (preschool class²) to grade nine (age 15) were included in the project. This includes being eligible to teach different grades of all compulsory schooling in Sweden. The research questions were:

- What situations do student teachers and beginning teachers report as emotionally challenging?
- How do student teachers and beginning teachers describe coping with emotionally challenging situations?

² Children aged 6 are entitled to attend a year-long preschool class. Preschool class is voluntary, but municipalities must offer all children aged 6 the opportunity to attend. The vast majority of children in Sweden attend preschool classes. (Skolverket, 2016)

Emotionally challenging situations, emotions and coping related to teaching

The following chapter will highlight research on emotionally challenging situations teachers and student teachers encounter, emotions related to challenging situations, and coping with emotionally challenging situations. In addition, the chapter will also focus on the transition from student teacher to beginning teacher.

Emotionally challenging situations related to beginning to teach

When working as a teacher, emotionally challenging situations do occur. In a Swedish context, frustration and uncertainty are reported by beginning teachers (Lindgren, 2013). Fantilli and McDougall (2009) found in their case study of five beginning teachers that they felt emotionally challenged by the demands of meeting diverse needs of students and by meeting demanding and vocal parental groups. In addition, constantly seeking support from colleagues was described as emotionally challenging. The inexperience and lack of training in these specific areas were perceived as troublesome for the beginning teachers (Fantilli & McDougall, 2009).

In their study, He and Cooper (2011) followed five participants over a period of two years, starting in teacher education. They found that beginning teachers were mostly concerned with challenges they also encountered as student teachers (such as classroom management and parental involvement). Although it was common for concerns to persist, new concerns were added while others were resolved in the process of starting to teach.

After the first year of teaching, classroom management became manageable [...]. Parent involvement remained as one of the major challenges during first-year teaching, and new challenges, including testing pressures, lack of administrative support, lack of resources, and keeping the balance between teaching and their personal lives, were [sic] emerged. (He & Cooper, 2011, p. 110)

Recurring themes of what beginning teachers report as emotionally challenging are heavy workload, bureaucratic work, lack of support, helplessness, awareness of their own shortcomings and a wide variety of tasks to be performed (Flores & Day, 2006; Pillena et al., 2013; Yuan & Lee, 2015, 2016).

Based on their study of three student teachers' perceived concerns before work placement education, Derosier and Soslau (2014) concluded that student teachers' concerns are "person-specific and likely influenced by contextual factors" (p. 491). How a student teacher develops efficacy beliefs to counter the concerns is as unique as the individual. Efficacy beliefs are not universal or chronological, as they sometimes appear to be in literature (Derosier & Soslau, 2014).

Sumsion (1998) conducted a case study of two student teachers who dropped out from the teacher educational programme. The student teachers achieved above average grades and received positive reports from work placement education, stating that they had good teaching skills. Still, they quit their studies, due to challenges they encountered during teacher education. These challenges stemmed from two experiences:

1. Not being valued for their ideals, or being openly rejected for having ideals about teaching and meeting students' needs.
2. Feelings of inadequacy related to not being able to find the right answers to what the best teaching methods are.

Sumsion (1998) stated that student teachers displayed separation and isolation from the teaching community, which has been discussed as prevalent when beginning to teach (Lortie, 1975). Previous studies have shown that student teachers perceive not being fully prepared for the occupation by the teacher education programme as emotionally challenging (Roofe & Miller, 2013), as well as feeling unprepared to manage classes (Akdağ & Haser, 2016; Murray-Harvey et al., 2000; Samuelsson & Colnerud, 2015).

The work placement education in teacher training has been depicted as the most challenging part of the educational programme. At the same time, no other part of teacher education is as highly valued as work placement education among student teachers. In a survey study with data gathered from two cohorts with 173 and 182 student teachers, Murray-

Harvey et al. (2000) found that in encountering the work placement educational setting, student teachers' stress was linked with having high expectations of their own performance. Other issues of emotional challenges reported by Murray-Harvey et al. (2000) concerned workload, enforcing discipline and striking a balance between personal and professional commitments. These reported challenges are similar to what beginning teachers report (Yuan & Lee, 2015, 2016). Student teachers reported less stress in relation to active teachers and supervising teachers, and the majority of the student teachers reported never being stressed about establishing relationships with students (Murray-Harvey et al., 2000). Malderez et al. (2007) found that relationships were a core feature of becoming a student teacher. Relationships were to be created and maintained with students, practicing teachers, university teachers and other student teachers. The level of engagement of the student teacher was seen as being crucial to development in teacher training. As Malderez et al. (2007) also point out, there are challenges in becoming a student teacher and gaining emotional support.

Emotions related to teaching

The emotions displayed in the teaching occupation is attracting an increasing research interest. Emotions are an essential part of the teaching occupation. Kelchtermans (2005) argue that emotions of teaching are a result of the vulnerability of the teaching occupation due to the uncertainty of the occupation. When teachers' beliefs about good education are opposed by reform agendas, this could result in strong emotions, as well as resistance (Kelchtermans, 2005; Lasky, 2005). Research about emotions in teaching is important when trying to understand learning in teacher education, which is still an underexplored area of research, not least in Sweden. When working with this thesis, few studies have been found that represent a Swedish sample of student teachers and beginning teachers regarding emotions and coping.

There has been a growing interest in the nature of emotions in teaching. Uitto, Jokikokko and Estola (2015) conducted a review of the journal *Teaching and Teacher Education (TATE)* and found a significant increase in emotional content. Between 2009 and 2014, the number of papers with the words 'emotions', 'mood' or 'affective' in the title increased. During the period 1985–1990, no papers that met these criteria were published. On the other hand, 38 articles were published

between 2009 and 2014. It is logical that interest has been increasing, as there has been growing interest in various scientific and societal aspects of emotions (Sheppard, Katz, & Grosland, 2015). In a study by Anttila, Pyhältö, Soini, and Pietarinen (2017), nineteen student teachers reported that they experienced more positive than negative emotions in relation to their teacher studies. Satisfaction was the most common positive emotion, whereas the most common negative emotions were disappointment and inadequacy. Toompalu, Leijen and Kullasepp (2017) conducted a survey study and found that dilemmas reported by student teachers related to perceived inabilities. Different periods of transition between the stages of teacher education as well as starting to teach feature inherent worry and uncertainty.

Hargreaves (2005) and Helsing (2007) have used uncertainty as an emotional concept. Uncertainty is a concept of interest with regard to the transition from student teacher to beginning teacher. Helsing (2007) conducted a thorough literature review on the uncertainty of teaching, and positioned uncertainty as being a product of the composition of teacher work. Teachers and student teachers cannot be given the best teaching practice, since the teaching occupation lacks the knowledge and technical foundation of being able to produce the right way of teaching (Helsing, 2007). Frelin (2014) discusses how situations continuously emerge in the classroom that are dependent on the teacher's sensing, timing, knowing and emergence to handle uncertain events when working as a teacher. Teachers must constantly assess the thoughts, emotions and behaviours of others (Helsing, 2007). In teaching, teachers are left with their own associations and assumptions about why, when, where and what is going on with the students in class. Not knowing, and the inherent emotion of uncertainty in teaching, also makes it hard to prepare student teachers for the uncertain working conditions they are about to face (Helsing, 2007). The psychological aspects of uncertainty are viewed with caution, addressing both confusion and vulnerability as possible by-products. Helsing (2007) views the uncertainties of teaching as a potentially serious problem for teachers as they are:

threatening their emotional stability and the quality of their teaching [...]. In investigating the types of conditions that might influence teacher uncertainty, they attend particularly to external factors—issues of school culture and organization. Changes to the structures of schools and teachers'

jobs can reduce the amount of uncertainty teachers perceive and influence their responses to their uncertainties. (Helsing, 2007, p. 1326)

Hargreaves (1998, 2005) has written extensively about emotions in teaching. According to Hargreaves (2005), beginning teachers are depicted as energetic, enthusiastic and intense. They were, however, lacking the comfortable approach of more experienced teachers and were uncertain about staying in the profession. The most experienced teachers, the veterans, were emotionally drained. The veteran teachers were firm in their belief of doing good for students and were change-resistant. Not all reforms met with adaption from the veterans; only if they saw it would not be another trend did they accept the changes. Hargreaves (2005) describes the beginning teachers and veteran teachers as featuring general group characteristics, such as being energetic, while other research describes beginning teachers as being influenced by contextual factors (Derosier & Soslau, 2014). For example, when creating an emotionally safe environment for students with school failure, Frelin (2015) shows this could involve the teacher creating a distance from a stereotypical teacher role. Furthermore, student teachers might end up in a school where the collegial situation might be a contextual factor that creates emotional challenge (Löfgren & Karlsson, 2016).

A theme reported as emotionally challenging was managing to be a caring professional. O'Connor (2008) used an interactionist study of three secondary teachers and found that teachers managed and influenced their emotions and 'chose to care', despite reform initiatives that created challenging emotions. Student teachers identify caring as being of importance in their education. Research has shown that student teachers have unrealistic and ideal notions of caring (Aultman, Williams-Johnson, & Schutz, 2009), not least since caring is a complex matter. Colnerud (2006a) discussed Nel Nodding's contribution to the ethics of care and suggest that the caring relationship can only be complete if the person being cared for accepts the care. When caring was discussed in research conducted with student teachers studying to be secondary teachers by Laetas and Reupert (2016), student teachers argued that neither discipline nor pedagogy would be effective without caring. Still, caring holds no principles as actions derive from the needs of the recipient of care (Colnerud, 2006a). The tensions that caring otherwise gave rise to were, for example, boundaries and barriers around

caring and learning to care (Laletas & Reupert, 2016). Learning to care was mostly not at all visible in teacher education, even though past experiences of working in other domains led the student teachers to conclude caring to be an essential empathic tool in teaching. The lack of teaching or discussions of care was limited to observations during work placement education (Laletas & Reupert, 2016).

Chen (2016) developed the teacher emotion inventory and concluded that the definition of positive emotions was connected to enjoying interactions with students and colleagues and recognition from the school, as well as the teacher's own family and society. The emotions defined as negative, on the other hand, were a result of unfair treatment, competition among colleagues, an imbalance between work and private life, and pressure from society and policy to enforce educational change. Enacting reform is not always performed, and a body of research suggests that reform has consequences for teachers' morale (Day & Smethem, 2009) and leads to ontological dilemmas (Ball, 2003). Ball (2003) discusses ontological dilemmas as acting out reforms, as opposed to using a professional identity to define what good teaching is. In such a way, education reform is part of creating emotional challenge, as well as resistance and inner conflict. Wu and Chen (2018) reported findings from an interview study of 28 primary teachers and found that teachers have different emotions simultaneously; they experience both happiness and pressure from the unconditional trust of a student, and therefore Wu and Chen (2018) suggest that emotions in teaching should be part of teacher education.

Emotions in teacher education

An interview study by Timoštšuk and Ugaste (2012) showed that student teachers' emotions play a major part in the creation of a teacher identity. The influence was salient in the findings, with several of the 45 participants voicing uncertainty about ever entering the profession in the future due to challenging emotions such as fear, insecurity, disappointment, confusion, anxiety, sorrow, reluctance and hopelessness (Timoštšuk & Ugaste, 2012). Malderez et al. (2007) completed 85 semi-structured interviews and collected 4790 surveys to map out the core features of becoming a student teacher. Their findings showed the importance of emotion, acquiring a teacher identity, the notion of relevance and the role of relationships. When student teachers

reported emotions in connection with their work placement education, they used an emotional language including words such as ‘worry’, ‘panic’, ‘overwhelming’ and ‘shock’ to describe their experiences.

In becoming a student teacher, a core feature of the experience was connected to emotions. In relation to this, Hayes’ (2003) study of three student teachers in England found that emotions related to student teachers’ previous experiences of work placement enabled or prevented learning during their coming work placement education. Yuan and Lee (2016) adopted a case study that explored how student teachers navigated their emotions, and these emotional accounts in turn revealed hidden emotional rules about what emotions to suppress or express at the work placement schools. In another case study, isolation, inadequacy, resentment and vulnerability were found to be significant emotions of student teachers (Bloomfield, 2010). Meijer, de Graaf and Meirink (2011) studied student teachers who reported key experiences that the researchers considered to be positive or negative, and phases of disillusion during teacher education. The negative key experiences often resulted in uncertainty and feeling unfit to be a teacher, and characterised the phase of disillusion. Coming out of the disillusionment phase was often a result of a positive key experience. These involved conversations that had followed by professional growth among the student teachers. Emotions and coping are processes in interplay, and can be considered as both individual and situated (Folkman & Lazarus, 1991).

Coping strategies among teachers and student teachers

As used in the present thesis, a coping strategy is defined as the management of a problem in the person-environment relationship (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Cross and Hong (2012) used a case study with two teachers and found that to cope, teachers shifted their focus to the technical side of teaching. Coping with challenging emotions and the ability to shift focus were connected to the teachers’ pedagogical beliefs and their developed professional identity. Hultman, Wedin and Schoultz (2007) noted student teachers’ emotional progression when supervising teachers interacted with student teachers. Student teachers were found to be moving from an egocentric position into a more emotional relationship

with students. Student teachers' development occurred through the mentoring conversations between supervisor and student teacher. The change was mostly unilateral and not collaborative. The apprentice-master relationship stimulated emotional development, and thus coping abilities, among the student teachers (Hultman et al., 2007).

Bandura's (1997) term 'self-efficacy' has been used as a way of measuring to what extent teachers feel competent. Self-efficacy involves being able to rely on producing the right performance and thus influencing the outcome of situations (Wang, Hall & Rahimi, 2015). Teachers with more pronounced self-efficacy have been shown, among other things, to be less prone to burnout and to experience more job satisfaction (Wang et al., 2015). In addition, teachers who report that they have high self-efficacy and the ability to personally handle their stressors are less likely to quit the occupation (Wang et al., 2015).

Coping among student teachers: Self-efficacy, help-seeking and social support

Student teachers' development has been conceptualised as an elaboration of teacher self-efficacy. Pfitzner Eden's (2016) longitudinal study showed that student teachers changed their ratings of teacher self-efficacy over the course of the teacher education programme. Their teacher self-efficacy also decreased after work placement education, and mostly related to classroom management. Hascher and Hagenauer (2016) found supporting evidence in a quantitative study that suggested self-efficacy among student teachers leads to less reported attrition intentions.

One way of coping is to seek help (Gustems-Carnicer & Calderón, 2012). White and Bernbenutty (2013) labelled three clusters among student teachers' help-seeking behaviour in a survey study. They concluded that help-seeking is related to self-efficacy as well as self-regulatory processes, such as delaying gratification. Among the group of student teachers, both help-seeking and help-avoidance were found. Help-seeking among student teachers was primarily directed towards other student teachers. The supervisor at the work placement did not seem to be a person to turn to for help. In the study, student teachers asked for help from other teachers or staff just as often as they did their supervising teacher (Hsu, 2005). Murray-Harvey et al. (2000) also found that student teachers' principal coping strategy was to seek support from

a teacher, which resulted in student teachers showing lesser stress in their second work placement education compared to their first. Murray-Harvey et al. (2000) attributed this to the relationships that student teachers established with the supervising teacher during their first placement. Another issue of social support concerned the student teachers wanting to be supported by other student teachers.

Social support has been found to be crucial when starting to teach (Kaldi, & Xafakos, 2017), and a lack of support is reported as a burden by student teachers (Väisänen, Pietarinen, Pyhältö, Toom, & Soini, 2017). Coping and self-regulation through social support is sometimes enabled among peers (Karlsson, 2013; Väisänen et al., 2017). Furthermore, a study in Sweden exemplified how student teachers perceived reflecting on emotions as a part of educational settings connected to teacher education as contributing to their learning (Ahlberg, Målvist, & Welin, 2005). Even so, the 40 student teachers Väisänen et al. (2017) interviewed in Finland rarely reported offering support to other student teachers. Lassila, Jokikokko, Uitto and Estola (2017) described how emotionally loaded stories in Finnish teacher education were responded to with laughter, silence or humour when studying interactions in peer groups. Student teachers seemed to avoid deep emotional reflection altogether.

There is a need for further research on how coping could be valuable in teacher education, and a gap in the literature that this thesis aims to address. The gap shows a need for further research about how student teachers and beginning teachers cope with challenging emotions, as well as what situations they perceive as challenging. Furthermore, studies relating to student teachers' and beginning teachers' perspectives in a Swedish context are scarce. The objective of this thesis is to contribute to the growing field of research.

The transition from being a student teacher to the teaching occupation

Tensions experienced as a student teacher are enhanced in the transition to being a beginning teacher, making the transition an important phase (Bransford, Darling-Hammond, & LePage, 2005). Research demonstrates challenges faced when moving from the position of a student teacher to that of a beginning teacher. One challenge acknowledged is the disconnection between the educational programme

and the teacher profession (Miles & Knipe, 2018), described as involving a reality shock (Veenman, 1984). Other terms such as ‘practice shock’, ‘cultural shock’ or ‘transfer shock’ have also been used to label the problems involved in moving from one position to another (Caspersen & Raaen, 2014; Paquette & Rieg, 2016).

In dealing with reality shock, beginning teachers expressed having issues with socialisation into the profession and ensuring the professional growth (Veenman, 1984). In a study by McCormack and Thomas (2003), the induction of beginning teachers was studied with focus a New South Wales context, using a mixed methods study. The beginning teachers described tensions concerning the poor literacy and numeracy skills of students and a lack of resources to promote the students’ learning. Other areas of tensions involved wanting time for training and development, a lack of support in dealing with parents and issues related to all students’ needs. These tensions were created due to a lack of supervision in the socialisation process of beginning to teach, according to the study by McCormack and Thomas (2003). Beginning teachers described it as surprising how unsupervised they were when beginning to teach. Even so, many of them had formal mentors. Since the process of induction had not been formalised, the monitoring of the beginning teacher did not include discussions about the expectations and assessments involved in the mentoring conversations. Areas of tension associated with socialisation to being a beginning teacher concerned (McCormack & Thomas, 2003, p. 132-133):

- having a teaching position in isolated country areas;
- being given lower or more difficult classes;
- negative attitude and work ethics from older long-term staff;
- lack of communication between staff, faculties and school executive;
- negative public perception of teachers;
- lack of support from executives to try new things and teaching styles;
- dealing with school politics and staffroom power struggles.

The beginning teachers wished for and expressed the need for informal relationships at work. They wanted to have the opportunity to ask a colleague questions informally, concerning both socialisation issues and teaching processes. Mansfield, Beltman and Price (2014) discussed how relationships with friends and family are important when it comes to beginning teachers’ resilience at the start of their career.

Other professions such as social workers and therapists studied by Le Maistre and Paré (2010) started their careers with less workload or fewer clients. Despite support in form of mentors and less face-to-face teaching, some beginning teachers still have unresolved problems. These unresolved problems related in part to workload and time management when starting to teach (Schuck, Aubusson, Buchanan, Varadharajan & Burke, 2018). Gschwend and Moir (2007) describe the phases beginning teachers might go through, such as romance and later anxiety, moving from the beginning phase into the reality shock, ending up in a survival mode, in other words struggling to keep going. At the end of the first year, Gschwend and Moir (2007) describe the beginning teachers as low in morale, questioning their ability and being constantly tired. Schatz-Oppenheimer and Dvir (2014) studied narratives from a story competition revolving around starting to teach. Beginning teachers sent in stories to a story competition involving their experiences of starting to teach and their induction year into the teacher profession. In analysing three of the stories, they found that beginning teachers displayed different conflicts in their teacher identity construction. The tensions centred on *personal and public-social perceptions of the teacher role, their biographical experiences and the teacher role and a gap between fantasy and professional experience*. In the story concerning the gap between fantasy and professional experiences, the author describes educational philosophy as only saying the right thing at the right time. This deficit description of teacher education is common:

Teacher preparation in its dominant form does not prepare student teachers to face this reality of schoolwork. A more appropriately organised preparation would offer a much broader contact with the totality of the elements that now make up teachers' work. The emphasis would be not only on lesson-planning and the practice of present-day forms of class teaching but also on the exploration of new teaching strategies, participation in the dynamics of collaboration with colleagues and actor-groups like parents and local authorities, tutoring students with special needs and problems, and resolving social conflicts, etc. (Westbury, Hansén, Kansanen & Björkvist, 2015, p. 481)

A common theme is that student teachers are not adequately prepared for the coming reality of teaching. Aspfors, Bendtsen and Hansén (2011) discuss the description of beginning teachers as difficult and problematic, since it is uncritical and the descriptions of challenging

experiences are overrepresented. They also describe how beginning teachers could instead be seen as assets in developing new ideas. In their analyses of narratives from two beginning teachers, building confidence and enthusiasm were experiences that were reported as increasing motivation for teaching (Aspfors et al., 2011).

New among more experienced colleagues

The initial period in the occupation has been depicted as lonesome and without much support (Le Maistre & Paré, 2010). A bleak vision of the work conditions of teachers is painted by Le Maistre and Paré (2010). They list a number of issues concerning teacher work, which are applicable to all teachers, but are harder to handle for beginning teachers. Among these concerns are lower societal recognition, increasing student diversity, increased accountability to policy-makers and students' parents. Beginning teachers are expected to undertake the same responsibilities as experienced teachers (Le Maistre & Paré, 2010). Further, beginning teachers described how they did not seek help from other teachers due to the risk of losing credibility among their peers.

Le Maistre and Paré (2010) describe the ability to satisfice as crucial in learning to endure the beginning of teaching. Satisficing is defined as developing temporary but sufficient solutions as problem solving. They state that there is a need for beginning teachers to do well enough. Not expecting the optimal solution was seen as something that teachers could be taught during teacher education, to take the shock out of making the transition. Paradoxically, Le Maistre and Paré (2010) conclude that satisficing is developed by experience and therefore could not be expected by newcomers to the occupation.

MacPhail and Tannehill (2012) described beginning teachers' agency and individual capacity to act as a determining factor in reacting to teaching expectations. Beginning teachers are sometimes positioned as change agents, and as innovators at schools (Lee, 2013). Even so, MacPhail and Tannehill (2012) conclude that beginning teachers were given limited means to influence current practice.

The micro-political context of schools could make it easier to understand emotionally challenging situations that might occur (Jokikokko, Uitto, Deketelaere, & Estola, 2017). The beginning teachers come to schools where the culture, social and political arenas of each school is already in action. A micro-political perspective is a

critique against more structural approaches of organisational models with too much emphasis on goal consensus, rational efficiency and effectiveness (Kelchtermans & Vanassche, 2017). Jokikokko et al. (2017) explored three narratives of one beginning teacher who had a previous career before pursuing a teaching career. The beginning teacher in question was older and seemed to be less affected by, for example, negative comments and emotions among colleagues. Even so, the beginning teacher was shown to be constantly negotiating the appropriate thinking and actions of being a teacher. She managed to keep her own moral ideology although she had to balance this against the school's micro-politics. In doing this, the teacher had different strategies of actions to maintain the balance. The beginning teacher had strategies that (a) kept her personal professional ethics, (b) channelled emotions in conflict into meaningful action, (c) used silence, and (d), challenged and made the school's unwritten rules visible. All these actions confirm that starting to teach is not a passive action, but a negotiation between the beginning teacher and the school's micro-political context. Another important dimension is that experiencing a role conflict as a teacher could predict attrition and turnover intentions (Tiplic et al., 2016). In a study of narratives from seven beginning and seven senior teachers in Japan, Lassila, Uitto and Estola (2018) discuss tensions experienced by both groups. These tensions involved issues related to independence and dependence, obedience and assertiveness, and loyalty to students or colleagues that beginning teachers had to manage. The study concludes that "for beginning teachers, relational tensions relate strongly to their ability (or lack of ability) to manage the expectations and practical duties of being both an individual teacher and a member of the school's teacher community" (p. 429). According to Lassila et al. (2018), beginning teachers needed to carefully consider their position in relation to senior teachers, which could also complicate issues of support that could be received from experienced colleagues.

