The Influence of Professional Development, in Educative Mentoring, on Mentors' Learning and Mentoring Practices.

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ATTESTATION OF AUTHORSHIP

I hereby declare that this submission is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person (except where explicitly defined in the acknowledgements), nor material which to a substantial extent has been submitted for the award of any other degree or diploma of a university or other institution of higher learning.

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ABSTRACT

Mentoring plays a significant role in the successful acculturation of Provisionally Certificated Teachers (PCT) in New Zealand and has been formally recognised and centrally funded as part of mentoring and induction programmes in schools since the mid 1980s. Despite this long standing commitment the mentoring experiences of beginning teachers continue to be of varying quality. Some reasons attributed to this are that time is not provided for the mentors to enact their role and mentoring professional development is not afforded to support and grow mentors. The quality of mentors is another issue, as it is not uncommon for mentors to be selected primarily according to their teaching prowess and length of service, rather than their knowledge of or ability to work well with adult learners. This is concerning when it is understood that good teachers do not necessarily make good mentors.

With the intention of providing the best start for their PCTs, mentors frequently adhere to traditional mentoring methods centred around pastoral care, the transmission of teaching knowledge, technical assistance and problem solving led by the mentor. Instead, what is needed are educative mentors who, in collaboration with their mentee, adroitly design a mentoring programme that furthers the PCTs' understanding and application of teaching pedagogy while maintaining a focus on the achievement of students and fostering the unique professional identity of each mentee. Research suggests, however, that mentors do not innately shift from traditional mentoring to educative mentoring approaches and so professional development is frequently recommended to promote and support this transition.

Despite this recommendation little research has been conducted into understanding what impact professional development has on how mentors learn or their mentoring practices. This realisation provided the impetus for this study which sought to explore the impact of collaborative professional development on the learning and mentoring practices of six mentors who mentor PCTs. Situated within an interpretivist/constructivist paradigm, and in keeping with the collaborative premise of the study, Participatory Action Research, along with focus group and semi-structured interviews, were the chosen qualitative methodology and data collection tools.

The results from this small-scale study revealed that in a short time frame the mentors were able to trial various self-selected educative mentoring principles and change their thinking and actions about their mentoring beliefs and practices. The creation of disjuncture between mentors' personal beliefs and new learning, along with opportunities for the social construction of knowledge and the implementation of focussed new learning as part of the mentors' day-to-day mentoring work proved to be critical components that led to double loop learning for the mentors. A significant finding was also that the mentors' learning was tightly bound to the learning of their mentees. As the mentors formulated goals that required them to change their mentoring approaches, they sought observable and measurable evidence of their effectiveness through the changes their PCTs made. The implication of this being that the mentors were reliant on external factors beyond their control rather than any intrinsic sense of growth to determine the extent of their own learning.

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Chapter 1 Introduction

Mentoring of beginning teachers in their first years of teaching is common practice in many parts of the Western world and is credited with benefitting novice teachers' job satisfaction, self-esteem, self-reflection, problem solving (Hobson, Ashby, Malderez, & Tomlinson, 2009), well being, and teaching practice (Richter et al., 2013). Mentoring also serves a multitude of purposes including: easing the transition of new teachers from student of teaching to beginning teacher, stemming the high attrition rates of beginning teachers, and improving the quality of teaching practice (Achinstein & Athanases, 2006; Fresko & Nasser-Abu Alhija, 2009; Mullen, 2012; Roehrig, Bohn, Turner, & Pressley, 2008; Wang & Odell, 2002). Yet the quality and effectiveness of mentoring that novice teachers experience has fallen short of desired ideals (Athanases et al., 2008; Roehrig et al., 2008) and been found to be inconsistent and haphazard (Achinstein & Athanases, 2006). While positive aspects of induction and mentoring programmes within the New Zealand context have been observed, such as the entitlement of beginning teachers to mentoring support and resourcing for the first two years of their teaching practice (Education Council, 2015a), issues with the quality of this mentoring support have also been identified (Langdon, Flint, Kromer, Ryder, & Karl, 2011; Pigott-Irvine, Aitken, Ritchie, Ferguson, & McGrath, 2009).