Reflective summary

Teachers encounter challenging situations, and the teaching occupation is full of emotions (Hargreaves, 2005). Student teachers handle emotions during their education to become teachers (Malderez, 2007). Emotions are part of the education (Hayes, 2003; Timoštšuk & Ugaste, 2012). In the light of also perceiving situations as being emotionally

challenging, the definition of the situation or appraisal of the situation is important to consider. The problem with the transition to beginning to teach has been widely established over a long period of time (e.g. Veenman, 1984). Still, the problems remain relevant today. This is apparent when considering the attrition rates from both teacher education and the first years of the education (Newberry & Allsop, 2017).

Strategies to cope with emotionally challenging situations could be seen as a crucial part of a teacher's work. In the light of making coping an active component of teacher preparation, help-seeking and developing self-efficacy have been studied as important aspects (Hascher & Hagenauer, 2016; Murray-Harvey et al., 2000). Even so, both these concepts seem to have their own shortcomings. Help-seeking is further complicated by having to know how to ask for support (Caspersen & Raaen, 2014), and self-efficacy relies on having positive experiences, as well as a skilled teacher to observe (Bandura, 1997).

Moving from teacher education with a limited position as a student teacher might include some restraints, as the work placement education school's micro-political arena might not be the same as the school where the beginning teacher starts working. Being new among more experienced colleagues has the potential of letting the beginning teacher establish the teacher role, but also seems to involve limitations. In this position, research seems to corroborate a view of the experience as lonesome (McCormack & Thomas, 2003) and without much room to influence (MacPhail & Tannehill, 2012), but still states that beginning teachers are valuable in the reformation of the school (Fullan, 1999) and society (Forssell, 2015).

Diverse needs of students, handling parents of students and being responsible for students' academic and social growth give rise to emotions that could be addressed in both teacher education and beginning to teach (Pillen, Beijgaard & den Brok, 2013; Yuan & Lee, 2015, 2016).

The picture portrayed by research into student teachers' ability to handle complex and emotionally challenging situations seems to focus on the need for better preparation. This thesis adds to the existing literature with the perspectives of student teachers, and adds to the growing field of emotions and coping in teacher education and beginning to teach. The contribution to the field involves considering

and examining coping from the perspectives of student teachers and beginning teachers. Furthermore, the contribution to the field involves coping strategies that are formulated based on the actions of the participants when handling emotionally challenging situations. Their perception is seen as important, since a person's perception of a situation leads to real consequences (Charon, 2006; Thomas & Thomas, 1928). An important aspect is following student teachers when starting to teach, in order to further develop perspectives of transitions between being a student teacher and a beginning teacher, with complexities set in motion. There is a need for further studies of these processes, especially if attrition and burnout are consequences of educational flaws and a structure that neglects the emotionally challenging components of teachers' work.

Theoretical framework

In this section, the theoretical framework of pragmatism, symbolic interactionism, emotions and coping is discussed.

Pragmatism

Pragmatism is an American philosophical tradition that originated at the University of Chicago with scholars like Dewey, Mead, Pierce and James (Charmaz, 2014). Pragmatism in this thesis will focus on some of the concepts and not the entire philosophical strand of pragmatism. The chosen concepts are based on their relevance to and fit with the present thesis.

One concept of pragmatism that I have used is the view that actions are interpretations of the world that form the social world of which people are a part (Charmaz, 2014). People reflect upon the world and strive to make it a better place and through reflection try to solve some of the inherent problems they face. By assuming that people reflect on their problems, Forsberg (2016) claimed that researchers must respect the empirical world of the participants by reflecting upon the problems faced by the researcher.

I have used the concept of knowledge and theoretical conceptualisations as provisional and constructed, and no longer applicable if they do not work in practice. The only way of knowing, according to Dewey (2004), is through a combination of action and reflection. According to pragmatism, there is a relationship between actions and consequences, and that no knowledge can precede or pre-exist the act of knowing. Humans are part of an ever-evolving universe.

The major contribution of Dewey is that he engages with this discussion from a different starting point so that the either/or of objectivism and subjectivism loses its meaning. /.../ Dewey thus shows that no knowledge can provide us with a deeper more real, or more true account of the world. Different knowledges are simply the result of different ways in which we engage with the world. (Beista, 2010, p. 113)

Pragmatism is engaged in finding working solutions that give guidance, and it seeks “actionable knowledge” (Greene & Hall, 2010, p. 140). The trustworthiness is in the hands of the user, and something stops being

knowledge when it does not work to explain or aid in understanding a phenomenon. Therefore, knowledge is provisional and waiting for a better explanation (Mead, 1934). Subscribing to a pragmatist worldview is an important aspect if research wants to improve the problem it seeks to understand.

The goal is resolution of the problem. It does not mean that the scientist or researcher must discard all logic and rigor; it only means that staunchly abiding with paradigmatic dogma that blocks the movement toward a greater common good is not in the interest of humankind. (Florczak, 2014, p. 281)

This idea is understood and used in this thesis as meaning that the world is an interpretation of the social beings of humans, and is constructed, negotiated and renegotiated in the interactions among humans. A pragmatist view of coping would incorporate how people interpret emotionally challenging situations and what actions they choose to take when in such a situation. Knowledge is situated, contextualised, mediated through symbols and social (Charon, 2006; Mead, 1934). The theoretical framework of pragmatism helps to explain the duality of individual experiences and the social perspective on emotions and coping.

Process and change

A pragmatist framework focuses on process and change. An understanding of the present relies on the experiences of the past (Mead, 2002). This gives rise to new interpretations and constant re-interpretations that constitute a process in which action is central. Change is understood through the process of interpreting and defining situations. The ambivalent part of process and change is the occurrence of what better world the change should lead to. For Dewey (1925), striving to change and to make the world better was a natural consequence, in that people have to make sense of and handle the problems that they encounter. Of course, this is not a process without conflict. Conflicts are ubiquitous, and not always settled in moving forwards. Although conflicts are not always resolved, through handling these problems, the outcome would lead to a better world. Rorty (1999) defines the process and element of change in relation to the social world, even though Dewey only refers to progress and reflection. For Rorty

(1999), the process and change towards a better world includes the social world of people, and the ability to trust each other and to co-operate as the outcome of handling problems.

Concomitantly, striving for a better world does not include the physical problems that people encounter, but the main arena of striving to be better is by being a more open and reflective human (Rorty, 1999). Student teachers do encounter problems, and these are linked to their process of becoming teachers. The reflection in which student teachers engaged involves constantly being part of a continuous interaction about being, becoming and reflecting upon who to become among the variety of teachers they encounter. Student teachers and beginning teachers are trying to find a way of handling the problems they encounter. Finding their way is part of student teachers and beginning teachers being subjected to a fluid state of process and change into becoming experienced teachers.

Handling encountered problems

Dewey (1925) and Mead (1934) assumed people to be reflecting and active individuals, always acting to handle problems. As described by Charmaz (2017), much of life is routine, but “problematic experience – whether it occurs in science, social life, or subjective experience – calls for rethinking, reinterpreting, and perhaps redirecting action” (p. 38). Glaser (1998) viewed individuals as active in resolving their problems. Studying social actions, according to Glaser (1998), is meant to discover the participants’ main concern in relation to a problem they face. The action taken and the social processes generate a resolution of the main concern. When the problem consists of encountering an emotionally challenging situation, the action could be described as coping. In this thesis, student teachers continuously reported situations that they perceived as emotionally challenging and described how they made sense of these experiences, as well as how they acted to alleviate the distress. In handling the encountered problems, the process of appraisal (see below) guided their reflections.

When subscribing to a pragmatist framework, student teachers’ handling of the problems they encountered relies on them being active and working towards finding the best way to handle these problems. In doing so, the encountered problems are treated as social, constructed in the social world of the participants, and influenced by both their past

and present experiences. There is a paradoxical relationship between learning to become a teacher and using their experiences as reflections to guide their striving to handle problems as they arise. Student teachers lack experience of teaching, their reflections on schooling are therefore aimed at creating the experiences first, working, and then reflecting upon the best way of going about solving their problems. The question is: what might teacher education be able to add to the reflections, what kinds of experiences are of paramount importance in teacher education? As a pragmatist view would imply, something stops working as a solution when it no longer serves as useful in amending the problem encountered. Subscribing to a pragmatist framework further implies the need to reflect critically upon teacher education, due both to the evidence of student teachers “voting with their feet” and research emphasising the gap between theory and practice (McGarr, O’Grady, & Guilfoyle, 2017).

Symbolic interactionism

Symbolic interactionism is part of the theoretical framework of this thesis because of the objective to investigate the interactions, processes and perspectives of the participants (Charmaz, 2014). The heritage of symbolic interactionism stems from the Chicago school and gave way to perspectives in this present thesis, but it is, of course, just one angle and perspective of looking at the phenomena discussed here (Charon, 2006). The theoretical framework is suitable for usage in this thesis due to my interest in how the participants make sense of their experiences, how they construct coping and how emotions are constructed and discussed from their perspectives. It is also of use in discussing the actions that the participants reported in the transition between different social worlds. As symbolic interactionism is based within the framework of pragmatism, some of the key issues of pragmatism are also applicable to symbolic interactions (Blumer, 1969).

A concept vital to symbolic interactionism is that human beings are social, interact with others (people, objects and contexts), and use their reflective ability to act. Human actions are created out of the meaning that people, places and objects have for them (Blumer, 1969). Our world is therefore created and constructed through the interactions between people, objects and contexts. In the current thesis, I have used the concepts of emotions and coping as situated, individual, constructed

among people, and performative. In line with symbolic interactionism, humans seek the meanings that situations, places and interactions have for them through the process of appraisal. Coping and emotions have been discussed as constructed out of a problem in the person/environment relationship and based on interaction. Therefore, the usage of symbolic interactionism fits my exploration of the participants' perspectives on emotionally challenging situations. A vital part of the thesis was attaining different perspectives, and focusing on the empirical world of the participants.

The perspective of symbolic interactionism

This thesis investigates student teachers' and beginning teachers' perspectives. A central theme of symbolic interactionism is using different perspectives to be able to make an interpretation, here used in the context of the emotionally challenging situations encountered during teacher education and when beginning to teach. A perspective is one way of knowing about something. Charon (2006) discusses how what we know comes from "carefully thinking and rationally thinking through the ideas we come to believe" (p. 15). Symbolic interactionism is one perspective on trying to understand why people come to act as they do, and a perspective is seen as socially constructed out of different ways of understanding what we come to know. Symbolic interactionism includes a few important and central ideas that I view as pivotal in this thesis.

The first idea is the necessity of understanding a human being as a social person. Humans are embedded in lifelong social interaction with others, and therefore I have focused on the activities among and between actors (Blumer, 1969; Charon, 2006). When starting to discuss the emotionally challenging situations encountered during teacher education, I began by focusing on the perspectives of the student teachers. I was interested in how meaning was constructed through their interactions with me as a researcher, among themselves, and with other actors. When doing so, I also adhered to another central idea of symbolic interactionism: the participants in this research were to be understood as thinking beings. They were involved in an on-going process of thinking and always conversing with themselves, and their main concern, about emotionally challenging situations. This was what I tried to apply as a lens in my on-going discussion with my data. I was looking for how the

participants defined the situation in which they found themselves. The definition of the situation is, as Charon (2006) points out, another central idea to symbolic interactionism. Charon (2006) suggests that there are five central ideas to symbolic interactions. These ideas are:

- Human beings must be understood as social persons.
- Human beings must be understood as thinking beings.
- Humans define the situations they are in.
- The cause of action is the result of what is occurring in the present situations humans are in.
- Human beings are active in relation to their environment.

(Charon, 2006, pp. 29–30)

The participants' own definitions of the situations and environments where they encountered emotionally challenging situations were therefore crucial to explore in the current thesis. This definition is part of the on-going social interaction and thinking and involves dimensions of thinking about the past, present and future. The future of the student teachers and moving from being a beginning teacher to a more seasoned and experienced teacher was always present in the discussion of emotionally challenging situations. It is evident that previous experiences when training to become a teacher, and prior experiences of being a student experiencing different teachers, all had an influence on the on-going process of defining these situations.

The Thomas theorem is important to consider when discussing the participants' perspectives; it is not a matter of what is objectively true. If the student teachers define situations as real, then those situations are "real in their consequences" (Thomas & Thomas, 1928, p. 572). The interpretation of a situation by the student teachers will lead to actions. "In other words, one is always defining situations and responding to situations – one is condemned so to speak, to a world of meanings" (Perinbanayagam, 1974, p. 523). According to the Thomas theorem (Thomas & Thomas, 1928), as well as being evident in symbolic interactionism, it is therefore more important to understand how people define situations, rather than trying to figure out the objective truth. This reasoning has been used in the thesis when emphasising the need to explore the participants' perspectives as valuable in relation to how this influences their actions, and their coping.

The focus of the thesis is on the participants' definitions of situations. How did they use their definition of emotionally challenging situations to cope with the appraised challenges? Moreover, in the thesis, I have focused on ways in which the participants were active in relation to their environment. I have not sought to merely understand how they were conditioned by their surroundings, but also how they acted and formed their being in relation to the environment as active agents. The social world and people's perspectives are therefore tentative and changing, and our perspectives might vary in different situations. Symbolic interactionism offers a way for this thesis, based on pragmatism, to investigate the transition in positions, the social self and emotions as social objects. Furthermore, it offers a way of viewing coping as based on the definition of a situation from the point of view of the actor who participates in deliberate action as well as interaction (Ball, 1972).

The social self

Mead (1934) saw the human being as having a self and therefore addressing the self as an object. The self is addressed in the important interaction that is going on with one's own person; the constant dialogue that is part of the continuous stream of a person's life. In the creation of the self, humans can designate wants, ambitions, surrounding objects and so forth. In the interactive nature of the self, there is also an element of judging, analysing and evaluating different designated things. There is a constant process of change. The self is not seen as static, but also involves people changing (Blumer, 1969). In symbolic interactionism, a social self is "an object of the actor's own actions" (Charon, 2006, p. 72). Humans act towards the self, as it is part of the environment towards which they direct their actions in order to achieve goals or in other ways find useful forms of action. Therefore, the self is the internal environment against which we direct our actions. This is a valuable insight for understanding the participants' choice of handling, or coping with, the emotionally challenging situations described. Mead (1934) emphasised the impossibility of a self developing outside of social experiences. In social situations, we experience ourselves indirectly, from the shared standpoint that observes other people of the same group.

The self is a social object, which means that it is an object towards which humans act. The self, like other objects, changes meaning in

interaction. Objects are social in the sense that a tree holds different meaning if you consider yourself to be a lumberjack, a botanist, an architect, a city planner and so forth. Meaning can therefore change if you change how you view yourself.

In understanding the social self as a reference point, I have been open to the fact that the participants' perspectives are based on an expanding social self as they broaden their social arena, coming to understand more about school and schooling, teaching and education. This expanded understanding of education is meant to alter their way of viewing their own self in relation to what they are to accomplish at school as future teachers. Also, with regard to the challenging situations in school that come to influence student teachers' emotions, the social self is referred to as an object that is useful in relation to handling or coping. For example, participants used talk about their calm manner as a method, and as reassurance, in their coping with emotionally challenging situations. Blumer (1969) established the social self as an important aspect of symbolic interactionism, since it is through this concept that humans can act towards themselves in the same way as they act towards other humans. It has been portrayed as having another person to act towards, in a continuous, ever-changing understanding of how one's own person is assumed to be perceived by others (Blumer, 1969). How do people act towards the self? Charon (2006) distinguished three actions that humans take in relation to the self. These actions comprise: self-communication, self-perception and self-control. These actions are relevant in discussing how student teachers and beginning teachers understand the emotions that they have encountered in relation to the emotionally challenging situations that they have faced.

Perspectives on emotions

As with many concepts, multiple perspectives and an array of definitions exist of the concept of emotions. It has been argued that the fact that there is an infinite number of theories of emotions makes the concept even more interesting (Sheppard et al., 2015). Tomkins (2008) focuses on affects that are universally connected to being human. The focus of this thesis is to better understand emotionally challenging situations, and thus innate affects are not considered since the focus is connected to a specific context; being a student teacher and a beginning teacher and the emotions created in that context. I have used the terms 'emotions' and

‘feelings’ interchangeably, like other scholars such as Hargreaves (1998, 2000) and Ahmed (2012). The psychological conception of emotions is dichotomously positioned with the sociological conception of emotions. Ahmed (2012) uses the distinction between psychological and sociological aspects of emotions. She argues that the psychological framework depicts emotions as produced by the individual, interior or within the individual. In contrast, she discusses the sociological framework as arguing that emotions are produced or come from outside the individual and influence thoughts and actions from the outside. Ahmed (2012) further argues that emotions come from neither inside nor outside the individual, but are produced among and between people and objects, in line with a symbolic interactionist perspective (Charon, 2006).

The growing interest in emotions in teaching and learning has opened up opportunities for new ways of viewing learning using an emotional lens (Chubbuck & Zembylas, 2008; Hargreaves, 2000).

Zembyla’s (2007) work on emotions in education is reminiscent of Ahmed’s (2012) discussion in that it includes three descriptive levels of emotion:

1. Individual experience
2. Sociocultural experience
3. Interactive and performative

Individual experience describes a focus on emotions as a psychological, private and personal response to something that happens. The interest of research connected to this way of viewing emotions is often connected to cause and effect, to what a person does when emotions are created. This does not consider the historical or sociocultural distinctions surrounding the person. On the other hand, the sociocultural experience describes emotions as a response to the situation. Emotions are created in the situated, contextual surroundings of the individual. This is more in line with a sociological view of emotions. The sociological view rejects emotions as consisting of individual self-expression. Emotions are rather part of a process of continuously changing social contexts. Language and discourse are seen as being used to express emotions, and this interaction with others shapes the interpretations of emotions that are used in classrooms and relationships in schools (Liljestrom,

Roulston, & Demarris, 2007). Emotions can also be viewed as interactive and performative. This level includes an ambition to move beyond the dichotomous relationship of emotions as either psychological or socially constructed: “In other words, this approach is situated beyond any boundaries between psychodynamic and social constructivist approaches, and emphasizes that emotion comes to produce these very boundaries that allow the individual and the group to interact” (Zembylas, 2007, p. 63). Emotions are performative via facial expressions, bodily performance and culture, and are viewed as important in the classroom. Language is not the only interaction manifested, but also the body and performative action are important in understanding emotions, and the nature of emotions in the classroom, or in a school. One example is to look at emotions as actions and the emotional labour of teachers.

Emotions as action

Charon (2006) exemplifies the self as an object through an example of emotions. What distinguishes our use of a self in comparison to other animals in relation to feeling angry, sad or afraid?

It has all to do with self. It is the fact that we can look back at what we do. We can see, recognize and understand what is taking place within us: I am angry. I am sad. I am jealous. I am in love. I am afraid. This is what is meant when we say that the human actor is able to see himself or herself as object. We see what we are and what we do – we even are able to look back on how we feel. (Charon, 2006, p. 79)

Emotions are seen as the catalyst of action. Emotions are defined, isolated, controlled and discussed by humans. This involves emotions becoming social; actors use them in reflection and interpretation. Some of these reflections are public and collective, while others are private (Charon, 2006). The most vivid example of how humans are active in relation to emotions is the fact that we manage them. A central component of Blumer’s (1969) thought is that the actions of humans in relation to the self are to cope with the demands of human life. In managing emotions, we also create emotions; we make ourselves feel. For example, we try to feel grateful when we get help or we try to fight guilt. Emotions are produced in relationships and emotions are constructed within the environment of which we are a part.

Emotions are deliberately used, and reflected upon, and methods of problem solving are focused in order to cope with teachers' emotional work (Lanas & Kelchtermans, 2015; Struyven & Vanthournout, 2014). In this way, I found emotions as a social object to be useful in understanding the emotions related to working in a school. Emotions seemed to not always be direct or acted upon in an impulsive way, but rather used as actions in order to establish social relations when working in a school. As Charon (2006) exemplifies, "the actor defines and takes charge of much of his or her emotional life along the stream of action" (p. 137).

In relation to emotions and professional practice, medical doctors have often been depicted as needing to control their emotions. In the profession of being a medical doctor, there are situations that students in medical education describe as being hard to cope with. These situations concern, among other things, anatomy dissections and autopsies, as well as meeting patients with severe diseases and the first death of a patient (McNamee, O'Brien, & Botha, 2009; Rhodes-Kropf et al., 2005; Weurlander, Scheja, Hult, & Wernerson, 2012). Dealing with the emotions to which they are subjected during their studies was an important aspect of their professional role. Some students reacted by objectifying the body of a patient and distancing themselves emotionally (Weurlander et al., 2012). Some studies also suggest that medical students' empathy decreases as an effect of their education (Nunes, Williams, & Stevenson, 2011), which relates to the social nature of emotions as well as to how emotions can be viewed as actions in the way in which humans act towards the self. The success of the teaching occupation, as opposed to some parts of other occupations, relies on the cooperation of the student (Fenstermacher, 1990), which might give rise to conflicting emotions of care and influence. As a concept relating to the professional practice of student teachers and beginning teachers, emotions might be considered when discussing coping and problem solving as actions.

Emotional labour of teachers

Teaching work is imbued with emotions (Hargreaves, 2000), and teachers' emotions are constructed in the social situation of working in a school. This means that the emotions are created within a specific situation, and teachers' emotions are exposed to multiple persons. In

relation to students, the power imbalance between the groups could make this exposure different from emotions displayed in other settings. In fact, teachers use emotions as theatrical tools (Hargreaves, 2005). A teacher can act disappointed, angry, happy or enthusiastic without actually experiencing any of these emotions in order to gain a result in their interactions with students. Hargreaves (2005) points out that a lot of the emotions of teachers, performed and theatrical, as well as experienced, focus on negative emotions connected to teaching work. There is, however, an emotional flux, a roller-coaster of emotions, that student teachers experience (Teng, 2017). A wide variety of emotions are connected, and experienced, in relation to starting to teach (Malderez et al., 2007).

Isenbarger and Zembylas (2006) discuss how the emotional labour of caring in teaching has been viewed as having a negative impact on teachers. The concept of caring by teachers has been assumed to be natural and occur without effort. In fact, the emotional labour or work that teachers do is made invisible and is unacknowledged. The maintaining of emotions can become stressful, and teachers have to deal with issues of cynicism that could ultimately lead to burnout. There are also positive aspects of using caring and Isenbarger and Zembylas (2006) conclude that:

In our view, caring teaching can be associated with both negative and positive emotional labour. On the one hand, caring in teaching may force teachers into a type of emotional dissonance in which what one feels (or wants to feel) does not match with the emotions displayed. /.../. On the other hand, there might be positive aspects of the emotional labour demanded in caring teaching, including, for example, how teachers can and do enjoy their emotional work as carers even if they have to display ingenuine [sic] positive emotions. (Isenbarger & Zembylas, 2006, p. 124)

Therefore, it cannot be concluded that emotional labour is either positive or negative in relation to working as a teacher. Sometimes using emotions could have the effect that was intended, but ruling emotions out of teaching would mean failing to acknowledge an important aspect of working as a teacher.

Emotions as a structural component of teachers' work

Emotions are a structural component of teachers' work (Kelchtermans & Ballet, 2002) and omnipresent in classrooms (Frenzel, 2004). Teachers' work is relational, and their efforts to work with students' progress involve emotions. Therefore, the emotional labour of teachers includes managing emotions to fit the emotional requirements of being a teacher (Isenbarger & Zembylas, 2006). Isenbarger and Zembylas (2006) conducted an action-research study of a teacher and a teacher educator in relation to enacting caring in an inclusive classroom. They found that the emotional requirements of teaching were defined as a set of rules in teaching. These rules included rationalist calm and balanced features that were depicted as suitable. Anger was an emotion that was not favourable in teaching, whereas emotions connected to caring were favoured (Isenbarger & Zembylas, 2006). Caring in teaching refers to several areas, such as caring about students' academic results and their moral education as well as having a cultural understanding of the classroom. In fact, it could be useful to problematise caring as a work-related condition since "the lack of distinction between caring and labour may have important implications for teachers abandoning or remaining in the profession, because the emotional demands of teaching may often go unrealized" (Isenbarger & Zembylas, 2006, p. 133). Even so, O'Conner (2008) states that teachers choose to care, since they negotiate the demands put on them, but during this negotiation they do emotional labour to determine what demands to prioritise and emphasise as being teachers' responsibility.

Coping

The definition of coping adopted within this thesis is that coping is used when a person tries to master a problem within the person–environment relationship (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Lazarus and Folkman (1984) constructed a transactional model of stress in which an imbalance between resources and demands is described as the reason why stress occurs. Mastering this problem would mean tolerating, amending, altering or reducing the tension that the problem in the relationship causes (Admiraal, Korthagen & Wubbels, 2000). This is also in line with a pragmatist notion of studying the emergent problems that people face, which is also a key concept in the methodology of constructivist

grounded theory. Coping is therefore not seen as merely individual, or only in relation to life-altering experiences of major events such as bereavement, divorce or being the victim of crime. For the most part, daily hassles are what cause stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). The concept of coping is a process that involves emotions, and coping is viewed as both individual and situated (Folkman & Lazarus, 1991).

A process antecedent to coping is appraisal. Appraisal is defined as the process by which a person evaluates what is happening in a situation and what action is suitable in response to something that is potentially threatening (Lazarus, 1993). The process of appraisal has been further distinguished as having two levels. Primary appraisal refers to several processes divided into: (1) evaluation of goal relevance/importance and (2) goal or motive congruence/incongruence. The relevance/importance is related to how much an individual is concerned about the goal of a situation (Lazarus, 1993). An example could be if a teacher wants to teach a class and feels strongly about the goals of that specific class.

Secondary appraisal concerns effects of the situation that are not immediate; they are, so to speak, not as direct as the triggers of emotions from primary appraisal. In the process of secondary appraisal, the options or prospects for coping are evaluated. Here, the agency within a situation is relevant. Agency attributes responsibility and accountability for a situation, as well as situational control, to certain individuals. In addition, the problem-solving efficacy of a situation influences secondary appraisal (Admiraal et al., 2000). Agency could be defined as the “capacity to make principled choices, to take action and make the action happen” (Orland-Barak, 2017, p. 247). Agency could manifest as enacted behaviour and/or as a display of self-efficacy, with the inherent constraints of teaching, curriculum and context influencing teachers’ decisions (Maclellan, 2017). Having negative thoughts about one’s ability to handle a situation may therefore increase the strength of a person’s emotional response to that situation. This is also evident in teaching:

A key feature of this definition is the appraisal of the relation: stress is not due exclusively to environmental changes or personality traits. No doubt such a discrepancy between perceived demands and resources is manifest when teachers experience problematic events in the classroom. (Admiraal et al., 2000, p. 34)

Taken together, the appraisal of a situation, the disruption of daily routines and the appraisal of being in control (or not) have been said to constitute the appraised levels of stress. Accountability and responsibility are individual, but also socially intertwined with becoming a teacher.

Frenzel (2004) proposed a model of teachers' emotions in which the appraisal of the teacher was seen as influencing their emotions. The five appraisals related to:

- (1) goal consistency, the key appraisal that values whether students' behaviour matched the goals of the teacher,
- (2) goal conduciveness, which related to students' behaviour contributing to achieving a goal,
- (3) coping potential, which appraises whether the teachers experience themselves as being able to attain and optimise their efforts to reach a certain goal,
- (4) goal attainment/impediment responsibility, which involves assessing who is responsible for whether a goal is achieved or not, and
- (5) goal importance, relating to the question of how important a particular goal is for a teacher.

These appraisals are expected to influence the emotional responses of a teacher. Frenzel (2004) exemplifies anger as being a result of many students showing little interest in the classroom even though the teacher is working hard to provide interesting lessons. Frenzel (2004) is mostly referring to emotions as being a result of classroom situations and interactions, because this is more pronounced in the field of teacher emotions. The current thesis also involves the social and relational aspects of becoming a teacher, or being a student teacher, when starting work and learning to teach. Appraisals refer to individual assessments but, as understood in this thesis, they are not created in isolation from the constant evaluation of the self in relation to process and change. An antecedent process in the appraisal of the coping potential of a teacher involves establishing the relation between available resources and the demands faced.

The imbalance between resources and demands

For challenging situations to occur, there must be an imbalance between the person's available resources and the demands that are appraised in the person-environment relationship (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Karasek and Theorell's (1990) demand and control model describes how some work creates negative stress and emotions. Karasek and Theorell's (1990) model involves four dimensions, indicating that, when control over the work situation is low, while at the same time there are high levels of demand being placed on the person performing the work, stress is likely to be a factor. Control over a work situation refers to the possibility of being autonomous and independent as an employee in meeting the stated requirements. The combination of high demands and low control creates stress, and is likely to be a risk factor for the employee. In contrast to Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) model, this model does not involve individual resources to handle the stress resulting from high demands and low control. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) also stress the process of appraisal, as well as the individual, contextual resources that are available to manage stress.

When the problem of having low control and high demands creates an imbalance between a person's resources and the demands from their work, and stress is the result, the seemingly easy way of dealing with the problem would be to give teachers more control as well as stating high demands on performance. When it comes to challenging emotions, there might be significant control over how a person could cope with the situation, but even so, a limited repertoire of coping strategies. This transactional model of stress focuses on how limited resources add to the stress. This emphasises that the interpretation of a situation, the person's own perception of an emotionally challenging situation, is more important than the event itself. In handling stress, and if stress is to be an issue for a person, the interpretation of the situation leads to stress. This would imply that the very act of thinking or evaluating that one does not have the right resources is significant in creating stress (Folkman & Lazarus, 1984), in contrast with Karasek and Theorell's (1990) model. The imbalance between resources and demands therefore means that having inadequate coping strategies will lead to a lesser ability to handle stress.

Problem-focused and emotion-focused coping

When dealing with issues of stress, coping strategies are central, and there are numerous descriptions of different ways of coping. A seminal divide in coping was established by Lazarus and Folkman (1984) in depicting coping strategies as either problem-focused or emotion-focused.

Problem-focused coping involves trying to change the situation that is creating the emotional challenge. This involves having a sense of control over a situation, and being able to be involved in changing it. Strategies that are usually listed as problem-focused involve problem-solving abilities in relation to conflicts with other people, or finding a solution to carrying out a demanding work challenge (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Even though this means that energy is put into changing issues in the environment, some of the involved strategies are also directed towards the self. A problem-focused strategy might be to involve motivational changes, or “shifting levels of aspiration, reducing ego involvement, finding alternative channels of gratification, developing new standards of behaviour or learning new skills and procedures” (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984, p. 152).

Emotion-focused coping refers to regulating the emotional response to a problem. This involves working with one’s own emotions instead of the cause of the problem. Emotion-focused coping is more common when the appraisal of the problem is that nothing can be done to change its cause. This is central in coping with issues over which a person has no control, and the only way of dealing with the issue is to work with the reaction to a problem that is faced. Even so, relying too much on emotion-focused coping involves a risk of avoidance (Folkman & Lazarus, 1984). Using emotion-focused coping might be a way of changing the meaning of the problem that is causing a stressful reaction. For example, when using reappraisal, the meaning of the problem changes the stressful situation into a meaningful transaction. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) exemplify with reappraisals like: “I considered how much worse things could be” (p. 150), which might alter the way in which a situation is perceived and therefore alter the perceived threat. Other emotion-focused coping strategies, like avoidance, do not change the meaning of a stressful encounter. Another risk that Lazarus and Folkman (1984) point out concerning emotion-focused coping is the issue of self-deception.

We use emotion-focused coping to maintain hope and optimism, to deny both fact and implication, to refuse to acknowledge the worst, to act as if what happened did not matter, and so on. These processes lend themselves to an interpretation of self-deception or reality-distortion. (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984, p. 151)

The distinction between coping as problem-focused and emotion-focused has had an impact upon how coping has been understood, and this seminal divide still holds merit in studies of stress in different disciplines (Herman & Tetrick, 2009; Tsaur, Ku, & Luoh, 2016). The processes of problem-focused and emotion-focused coping are sometimes depicted as one being a facilitator of growth and the other as impeding effective coping strategies. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) argue that both types of coping could impede or facilitate the coping process. This means that a person does not only engage in one or the other type of coping, but rather in both. For example, in coping with having to make a difficult decision, a person might turn to problem-focused coping strategies and make premature decisions in order to reduce the pressure, even though the consequences might be problematic. Another example could be a person having a problem related to gathering excessive information on an issue, which increases the tension of the problem. Here, the strategies impede coping, and in other situations the strategies might facilitate each other. It is apparent that both strategies are used in daily life, and they are intertwined and specific to certain situations. Still, the divide is central for being able to understand how consequences, or the imbalance between resources and demands, are preventing a person from coping in a manner that could be helpful.

Reflective summary

The theoretical underpinnings of pragmatism view actions as interpretations of the world. These actions also form the social world of which people are a part (Charmaz, 2014). To know something is to apply it in action and reflection (Dewey, 2004), and relies on “actionable knowledge” (Greene & Hall, 2010, p. 140). People are in a process of change, relying on both present and past experiences. In striving to handle encountered problems, a better world would consist of new ways of dealing with problems. Dewey (1925) discussed progress and

reflection, and Rorty (1999) considered the social world of people and their ability to trust each other and co-operate. One way of using knowledge is when encountering problems that need to be handled.

Symbolic interactionism helps in investigating the actions that people take to handle a process, and the meaning that these situations have for them (Blumer, 1969). As the world is constructed through the interactions among people, actions derive from the meaning that people, places and objects have for them (Blumer, 1969; Charon, 2006). A central theme in symbolic interactionism involves the self being in continuous inner dialogue, and also relating to the self as an object in this inner dialogue (Charon, 2006). Additionally, emotions are also viewed as actions, or a catalyst for actions. We manage emotions, and a central theme is that we use the self to cope with the demands placed upon us (Blumer, 1969). As such, emotions are not to be seen as merely individual and psychological, but also as sociological, as well as interactive and performed (Zembylas, 2007). Viewing emotions as actions involves emotional labour on the part of teachers, and the set of emotional rules existing within teaching (Isenbarger & Zembylas, 2006; Liljestrom, et al., 2007).

The concept of coping relies on problems that people encounter and have to handle in everyday life, in day-to-day hassles. In the process, managing emotions, and using actions to reduce, tolerate or change the problems being faced are part of an “actionable knowledge”, as well as related to the internal dialogue with the self as an object through appraisal. In the case of student teachers and beginning teachers, the emotional experiences of teacher education and starting to teach, the perspectives presented are valuable to this thesis. Staying true to the empirical world of the participants, and involving their perspectives, makes an important contribution to the field. The process of how emotions are managed through coping as action also sheds light on the possibilities available in the situated arena, and in understanding the appraisal of the coping that is needed, the participants’ definition of a situation, and the coping that this leads to. These theoretical perspectives could help to evolve understanding the individual, as well as the interactional and situated social world of being a student teacher and a beginning teacher.

Methodological framework

In this chapter, I discuss the methodological framework of grounded theory. Next, data collection methods and the participants in the different sub-studies are presented. Lastly, ethical considerations are addressed.

Constructivist grounded theory

First, I wish to give a short introduction to grounded theory in order to place the choice of constructivist grounded theory in context. Grounded theory was constructed out of the critique by Glaser and Strauss (1967) that sociological research was dominated by the use of grand theories. The critique pointed out that empirical studies were only used to verify already-existing theories. Glaser and Strauss (1967) highlighted the need for inductive and data-driven research in which the objective was to discover the theory of social processes in the data. In order to generate theory grounded in data, they suggested a meticulous comparative analysis in which the researchers move back and forth between data and codes during the process of discovering what is happening in the social actions of the data. Today, several versions of grounded theory exist (Thornberg & Charmaz, 2012), with the most widespread versions being Glaserian grounded theory, Straussian grounded theory, and constructivist grounded theory (for a review, see Thornberg, 2017).

In this thesis, constructivist grounded theory has been adopted (Charmaz, 2014). It is based on the theoretical underpinnings of pragmatism and symbolic interactionism. Pragmatism and constructivist grounded theory share the same base of key assumptions and features; for example, pragmatism and constructivist grounded theory view reality as social, and humans as agentic actors, and study people's actions in order to resolve emergent problems. Where pragmatism offers a way of thinking, constructivist grounded theory offers a methodological approach to researching social processes and the actions that humans undertake to resolve emergent problems (Charmaz, 2017). The tradition of symbolic interactionism connects human action with an agentic person who uses their interpretation of a situation (Charmaz, 2014). By using the symbolic processes of spoken and unspoken language, humans interact with their environment and interpret ways of

handling emergent problems (Charmaz, 2014). Therefore, the context in which actions take place are important in the constructivist version of grounded theory, since it “serves as a way to learn about the worlds we study and a method for developing a theory about them” (Charmaz, 2014, p. 17). This means that, even though a theory might be decontextualised, it is important to be aware of the forcing that may be undertaken to fit a theory from one particular context into another field. Charmaz (2014) states that decontextualisation might “reduce opportunities to create theoretical complexity because decontextualization fosters oversimplification and can abbreviate the comparative process” (p. 243).

Since the beginning of the usage of grounded theory, new versions have moved away from a purely inductive focus. In constructivist grounded theory, the researcher is not positioned as being able to put their own knowledge aside and view themselves as a ‘*tabula rasa*’. This was important in relation to how I viewed the research process and when conducting interviews. In the constructivist version used in this thesis, I assumed the researcher position of being a co-constructer of the data (Charmaz, 2014). The constant comparative method used in this thesis was used to create categories and discover social actions for coping in emotionally challenging situations. I chose constructivist grounded theory because of the suitability of the method when the objective of the research is to understand social processes, where the actions and meanings of the participants are studied (Charmaz, 2014).

In the sub-studies, we used tools that are similar in many versions of grounded theory. First, coding and constant comparison are used in all versions, as well as viewing theories as constructed and provisional (Charmaz, 2014; Glaser, 1978). Second, through using the back-and-forth movement of constant comparison, new leads were followed and the analysis guided the way towards new concepts to be further elaborated through data sampling. Constructivist grounded theory views the principles of the method as guidelines (Charmaz, 2014). This means that grounded theory tools were used as flexible guidelines, rather than strict routines. Even so, adopting the principles of grounded theory is a way of allowing researchers to fully explore their data through a structured approach that helps them to “discover analytical stories the data tell” (Thornberg, Permhaus, & Charmaz, 2014, p. 406).

A key concept of the original version of grounded theory is that no theory should be forced upon the data. To avoid forcing theories on the analysis, researchers should delay the literature review until the conclusion of the analysis. Delaying the literature review has benefits, but also potential problems. In delaying the literature review to avoid “contaminating” the analyses with extant theories, important insights and creative usage of previous theories could be lost (Thornberg & Dunne, forthcoming). The important issue is that theories should earn their way into the analyses, and not be mechanically adopted (Dey, 1993). Constructivist grounded theory focuses on the constructing of reality between researcher and participant and emphasises the co-construction of meaning between them (Thornberg & Charmaz, 2012). I have used the arguments presented by Thornberg (2012), outlined below, as a rationale when reading the literature. Also, in creating papers for the thesis, it would have been impossible not to read the literature prior to conducting my analysis for the papers to come in the sequential nature of this thesis. As I prepared the first manuscript, I had to relate the analysis to prior literature, and therefore delaying reading it until the very end was impossible.

Since this thesis focuses on situations that are perceived as emotionally challenging by the student teachers and, later, by beginning teachers, the emphasis on the student teachers’ and beginning teachers’ perspectives is obviously important. Also, coping with the perceived emotionally challenging situations focuses on social processes and the actions of the participants. In viewing power and social processes in being a student or becoming a professional, the entangled social power and social equity of being of lesser status than practising teachers is important too. Constructivist grounded theory is particularly suitable when studying issues of social equity since it considers the researcher and participant as constructing the research process together. This is not to say that there is no power imbalance between the researcher and the participant, but the objective to be true to the participants’ empirical world involves raising concerns about injustice that are discovered during the research process (Charmaz, Thornberg, & Keane, 2018).

As a researcher in this field, and entangled in the educational setting as I am, there is no way of assuming a totally objective position as a researcher – a position that is in any case rejected in the pragmatist tradition (Biesta & Burbules, 2003). Instead, my previous knowledge

has been seen as something fruitful and a way of starting to work with the field (Charmaz, 2014). An aspect of grounded theory is the pragmatist viewpoint on how people handle the problematic situations they encounter, and the actions that accompany the problem. Another important aspect is what perspective people take in order to deal with the problems and the consequences this might have (Charmaz, 2014). The pragmatist viewpoint emphasises people as reflective and active in handling their problems.

Papers included in the thesis

The thesis includes data from four focus group interviews, 72 individual interviews and 68 self-reports. In conducting the data gathering, student teachers attending different universities and teacher programmes in Sweden participated in papers one, two and three. In the fourth paper, beginning teachers were included. The papers are depicted in Table 1.

Table 1. Sub-studies and data of the study

	Title of paper	Data	Participants
Paper 1	Resolving feelings of professional inadequacy: Student teachers' coping with distressful situations	4 Focus groups 5 interviews	20
Paper 2	Strategies to cope with emotionally challenging situations in teacher education	22 interviews	22
Paper 3	Boundaries as coping: Emotional labour and relationship management in distressing teacher education situations	25 interviews	25
Paper 4	Conflicts viewed through the micro-political lens: Beginning teachers' coping with emotionally challenging situations	20 interviews 68 self-reports	20

Background: Swedish teacher education

Swedish teacher education is divided into the study of subjects and pedagogical courses. For lower secondary teachers, it lasts for eight semesters and for upper secondary teachers it is nine semesters. The work placement education is 20 weeks, during which student teachers work with and shadow a supervising teacher. The work placement education takes place in different segments throughout the educational

system. In the educational settings of the first work placement, student teachers plan and execute some lessons, but since these periods are limited in duration, most of their experience of teaching during the educational programme occurs during the later stages of their education. The longest part of the work placement education occurs during the last semester of the educational programme.

During their last work placement, the student teachers are expected to hold several lessons supervised by their supervising teacher. In studying to become K–3 teachers, student teachers study both a social science orientation and a science orientation. In a level 4–6 teacher education programme, student teachers choose to focus more in depth on either social science, a science orientation or physical education. All K–6 student teachers study English, Swedish and Mathematics. When studying to become a teacher of grades 7–9, the student teachers study different subjects, and receive degrees in either two or three subjects, depending on their combination of subjects.

Participants

The total number of participants within the sub-studies was 67 student teachers and beginning teachers (see Table 2). The participants were studying teacher education programmes at different locations across Sweden. They were selected because of their first-hand experience of the research topic (Charmaz, 2014). Student teachers at six universities were contacted using an open sampling procedure (Hallberg, 2006). I contacted all enrolled student teachers via e-mail and they were asked to participate. This was the procedure used in all the sub-studies. All of the student teachers who agreed to participate were interviewed, and everyone who wanted to participate did so. The open sampling procedure seeks to use differences in experience as a way of accessing variations (Hallberg, 2006), in this case, student teachers aiming to teach different grades. The student teachers studying to teach K-3 were from the same university, as were the student teachers referred to in paper one.

A total of 20 student teachers participated in paper one (15 women and five men; aged 21–30 years old) in focus groups. The participants were studying to become lower-secondary teachers for grades seven to nine (students around the ages of 13 to 16 years old) and in various subjects such as Mathematics, English, Sloyd (i.e., Crafts), and

Geography, among others. There were two groups with five participants, one with six participants and one with four participants. As a result of theoretical sampling (Charmaz, 2014; Glaser & Strauss, 1967), five individual follow-up interviews were conducted during the data collection for paper one. These were conducted with three students from the ninth semester and two from the fifth semester ($N = 5$, four women and one man). The participants for the second paper consisted of 22 student teachers. In the longitudinal study used in papers three and four, there were 25 student teachers participating at the beginning and 20 by the final interview (see Table 2 for information about the participants).

In the longitudinal study one student teacher (grades four to six) chose to withdraw from participation after the first interview. The other participants who did not complete the final interview did not fit the criteria for participation due to not working as teachers after their educational programme. This was due to other career choices (two participants) or childbirth (two participants), which delayed the beginning of the participants' teaching career. The four additional student teachers who were not included in the final interview were studying to teach grades seven to nine and three were female and one male. The two participants who chose another career path after teacher education reported doing so due to different reasons. In one case the reason was wanting to have more work experience prior to beginning work as a teacher and in the other the reason was a job offer related to previous education.

Out of the starting 25 student teachers, eight were studying to be teachers for grades four to six, and 17 to be teachers for grades seven to nine. The participants were recruited by e-mail from six educational programmes in Sweden. The participants took part in two interviews and also wrote three self-reports during a two-year period.

Table 2. Information about participants

	Number	Grades*	Age	Female	Male	Non-Binary	Semester
Paper 1	20	7-9	21-30	15	5		5 th and 9 th
Paper 2	22	K-3 (9) 4-6 (13)	22-39	15	7		9 th
Paper 3+4	25	4-6 (8) 7-9 (17)	22-56	17	7	1	9 th First year of teaching
Total:	67	K-3 (9) 4-6 (21) 7-9 (37)		47	19	1	

* Grades here refer to the educational programme that the student teachers were studying

Data collection

During the data collection for paper one, four focus groups were conducted. The other sub-studies consisted of individual semi-structured interviews and written self-reports. The first, second and third papers involved student teachers, and the fourth paper also included beginning teachers.