Learning to teach is challenging enough for novice teachers with the support of a mentor but becomes even more fraught if they enter their first school and discover they are to be left to their own devices to sink or swim with no mentoring programme or support in place for them. Surprisingly, for beginning teachers, or PCTs (Provisionally Certificated Teachers) as they are known in New Zealand, instances of this are still apparent (Whatman, 2016) despite widespread beliefs that induction and mentoring programmes are the primary means to assisting new teachers (Feiman-Nemser, 2001a). A lack of support and sense of dissatisfaction can lead many teachers in the early years of their careers to leave the profession. New Zealand is not immune to this phenomenon with a recent survey by the New Zealand Education Institute (2016) revealing that within three years of graduation 37 per cent of new teachers had left teaching (Lynne, 2016). An aging teacher population exacerbates this problem as fewer teachers are entering the profession than those leaving it through retirement (Nelson, 2016).

This exodus of novice teachers is further compounded in the Auckland region where a current deficit of teachers exists (Mackenzie, 2016; New Zealand Education Institute, 2016). Therefore, it is imperative to increase the appeal of teaching and combat attrition rates for novice teachers by providing high quality induction and mentoring programmes.

Historical Contexts of Mentoring

Taking a retrospective view shows that over time the type and quality of mentoring programmes offered to PCTs have changed. These programmes have been dependent on system wide beliefs about mentoring practices and views of the mentor's role. Underlying assumptions of novice teachers and their needs along with how mentors define and describe their roles and professional identity have also impacted significantly on the mentoring practices that PCTs have encountered (Leshem, 2014). All of these assumptions and practices are instrumental in the effect they have on mentees' beliefs about themselves and their professional work. Different mentoring approaches develop mentees in ways that produce different dispositions and views of their work, which are founded on "different kinds of knowledge, capabilities and values" (Kemmis, Heikkinen, Fransson, Aspfors, & Edwards-Groves, 2014, p.155).

In the New Zealand context evidence of this can be found by noting how prevalent beliefs have reinforced or changed mentoring paradigms as new research, ideas or evidence have emerged. Prior to the 1980's where individualistic notions of learning prevailed, PCTs in New Zealand were assumed to be fully functioning professionals that could be left to their own devices and who only needed the "rough edges" smoothed (Murdoch, cited in Main & Hill, 2007, p. 117). However, as data emerged about novice teachers' experiences in the 1970's when it was found that little growth had been made over their first years of teaching, it was proposed that beginning teachers needed strategic support and access to on-going professional development (PD). In response to this, humanistic notions of mentoring and induction (which broadly exhibit features of traditional or limited mentoring) were introduced (Main & Hill, 2007).

Traditional mentoring emphasises pastoral care, assistance with the practicalities of teaching and easing the transition of the PCT into the teaching profession and school culture (Achinstein & Athanases, 2006; Langdon et al., 2011; Norman & Feiman-Nemser, 2005; Upson-Bradbury, 2010). This type of support continues to be important today because the psychological stresses

of clashes between novice teachers' personal lives and professional expectations are considerable (Wang & Odell, 2002). The inclusion of humanistic elements is also important because a fruitful mentoring relationship rests upon the interactions and levels of trust and comfort felt between the mentor and mentee (Hobson, 2002; Stanulis & Ames, 2009).

Whilst treating novice teachers humanely so they feel well supported is imperative to mentoring success and to the likelihood PCTs remain in the profession, it has become increasingly apparent that pastoral care as a primary form of mentoring support fails to set up new teachers with the necessary dispositions and professional knowledge required for teaching students in the 21st century (Achinstein & Athanases, 2006). This realisation, in tandem with a growing interest in improving the quality of teaching (Roehrig et al., 2008; Stanulis, Brondyk, Little, & Wibbens, 2014; Wang, Odell, & Schwille, 2008), has led to calls nationally and internationally for much broader conceptual understandings of mentoring that have "ambitious educative aims" (Achinstein & Athanases, 2006, p. 2).