Focus groups

Focus groups were chosen to allow ideas to come from the group and due to the desire to look for a broad range of factors that might influence situations that are perceived as emotionally challenging (Krueger & Casey, 2015). Another reason for using focus groups was the ability of the participants to take part in a collective sense-making, through the way in which topics are expressed, defended and modified during the discussion (Wibeck, Abrandt Dahlgren, & Öberg, 2007). The primary function of focus groups in the sub-study was that members of the group co-construct and develop their own interactions while discussing a topic given to them by the moderator. The questions focused on their perceptions of emotions during their education, starting with situations that created positive emotions to set the discussion off, and then focusing on situations that created challenging emotions. Questions centred on learning, handling and support related to emotionally challenging situations (see Appendix 1).

In each group, four to six persons participated. The reason for setting this number range was that such a composition has been viewed as a manageable number of participants when conducting focus groups (Morgan, 1996). Having three participants carries the potential of creating a situation in which two participants agree and the third has little room for contributing in between the other two. The argument for limiting the group to no more than six people was that a larger number would limit each participant's opportunity to speak, in the limited time available. During the data collection for paper one, two groups consisted of five participants, one of six participants and one of four participants. The focus groups ranged from 74 to 95 minutes ($m = 80.5$, $sd = 8.62$).

In the groups, some participants were more vocal than others, and in the role of moderator I invited the less vocal members to join the discussion through direct questions. The group of four created a fair amount of space for each participant and also had the advantage of lots of queries and contrasting remarks among the group, which were more common in this group than in the others. On the other hand, the focus had to be maintained. I experienced the moderator role as different from the role of a regular interviewer, as it did not include intervening in the discussion to any large extent. In the role of moderator, I needed to maintain focus, ensure that all the participants engaged in the discussion, and manage participants who tended to take over the discussion, as described by Morgan (1996).

Using focus groups has been said to have the advantage of yielding more and richer accounts than interviews (MacDougall & Fudge, 2001). Even so, some of the participants' information was not expanded or elaborated upon; the other participants did not ask more questions. This could be out of respect for the participants who made emotional remarks, that the subtle emotional expression prevented further questions. The participants seemed eager to maintain the group's collaboration. It has been argued that focus groups are not the most suitable data-gathering tool if the participants are going to talk about emotional subjects (Krueger & Casey, 2015); even so, focus groups were chosen to enable the participants to speak freely about the topic. Therefore, some elaboration upon potentially emotionally challenging situations was missed, and I chose to conduct individual follow-up interviews with selected participants from the focus groups. This became evident while

transcribing interviews, when the need to conduct follow-up questions became apparent.

In line with the iterative approach and theoretical sampling of grounded theory (Charmaz, 2014), the analysis progressed and the concepts and hypotheses constructed from the analysis were further investigated in the follow-up questions. At the beginning of each session, I asked the participants to share as much as they felt comfortable with, and monitoring their emotional expressions was an important task for me as the moderator. I was focused on creating an atmosphere of trust, and all the participants were encouraged to share and contribute, since I emphasised that there were no right or wrong answers in order to facilitate a climate for open discussion (Wibeck et al., 2007). One reason for choosing to follow up the focus groups with individual interviews was an extension of allowing the participants to elaborate on potentially sensitive information. In conducting both focus groups and follow-up interviews, I assumed that the two data-collection methods complimented each other and created richer and more varied data than would otherwise have been possible.

Semi-structured interviews

In collecting the data, 72 interviews (five in paper one 22 in paper two, 25 in paper three and 20 in paper four) were conducted. The interviews followed semi-structured interview guides, focusing on perceptions of emotions during their education, including positive emotions, but more concerned with focusing on situations that created challenging emotions. Other questions centred around learning, handling and support around emotionally challenging situations. In the third data collection, for papers three and four, questions about taking a professional approach and questions about the skills and knowledge needed to become a teacher were included (see Appendix 1).

The choice to use interview data was made due to the objective of gaining a subjective narrative from the participants about their perceived emotions during challenging situations encountered during their teacher education and starting to teach. Intensive interviewing serves this purpose (Charmaz, 2014). An important aspect of conducting the interviews was being attentive to the participants' narratives. During the interviews, I used probing questions, active listening and follow-up questions to facilitate the participants in elaborating upon their

narratives (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). In doing so, I used questions such as: “could you tell me more about...”, “previously, you said” ..., “could you elaborate on that a little...” or just using active listening, in which I repeated what the participants had just said in an inquiring tone. Common follow-up questions I adopted to encourage the participants to expand their descriptions were: “what did you do then?”, “how did you react to that?”, and “how did that make you feel?” The participants then revisited the situation they had described from another angle, giving the situation more descriptive elements. In conducting the interviews, I was focused on creating an open atmosphere in the interview situation. In creating an open atmosphere, I adopted the distinction of the interview situation as either open or guarded presented by Hiller and Diluzio (2004). Participants continuously make assessments of the person conducting the interview and the atmosphere can move from open to guarded. The shift from open to guarded is decided by the interviewer’s actions during the interview situation. If the participant’s assessment is that the interviewer is not the right person to whom to tell more, the atmosphere is guarded and limited information will be forthcoming. In an open atmosphere, participants evaluate the interviewer as being worth telling more about the phenomenon under discussion. In staying attentive to the participants, I tried to achieve a situation that was open. Another way of trying to ensure an open atmosphere while interviewing is to start with general questions and later move on to more specified subjects (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009).

Kvale and Brinkman (2009) discuss criticisms against interviewing which claim that participants merely function as informants for the purposes of the researcher. In this regard, it is even more important to be attentive to the interviewees’ narratives, to respect the nature of the situation and to engage in each interview with the same amount of curiosity and preparation.

Charmaz’s (2014) definition of intensive interviews was also inspirational, and especially the notion of placing “emphasis on the research participant’s perspective, meanings and experiences” (p. 56). It is also valuable to be attentive to unsuspected or unanticipated hints or areas of inquiry. To be surprised and curious about the participant’s narrative and to focus on their accounts of actions was my guidelines in conducting the interviews. This was an important aspect of gathering rich data, but also as legitimation for conducting the interview in the

first place. The goal was for the participants to feel respected and valued throughout the intensive interviewing. At the end of the interviews, the participants were asked to describe what they thought about being a part of the interview as a way of summing up and to let them voice any concerns. Several participants declared it to be interesting and good to talk about these issues, while others just declared it to be okay. None of the participants voiced concerns around talking about the issues raised in the interviews.

The five individual interviews conducted for paper one were 35 to 58 minutes long ($m = 47.4$, $sd = 8.7$). For paper two, 22 interviews were conducted which lasted between 31 and 68 minutes ($m = 44.6$, $sd = 9.9$). In the third, longitudinal data collection, 25 student teachers participated in a start-up interview that was conducted towards the start of their final year as student teachers. Twenty of them also participated in an interview at the end of their first year as a practising teacher. These interviews ranged from 54 to 96 minutes for the first set of interviews ($m = 47$, $sd = 8.7$) and from 30 to 90 minutes for the second set ($m = 67.2$, $sd = 12.9$).

The interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim. Fictitious names have been used in these transcripts and thus in the findings to ensure confidentiality. In addition, all locations, municipalities and other revealing information have been left out. Some of the interviews were conducted using a videoconferencing tool, because of the distance to some participants; in total, 11 (out of 25) of the interviews for the first data collection in the longitudinal data for paper three used a videoconferencing tool. In the follow-up interview, after having worked for a year as a teacher, 16 out of 20 interviews were completed using a videoconferencing tool. The beginning teachers had moved after completion of their education and this meant more interviews had to be conducted in this way, rather than face to face. This was problematic when the Internet connection was unstable or when the participants' devices rendered video unavailable. Loss of video connection occurred on three different occasions, and that was a situation that required even more active listening, as visual clues were not available.

Self-reports

During the one-year qualitative longitudinal data collection for the fourth sub-study, self-reports were collected as a compliment to the

interviews. The student teachers wrote replies to questions, which resulted in 68 self-reports collected on three occasions during a one-year period. In the first self-report, the first set of interviews from the final year as a student teacher were elaborated upon, with questions that were formulated after I had transcribed the interviews. This included specific questions that were created out of the analysis of the interview data. For example:

During the interview, you discuss inadequacy as not being certain of the effect your teaching will have. Is this something you discussed with other students or teachers at the university? Are emotions of inadequacy always connected to teaching? (Example of follow-up question)

In addition, all the student teachers were asked two questions that were the same in the first written self-report. They were asked to write about their final year of study in teacher education and if they had started looking for employment.

The second self-report asked the student teachers to describe their thoughts about completing teacher education and about starting to teach. The third self-report asked about their experiences from their first semester as beginning teachers (see Appendix 1).

In total, the data material consisted of 68 self-reports. The word-count of these reports varied from 101 to 2546 words ($m = 525.3$, $sd = 397.1$). All of the 25 student teachers submitted the first self-report, and 24 submitted the second one, with one participant no longer available for participation. Nineteen student teachers submitted the final self-report. Most of the participants sent in the self-reports directly after being asked, while some had to be reminded, after which they wanted to submit it. The self-reports were coded and formed part of the analysis for the fourth paper. They were also used in order to create specific questions to be used in the final interview of the longitudinal data set.

Data Analysis

A central principal of grounded theory analyses is coding. In this thesis, coding started with an *initial coding* in which coding of the data was performed line-by-line, word-by-word or segment-by-segment (Charmaz, 2014). The words used in coding the data were close to the data and summarised the line, word or segment. Therefore, I have operated to maintain the grounded theorists' ambition to "create their

codes defining what the data are about” (Thornberg & Charmaz, 2012, p. 44). These first sets of coding were done at a “good pace” and were kept short, precise and active to make sure that they fit the data (Thornberg & Charmaz, 2012, p. 46). Initial codes resulted in a multiple choice of questions to consider through constant comparison.

A major method during the analysis was to constantly compare codes with codes, data with data, codes with data and clusters of codes with data and other codes. Codes were seen as provisional, and open to change, modification or refinement. During the process, the data were clustered, refined and sorted in terms of their differences and similarities (Thornberg, 2017). One way of ensuring constant comparison is to use memos to write down any discoveries of differences. In the memos, I created comparisons that would otherwise have been left unexplored. Hallberg (2006) identified constant comparison as being the “core category” of grounded theory. Thus, the concepts of both constant comparison and memo writing are central to the usage of grounded theory (Thornberg & Charmaz, 2012), and also as methods used in this thesis. By choosing the most frequent or significant initial codes to construct new codes, the process of *focused coding* was utilised. These codes began to explain larger segments of data (Charmaz, 2014). The selected initial codes were used to compare new focused codes with both the data and initial codes. In the different studies there was a variety of focused codes, such as *hopelessness*, *change advocacy* or other revised focused codes, such as *placing blame* and *shaming of teachers* (more examples are presented in Table 2).

The process of coding and constant comparison could be a task of infinite proportions. How does the researcher know when to stop? Eventually, saturation was achieved which indicated that the coding of data was complete. When no new concepts or surprising discoveries were being made in the data, the coding and constant comparison moved over to the constructing of a theory (Charmaz, 2014). It should be acknowledged that grounded theory approaches, independently of which one is used, is informed both by inductive and abductive reasoning. The relationship between inductive and abductive strategies is viewed as first inductively creating codes as categories and then exploring these categories abductively (Charmaz, 2014), without losing the perspectives of the participants.

Constructivist grounded theory brings people and their perspectives into the

foreground. How we do it resembles the pragmatist logic of abductive reasoning. We move back and forth between stories and analysis and thus create a delicate balance between the evanescence of experience and the permanence of the published word (Charmaz, 2017, p.41).

In using Glaser's (1998) concepts of *theoretical coding*, the studies that make up this thesis used some of the theoretical codes exemplified in Glaser's (1978, 1998, 2003) code families, which are based on the logic of abduction (Kennedy-Lewis & Thornberg, 2018).

In the analysis of the sub-studies included in this thesis, theoretical codes had to earn their way into the analysis (similar to other grounded theories; for example, Thornberg, Halldin, Bolmsjö, & Petersson, 2013). Theoretical codes are part of Glaser's (1978, 1998, 2003) version of grounded theory and refer to a set of theoretical concepts that are commonly used in the analysis of possible relations between the focused codes or categories.

Glaser (1978, 1998, 2003) set up a list of theoretical code families to help the researcher enhance the process and steer them away from only using everyday knowledge to understand the social processes of a phenomenon. Theoretical codes were used as analytical tools, but did not force themselves upon the data (Thornberg & Charmaz, 2012, 2014). The theoretical codes can be used in combination, and Thornberg and Charmaz (2012) argue that:

By possessing a broad repertoire of theoretical codes, researchers can view their data and categories from as many different relevant theoretical perspectives as they can envision in order to explore and evaluate the usefulness of a lot of theoretical codes for relating, organizing, and integrating the categories and codes into a grounded theory. (Thornberg & Charmaz, 2012, p. 53)

Theoretical codes are by no means restricted to the list that Glaser established and Thornberg and Charmaz (2014) argue that researchers should go beyond Glaser's lists of code families and view all relevant extant theories as helpful in enhancing the analyses. For example, the theoretical code families of *strategies* and *process* were used in the analysis (Glaser, 1998). In Table 3, the usage of initial and focused codes is exemplified. The interview is from the second period of data collection.

Table 3. Examples of codes

Interview data	Initial code	Focused code
Vendela: That I would think it would be difficult with home situations and to feel sorry for them and maybe, but now I noticed that I can cut of and that you don't always think about how they are doing at home, because that is not possible.	Home-problems-thinking-reducing	Code of conduct
H: No		
Vendela: but you do what you can and if I notice something is wrong I will warn, or talk to the counselor or something. But I was really worried about that in the beginning.	Warn-needing (other adults)	Responsibility assessment
H: To cut of or...		
Vendela: yeah, that I would have a hard time if they had difficulties at home or if they did not have any shoes I saw myself maybe buying shoes for them and stuff like that.	Caring by providing	Caring conduct
H: Yes		
Vendela: But now I understand that is not possible. I have thought about it sometimes like that boy won't go to the Lego exhibition this weekend because his mom doesn't go out.	Distance-thinking	Code of conduct
H: no		
Vendela: and then maybe I had wanted to go with him, but now I understand that I can't. But I have those thoughts sometimes. That I want to take care of them a bit. But I understand it is not possible.	Revised- caring Caring created as impossible	
H: How come?		
Vendela: Because I think there would be no stopping it.	Reasoning for limitations of caring.	Responsibility assessment: self-protection

Memos

During the process of constant comparison and coding, I wrote memos. These memos were used for writing down things that came across as interesting ways of looking at the codes, data or applicable cluster of codes, and that might be of significance to the thesis. The memos went from being free writing and memory perceiving to looking more and more like text that could be used in the end product of the research (Charmaz, 2014; Thornberg & Charmaz, 2012, 2014). Memo writing

was a way of keeping an inner dialogue going as I coded and analysed, and the memos were not constrained by form or language (Thornberg & Charmaz, 2014). At the beginning, I wrote the memos in Swedish, but later I changed to English. The memos were a way of not forgetting concepts I wanted to explore or questions that came up during the course of the analysis. An example of my usage of memo-writing is illustrated in the excerpt below. This memo was written during the transcription of a focus group.

Distress and lacking self-efficacy in the occupation are projected on the preconditions of the occupation and the students' insufficient education and in that way create relief. They do not have to take responsibility. It is about something outside of themselves. It becomes a strategy of action to handle distress and feelings of inadequacy to look for outside factors that they cannot control (time, content of the education). It also diminishes the content of the educational programme and perhaps in prolongation the construction of the dichotomies between reality and the university is upheld. They portray themselves as competent student teachers, in comparison with "the others", and I wonder how they come to be so competent without the educational programme's influence. (Memo, 2015)

The memos were sorted and used during the comparison with codes. They helped me to take a step back, which "leads us to explore our codes" (Thornberg & Charmaz, 2012, p. 55). Memo writing was an essential way of keeping the theory grounded in the data and the memo sorting that followed helped me to compare codes and clusters of codes. Memos were written, compared and sorted throughout the process, adding to the analytical congruence of the sub-studies comprising the thesis.

Theoretical sensitivity

Being sensitive to the data is an essential part of the grounded theory analysis of this thesis. I had the ambition of going into the process with an open mind. Since there is no way of excluding what the researcher already knows about a field, I had the ambition of being open to the data, rather than believing it is possible to be a blank page (Dey, 1993). It has been essential to have the ability to be curious about the material and have the courage to be surprised. The issue of having sensitivity when it comes to extant theories is related to delaying the reading of research literature. I have regarded the arguments put forth by Thornberg (2012)

that there are several reasons why it is problematic to delay the literature review in research in the way that earlier versions of grounded theory suggested (Glaser, 1978, 1998; Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

Thornberg's (2012) arguments are:

1. That it is impossible for a researcher to unlearn already-established knowledge about the subject matter.
2. It could be seen and used as a critique that GT research is "lazy" or "easy".
3. When reading literature from other fields to enhance theoretical sensitivity, as argued by Glaser, a researcher could run out of possible fields to study if the criterion is that a researcher must not read literature prior to the investigation.
4. To receive funding, a researcher must investigate the field in order to make applications that stand a chance of being accepted so as to not write applications suggesting the replication of existing research.
5. Not reading literature in the field and procrastinating over the investigated field might be establishing a loss of knowledge.
6. In upholding the criterion of not reading prior to the analysis, the researcher is discredited by not having the ability to avoid forcing theories upon the data or to recognise links between data and theories.

The terms of theoretical sensitivity and theoretical playfulness have been a part of the process of writing this thesis and in the production of memos, in order to be able to try things out in an open and curious way. The memos and the drafts were later tried against the data, codes and focused codes and added value to the process of constructing the analysis for the four studies included in the thesis. Theoretical playfulness symbolises the need for a research project to be creative (Charmaz, 2014; Thornberg, 2012). The term was also used to expand the analysis into trying out different theories and other external material in order to be creative and allow surprising and original processes to take place (Thornberg, 2012). Research has not been seen as a mechanical process (Charmaz, 2014) and, therefore, maintaining the

process of the research as open, flexible and meticulous in handling and comparing the data has been the objective of this thesis. Grounded theory relies on the sense of abduction that is understood as creating (or selecting) a hypothesis that best helps to explain a particular set of data, and by using this model to further investigate the hypotheses. Here, the objective was to “go beyond the data and pre-existing theoretical knowledge by modifying, elaborating upon, or rejecting theory if needed, or putting old ideas together in new ways to examine, understand, and explain the data” (Kennedy-Lewis & Thornberg, 2018, p. 52). The logic of abduction has been used in order to explain, further investigate and challenge prior knowledge about coping with emotionally challenging situations in teacher education.

I conducted all the interviews in the reported papers; the co-authors contributed work with the interview guides, as well as guidelines for the interviews. When working on papers one, three and four of the thesis in the research group, I conducted the coding in dialogue with the fourth author of the papers. All the authors then critically scrutinised our work, resulting in further elaboration. The trustworthiness of the coding was enhanced through critical dialogue procedures within the research group.

Ethical Considerations

This research project was ethically approved by the regional ethics board in Stockholm (registration number: 2014/1088-31/5) because of the joint cooperation in the project between the Karolinska Institutet and Linköping University. In the process of conducting the research, several ethical considerations should be noted.

The Swedish Research Council’s ethical guidelines were followed in the project (Vetenskapsrådet, 2002, 2011). These ethical guidelines comprise of gaining informed consent, stressing that participation in the research is voluntary, that the data collected will only be discussed in the research and that participants will be anonymous (Vetenskapsrådet, 2002, 2011). First, before doing the research, informed consent was obtained from all the participants. They were informed about the use of the material collected and that the research was to be published in scientific journals, and was a part of my thesis. The participants were also informed that the results might be published in other relevant forums to disseminate the results of the research. All participants were

informed that they could stop being a part of the project at any time. All the material, consent forms and audio files were kept in locked compartments. Audio files were saved on password-protected external hard drives.

When conducting focus group interviews, I used the question that Sinding and Aronson (2003) formulated: “How might my interviews unsettle the accommodations individuals have made? /.../ and what will I do when accommodations are unsettled and failures exposed?” (p. 114). Asking participants to reveal sensitive issues within a group also required ethical consideration, in order to avoid unsettling people and exposing failures. This was discussed with the participants before each focus group began. Also, the moderator had an especially important role in facilitating and navigating the discussion. It was important for the moderator to be sensitive to facial expressions and the tone of voice of the participants (Sherriff & Gugglberger, 2014).

All the participants were informed about confidentiality and about being anonymous in the presentation of the material. Also, before each focus group, we discussed how the discussion during the session should be kept within the group. During the other interviews, confidentiality was also discussed.

Summary of papers

Three of the papers have focused on student teachers' perspectives of, and coping with, emotionally challenging teacher education situations. The fourth paper dealt with beginning teachers process of moving from being a student teacher into becoming a beginning teacher. All papers have used a grounded theory approach. In paper one, focus group interview data and individual interview data was included. In papers two and three, individual interviews were conducted. In paper four, the data material consisted of individual interviews and written self-reports.

Paper I

Resolving feelings of professional inadequacy: Student teachers' coping with distressful situations. Henrik Lindqvist, Maria Weurlander, Annika Wernerson, and Robert Thornberg (2017). *Teaching and Teacher Education*, Vol. 64, 270-279.

This study aimed to examine how student teachers perceive coping with emotionally challenging situations during their teacher training. Four focus groups were conducted with a total of 20 participants. The groups consisted of two groups in the middle of their educational programme and two groups at the end of their education. In addition, five individual interviews were conducted. The individual interviews were carried out with three students in their last semester and two students in the middle of their education. During the focus groups, the moderator aimed at not directing the discussion too much, but letting the participants question each other. The moderator made sure the discussion did not veer too far from the subject and managed participants who took over, making sure everyone had the opportunity to take part in the discussion. The individual interviews were carried out with participants who discussed topics that were not extensively elaborated on within the focus groups. The questions used during the focus groups included positive and negative experiences in teacher education, emotionally challenging situations that the student teachers had been exposed to, and situations that they worried about in relation to becoming teachers. Also questions about support they thought they had received and how they thought they had handled the situation were included. The questions for the individual

interviews were formulated from the initial focus groups in accordance with the topics discussed.

To analyse the data, grounded theory methods were used. The analysis showed that student teachers' main concern was how to retain positive professional identity development by managing threatening feelings of professional inadequacy. The feelings of professional inadequacy were divided into powerlessness, limited means of action and uncertainty. Powerlessness was in relation to not being able to have any impact over a situation, and typically involved not being able to change a situation for students in complicated social situations. Limited means of action resonated from the time aspect and restrictions on what a student teacher is engaged in during work placement education at a school. Uncertainty was defined as student teachers reporting that it was hard to anticipate students' emotions or reactions when working at a school.

In resolving professional inadequacy, student teachers used strategies of modifying professional ideals, being dependent on colleagues and building experience. In modifying professional ideals, student teachers acknowledged the need to have a less emotional response to emotionally challenging situations, and to accept what they have little influence over. Another strategy was being dependent on colleagues. The student teachers thought about seeking help from colleagues for advice on coping as well as for help with teaching materials. Even so, they were sometimes ambivalent towards the teachers they came into contact with, as they also perceived professional inadequacy among teachers they met. Despite this, the most common way reported to handle complicated situations in the future was seeking support. The last strategy involved building experience over time. The importance of building experience was due to the fact that student teachers depicted themselves as ill-prepared for working in a school. This is exemplified by how a student teacher thought about working part-time, using free time to gather a substantial amount of lesson material, and having time for reflection.

The strategy of modifying ideals was depicted as an acceptance strategy, where the only way to resolve inadequacy is to accept that little can be done. Being dependent on colleagues and building experience were strategies based on postponing; this could not be practised or done before starting to work. Student teachers' coping using postponing and

acceptance strategies might influence their ability to learn from the distressful situations they encounter during teacher education. This moderate learning, depicted as not being possible to achieve outside the context of schools, is likely to inhibit learning to resolve distressful situations in teacher education. The paper discusses possible implications for teacher education, such as structured mentoring conversations.

Paper II

Strategies to Cope with Emotionally Challenging Situations in Teacher Education. Henrik Lindqvist (accepted for publication in *Journal of Education for Teaching*).

The aim of this study was to investigate student teachers' coping with emotionally challenging situations in teacher education. The participants in the study were student teachers who were studying to teach grades F-3 and 4-6. In the study, 22 participants were interviewed individually following a semi-structured guide. The use of follow-up questions, asking probing questions and being attentive to the tone and facial expression were important in order for the interviewer to create an atmosphere where the participants felt open to discuss issues with the interview (Hiller & Diluzio, 2004). The interview questions included (a) reasons for working as a teacher, (b) perceived emotionally challenging situations in teacher education, and (c) worries about working as a teacher in the future. The interviews were recorded and transcribed, and varied from 31-68 minutes in length. In the analysis I used grounded theory tools, phases of coding, constant comparison and memo writing.

The findings showed that the main concern of the student teachers was formulated as focusing on the discrepancy between ideal conceptions and experiences. This discrepancy included:

- Teaching practice being taught to be performed a certain way but then not being practised accordingly at the university or at work placement schools.
- Supervising teachers and university teachers acting towards student teachers or students in a way that the student teachers described to be unprofessional (not caring, racist, sexist etc.).

- Engagement in social issues. Student teachers described having altruistic motives for choosing a teaching career, and acting for the betterment of all students was seen as being potentially exhausting. The discrepancy focused on what student teachers wanted to do even though they experienced the action as being impossible to achieve.

According to the analysis of the participants' reports, in coping with the aforementioned discrepancy three strategies were used: change advocacy, collective sharing and/or responsibility reduction.

Change advocacy referred to trying to change the origin of the distress. When engaging in influencing practice, or university courses, student teachers thought the change would lead to a better fit with their ideals. When adopting the change advocacy strategy, student teachers thought schools could be influenced to perform better. In doing so a confrontation would inevitably take place to spark the change. The student teachers found the strategy to be troublesome, since it was sometimes hard to uphold as a newcomer at schools, and as a student teacher. Nonetheless, change advocacy was sometimes depicted as inevitable, as someone needed to engage in making things better.

With the coping strategy of collective sharing, student teachers shared their experiences with other members of the collective who had similar experiences. Collective sharing offered the opportunity to take comfort in other members of the group having the same problems as the student teachers experienced. The strategy of collective sharing was sometimes intentional, but also sometimes unintentional. They witnessed teachers and student teachers, and this could alleviate their concerns. For example, they could feel comfort and not blame themselves if students did not listen, as all teachers seemed to have the same problem.

The last strategy was responsibility reduction, which involved distancing themselves from the situation by trying to conclude reasonable responsibility in the professional role. This could mean that the student teachers focused on the professional role of the teacher, and limited their engagement in issues they thought of as not being part of the professional role. Student teachers also refrained from playing an active part in the school climate, and discussions that they found to be inappropriate, which could happen in staff rooms. These coping

strategies were not exclusive to each other, but student teachers could move between using these strategies. The practical use of the study result could involve incorporating these strategies into teacher education. The strategies could be an educational content that could enable a discussion about what types of strategies could be used to better prepare student teachers for the emotional landscape of teaching.

Paper III

Boundaries as coping: emotional labour and relationship maintenance in distressing teacher education situations. Henrik Lindqvist, Maria Weurlander, Annika Wernerson, and Robert Thornberg (re-submitted).

The study examined the first interviews in a two-year qualitative longitudinal dataset. The aim of the study was to examine student teachers' experiences of, and perspectives on, emotionally challenging situations during teacher education, as well as how boundaries related to coping with emotions evoked in these situations. In order to explore student teachers' perspectives and experiences, a constructivist grounded theory design was adopted. As a theoretical foundation, symbolic interactionism and the focus on subjective meanings as constructed in interaction were used as a starting point. In the ongoing interaction with the self and others, symbolic interactionism embraces the pragmatist viewpoint of people as concerned with resolving their problems of everyday life as active individuals (Charon, 2007).

The participants in the study included 25 student teachers who were studying at six different universities in Sweden. The student teachers were studying to teach grades four to six (students aged ten to twelve) and seven to nine (students aged thirteen to sixteen). Seventeen student teachers were studying to teach grades seven to nine and eight participants were studying to teach grades four to six. There were seven male and seventeen female participants, as well as one non-binary person. Their ages ranged between 22 and 56 years old.

The data consisted of semi-structured interviews that were between 57 and 96 minutes long. Grounded theory tools of coding, using initial, focused and theoretical coding, guided the analysis.

The findings demonstrated that the main concern of the participants was to navigate the imbalance between resources and demands.

Establishing boundaries was depicted as indispensable when starting to work, and boundaries were to be tested, negotiated and reformulated. For example, navigating the boundaries of a teacher's role was exemplified when discussing intervention in a family where the student seems to be living under poor conditions. In the teacher's desire to make the situation better, the lack of resources was made explicit, and boundaries were needed in order not to be overwhelmed with emotions. In navigating the gap between demands and resources, student teachers established boundaries as a means of coping. Boundaries were set in relation to emotional labour and relationship maintenance. Emotional labour included boundaries regarding overwhelming emotions of sympathy, anger and worry.

In relation to relationship maintenance, student teachers found that boundaries were to be set in relation to students, students' parents and colleagues. Student teachers thought of having a relationship with students as a tool for instilling change. This was not seen as being a friend, but as a dependable grown-up. This boundary needed to be tested, and student teachers did not always know how this was to be accomplished. For example, boundaries in the relationship with students meant not constantly thinking about students who might be in a problematic situation. Boundaries connected to future colleagues related to student teachers having met teachers they perceived as performing with low quality, and how to handle relationships with colleagues they did not agree with. When it came to boundaries and relationships with students' parents, these were connected to being available and having excessive contact with some parents.

In setting emotional boundaries, student teachers thought they had to suppress and establish boundaries for:

- Sympathy: Not having excessively strong emotions of sympathy in relation to caring for students' well-being would protect against potentially exhausting engagement.
- Anger: Anger was discussed as a necessary evil, but not as scolding students. In this way, anger had to be controlled.
- Worry: Worry related to fears about the student teachers' future performance and, for example, the nature of the work, their ability to perform the job, and their suitability for the position.

The grounded theory of using boundaries as a way of coping involved student teachers main concern of trying to navigate the imbalance between resources and demands. In the student teachers' narratives, boundaries were depicted as a tool to regulate their work environment and handle demands, and to mediate emotions and relationships. The goal of using boundaries entailed finding the best practice as well as protection against overwhelming emotions and potentially exhausting work.

The findings are discussed in view of current literature on boundaries as used by newcomers to different professions, and in relation to boundary work among different groups. The paper also discusses some implications for teacher education.

Paper IV

Conflicts viewed through the micro-political lens: Beginning teachers' coping with emotionally challenging situations. Henrik Lindqvist, Maria Weurlander, Annika Wernerson and Robert Thornberg (submitted).

This paper examined the two-year qualitative longitudinal data gathering process involving the participants from paper three. Written self-reports and interviews were collected during the period when the participants ended their final year of teacher education and began their first year of teaching. The aim was to investigate the emotionally challenging situations involved in starting to work at a school in the narratives of beginning teachers. We aimed to investigate how beginning teachers' perspectives and definitions of emotionally challenging situations guided their actions and made coping possible. We used the micro-political framework to understand starting to work at a school, as this helped us to investigate power structures and relationships within the school that influence beginning teachers.

The number of participants decreased over the data collection period due to participants not meeting the inclusion criteria of starting to teach during the year. Two of the participants did not start working due to childbirth, two did not start working as teachers for other reasons, and one participant declined further participation after the first interview. All in all, 20 student teachers out of 25 in paper three started

working as teachers immediately after teacher education. They took part in interviews after having completed their first year of teaching and also submitted self-reports. The interviews were 30-90 minutes long ($m = 66.9$, $sd = 12.6$). One of the self-reports was submitted before graduation, one after graduation and one after the participants had worked for one semester. In total there were 68 self-reports ranging from 101 to 2546 words in length ($m = 525.3$, $sd = 397.1$). All 25 participants took part in the first self-report, 24 participants in the second and 19 participants in the last self-report. The participants ranged from 22 to 56 years of age. Six of the student teachers were male, thirteen were female and one was non-binary. The teachers started working and completed their education for grades 4-6 (age ten to twelve) and 7-9 (age thirteen to sixteen). Grounded theory tools were used. The theoretical underpinnings relied on pragmatism and symbolic interactionism.

The findings suggest that beginning teachers processed their previous understanding of the use of boundaries to cope. In starting to teach, beginning teachers' main concern was to resolve conflicts within the school's micro-political setting. These conflicts were portrayed as interpersonal (conflicts with students, parents or colleagues) or intrapersonal (conflicts related to their teaching ideals, boundaries of time and engagement, and suppression of emotions).

Interpersonal conflicts related to teaching methods (colleagues), distrust (colleagues and parents), and conflict in the teacher-student interactions (students). In resolving these conflicts, beginning teachers used strategies of collaboration, conformity, autonomy and influencing.

Collaboration involved finding a single ally among colleagues, being part of a cooperating teacher team, or seeking support from the principal or other support staff.

The strategy of conformity is here understood as aligning with the school's value system. This was to be done by blending in, getting to know the school, letting the principal decide and trusting the principal's decisions.

Influencing, on the other hand, involved trying to change the school structure. It involved experiencing a school setting that was not in line with one's own ideal of teaching, and to manage this conflict the beginning teachers set out to change the school structure, which they talked about as being hard to accomplish.

The last strategy related to being autonomous. Autonomy was defined as having belief in one's own ability to succeed as well as being autonomous in relation to colleagues. This involved not taking advice first hand, re-working shared material or maintaining a lesson plan that the beginning teacher believed in even though other staff advised against it. Conformity and collaboration were seen as a reciprocal relationship, as were autonomy and influencing, but finding the right person to collaborate with could also be a part of the influencing strategy. In light of the relationships between these coping strategies, beginning teachers who used influencing and autonomy were more inclined to have turnover intentions or thoughts of attrition from the profession. The results are discussed in the light of existing literature. A few suggestions are made for possible better adaption to the needs of beginning teachers, where addressing the micro-political setting of a school might be a valuable addition to teacher education.

General discussion

The aim of the thesis was to examine student teachers' and beginning teachers' perspectives of, and coping with, emotionally challenging situations they encounter during teacher education and when starting to teach. Emotional challenges are important in terms of revisiting the complexities of developing an identity as a teacher during a transformative period in teacher education and when beginning to teach.

Richmond, Floden and Drake (2017) reported enduring dilemmas of teacher education, such as being general or specific in relation to teaching in different contexts. Encountering general teaching that is context-agnostic might enhance the experience of teacher education as lacking precision when it comes to learning how to teach in a specific school. Postponing learning from emotional challenges, a finding from paper one, thus seems feasible since coping with challenges was context-dependent. Furthermore, general norms of teacher education about collegiality as inherently good might enhance the experience as lacking precision if a beginning teacher finds themselves in a place where collegiality is creating emotional challenge (Löfgren & Karlsson, 2016; paper four). Therefore, coping with adversity is intertwined and linked with learning to teach.

Beginning to teach has been depicted as a challenging activity for more than 30 years (Veenman, 1984). The concept of reality shock is still vital, as teacher education seems to have trouble establishing itself as preparing beginning teachers for work in schools (Westbury et al., 2015; Roofe & Miller, 2013; papers one, two, three and four). Being context-agnostic in teacher education might inhibit student teachers from having relevant dispositions for specific contexts (Salazar, 2013) and add to a reality shock. Beginning teachers engaged in navigating the micro-political setting of the school where they started to work at (paper four). Reading the micro-political setting (Kelchtermans & Ballet, 2002) might expose rivalry, coalitions, power struggles, traditions and cultures in a specific school.

Being a student teacher and starting to teach has previously been reported to be an emotional experience (Malderez et al. 2007; McCormack & Thomas, 2003). Therefore, the concept of coping with challenging experiences is important. This project adds value to understanding processes connected to coping with emotional challenges

involved in teacher education and starting to teach. I will further discuss the emotionally challenging situations and the coping strategies from the studies of the thesis. The following findings are central to the thesis:

- Student teachers and beginning teachers encountered challenging situations connected to different actors, their own professional ideals and contextual factors.
- In coping with challenging situations, student teachers and beginning teachers adopted coping strategies connected to (a) being part of a group, (b) changing their own approach and (c) trying to change teacher education and schools.
- Experiencing challenges as well as the coping strategy adapted were related to learning and becoming a teacher.

Emotionally challenging situations in teacher education and starting to teach

Student teachers and beginning teachers encountered challenging situations connected to actors such as (a) students, (b) teachers, and (c) students' parents. Also, contextual factors of, for example, stress and a lack of time in the teacher occupation added to the challenges. In addition, student teachers' and beginning teachers' professional ideals created emotional challenges (see Table 4). The emotional challenges rarely referred to major incidents, but were instead reported as situations that added to the day-to-day stress of being a student teacher and a beginning teacher (see Table 4). In Table 4, the emotional challenges from the papers are presented in relation to the perceived cause of the challenges. It is interesting, and an important contribution, that the student teachers and beginning teachers perceived their professional ideals as a cause of the emotional challenges. It is also evident that relationships were perceived of as a source of the reported challenges. Overall, the challenging situations from the thesis show the relational aspects of the teaching occupation. Relational aspects have previously been demonstrated as challenging between student and teacher (Frelin, 2015), and with students' parents (Le Maistre & Paré, 2010), as well as the complicated relationships between teachers (Löfgren & Karlsson, 2016).

Table 4. Emotionally challenging situations

<i>Students</i>	<i>Teachers</i>
Students' poor living conditions	Conflicts with supervising teacher
Students in special needs	The way some teachers talked about students and families
Violence and harassment among students	Some teachers' negative attitude towards students
Conflicts with students	Negative role models
Bullying, racism/homophobia/sexism among students	Conflicts with colleagues
Being questioned by students	Bullying, racism/homophobia/sexism among teachers
	Being questioned by colleagues
<i>Parents</i>	<i>Conditions</i>
Meeting parents	Perceived irrelevant content in teacher education
Conflicts with parents	Stress and/or lack of time in the teacher occupation
Being questioned by parents	Uncertainty of work role
<i>Personal</i>	
Lack of classroom control	
Responsibility for students' achievements and well-being	
Fear of failure	
Fear of being stuck in negative situations	
Not feeling adequately prepared for working as a teacher	
Powerlessness	
Intrapersonal conflicts: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • being "good enough" • personal boundaries of time and engagement • suppression of emotions 	

The emotional challenges reported in relation to professional ideals involved maintaining control over students' behaviours and preparing teaching for all students' needs. Fantilli and McDougall (2009) discussed similar challenges concerning meeting the needs of a diverse student population. This was evident in papers two, three and four, where a perceived lack of classroom control and responsibility for all

students' results were reported as emotionally challenging by the student teachers and the beginning teachers. Furthermore, the beginning teachers worried about being "good enough" teachers (paper four). This worry might be related to student teachers modifying their professional ideals as a result of not being able to conclude that they could make a difference (paper one). In addition, student teachers also reported professional ideals not being upheld as resulting in fear of failure and not feeling adequately prepared for teaching. Similar findings are demonstrated by other research with beginning teachers. Pillena et al. (2013) and Yuan & Lee (2015, 2016) demonstrated that diverse needs of students, and being responsible for students' academic and social growth, give rise to challenging emotions. Emotions connected to contextual factors such as heavy workload, bureaucratic work and a lack of support were also present in the emotional challenges that student teachers and beginning teachers reported.

The thesis corroborated results from other research, for example the relational aspects of being a student teacher (Malderez et al., 2007). The thesis displayed several situations, in which emotional challenges were associated with interactions and relationships with university teachers, supervising teachers, other practising teachers, students, and parents. For example, a specific concern expressed was the fear of being trapped in a disengaged teacher collective as a result of experiences of disengaged environments in schools during work placement education (paper one). The current findings have similarities with McCormack and Thomas' (2003) study, in which veteran teachers were portrayed as a source of frustration among beginning teachers. A common theme among student teachers' reports was trying to find a school that would align with their own ideals (papers three and four). If they did not find a school that aligned with their ideals, they considered changing school as a way to handle the situation. This relates to Tiplic et al. (2016), who described relationships with colleagues as paramount in the retention of teachers at a school. The emotional aspects of relationships that were established as a student teacher continued to be a concern in the beginning teachers' descriptions of emotionally challenging situations, as shown in paper four. Lassila et al. (2018) show how relational tensions relate to beginning teachers' ability to manage expectations and practical duties, being a part of the community and as an individual.

Thus, the beginning teacher's position in the micro-political setting of a school influenced their ability to cope (paper four).

Student teachers relied on the future support of colleagues (paper one). When starting to teach the beginning teachers discussed having conflicts with colleagues (paper four), but they also asked for support from other colleagues (paper four). Beginning teachers sometimes met other teachers who did not have the same values in connection with teaching, and conflict could be the result of different values. Le Maistre and Paré (2010) described seeking support in relation to a fear among beginning teachers of losing credibility. Similarly, Fantilli and McDougall (2009) described seeking support as challenging. The findings from paper four described how interaction with colleagues might illuminate differences among teachers and end in conflict. There were descriptions among student teachers and beginning teachers of more experienced teachers having given up, as also reported by McCormack and Thomas (2003). In such cases, beginning teachers and student teachers did not seek support from those specific teachers, even if they were their supervising teachers or assigned mentors. On the other hand, Caspersen and Raaen (2014) found seeking support to be troublesome, because of a deficit in the profession-specific language of beginning teachers. Portraying the issues of seeking support as a knowledge transaction in a micro-political setting of a school might be overlooking factors that could impede collaboration at a school. For example, rivalry and power struggles of a school inhibited supportive structures, and created emotional challenges instead. Beginning teachers and student teachers valued relationships and people in the light of the meaning that they attached to the relationship. This related to Bulmer's (1969) claim that human action is created out of the construction of meaning in interaction.

Student teachers and beginning teachers described emotional challenges that stemmed from wanting to change teacher education or the actual school. Lee (2013) reported how innovations at a school were impeded by heavy workload or structures that were hard to influence. As portrayed in paper two, a student teacher tried to influence a supervising teacher to better meet a student's needs, relating to challenges connected to professional ideals of feeling responsible for students' well-being and meeting negative role models. According to the findings, student teachers sometimes felt powerless even though they

held ideals about teaching. This relates to experiencing not being valued for ideals (Sumsion, 1998), as well as to the emotional flux of teaching, with a wide range of emotions being experienced (Teng, 2017). Student teachers and beginning teachers also reported having different emotions simultaneously, experiencing both challenges and rewarding emotions, as also demonstrated by Wu & Chen (2018). This is apparent in the findings of the thesis, as student teachers and beginning teachers sometimes experienced emotions of powerlessness and beliefs of self-efficacy simultaneously.

In relation to students, an array of emotionally challenging situations occurred, both as a student teacher and as a beginning teacher. The challenges escalated when starting to teach. Relationships with students were a major part of conflicts beginning teachers experienced (paper four). The studies regarding being a student teacher revealed concerns about being able to help students who were living under poor conditions or in need of special support (papers one, two and three). Thus, student teachers wanted to have an influence, and hoped to be able to care about their students. Still, major conflicts that were reported by beginning teachers involved having complicated relationships with students (paper four). Although care was evident in teacher education, beginning teachers did not discuss care as often. In teacher education, care was discussed without actually being able to create lasting relationships with students. Student teachers expressed wanting to care for students and influence students' personal growth. Canrinus and Fokkens-Bruinsma (2014) show that during workplace education, student teachers' motivation decreased as a result of not being able to cater for students' personal growth. In addition, Colnerud (2006a) discusses how the person that someone cares for must accept the care, and Frelin (2013) emphasizes that the student-teacher relationship has to rely on establishing trust. Teachers do not automatically assume students trust them. It is also evident in the challenges experienced that student teachers and beginning teachers did not assume automatic mutual trust in the relationship with students. Student teachers and beginning teachers found it challenging to be in conflict with students, being questioned by students, and meeting students who were racist, sexist or homophobic.

In conclusion, some of the situations that student teachers reported as emotionally challenging remained challenging when starting to teach,

but others subsided. He and Cooper (2011) demonstrated how some challenges subsided with experience. However, they also describe how experiences contributed to new challenges, for example concerning perceived lack of resources. The conflicts portrayed in the thesis describe a variation of reported emotionally challenges (see Table 4). To handle these situations, student teachers and beginning teachers adapted different coping strategies.

The key process of coping

In light of the challenges presented, student teachers and beginning teachers adapted coping strategies to master a problem between the person and the environment. In line with symbolic interactionism (Charon, 2007; Thomas & Thomas, 1928), their definition of an emotionally challenging situation guided their actions. The emotional challenges a teacher experiences differ in relation to different contexts (as the affectivity of burnout described by Kahn et al. [2006] also suggests). Stress is created when the demands a person experiences in one situation outweigh available resources (Lazarus, 1991).

Coping is commonly divided into categories of problem-focused or emotion-focused coping. Problem-focused coping highlights the actions undertaken to change the situation and emotion-focused coping is characterised by focusing on emotions, thoughts and cognitive ways of handling the problem (Gustems-Carnicer & Calderón, 2012; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Lazarus (1990) states that “we might do better by describing relevant environments and their psychological meanings through the lenses of individuals” (p. 8). Coping is performative, a process that relies on the person acting as an agent on and upon the structure of the environment where the problem occurs. Coping strategies that are formulated out of the grounded theory analysis of the different studies are shown in Table 5.

The strategies in Table 5 are not exclusive to each other. A person could apply a variation of the different strategies in trying to meet demands. The coping strategies included (a) being part of a group, (b) hanging their own approach and (c) trying to incorporate change, as ways to alleviate, alter or reduce emotional challenges experienced.