The Emergence of Educative Mentoring

Consequently, a shift from the promotion of humanistic philosophies towards mentoring ideals that focus on pedagogy and adult learning (Main & Hill, 2007) has arisen and a mentoring approach that is of a more 'educative' nature than one that purely offers emotional support and advice and guidance is sought. A mentoring philosophy that responds to this and is gaining credence is 'educative mentoring', which is based on constructivist principles and adult learning theory. A key feature of educative mentoring is that it fosters a bifocal vision of growing and catering for the learning and outcomes of both the PCT and students in the novice teacher's class (Achinstein & Athanases, 2006; Education Council, 2015a; Langdon, 2014; Norman & Feiman-Nemser, 2005).

It is this bifocal vision that is believed to hold the potential to reduce the gap in academic achievement between those students who excel and those who fail within the current New Zealand education system. There is a belief that by developing adaptive teachers who can cater for the diverse needs of students, progress will be made towards achieving "equitable learning outcomes" for all students (Education Council, 2015a, p. 13). With increasingly divergent student populations there is a need for teachers to be culturally responsive, adaptive and able

to meet the various needs of students by selecting thoughtfully from a repertoire of different instructional strategies. Teachers also need to be aware of the contributing social and political constraints that limit their practices and reinforce inequities within New Zealand society. Educative mentors seek to expose these limitations and to challenge the status quo by taking a stance as agents of change (Feiman-Nemser, 2001a).

Being a change agent requires mentors to be aware of current political, social and ethical constraints and injustices inherent in education systems and schooling and to be committed to making a positive difference themselves. According to Achinstein and Athanases (2006), mentors who are change agents know how to work with novice teachers in ways that help them "pose problems of teaching, uncover assumptions and reconstruct practice" (p. 9). The mentor's role of engaging their PCT in deep conversations that focus on pedagogical matters and issues is imperative because novice teachers may also rate themselves as more capable than they are and believe that they have a greater knowledge of teaching than they actually do (Feiman-Nemser, 2001a; Patrick, Elliot, Hulme, & McPhee, 2010; Roehrig et al., 2008). Mind-sets such as these can be difficult to change or shift, therefore, how mentors perceive themselves and their PCTs as learners is critical to the type of mentoring relationship they enact.

Educative mentors hold a different view of their mentees and the mentoring relationship than those who adhere to traditional mentoring beliefs and practices. While a traditional mentoring partnership privileges the mentor as expert who provides advice and transmits knowledge to the mentee, educative mentors view themselves more as learners who collaborate and jointly inquire into teaching practices and classroom dilemmas with their PCT (Langdon, 2017). This is not to suggest that educative mentors withhold their expertise but rather they skilfully use a range of strategies and approaches to uncover their PCT's personal assumptions, knowledge and skills and assist their mentees in amalgamating understandings of theory and practice in ways that improve the learning and achievement of both the PCT and their students.

Regrettably, mentoring situations still occur where mentors believe it is their role as teaching experts to fill the gaps in a PCT's knowledge and skill to the exclusion of recognising and utilising a mentee's existing strengths and previous life experiences. The vast experiences and growing body of knowledge PCTs bring with them are welcomed and utilised by educative

mentors who understand that a novice teacher's learning sits on a continuum; commencing with observations of teaching and school from a student's perspective, progressing through to participation as a student teacher in training before graduating to the position of becoming a PCT with full responsibility for a class of their own (Feiman-Nemser, 2001a). These experiences of school, teaching and learning demonstrate that PCTs are continually developing their own mental models and establishing personal and professional values and beliefs.

Providing opportunities for the PCT to share previous experiences and learning means that at times it will be fitting for the mentee to be the teacher, and the mentor the learner. A cognisant educative mentor needs to know when this is applicable so that mentoring becomes "less hierarchical, less individualistic, more wide ranging and more inclusive" (Hargreaves & Fullan as cited in Ulvik & Sunde, 2013, p. 755). Fostering this type of relationship by seeking and encouraging reciprocity of learning and a respect for the knowledge, ideas and skills the mentee brings goes some way to redressing the power differential that exists between a mentor and mentee.