Table 5. Coping strategies of the study

Coping strategy	Illustration	Sub-study
Acceptance	Acceptance that nothing can be done	1 (Paper 1)
Postponing	Postponing starting to teach, not able to learn outside of school context	1 (Paper 1)
Responsibility reduction	Reduction of responsibility for social progress or teaching influence	2 (Paper 2)
Change advocacy	Trying to change what is perceived as distressful	2 (Paper 2)
Collective sharing	Using the collective through modelling actions or talking about the problem	2 (Paper 2)
Boundaries of emotional labour	Establishing boundaries regarding emotions of worry, anger or sympathy	3 (Paper 3)
Boundaries of relationship maintenance	Establishing boundaries regarding relationship maintenance with colleagues, parents or students	3 (Paper 3)
Conformity	Being a natural part of the teacher community at a school	4 (Paper 4)
Collaboration	Cooperation with colleagues in times of trial	4 (Paper 4)
Autonomy	Dealing with challenging situations alone	4 (Paper 4)
Influence	Trying to influence power structures to change school practice	4 (Paper 4)

Being part of a group

One way of coping is seeking support, or building alliances with colleagues at the school or with other student teachers. Student teachers did this through collective sharing (paper two), and discussed relying on future help from colleagues (paper one). Collective sharing could be liberating and enlightening, but could also result in challenges when utilising avoidance strategies in the group (paper two). Student teachers coped by observing or engaging in conversations with other members of the collective. The structure and social support that the school can offer have been shown to be important, since the lack of such support is seen as burdening among student teachers (Väisänen et al., 2017). There is, however, a difference in seeking support and relying on a significant other to solve problems (Pillena et al., 2013). Student teachers in the current thesis expressed their will to contribute in the process of

collective sharing. They emphasised being a part of the group, rather than solemnly needing support.

When adapting collaboration and conformity strategies, the collective was utilised (paper four). The beginning teachers used three distinct methods of establishing collaboration: (1) finding an ally, with the aim of having a trusted colleague to share adversity with, (2) seeking support from the team of teachers, and (3) turning to the principal or other support staff. In comparison, Le Maistre and Paré (2010) discussed the beginning of a teacher's career as lonesome and without much support. When part of a group, conformity was used as a strategy to align with the value system of the school. The strategy of conformity is similar to self-adaption (Pietarinen et al., 2013). The strategy involved not engaging in the power struggles of a school, but rather finding a place in the teacher collective. This enabled support from a variation of colleagues. The beginning teachers who adopted a collaboration and conformity strategy experienced receiving more support from colleagues, which made the start of teaching less lonely (paper four; Uitto et al., 2015).

Changing their own approach

The second set of strategies was directed at changes to be made to the individual's approach to working as a teacher. One strategy that was utilised by the student teachers was responsibility reduction (paper two). Responsibility reduction focused on constraints to live up to the expectations of working as a teacher, and trying to decide where a teacher's responsibility ends. Edling and Frelin (2013) discussed how both formal and informal responsibilities of teachers are socially produced. Teachers' increasing demands in terms of accountability and measurement continuously create struggles for teachers (Ball, 2003; Edling & Frelin, 2013), and student teachers and beginning teachers have to adjust to these increasing demands. Responsibilities also related to setting boundaries in relationship maintenance and emotional labour (paper three). The assessed responsibility is part of establishing boundaries, since it involved student teachers clarifying the work role as a teacher. Being too available, for example, was experienced as creating stress. Thus, beginning teachers changed their approach by establishing boundaries around time and engagement as a coping strategy (paper three). Malderez et al. (2007) found that relationships were to be created

and maintained with students and practising teachers, among others. Actions of relationship maintenance involved establishing boundaries with students, colleagues and students' parents.

The strategy of autonomy is another strategy that aimed at changing the individual's own approach. The autonomy strategy here is understood as having beliefs in the individual ability to succeed, as well as being autonomous in relation to colleagues (paper four). The autonomy coping strategy involved being adaptive in the classroom setting, but it focused on the individual decisions made when working as a teacher. This involved assessing the value of support, and reforming the support according to the beginning teacher's own teaching approach. The individual nature of a teachers' work has been depicted as a condition for teaching, since the teacher has to make decisions and evaluate the actions taken in the classroom (Lortie, 1975).

Paper one exemplified two strategies that involved changing their own approach as teachers: acceptance and postponing strategies. The acceptance strategy focused on student teachers' challenges in upholding ideals about teaching and therefore accepting that their influence was limited. Through the process of modifying professional ideals, student teachers accepted low levels of control over challenging situations, and having a less caring teacher role. However, according to Colnerud (2006b), teachers have to consider the ethical complexity of teaching and the moral impact they have on their students. The postponing strategy in the current findings demonstrated how student teachers did not consider learning from emotionally challenging situations to be possible before starting to teach. This relates to how teacher education does not prepare student teachers for the complexities of teaching (Westbury et al. 2015). It represents how student teachers changed their approach and aligned with ideals of teachers' work. When postponing learning from challenging situations, learning is deemed to be impossible out of context. It also relied on being able to have a flexible approach when starting to teach, and being influenced when gathering experiences.

Trying to incorporate change

Another strategy reported in paper two, adopting change advocacy, focused on instilling change in how teacher education courses or schools operate. The definition of using change advocacy was to engage in

actions to change what caused the emotionally challenging situations. For example, this includes actions taken to get the university to adjust their courses or supervising teachers to change the way they deal with students' needs. Paper two shows that student teachers used change advocacy as a coping strategy. One problem with being an innovator at school, for example trying to influence teachers to better meet the needs of their students, is that the enterprise is complex, as also shown by Lee (2013). Change advocacy might result in actions that have the potential to change school practice, but it might also result in further challenges and more role conflicts when starting to teach (Tiplic et al., 2016), or trying to find a place in the micro-political setting of a school (Zhu, Waxman, Rivera, & Burlbaw, 2018).

Beginning teachers are thought of as change agents in schools (Forssell, 2015; Fullan, 1999). Change advocacy relies on establishing better practice, which is sometimes hard to define in the complex landscape of a school. The coping strategy of influencing in paper four, like change advocacy, involved trying to change a school's approach. The effort was directed at influencing the value system of the school by trying to create changes that matched the beginning teachers' ideals. In paper four, it is evident that beginning teachers who used an influencing strategy ran the risk of taking on an additional workload. Contrary to the workload reduction proposed by Le Maistre and Paré (2010), having an influencing strategy could lead to more assignments and enhanced responsibility for a school's progress (paper four).

Other studies have shown that student teachers' coping strategies are important: "Useful strategies seem to be being proactive and not passively letting things happen, being open-minded and flexible, and not being afraid of asking questions and seeking support" (Ulvik, Smith, & Helleve, 2017, p. 247). Even though coping is utilised by student teachers and beginning teachers, it is important to consider what student teachers and beginning teachers learn when coping with challenging situations.

Learning when coping with emotionally challenging situations

In teacher education, there was explicit social influence from teachers and student teachers through the collective sharing that they engaged in (paper two). Student teachers learnt within the apprentice relationship

with their supervising teachers. The modelling of supervisors has been viewed as either positive (Hultman et al., 2007) or negative (Long, 1997). In contrast, the current findings demonstrated complications in the relationships with supervising teachers, as well as with other teachers. In the studies included in the thesis, it has been noted how the potentially exhausting nature of working as a teacher was passed on to the student teachers during their work placement education. Using boundaries was one of the strategies to cope with alleviating this challenge (paper three). Furthermore, student teachers coped with the risk of being overloaded with work, often in relation to responsibility in the teacher-student relationship. In their study of the narratives of six teachers, Rytivaara and Frelin (2017) report that the teachers thought it was partly their responsibility to first take care of issues connected to students' well-being that had to be resolved before issues of learning could be dealt with. This kind of reasoning was also passed on from teachers of work placement to student teachers, and was relevant in establishing boundaries among student teachers (paper three).

In the stories of the student teachers, teacher education was sometimes described as lacking precision, and learning in teacher education was sometimes depicted as being shallow (paper one). The divide between theory and practice might have created a need for the student teachers to seek alternative sources of learning, or to rely on postponing strategies (paper one). Korthagen (2010) discusses how teacher educators must ask whether they want to have influence over what student teachers learn. If so, how could learning to cope be formulated and proactive strategies adapted as a deliberative part of teacher education? Pajak (2012) believes that:

More than teachers who know, schools desperately need adults who are in tune with their own emotions and the emotional needs of their students. Teachers can then move beyond narrowly prescribed goals of academic achievement to include in their efforts students' human development needs as well as development of their social, emotional, physical, linguistic, and aesthetic capabilities. (p. 1208)

In teacher education, it might be important that student teachers learn to trust their ability to handle complex situations. The term 'self-efficacy' has been used as a way to measure to what extent teachers feel competent and can rely on their ability to produce the right performance and influence the outcome of situations (Wang et al., 2015). Teachers

with more pronounced self-efficacy have been shown, among other things, to have lower burnout rates and more job satisfaction (Wang et al., 2015), and might be more prone to try a strategy of change advocacy or influencing (papers two and four). Even though this sometimes succeeded, it is dependent on micro-political circumstances (paper four). Teachers who have high self-efficacy and who are positive about being able to handle their stressors are less likely to quit the occupation (Wang et al., 2015). How can we deliberately teach and support student teachers and beginning teachers to enhance their teacher self-efficacy? In the light of the studies included in this project, some student teachers described beliefs that could be associated with teacher self-efficacy. However, according to the social-cognitive theory of agency and self-efficacy, in order to enhance beliefs of self-efficacy, student teachers have to build upon previous experiences by observing others who have mastered the profession and have experiences of succeeding (Bandura, 1997). Learning from succeeding to cope with challenges thus seems to be important when learning the profession of teaching in order to increase self-efficacy beliefs. Learning how to cope was formulated as happening at schools, and when starting to teach (paper one), and could not be taught out of context. Student teachers' learning is dependent on being exposed to a richer portrayal of complexity of challenges that teaching involves (e.g. Westbury et al., 2015).

Becoming a teacher

In accordance with symbolic interactionism (Mead, 1934), being and becoming a teacher is connected to being a part of a specific group (also exemplified in being part of a group as a set of coping strategies) and in the development of a self in relation to experiences. In line with belonging to a group, there is a need to establish what boundaries a group uses to differentiate itself from other groups (as exemplified in paper three). A student teacher is therefore subjected to a socialisation process that involves shaping and reshaping teacher identity (Flores & Day, 2006), as described in symbolic interactionism (Charon, 2007). Student teachers encountered pedagogical values at work placement education that might be in conflict with pedagogical values conveyed in the university courses during teacher education, as also described by Sumsion (1998). The perceived gaps created challenges for them. Student teachers have to learn how to cross the boundary between these

two fields (i.e., the school and teacher community in the work placement education vs. the theoretical, research-based and teacher education community in the university courses) as a part of their teacher identity development. This was explored in paper three and paper four, where the student teachers established boundaries as coping, and despite trying to establish boundaries some beginning teachers found the experience of starting to work overwhelming after having worked as a teacher for a full year.

In her review of research on student teachers' identity development, Izadinia (2013) concluded that the literature has investigated four main areas: (a) *reflective activities*, (b) *learning communities*, (c) *context*, and (d) *experiences*. Most of the research has been done when student teachers encounter schools as a part of work placement education. Student teachers try to make sense of themselves through existing teachers' identities related to teaching subjects, and the studies reviewed by Izadinia (2013) highlighted strategies available to student teachers. If there was a conflict that was not resolved with the available professional identity, student teachers did not identify themselves as teachers. For example, if their teacher identity prescribed that teachers should teach and not only focus on conflicts, a teacher having to deal with conflict management for a large amount of their time did not feel like a teacher. In papers three and four, conflicts emerged as an important aspect of relationships in schools, and these conflicts sometimes created challenges with the perception of the teacher role (papers three and four).

Becoming a teacher is present in interaction, and should therefore be viewed as focused not on the individual, but rather on the context and cultural positioning of teachers as a set of possible teacher identities (Beijaard, Meijer, & Verloop, 2004; Karlsson, 2013). Teacher development has been discussed as taking place during conflicts and tensions as a result of the transformation between being a student teacher and a beginning teacher (Yuan & Lee, 2016). The findings of paper four demonstrated the risk of leaving tensions and conflicts out of teacher education, as the actions undertaken by beginning teachers could lead to thoughts of attrition or turnover.

One part of student teachers' development is learning classroom management (Samuelsson & Colnerud, 2015). Tensions that the student teachers experience as part of acquiring strategies for classroom

management could be expressed as dilemmas. Samuelsson and Colnerud (2015) exemplified these dilemmas as: (a) *authority, distance and domination* versus *being personable*, (b) *creating relationships* versus *not being too private*, (c) *students as individuals* versus *leading students in groups*, (d) *being flexible* versus *being well-prepared*, and (e) *knowledge goals* versus *social goals*. A significant result of their study was that a group of student teachers used these dilemmas as a way of striking a balance in the unique situations that they anticipated encountering in the future. This was interpreted as student teachers being prepared to use their professional judgment in future situations. Conversely, in the studies included in the thesis, this balance of using a professional judgment was not as evident. In meeting work placement demands, student teachers were limited in their actions, and postponing strategies might inhibit learning from encountering unique situations. Postponing strategies might be a sensible way of knowing that there is no way of completely distinguishing the micro-political context of a school as an outsider (student teacher), and thus postponing learning how to cope could be a sensible alternative (paper one). The unique situation of a micro-political context (paper four) had influence over actions possible in the specific teacher group.

The four studies in the project highlight, and add to, discussions and knowledge of studying to become a teacher and the first experiences of working as a teacher. The four studies focused on coping strategies, and adopting coping strategies is connected to learning in the continuous process of becoming a teacher.

Strengths and limitations

At this point I wish to point out some strengths and limitations of the studies. The analysis in the studies relied on self-reported data through interviews, focus groups and written self-reports. This means that there might be a discrepancy between what the participants say they do and what they actually do in situations that are emotionally challenging. The data set does not include any performative data, so the coping strategies described how the participants talked about how they had coped, or anticipated coping in the future, based on their experiences. Using a non-judging approach, being open to the participants' perspectives and having open questions in the interviews might be a way of letting the participants speak freely about the situations. Furthermore, the

participants shared their shortcomings, troubles, and emotionally challenging situations with me, and did not seem to talk about a sanitised version of how they act. The formulated grounded theories and coping strategies should be viewed with this limitation in mind. The fact that participants discussed weaknesses, struggles and fears in the interviews might also suggest that it is not only a desired action, or version of the self, that is portrayed. It is also important to notice that the objective is not to develop an exact picture of emotionally challenging situations. The objective is rather to produce an interpretative portrayal (Charmaz, 2014).

The sample included is a small subsample of Swedish student teachers and beginning teachers that may or may not differ from other contexts, such as other countries or teacher education practices. That being said, the amount of qualitative data is extensive, which I consider to be valuable in relation to the analysis carried out. I have had the opportunity to gather different types of qualitative data (focus groups, individual interviews, follow-up interviews and self-reports), and I consider this as a strength in the overall reported findings. In using focus groups and individual interviews, the data might differ in light of the data collection method used. In accordance with constructivist grounded theory, I do not see this as a problem, but rather as a strength in trying to be as attentive to the perspectives of the participants as possible, and the multiple data collection methods were complementary.

One part of the data collection that was sometimes troublesome was keeping the participants from the longitudinal studies involved in the project. Some of them left the programme and did not start teaching, while others paused because they became parents during the process. This made the sample smaller, and at the end of the first year of teaching five participants were not included, meaning that valuable perspectives might have been lost.

When adopting grounded theory to analyse the data, some methodological concerns should be noted. First, grounded theory is sometimes viewed as being limited to everyday understanding of the processes studied, due to the naïve inductive stance attributed to grounded theory (Thomas & James, 2006). This could be true in the sense that I did not use any type of set hypotheses, or sample of theories, when I analysed the data. There is, however, a co-construction position of the researcher in gathering the data, as well as previous knowledge

involved when doing the analysis. In line with the constructivist version of grounded theory (Charmaz, 2014), sensitising concepts (Blumer, 1969) have been utilised in the studies. Constructivist grounded theory is not confined to induction, but involves abduction as well (Thornberg, 2012; Thornberg & Dunne, forthcoming), which has resulted in an iterative process between data collection, analysis and literature. This is how the concept of micro-politics (Kelchtermans & Ballet, 2002) was included in the analysis of paper four; it is data-driven and formulated based on the participants' narratives. I am aware this could be seen as forcing in the light of the Glaserian version of grounded theory (Glaser, 1978), but I have rejected viewing analysis as being possible to carry out as *tabula rasa*. As mentioned previously, the different analytical work has been performed with the aspiration of having an open mind rather than an empty head during the process (Dey, 1993).

Another issue of concern might be the usage of different theoretical underpinnings of emotions and coping. For example, the cognitivist approach of Lazarus and Folkman (1984) is combined with theories that emphasise the constructed social reality of the participants. Pragmatism offers a pluralistic view of dealing with the mixed theoretical underpinnings, not least through the concept community of inquiry (Garrison, Anderson, & Archer, 2010). The framework of community of inquiry involves viewing an educational experience through the intersection of different perspectives. These perspectives involve social presence, teaching presence and cognitive presence, all of which help us to understand the educational experience. The emotionally challenging situations are here presented as an educational experience.

The usage of theoretical pluralism also confirms the notion of theoretical playfulness involved with informed grounded theory (Thornberg, 2012). The usage of different perspectives enhances the ability of research to see more than one perspective of a phenomena. For example, Thayer-Bacon (2001) relates pluralism to the poem of blind men investigating an elephant and coming to different conclusions as to what they are examining. Without communication between the different perspectives, in other words theoretical pluralism, every answer would be deemed as complete. Instead, as Thayer-Bacon (2001) argues, we might be able to reach a more qualified understanding using different perspectives when investigating an area of interest.

In addressing the quality of the work that this thesis rests upon, I hope that I have been able to describe the work in a sufficiently transparent way for the reader to judge the content of the results. I have tried to be as transparent as I can about the method of analysis, how the results were produced, and the nature of the data used in the thesis. It is important to reveal aspects of the participants, the overall contextual setting and how interpretations of the data came to result in the existing grounded theories. I tried to be as clear as possible in the previous sections, and I hope to have been able to strengthen the transparency of the studies. Transparency is a common way of assessing the quality of grounded theory (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). One way of conceptualising the research is moving beyond and interpreting the data gathered, and this could be subject to criticism, since it involves interpretations. This could be seen as moving away from the narratives of the participants, who were seen to be the experts on their understanding of the emotionally challenging situations. I have tried to be attentive, listening and respectful towards the participants, but this is a dilemma in the research process (Forsberg, 2016). There have been moments of “killing your darlings” and disregarding pet codes in the analytical work. It has sometimes been hard to distinguish essential parts of the participants’ stories in the analytical work, since the ambition was to be true to the empirical world of the participants.

In grounded theory methodology, usefulness is a key aspect. Charmaz (2014, p. 338) states that a grounded theory that “conveys what is meaningful about a substantive area can make a valuable contribution”, but this requires a combination of originality and credibility.

The present findings rely on the reader to value the generalisability by considering recognition of patterns (Larsson, 2009). In addition, Larsson (2009) discusses generalisation through context similarity and maximising the potential variation as a way of enhancing generalisation. I have tried to be descriptive in order for the reader to appreciate the context similarity of the research with other teacher education programmes and school contexts where teachers start their careers. Also, the enhanced variation of the sample is an attempt to get a broader understanding of the emotional challenges that student teachers and beginning teachers might face. This does not mean I covered the full variation of all possible understandings, as “it is impossible to know

how many undetected variants there are in real life” (Larsson, 2009, p. 32).

Charmaz (2014) argues that generality is not the aim of constructivist grounded theory research, which is strengthened by being situated in social, historical, local and interactional contexts. Rather, generality could be an emerging process in the research, and should not be a stated prescribed goal. Corbin and Strauss (2008) also stress that the analysis relies on fit and credibility as a way of ensuring quality in a grounded theory. If the research is useful it should withstand being scrutinised by laymen as well as other academics. In accordance with recognition of pattern, context similarity and potential variation, I hope that the fit and credibility of the presented research is valued for its usefulness in teacher education and when beginning teachers start working at schools.

Future research

A critical part of the findings is the number of situations that occur in the work placement education of student teachers. This is an area where some research has investigated the relationship between the student teacher and the supervising teacher. I think it would be valuable to research the connection between student teachers and supervisors concerning how supervisors assist student teachers who experience emotionally challenging situations. There is scarce research in the field, and in the studies presented in this thesis the supervising teacher was sometimes reported as the origin of the distress.

Further, veteran teachers’ experiences of emotionally challenging situations and how they cope are of interest to research. This could present a more complete picture of how teachers might be able to handle demands and stay in the profession.

Another area of research could be to investigate the coping strategies from the studies in a larger quantitative data collection, which is part of the bigger project of the study. Valuable additions of specific strategies from the studies could also be distributed to all new teachers in a larger group to test and validate the present findings, discussed in the mixed-methods research literature as a sequential exploratory mixed methods design (Creswell, 2014).

It could also be valuable in future research to add different data collection methods in trying to address emotionally challenging

situations. Ethnographical studies of student teachers' work placement education could contribute important additions to the existing studies, and could also add insights into the experiences of student teachers. It might also be valuable to try some experimental intervention studies in light of trying to establish a better practice for student teachers to cope with emotionally challenging situations in their educational programme.

Practical implications

I wish to suggest some practical implications, even though this thesis mainly contributes theoretical knowledge about coping with emotionally challenging situations.

First, student teachers could benefit from teachers' work being portrayed as including a structural component of emotions and relations. How could this be incorporated into the teacher education programme? I would suggest course work in teacher education related to coping with challenging emotions might be a valuable contribution. Another addition could be to better assist student teachers during work placement education to acknowledge constraints and possibilities in making a difference in students' lives, and possibly influence patterns of feeling inadequate.

Also, student teachers could benefit from establishing a meta-language with regard to emotionally challenging situations, to be better able to seek support. Terms of use from this thesis could include acceptance and postponing strategies, modifying ideals and coping strategies listed in Table 5. Terms relating to coping could be deliberately used starting in teacher education rather than postponing it. Teacher education could possibly try to enable student teachers to enhance self-efficacy beliefs and counteract professional inadequacy, as student teachers might benefit from starting to address these issues in the educational programme.

Emotions and coping could not be left out of the classroom (Jokikokko, 2016), and even though there are challenges involved in teaching about emotionally challenging situations, student teachers could be assisted with specific models and tools to discuss possible actions in relation to emotionally challenging situations. In order to set up pedagogical methods for deliberately discussing and learning from emotionally challenging situations, student-centred and student-active methods such as problem-based learning, critical incident analysis and

case methodology could be of value. In having to meet a practice-related dilemma, student teachers might learn to better meet demands.