Challenges and Benefits for Mentors

Positive mentoring outcomes for mentors are less commonly explicated but what is known is that the process of mentoring can lead to self-reflection by mentors as they endeavour to present a good role model to their mentees, share their pedagogical knowledge of teaching and model good teaching practice (Lopez-Real & Kwan, 2005; Ponte & Twomey, 2014; Smith & Nadelson, 2016). Some mentors have regarded mentoring to be an affirming experience because it elicits feelings of satisfaction through their contributions to the learning and growth of novice teachers (Lopez-Real & Kwan, 2005; Moore, 2014) while others have taken pride in the mana[1] associated with being a mentor (Hobson et al., 2009). Learning together or from their mentee has also been a positive outcome for mentors (Hudson, 2013), as have feelings of being energised, refreshed or renewed (Hobson et al., 2009; Ponte & Twomey, 2014). Witnessing new or different approaches from observing their mentees and acquiring new ideas are other benefits identified by mentors (Hobson et al., 2009; Hudson, 2013).

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[1] Language of the indigenous Māori people of Aotearoa New Zealand meaning a supernatural force associated with authority, power or prestige found within animate and inanimate entities

Mentoring has its drawbacks for mentors too, who can be subject to challenges, doubts and struggles in their mentoring roles. Examples of this can be found in the studies of Langdon (2017) and Ponte and Twomey (2014) who found that experienced mentors expressed doubts about their own abilities and what they felt they could offer beginning teachers. Just as beginning teachers may feel exposed or uncertain when being observed, mentors can experience the same feelings when their mentees observe them (Bullough Jr., 2005; Hobson et al., 2009; Timperley, 2001). Other studies have found that the mentoring role can cause mentors to feel frustrated, isolated, and overworked due to unmanageable workloads and underprepared for the role due to a lack of training or PD (Hobson et al., 2009; Hudson, 2013; Moore, 2014). The Education Council recognises that mentors need PD in mentoring if the learning of PCTs is to be maximised. It is thought that by improving the knowledge and skill of mentors and by providing support at a systems level the teaching profession will "progressively improve its ability to contribute to equitable learning outcomes for all ākonga [2]" (Education Council, 2015a, p.13).

It needs to be recognised that educative mentors must have knowledge and skill in working with adults as well as proven experience in successfully advancing the learning and achievement of students. We live in a rapidly changing world where information is available anywhere at anytime to anyone and teaching has become increasingly complex. Having pedagogical and practical knowledge and experience as a teacher is not sufficient to be an effective mentor and, furthermore, good teachers do not necessarily make good mentors (Bullough Jr, 2005; Timperley, 2001). Mentors cannot afford to adhere to traditional ideas of teaching or to regard their role as one of purely transmitting their own personal ideas or what may be limited or dated professional knowledge.

Educative Mentors as Learners

To promote the growth of their PCTs and advance their own professional learning educative mentors need to view themselves as learners. Recent research suggests that shifting from telling and advising to learning *with* mentees is something that takes time, is challenging, and for many mentors is a new understanding of mentoring (Langdon, 2017). Essentially, educative

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[2] A learner who may be in a range of settings, from early childhood to secondary and beyond (Education Council, 2015, p. 21)

mentors are now being asked to shift beyond a bifocal focus of mentoring, of catering for the learning of the PCT and students, to a trifocal understanding of mentoring, where mentors are learners too, and who also have learning needs (Langdon, 2014, 2017). The field of learning, however, is a contentious one that lacks consensus due to an abundance of divergent viewpoints and theories (Alexander, Schallert, & Reynolds, 2009). In addition, debate continues as to whether differences exist between how children and adults learn. Whilst there are commonalities between the two groups there are also arguments that disparities are evident too (Merriam, Caffarella, & Baumgartner, 2007; O'Toole & Essex, 2012). There is a general belief that adults have a wider and more extensive life-based repertoire of experiences than that of children (O'Toole & Essex, 2012). Furthermore, because adults' identities are linked to these experiences and they have commitments and responsibilities to their families, communities and places of employment, their motivation, processes and contexts around learning differ to that of children (Merriam et al., 2007).