I concur with learning to “read” micro-political settings as an important part of learning to teach (Kelchtermans & Ballet, 2002), and one of the studies (paper four) emphasised the importance of trying to understand the setting of a school when entering the context and being able to “write” oneself into the existing setting. This is corroborated by Aspfors et al. (2011).

Schools that are hiring new teachers could consider the results in order to better meet the diverse needs of beginning teachers. Municipalities and principals might want to play a bigger part in the process of beginning to teach. For one, beginning teachers are an asset in order to establish change. This should be recognised as a potential, and beginning teachers could therefore be given tasks relating to developing the school. Coming from teacher education should be considered valuable, and not only as a development phase. That being said, principals could monitor the needs of a beginning teacher, since there is a variation in how beginning teachers experienced challenges. Only seeing beginning teachers as needing support is not accurate, and student teachers and beginning teachers can make valuable contributions to schools they come in contact with. Schools should take this into account.

I hope that some of these suggestions will help promote valuable experiences for student teachers and beginning teachers, and that these practical implications can be tested scientifically to better assist student teachers and beginning teachers in coping with their emotionally challenging experiences.

References

- Admiraal, W. F., Korthagen, F. A., & Wubbels, T. (2000). Effects of student teachers' coping behaviour. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 70, 33-52.
- Ahlberg, A., Målvist, M., & Welin, A. (2005). *Verksamhetsförlagd lärarutbildning och specialpedagogisk kunskap [Competence to meet the needs of everybody: Special education in school-located studies]*. Vetenskapliga rapporter från HLK: Högskolan i Jönköping.
- Ahmed, S. (2012). *The cultural politics of emotion*. London: Routledge.
- Akdağ, Z., & Haser, Ç. (2016). Beginning early childhood education teachers' classroom management concerns. *Teachers and Teaching*, 22, 700-715.
- Aloe, A. M., Amo, L. C., & Shanahan, M. E. (2014). Classroom management self-efficacy and burnout: A multilevel meta-analysis. *Educational Psychology Review*, 26, 101-126.
- Anttila, H., Pyhältö, K., Soini, T., & Pietarinen, J. (2016). How does it feel to become a teacher? Emotions in teacher education. *Social Psychology of Education*, 19, 451-473.
- Aspfors, J., Bendtsen M., & Hansén. S.E. (2011). Nya lärare möter skola och klassrum [New teachers encounter school and classroom]. In S. E. Hansén & L. Forsman (Eds.). (2011). *Allmändidaktik: Vetenskap för lärare [General didactics: Science for teachers]*, pp. 73-90. Lund: Studentlitteratur.
- Aultman, L. P., Williams-Johnson, M. R., & Schutz, P. A. (2009). Boundary dilemmas in teacher-student relationships: Struggling with "the line". *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 25, 636-646.
- Arvidsson, I., Håkansson, C., Karlson, B., Björk, J., & Persson, R. (2016). Burnout among Swedish school teachers: A cross-sectional analysis. *BMC Public Health*, 16, 823-834.
- Ball, D. W. (1972). 'The definition of situation': Some theoretical and methodological consequences of taking WI Thomas seriously. *Journal for the Theory of Social Behaviour*, 2, 61-82.
- Ball, S. J. (2003). The teacher's soul and the terrors of performativity. *Journal of Education Policy*, 18, 215-228.
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: the exercise of control*. Basingstoke: W. H. Freeman.
- Beach, D., Bagley, C., Eriksson, A., & Player-Koro, C. (2014). Changing teacher education in Sweden: Using meta-ethnographic analysis to

- understand and describe policy making and educational changes. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 44, 160-167.
- Beijaard, D., Meijer, P. C., & Verloop, N. (2004). Reconsidering research on teachers' professional identity. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 20, 107-128.
- Beltman, S., Mansfield, C., & Price, A. (2011). Thriving not just surviving: A review of research on teacher resilience. *Educational Research Review*, 6, 185-207.
- Biermann, A., Karbach, J. Spinath, F. M., & Brünken, R. (2015). Investigating effects of the quality of field experiences and personality on perceived teaching skills in German pre-service teachers for secondary schools. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 51, 77-87.
- Biesta, G. J. J., & Burbules, N. C. (2003). *Pragmatism and educational research*. Oxford: Rowman & Littlefield.
- Bloomfield, D. (2010). Emotions and 'getting by': A pre-service teacher navigating professional experience. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 38, 221-234.
- Blumer, H. (1969). *Symbolic interactionism: Perspective and method*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Bransford, J., Darling-Hammond, L., & LePage, P. (2005). Introduction. In L. Darling-Hammond & J. Bransford (Eds.), *Preparing teachers for a changing world: What teachers should learn and be able to do*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Carlsson, R., Lindqvist, P., & Nordänger, U. K. (2019). Is teacher attrition a poor estimate of the value of teacher education? A Swedish case. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 1-15.
- Caspersen, J., & Raaen, F. D. (2014). Novice teachers and how they cope. *Teachers and Teaching*, 20, 189-211.
- Charmaz, K. (2014). *Constructing grounded theory*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Charmaz, K. (2017). The power of constructivist grounded theory for critical inquiry. *Qualitative inquiry*, 23, 34-45.
- Charmaz, K., Thornberg, R., & Keane, E. (2018). Evolving grounded theory and social justice inquiry. In N. K. Denzin, & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of qualitative research* (5th ed., pp. 411-443). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Charon, J. M. (2006). *Symbolic interactionism: An introduction, an interpretation, an integration*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education.
- Chen, J. (2016). Understanding teacher emotions: The development of a teacher emotion inventory. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 55, 68-77.

- Chubbuck S. M., & Zembylas. M. (2008). The emotional ambivalence of socially just teaching: A case study of a novice urban schoolteacher. *American Educational Research journal*, 45, 274-318.
- Cochran-Smith, M., McQuillan, P., Mitchell, K., Terrell, D. G., Barnatt, J., D'Souza, L., Jong, K. Shakman, K. Lam, & Gleeson, A. M. (2012). A longitudinal study of teaching practice and early career decisions: A cautionary tale. *American Educational Research Journal*, 49, 844-880.
- Colnerud, G. (2006a). Nel Noddings och omsorgsetiken [Nel Noddings and the ethics of care]. *Utbildning och Demokrati*, 15, 31-41.
- Colnerud, G. (2006b). Teacher ethics as a research problem: Syntheses achieved and new issues. *Teachers and Teaching*, 12, 365-385.
- Corbin, J.M., & Strauss, A. (2008). *Basics of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Creswell, W. J. (2014). *Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches*. Los Angeles, CA: Sage.
- Cross, D. I., & Hong, J. Y. (2012). An ecological examination of teachers' emotions in the school context. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 28, 957-967.
- Day, C., & Smethem, L. (2009). The effects of reform: Have teachers really lost their sense of professionalism? *Journal of Educational Change*, 10, 141-157.
- Deng, L., Zhu, G., Li, G., Xu, Z., Rutter, A., & Rivera, H. (2018). Student teachers' emotions, dilemmas, and professional identity formation amid the teaching practicums. *The Asia-Pacific Education Researcher*, 27, 441-453.
- Derosier, S., & Soslau, E. (2014). Teacher candidates speak out: Exploring concerns related to pupil learning and efficacy when learning to teach. *Education*, 134, 488-496.
- Dey, I. (1993). *Qualitative data analysis*. London: Routledge.
- Dewey, J. (1925). The development of American Pragmatism, reprinted in L.A. Hickman & T.M. Alexander (Eds) *The essential Dewey, Volume 1, pragmatism, education, democracy*. Bloomington, ID: Indiana University Press.
- Dewey, J. (2004). *Individ, skola och samhälle [Individual, school and society]*. Stockholm: Natur och Kultur.
- Edling, S., & Frelin, A. (2013). Doing good? Interpreting teachers' given and felt responsibilities for pupils' well-being in an age of measurement. *Teachers and Teaching*, 19, 419-432.
- Edling, S., & Frelin, A. (2015). Promoting social justice in Swedish teacher education. In L. Orland-Barak & C. J. Craig (Eds.) *International*

- Teacher Education: Promising Pedagogies (Part B)* (pp. 305-328). Bingley: Emerald Group Publishing Limited.
- Fantilli, R. D., & McDougall, D. E. (2009). A study of novice teachers: Challenges and supports in the first years. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 25, 814-825.
- Fenstermacher, G. D. (1990). Some moral considerations on teaching as a profession. In J. I. Goodlad, R. Soder, & K. A. Sirotnik (Eds.), *The moral dimensions of teaching* (pp. 130-151). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Fitchett, P. G., McCarthy, C. J., Lambert, R. G., & Boyle, L. (2018). An examination of US first-year teachers' risk for occupational stress: Associations with professional preparation and occupational health. *Teachers and Teaching*, 24, 99-118.
- Fives, H., Hamman, D., & Olivarez, A. (2007). Does burnout begin with student-teaching? Analyzing efficacy, burnout, and support during the student-teaching semester. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 23, 916-934.
- Florczak, K. L. (2014). Purists need not apply: The case for pragmatism in mixed methods research. *Nursing Science Quarterly*, 27, 278-282.
- Flores, M. A., & Day, C. (2006). Contexts which shape and reshape new teachers' identities: A multi-perspective study. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 22, 219-232.
- Fokkens-Bruinsma, M., & Canrinus, E. T. (2014). Motivation for becoming a teacher and engagement with the profession: Evidence from different contexts. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 65, 65-74.
- Folkman, S., & Lazarus, R. S. (1991). Coping and emotion. In A. Monat & R. S. Lazarus (Eds.), *Stress and coping: An anthology* (pp. 207-227). New York, NY: Columbia University Press.
- Forsberg, C. (2016). *Students' perspectives on bullying*. Linköping: Linköping University.
- Forssell, A. (2015). School and the future: How teachers and teacher education are articulated in the political debate. *Policy Futures in Education*, 13, 712-731.
- Fox, A. R., & Wilson, E. G. (2015). Networking and the development of professionals: Beginning teachers building social capital. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 47, 93-107.
- Frelin, A. (2013). *Exploring relational professionalism in schools*. Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.
- Frelin, A. (2014). Professionally present: Highlighting the temporal aspect of teachers' professional judgment. *Teacher Development*, 18, 264-273.

- Frelin, A. (2015). Relational underpinnings and professionalism: A case study of a teacher's practices involving students with experiences of school failure. *School Psychology International*, 36, 589-604.
- Frenzel, A.C. (2004). Teacher emotions. In E.A. Linnenbrink-Garcia, & R. Pekrun (Eds.), *International handbook of emotions in education* (pp. 494-529). New York: Routledge.
- Fullan, M. G. (1993). The professional teacher: Why teachers must become change agents. *Educational Leadership*, 50, 1-13.
- Försäkringskassan, 2014. *Sjukfrånvaro i psykiska diagnoser: En studie av Sveriges befolkning 16–64 år* [Sick leave from psychiatric diagnosis: A study of the Swedish population 16-64 years old]. Socialförsäkringsrapport 2014:4. [Social Insurance Report 2014:4].
- Garrison, D. R., Anderson, T., & Archer, W. (2010). The first decade of the community of inquiry framework: A retrospective. *The Internet and Higher Education*, 13, 5-9.
- Glaser, B. G. & Strauss, A. L. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research*. Chicago, IL: Aldine.
- Glaser, B. G. (1978). *Theoretical sensitivity: Advances in the methodology of grounded theory*. Mill Valley, CA: Sociology Press.
- Glaser, B. G. (1998). *Doing grounded theory: Issues and discussions*. Mill Valley, CA: Sociology Press.
- Glaser, B. G. (2003). *The grounded theory perspective II: Description's remodelling of grounded theory methodology*. Mill Valley, CA: Sociology Press.
- Greene, C. J., & Hall, N. J. (2010). Dialectics and Pragmatism: Being of Consequence. In A. Tashakkori, & C. Teddlie (2010). *Sage handbook of mixed methods in social & behavioral research* (pp. 119–143). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Gschwend, L., & Moir, E. (2007). Growing together: New and veteran teachers support each other through practices that target the needs of high school educators. *Journal of Staff Development*, 28, 20-24.
- Gustems-Carnicer, J., & Calderón, C. (2012). Coping strategies and psychological well-being among teacher education students: Coping and well-being in students. *European Journal of Psychology of Education*, 28, 1127–1140.
- Hallberg, L. R. (2006). The “core category” of grounded theory: Making constant comparisons. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies on Health and Well-being*, 1, 141-148.
- Hansén, S. E. (1998). Preparing student teachers for curriculum-making. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 30, 165-179.
- Hargreaves, A. (1998). The emotional practice of teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 14, 835-854.

- Hargreaves, A. (2000). Mixed emotions: Teachers' perceptions of their interactions with students. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 16, 811-826.
- Hargreaves, A. (2005). Educational change takes ages: Life, career and generational factors in teachers' emotional responses to educational change. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 21, 967-983.
- Hascher, T., & Hagenauer, G. (2016). Openness to theory and its importance for pre-service teachers' self-efficacy, emotions, and classroom behaviour in the teaching practicum. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 77, 15-25.
- Hayes, D. (2003). Emotional preparation for teaching: A case study about trainee teachers in England. *Teacher Development*, 7, 153-171.
- He, Y., & Jewell Cooper, J. (2011). Struggles and strategies in teaching: Voices of five novice secondary teachers. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 38, 97-116.
- Heikonen, L., Pietarinen, J., Pyhältö, K., Toom, A., & Soini, T. (2017). Early career teachers' sense of professional agency in the classroom: Associations with turnover intentions and perceived inadequacy in teacher-student interaction. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 45, 250-266.
- Helsing, D. (2007). Regarding uncertainty in teachers and teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 23, 1317-1333.
- Herman, J. L., & Tetrick, L. E. (2009). Problem-focused versus emotion-focused coping strategies and repatriation adjustment. *Human Resource Management*, 48, 69-88.
- Hiller, H. H., & Diluzio, L. (2004). The interviewee and the research interview: Analysing a neglected dimension in research. *CRSA/RCSA*, 41, 1-26.
- Hong, J., Day, C., & Greene, B. (2018). The construction of early career teachers' identities: Coping or managing? *Teacher Development*, 22, 249-266.
- Hsu, S. (2005). Help-seeking behaviour of student teachers. *Educational Research*, 47, 307-318.
- Hultman, Wedin, A.S, & Schoultz, J. (2007). Lärandet och hur det synliggörs under lärarutbildningens praktikperioder:Handledning och överföring av yrkeskunnande [How learning is made visible during work placement education of teacher education: Supervision and knowledge transformation]. *Didaktisk Tidskrift*, 22, 335-358.
- Isenbarger, L., & Zembylas, M. (2006). The emotional labour of caring in teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 22, 120-134.
- Izadinia, M. (2013). A review of research on student teachers' professional identity. *British Educational Research Journal*, 39, 694-713.

- Jokikokko, K. (2016). Reframing teachers' intercultural learning as an emotional process. *Intercultural Education*, 27, 217-230.
- Jokikokko, K., Uitto, M., Deketelaere, A., & Estola, E. (2017). A beginning teacher in emotionally intensive micropolitical situations. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 81, 61-70.
- Jungert, T., Alm, F. & Thornberg, R. (2014). Motives for becoming a teacher and their relations to academic engagement and dropout among student teachers. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 40, 173-185.
- Kahn, J. H., Schneider, K. T., Jenkins-Henkman, T. M., & Moyle, L. L. (2006). Emotional social support and job burnout among high-school teachers: Is it all due to dispositional affectivity? *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 27, 793-807.
- Kaldi, S., & Xafakos, E. (2017). Student teachers' school teaching practice: The relation amongst perceived self-competence, motivation and sources of support. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 67, 246-258.
- Karasek, R., & Theorell, T. (1990). *Healthy work: Stress, productivity, and the reconstruction of working life*. New York, NY: Basic Books
- Karlsson, M. (2013). Emotional identification with teacher identities in student teachers' narrative interaction. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 36, 133-146.
- Kennedy-Lewis, Brianna L., & Thornberg, R. (2018). Induction, deduction, abduction. In U. Flick (Ed.), *The SAGE handbook of qualitative data collection* (pp. 49-64). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Kelchtermans, G. (2005). Teachers' emotions in educational reforms: Self-understanding, vulnerable commitment and micropolitical literacy. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 21, 995-1006.
- Kelchtermans, G. (2017). "Should I stay or should I go?": Unpacking teacher attrition/retention as an educational issue. *Teachers and Teaching*, 23, 961-977.
- Kelchtermans, G., & Ballet, K. (2002). Micropolitical literacy: Reconstructing a neglected dimension in teacher development. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 37, 755-767.
- Kelchtermans, G., & Vanassche, E. (2017). Micropolitics in the education of teachers: Power, negotiation and professional development. In J. D. Clandinin, & J. Husu (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of research on teacher education* (pp. 139-142). London: SAGE Publications Ltd.
- Kokkinos, C. M., & Stavropoulos, G. (2016). Burning out during the practicum: The case of teacher trainees. *Educational Psychology*, 36, 548-568.

- Korthagen A. J. F. (2010). Situated learning theory and the pedagogy of teacher education: Towards an integrative view of teacher behavior and teacher learning. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 26, 98-106.
- Krueger, R. A., & Casey, M. A. (2015). *Focus groups: A practical guide for applied research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Kvale, S. & Brinkmann, S. (2009). *Den kvalitativa forskningsintervjun [The qualitative research interview]*. Lund: Studentlitteratur.
- Lanas, M. (2017). Giving up the lottery ticket: Finnish beginning teacher turnover as a question of discursive boundaries. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 68, 68-76.
- Lanas, M. & Kelchtermans, G. (2015). "This has more to do with who I am than with my skills": Student teacher subjectification in Finnish teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 47, 22-29.
- Laetas, S., & Reupert, A. (2016). Exploring pre-service secondary teachers' understanding of care. *Teachers and Teaching*, 22, 485-503.
- Larsson, S. (2009). A pluralist view of generalization in qualitative research. *International Journal of Research & Method in Education*, 32, 25-38.
- Lasky, S. (2005). A sociocultural approach to understanding teacher identity, agency and professional vulnerability in a context of secondary school reform. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 21, 899-916.
- Lassila, E. T., Jokikokko, K., Uitto, M., & Estola, E. (2017). The challenges to discussing emotionally loaded stories in Finnish teacher education. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 40, 379-393.
- Lassila, E. T., Uitto, M., & Estola, E. (2018). You're damned if you do and damned if you don't: The tension-filled relationships between Japanese beginning and senior teachers. *Pedagogy, Culture & Society*, 26, 417-433.
- Latham, N. I., & Vogt, W. P. (2007). Do professional development schools reduce teacher attrition? Evidence from a longitudinal study of 1,000 graduates. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 58, 153-167.
- Lazarus, S. R. (1985). The psychology of stress and coping. *Issues in Mental Health Nursing*, 7, 399-418.
- Lazarus, R. S. (1990). Theory-based stress measurement. *Psychological Inquiry*, 1, 3-13.
- Lazarus, S. R. (1991). *Emotion and adaption*. New York: Oxford Univ. Press.
- Lazarus, R. S. (1993). Coping theory and research: Past, present, and future. *Psychosomatic Medicine*, 55, 234-247.
- Lazarus, S. R. & Folkman, S. (1984). *Stress, appraisal and coping*. New York: Springer.
- Le Maistre, C., & Paré, A. (2010). Whatever it takes: How beginning teachers learn to survive. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 26, 559-564.

- Lee, I. (2013). Becoming a writing teacher: using 'identity' as an analytic lens to understand EFL writing teachers' development. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 22, 330-345.
- Liljestrom, A., Roulston, K., & Demarrais, K. (2007). "There's no place for feeling like this in the workplace": Women teachers' anger in school settings. In A. Schutz, & R. Pekrun (Eds.), *Emotion in education* (pp. 275-291). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Lindgren, U. (2013). Nyblivna lärares erfarenheter av sin lärarutbildning och upplevelser av första året i yrket [Beginning teachers experiences from the first year in the occupation]. *Arbetsmarknad & Arbetsliv*, 19, 25-38.
- Lindqvist, P., Nordänger, U. K., & Carlsson, R. (2014). Teacher attrition the first five years: A multifaceted image. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 40, 94-103.
- Lindqvist, P., & Nordänger, U. K. (2018). "Separating the wheat from the chaff": Failures in the practice based parts of Swedish teacher education. *International Journal of Learning, Teaching and Educational Research*, 17, 83-103.
- Lortie, D. C. (1975). *Schoolteacher: A sociological study* (2nd ed.). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Long, J. (1997). The dark side of mentoring. *The Australian Educational Researcher*, 24, 115-133.
- Lärarförbundet [Swedish teacher union] (2018). *Så upptäcker du stress i tid [How to notice stress in time]*.
<https://www.lararforbundet.se/artiklar/saa-upptacker-du-stress-i-tid>
 (2019-02-23).
- Löfgren, H. (2012). Questioning the narrative of more male teachers as the easy solution to problems in Swedish schools. In I.F. Goodson, A. M. Loveless, & D. Stephens (Eds.), *Explorations in narrative research* (pp. 71-81). Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.
- Löfgren, H., & Karlsson, M. (2016). Emotional aspects of teacher collegiality: A narrative approach. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 60, 270-280.
- MacDougall, C., & Fudge, E. (2001). Planning and recruiting the sample for focus groups and in-depth interviews. *Qualitative Health Research*, 11, 117-126.
- Maclellan, E. (2017). Shaping agency through theorizing and practising teaching in teacher education. In J. D. Clandinin, & J. Hsu (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of research on teacher education* (pp.139-142). London: SAGE Publications Ltd.
- MacPhail, A., & Tannehill, D. (2012). Helping pre-service and beginning teachers examine and reframe assumptions about themselves as teachers

- and change agents: “Who is going to listen to you anyway?” *Quest*, 64, 299-312.
- Mansfield, C., Beltman, S., & Price, A. (2014). “I’m coming back again!”: The resilience process of early career teachers. *Teachers and Teaching*, 20, 547-567.
- Malderez, A., Hobson, A. J., Tracey, L., & Kerr, K. (2007). Becoming a student teacher: Core features of the experience. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 30, 225-248.
- Martin, N. K., Sass, D. A., & Schmitt, T. A. (2012). Teacher efficacy in student engagement, instructional management, student stressors, and burnout: A theoretical model using in-class variables to predict teachers' intent-to-leave. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 28, 546-559.
- McCarthy, C. J., Lambert, R. G., Lineback, S., Fitchett, P., & Baddouh, P. G. (2016). Assessing teacher appraisals and stress in the classroom: Review of the classroom appraisal of resources and demands. *Educational Psychology Review*, 28, 577-603.
- McCormack, A. N. N., & Thomas, K. (2003). Is survival enough? Induction experiences of beginning teachers within a New South Wales context. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 31, 125-138.
- McGarr, O., O’Grady, E., & Guilfoyle, L. (2017). Exploring the theory-practice gap in initial teacher education: Moving beyond questions of relevance to issues of power and authority. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 43, 48-60.
- McNamee, L. S., O’Brien, F. Y., & Botha, J. H. (2009). Student perceptions of medico-legal autopsy demonstrations in a student-centred curriculum. *Medical Education*, 43, 66-73.
- Mead, G. H. (1934). *Mind, self, and society: From the standpoint of a social behaviorist*. Chicago, IL: The University of Chicago.
- Mead, G. H. (1938). *The philosophy of the act*. Chicago, IL: The University of Chicago Press.
- Mead, G. H. (2002). *The philosophy of the present*. Amherst, N.Y. : Prometheus Books.
- Meijer, P. C., De Graaf, G., & Meirink, J. (2011). Key experiences in student teachers’ development. *Teachers and Teaching*, 17, 115-129.
- Miles, R., & Knipe, S. (2018). “I sorta felt like I was out in the middle of the ocean”: Novice teachers’ transition to the classroom. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 43, 105-121.
- Montgomery, C., & Rupp, A. A. (2005). A meta-analysis for exploring the diverse causes and effects of stress in teachers. *Canadian Journal of Education*, 28, 458-486.
- Morgan, D. L. (1996). Focus groups. *Annual Review of Sociology*. 22, 129-52.

- Murray-Harvey, R., T. Slee, P., Lawson, M. J., Silins, H., Banfield, G., & Russell, A. (2000). Under stress: The concerns and coping strategies of teacher education students. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 23, 19-35.
- Newberry, M., & Allsop, Y. (2017). Teacher attrition in the USA: The relational elements in a Utah case study. *Teachers and Teaching*, 23, 863-880.
- Nunes, P., Williams, S., Sa, B., & Stevenson, K. (2011). A study of empathy decline in students from five health disciplines during their first year of training. *International Journal of Medical Education*, 2, 12-17.
- O'Connor, K. E. (2008). "You choose to care": Teachers, emotions and professional identity. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 24, 117-126.
- OECD (2015). *Improving Schools in Sweden: An OECD Perspective*. Retrived from <http://www.oecd.org/education/school/improving-schools-in-sweden-an-oecd-perspective.htm> (2019-02-23).
- Orland-Barak, L. (2017). Learning teacher agency in teacher education. In J. D. Clandinin, & H. Jukka (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of research on teacher education* (pp. 139-142). London: SAGE Publications Ltd.
- Pajak, E. F. (2012). Willard Waller's sociology of teaching reconsidered: "What does teaching do to teachers?". *American Educational Research Journal*, 49, 1182-1213.
- Paquette, K. R., & Rieg, S. A. (2016). Stressors and coping strategies through the lens of early childhood/special education pre-service teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 57, 51-58.
- Perinbanayagam, R. S. (1974). The definition of the situation: An analysis of the ethnomethodological and dramaturgical view. *Sociological Quarterly*, 15, 521-541.
- Pfitzner-Eden, F. (2016). I feel less confident so I quit? Do true changes in teacher self-efficacy predict changes in preservice teachers' intention to quit their teaching degree? *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 55, 240-254.
- Pfund, R., Dawson, P., Francis, R., & Rees, B. (2004). Learning how to handle emotionally challenging situations: the context of effective reflection. *Nurse Education in Practice*, 4, 107-113.
- Pietarinen, J., Pyhältö, K., Soini, T., & Salmela-Aro, K. (2013). Reducing teacher burnout: A socio-contextual approach. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 35, 62-72.
- Pillen, M., Beijjaard, D. & den Brok, P. (2013). Tensions in beginning teachers' professional identity development, accompanying feelings and coping strategies. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 36, 240-260.

- Reichl, C., Wach, F. S., Spinath, F. M., Brünken, R., & Karbach, J. (2014). Burnout risk among first-year teacher students: The roles of personality and motivation. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 85, 85-92.
- Rhodes-Kropf, J., Carmody, S. S., Seltzer, D., Redinbaugh, E., Gadmer, N., Block, S. D., & Arnold, R. M. (2005). "This is just too awful; I just can't believe I experienced that...": Medical students' reactions to their 'most memorable' patient death. *Academic Medicine*, 80, 634-640.
- Richmond, G., Floden, R. E., & Drake, C. (2018). Research that illuminates enduring dilemmas in teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 69, 327-329.
- Roofe, G. C. & Miller, P. (2013) "Miss, I am not being fully prepared": Student teachers' concerns about their preparation at a teacher training institution in Jamaica. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 38, 1-13.
- Rorty, R. (1999). *Philosophy and social hope*. London: Penguin.
- Reichl C., Wach F.S., Spinath, F. M., Brünken, R. & Karbach, J (2014). Burnout risk among first-year teacher students: The roles of personality and motivation. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 85, 85-92.
- Ruohotie-Lyhty, M., & Moate, J. (2016). Who and how? Preservice teachers as active agents developing professional identities. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 55, 318-327.
- Rytivaara, A., & Frelin, A. (2017). Committed to trouble: Learning from teachers' stories of challenging yet rewarding teacher-student relationships. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 68, 12-20.
- Salazar, M. (2013). A humanizing pedagogy: Reinventing the principles and practice of education as a journey toward liberation. *Review of Research in Education*, 37, 121-148.
- Samuelsson, M., & Colnerud, G. (2015). Student teachers' perceptions regarding the challenges of leadership. In Garbett, D., & Ovens, A. (Eds.). *Teaching for tomorrow today*. (pp. 312-320). Auckland: International Association of Teachers and Teaching (ISATT) and Edify Ltd.
- Schatz-Oppenheimer, O., & Dvir, N. (2014). From ugly duckling to swan: Stories of novice teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 37, 140-149.
- Schuck, S., Aubusson, P., Buchanan, J., Varadharajan, M., & Burke, P. F. (2018). The experiences of early career teachers: New initiatives and old problems. *Professional Development in Education*, 44, 209-221.
- Schaefer, L., Long, J. S., & Clandinin, D. J. (2012). Questioning the research on early career teacher attrition and retention. *Alberta Journal of Educational Research*, 58, 106-121.

- Sherriff, N. & Gugglberger, L. (2014). "From start to finish": Practical and ethical considerations in the use of focus groups to evaluate sexual health service interventions for young people. *Qualitative Psychology*, 1, 92-106.
- Sheppard, M., Katz, D. & Grosland, T. (2015) Conceptualizing emotions in social studies education. *Theory and Research in Social Education*, 2, 147-178.
- Sinding, C. & Aronson, J. (2003). Exposing failures, unsettling accommodations: Tensions in interview practice. *Qualitative Research*, 3, 95-117.
- Sirotnik, K. A. (1990). Society, schooling, teaching, and preparing to teach. In J. I. Goodlad, R. Soder, & K. A. Sirotnik (Eds.), *The moral dimensions of teaching* (pp. 130-151). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Sjöberg, J., & Hansén, S. E. (2011). Lärarutbildning i ett föränderligt samhälle [Teacher education in a changing society]. In S. E. Hansén & L. Forsman (Eds.). (2011). *Allmändidaktik: Vetenskap för lärare [General didactics: Science for teachers]*, pp. 73-90. Lund: Studentlitteratur.
- Skaalvik, E. M., & Skaalvik, S. (2010). Teacher self-efficacy and teacher burnout: A study of relations. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 26, 1059-1069.
- Skolverket (2016). What is a preschool class? Retrieved from <https://www.skolverket.se/om-skolverket/andra-sprak/in-english/the-swedish-education-system/preschool-class/what-is-a-preschool-class-1.72257>(2017-05-10).
- Smith, K., & Ulvik, M. (2017). Leaving teaching: Lack of resilience or sign of agency? *Teachers and Teaching*, 23, 928-945.
- Stridsman, Sofia (2016). *Sjukskrivningar för stress ökar [Sick reports because of stress increases]*. Skolvärden [paper from Swedish teacher union Lärarnas Riksförbund]. Retrived from <https://skolvarlden.se/artiklar/sjukskrivningar-stress-okar> (2019-02-23).
- Struyven, K., & Vanthournout, G. (2014). Teachers' exit decisions: An investigation into the reasons why newly qualified teachers fail to enter the teaching profession or why those who do enter do not continue teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 43, 37-45.
- Sumsion, J. (1998). Stories from discontinuing student teachers. *Teachers and Teaching*, 4, 245-258
- Swedish Government, (2010). *Tillgången på behöriga lärare [Supply of certified teachers]*. Report 2010:7. Retrived from <https://sdksd.files.wordpress.com/2011/06/aktuella->

- begrepp_2010_7_tillgc3a5ngen-pc3a5-behc3b6riga-lc3a4rare.pdf (2019-03-29).
- Talbot, D., Denny, J., & Henderson, S. (2018). "Trying to decide... what sort of teacher I wanted to be": Mentoring as a dialogic practice. *Teaching Education*, 29, 47-60.
- Teng, F. (2017). Emotional development and construction of teacher identity: Narrative interactions about the pre-service teachers' practicum experiences. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 42, 117-131.
- Thayer-Bacon, B. J. (2001). An examination and redescription of epistemology. In J. K. Kincheloe & D. Weil (Eds.), *Standards and schooling in the United States: An encyclopedia* (Vol. 1, pp. 397–418). Santa Barbara, CA: ABC-CLIO.
- Tomkins, S. S. (2008). *Affect, imagery, consciousness: The complete edition*. New York: Springer.
- Thomas, G., & James, D. (2006). Reinventing grounded theory: Some questions about theory, ground and discovery. *British Educational Research Journal*, 32, 767-795.
- Thomas, W. I., & Thomas, D. S. (1928). *The child in America*. New York: Alfred A.
- Thornberg, R. (2012). Informed grounded theory. *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research*, 56, 243-259.
- Thornberg, R. (2017). Grounded theory. In D. Wyse, N. Selwyn, E. Smith, & L. E. Suter (Eds.), *The BERA/SAGE handbook of educational research* (Vol. 1, pp. 355–375). London: Sage.
- Thornberg, R., & Charmaz, K. (2012). Grounded theory. In S. D. Lapan, M. Quartaroli, & F. Reimer (Eds.), *Qualitative research: An introduction to methods and designs* (pp. 41-67). San Francisco, CA: John Wiley/Jossey-Bass.
- Thornberg, R., & Charmaz, K. (2014). Grounded theory and theoretical coding. In U. Flick (Ed.), *The SAGE handbook of qualitative analysis* (pp.153–169). London: Sage.
- Thornberg, R. & Dunne, C. (forthcoming). Literature review in grounded theory. In A. Bryant & K. Charmaz (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of grounded theory* (2nd ed.). London: Sage.
- Thornberg, R., Halldin, K., Bolmsjö, N., & Petersson, A. (2013). Victimising of school bullying: A grounded theory. *Research Papers in Education*, 28, 309-329.
- Thornberg, R., Perhamus, L., & Charmaz, K. (2014). Grounded theory. In O. N. Saracho (Ed.), *Handbook of research methods in early childhood education: Research methodologies* (Vol. 1, pp. 405–439). Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.

- Timostsuk, I., & Ugaste, A. (2012). The role of emotions in student teachers' professional identity. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 35, 421-433.
- Tiplic, D., Lejonberg, E., & Elstad, E. (2016). Antecedents of newly qualified teachers' turnover intentions: Evidence from Sweden. *International Journal of Learning, Teaching and Educational Research*, 15, 103-122.
- Toompalu, A., Leijen, Ä., & Kullasepp, K. (2017). Professional role expectations and related feelings when solving pedagogical dilemmas: A comparison of pre-and in-service teachers. *Teacher Development*, 21, 307-323.
- Towers, E., & Maguire, M. (2017). Leaving or staying in teaching: A 'vignette' of an experienced urban teacher 'leaver' of a London primary school. *Teachers and Teaching*, 23, 946-960.
- Trent, J. (2014). When communities collide: The shared construction and defence of community and identity during a teaching practicum. *Teacher Development*, 18, 29-45.
- Tsaur, S. H., Ku, P. S., & Luoh, H. F. (2016). Problem-focused or emotion-focused: Which coping strategy has a better effect on perceived career barriers and choice goals? *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 21, 425-442.
- Uitto, M., Jokikokko, K., & Estola, E. (2015). Virtual special issue on teachers and emotions in Teaching and teacher education (TATE) in 1985-2014. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 50, 124-135.
- UKÄ (2016). *Avhopp från lärarutbildningen [attrition from teacher education]*. Statistical analyses Retrieved from <https://www.uka.se/download/18.12f25798156a345894e49e1/1487841861905/statistisk-analys-2016-04-19-avhopp-lararutbildningen.pdf> (2019-02-23).
- Ulvik, M., Smith, K., & Helleve, I. (2017). Ethical aspects of professional dilemmas in the first year of teaching. *Professional Development in Education*, 43, 236-252.
- Veenman, S. (1984). Perceived problems of beginning teachers. *Review of Educational Research*, 54, 143-178.
- Vetenskapsrådet. (2002). *Forskningsetiska principer inom humanistisk-samhällsvetenskaplig forskning [Ethical research principles in humanities and social sciences]*. Retrieved from <http://www.codex.vr.se/texts/HSFR.pdf> (2017-05-16)
- Vetenskapsrådet. (2011). *God forskningssed [Appropriate research practice]*. Retrieved from <https://publikationer.vr.se/produkt/god-forskningssed/> (2017-05-16)

- Väisänen, S., Pietarinen, J., Pyhältö, K., Toom, A., & Soini, T. (2017). Social support as a contributor to student teachers' experienced well-being. *Research Papers in Education*, 32, 41-55.
- Wang, H., Hall, N. C., & Rahimi, S. (2015). Self-efficacy and causal attributions in teachers: effects on burnout, job satisfaction, illness, and quitting intentions. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 47, 120-130.
- Westbury, I., Hansén, S. E., Kansanen, P., & Björkvist, O. (2005). Teacher education for research-based practice in expanded roles: Finland's experience. *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research*, 49, 475-485.
- Weurlander, M., Scheja M., Hult, H., & Wernerson, A. (2012). Emotionally challenging learning situations: Medical students' experiences of autopsies. *International Journal of Medical Education*, 3, 63-70.
- White, M. C., & Bembenuddy, H. (2013). Not all avoidance help seekers are created equal: Individual differences in adaptive and executive help seeking. *Sage Open*, 3, 1-14.
- Wibeck, V., Dahlgren, M. A., & Öberg, G. (2007). Learning in focus groups an analytical dimension for enhancing focus group research. *Qualitative Research*, 7, 249-267.
- Woolfolk, A. E., & Hoy, W. K. (1990). Prospective teachers' sense of efficacy and beliefs about control. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 82, 81-91.
- Wu, Z., & Chen, J. (2018). Teachers' emotional experience: insights from Hong Kong primary schools. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, 1-11.
- Yuan, R. & Lee, I. (2015). The cognitive, social and emotional processes of teacher identity construction in a pre-service teacher education programme. *Research Papers in Education*, 30, 469-491.
- Yuan, R. & Lee, I. (2016). 'I need to be strong and competent': A narrative inquiry of a student-teacher's emotions and identities in teaching practicum. *Teachers and Teaching*, 22, 1-23.
- Zembylas, M. (2007). Theory and methodology in researching emotions in education. *International Journal of Research and Method in Education*, 30, 57-72.
- Zhu, G. (2017). Chinese student teachers' perspectives on becoming a teacher in the practicum: Emotional and ethical dimensions of identity shaping. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 43, 491-495.
- Zhu, G., Waxman, H., Rivera, H., & Burlbaw, L. M. (2018). The micropolitics of student teachers' professional vulnerability during teaching practicums: A Chinese perspective. *The Asia-Pacific Education Researcher*, 27, 155-165.

Appendix 1: Interview guides

Following interview guides have been translated from Swedish.

Interview guide focus groups, paper one

Tell me about situations during the education that aroused strong positive emotions.

Tell me about situations during the education that aroused strong discomfort, or made you feel bad.

What did you do? (How did you handle this?)

Did you receive any support from anyone in regards to this?

What do you think you learned in the situation?

How did you handle the content you should learn when you at the same time handled the emotions?

Are there situations you worry about in the education or in work-life in the future?

Interview guide individual interviews, paper two

How come you choose the teacher occupation?

Tell me about situations during the education that aroused strong positive emotions.

Tell me about situations during the education that aroused strong discomfort, or made you feel bad.

What did you do? (How did you handle this?)

Did you receive any support from anyone in regards to this?

What do you think you learned in the situation?

How did you handle the content you should learn when you at the same time handled the emotions?

Are there situations you worry about in the education or in work-life in the future?

Interview guide individual interviews, paper three

Start

Tell me about situations during the education that aroused strong positive emotions.

About the education:

If you think back to all your education, what situations were particularly emotionally challenging?

How come?

How did you handle ...?

Support? Guidance?

If you think back to this situation that...

Did you learn anything about yourself from that?

Did you learn anything valuable for your coming occupation?

How did the situation affect your ability to apply your theoretical knowledge? (skills)

How did the situation affect your learning skills for the occupation?

How did the situation affect your learning about a professional approach? (What do you think is a professional approach to teaching?)

When did this happen? If this happened today would you act differently?

About future work life:

If you think about your future work life what situations do you think will be emotionally challenging?

How come...?

How do you think you will handle...?

What type of support do you wish for?

Do you wish to add anything, did we leave something out that you wanted to talk about?

How did you find doing this interview?

Interview guide ending interview longitudinal data, paper four

Introduction

If you sum up these two years since the last time we talked, how were they?

Situations

If you think about the time since you started working after your education, what sort of situations have been particularly emotionally challenging?

How come?

How did you handle?

Support? Guidance?

Education

If you think back to this situation that...

Did you learn anything about yourself from that?

Did you learn anything valuable for your coming occupation?

How did the education prepare you to handle this type of situation?

In regards to earlier findings

Spontaneous talk about uncertainty and inadequacy.

Go through starting interview- what do we discuss.

Support

How did you handle the situation?

Did you receive support from anyone?

Colleagues?

Ending

Do you wish to add anything, did we leave something out that you wanted to talk about?

How did you find doing this interview?

Questions of self-report two and three

Self-report two

I want you to write about thoughts you have about graduating and starting to work as a teacher. With what thoughts do you leave teacher education and what do you think it will be like to start working as a teacher?

Self-report three

I want you to write about how the start of your working life has been. What challenges have you experienced? What emotions have been generated starting to teach? What are your experiences starting to teach?

Papers

The papers associated with this thesis have been removed for copyright reasons. For more details about these see:

<http://urn.kb.se/resolve?urn=urn:nbn:se:liu:diva-156613>

190. BOLLDÉN, KARIN. Online teaching practices. Sociomaterial matters in higher education settings. 2015. ISBN: 978-91-7519-123-2
191. MALMQUIST, ANNA. Pride and Prejudice. Lesbian families in contemporary Sweden. 2015. ISBN: 978-91-7519-087-7
192. AVBY, GUNILLA. Evidence in Practice. On Knowledge Use and Learning in Social Work. 2015. ISBN: 978-91-74519-088-4
193. FORSBERG, CAMILLA. Students' Perspectives on Bullying. 2016. ISBN: 978-91-7685-874-5
194. MUHRMAN, KAROLINA. Inget klöver utan matematik. En studie av matematik i yrkesutbildning och yrkesliv. 2016. ISBN: 978-91-7685-851-6
195. SKAGERLUND, KENNY. Magnitude Processing in Developmental Dyscalculia. A Heterogeneous learning disability with different cognitive profiles. 2016. ISBN: 978-91-7685-831-8
196. EKEBLAD, ANNIKA. A Randomized Trial of Interpersonal Psychotherapy and Cognitive Behavioral Therapy for Major Depressive Disorder – Predictors of process and outcome. 2016. ISBN: 978-91-7685-803-5
197. MÅNSSON, KRISTOFFER N.T. Restructuring the Socially Anxious Brain. Using magnetic resonance imaging to advance our understanding of effective cognitive behaviour therapy for social anxiety disorder. 2016. ISBN: 978-91-7685-688-8
198. SILFVERNAGEL, KRISTIN. Individually tailored internet-based cognitive behavioural therapy for adolescents, young adults and older adults with anxiety. 2017. ISBN: 978-91-7685-566-9
199. ELOFSSON, JESSICA. Children's early mathematics learning and development. Number game interventions and number line estimations. 2017. ISBN: 978-91-7685-517-1
200. ÅHLFELDT, EMANUEL. Hållbart utvecklingsarbete i vård och omsorg. Ett institutionellt perspektiv på projekt i en professionell och byråkratisk kontext. 2017. ISBN: 978-91-7685-445-7
201. VERNMARK, KRISTOFER. Therapeutic alliance and different treatment formats when delivering internet-based CBT for depression. 2017. ISBN: 978-91-7685-436-5
202. FRANKL, MY. Psychotherapy for Substance Use Disorder – the importance of affects. 2017. ISBN: 978-91-7685-429-7

203. ABDULLA, AFRAH. Readiness or resistance? – Newly arrived adult migrants' experiences, meaning making, and learning in Sweden. 2017. ISBN: 978-91-7685-428-0
204. OLSSON, LINDA. "Count on me!". Mathematical development, developmental dyscalculia and computer-based intervention. 2018. ISBN: 978-91-7685-409-9
205. COLLIANDER, HELENA, Being and Becoming a Teacher in Initial Literacy and Second Language Education for Adults. 2018. ISBN: 978-91-7685-304-7
206. TOPOOCO, NAIRA. Blended Cognitive Behavior Therapy. Efficacy and Acceptability for Treating Depression in the Adult and Adolescent Population. 2018. ISBN: 978-91-7685-297-2
207. SOLÍS MARCOS, IGNACIO. Challenges in Partially Automated Driving: A Human Factors Perspective. 2018. ISBN: 978-91-7685-296-5
208. THORSTEN, ANJA. Berättelseskrivande i skolan. Att studera, beskriva och utveckla ett kunnande. 2018. ISBN: 978-91-7685-258-3
209. ELEONOR, BREDLÖV. Shaped for beauty. Vocational and gendered subjectivities in private education for the beauty industry. 2018. ISBN: 978-91-7685-248-4
210. VESTERGREN, SARA. Psychological change as an outcome of participation in collective action. 2018. ISBN: 978-91-7685-242-2
211. MÖLLER, CLARA. Mentalizing. Competence and process. 2018. ISBN: 978-91-7685-189-0
212. SÖDERBERG GIDHAGEN, YLVA. Psychological treatment of outpatients with substance use disorders in routine care – attachment style, alliance, and treatment outcome. 2018. ISBN: 978-91-7685-197-5
213. HAGMAN, WILLIAM. When are nudges acceptable? Influences of beneficiaries, techniques, alternatives and choice architects. 2018. ISBN: 978-91-7685-160-9
214. RAHM, LINA. Educational imaginaries: a genealogy of the digital citizen. 2019. ISBN: 978-91-7685-158-6
215. HALVARSSON LUNDQVIST, AGNETA. Learning Dynamics of Workplace Development Programmes. Studies in Swedish national programmes. 2019. ISBN: 978-91-7685-124-1

216. HOLMQVIST LARSSON, MATTIAS. Rupture and Repair in the Working Alliance: Relation to Psychotherapy Outcome and Within-Session Interaction. 2019. ISBN: 978-91-7685-111-1

FACULTY OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCE

Linköping Studies in Behavioural Science No 217, 2019
Department of Behavioural Sciences and Learning

Linköping University
SE-581 83 Linköping, Sweden

www.liu.se