Smith says "learning is a personal and natural process" (as cited in Merriam et al., 2007, p. 421), which would imply that learning is a unique experience for each individual and in accordance with this different experiences, beliefs and values will abound within any group of adults. The complexities associated with how adults learn and what influence them are aspects of research yet to be studied in depth. A gap also exists in that few adults are formally trained in how to teach adults (O'Toole & Essex, 2012). This lack of formal training certainly applies to the participants in this research project and is the norm for many mentors in other New Zealand schools. If it is accepted that mentoring is deemed to be an essential component of an induction programme that aims to accelerate and lift the quality of new teachers practices and abilities to cater for students' varied needs then there is a need for greater understanding about how mentors learn and the impact this has on PCTs. Additionally, as mentoring is a relationship that relies on participation, interaction and joint learning by the mentor and mentee, the gap in what is known about mentors' issues and learning impedes "our understanding of the overall mentorship process and…theoretical development of the field" (Allen, as cited in Jones, 2013, p. 391).

Study Aims, Questions and Research Design

The impetus for this study stemmed from a realisation that mentors in general are not trained in how to teach adults, and very little is known about how mentors learn or what impact professional development has on their mentoring practices and on their mentees' learning. Therefore, how mentors learn about and enact educative mentoring principles and the influence this learning has on mentors' mentoring practices is central to this study. The question this study seeks to answer is:

How does a collaborative professional development programme about educative mentoring affect the learning and actions of mentors in a primary school?

In support of this main question are a series of sub questions. These questions are aligned with different phases of Participatory Action Research, which forms part of this study's methodology. The sub questions are:

- How can a professional development programme of educative mentoring be co-constructed and applied in a primary school setting?

- How does a collaborative professional development programme of educative mentoring promote and influence mentors' learning?

- How does educative mentoring promote Provisionally Certificated Teachers' awareness and understanding of individualised student learning in the classroom?

- How does the mentors' learning then influence Provisionally Certificated Teachers' professional growth and teaching practice?

- How do an awareness and understanding of individualised student learning in the classroom then influence Provisionally Certificated Teachers' professional growth and teaching practice?

This research project is situated within an interpretivist/constructivist paradigm and, therefore, qualitative research method, data gathering tools and analysis were employed. It was integral to this study that a method catering for the collaborative model of professional development sought in the leading research question was used, hence the selection of Participatory Action Research (PAR). Four mentees and six mentors comprised the final group of participants who ranged in years of experience as teachers and mentors. Semi-structured individual interviews were used to interview all participants and the mentor participants also partook in a series of focus group interviews as part of the PAR process. Data was collected via an inductive process, which led to the final overarching themes that are discussed in Chapter 4.

This chapter has argued the importance of mentoring and educative mentoring, particularly, as a means to lift the quality of the teaching profession and to improve learning and achievement results for underachieving students. In addition, a brief overview of the research design has

been provided along with information on the participants, and data collection tools utilised in this research project. An overview of the content and organisation for the remaining chapters within this thesis is summarised below.

Chapter 2- research literature relating to the topic of mentoring is reviewed and analysed. Key aspects of how mentoring is defined; its benefits and challenges, characteristics of educative mentors, different mentoring perspectives as well as influences on mentors' learning are discussed.

Chapter 3- the theoretical framework underpinning this research project, and justifications for the chosen methodology, data collection and analysis are explained. Ethical considerations are addressed and the setting and participants are described.

Chapter 4- the voices of the mentors and mentees illustrate the six overarching themes that make up the findings in this chapter. The themes are singled out for discussion however, the reality is that these are entwined demonstrating the complexities of mentoring practices and relationships.

Chapter 5- this chapter builds on the findings by comparing and contrasting what participants have to say about mentoring and educative mentoring in conjunction with local and international literature. The organisation and themes differ from chapter 4 in an attempt to weave the findings together to reflect the complex and interconnected nature of how mentors and mentees work together and to illustrate influences on mentors' learning.

Chapter 6- a summary of the overall findings, implications and limitations of this research project, along with recommendations for possible future research projects are to be found in this final chapter.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

This chapter reviews and analyses national and international research literature of five prevalent ideas associated with this research project. The key ideas are:

- mentoring definitions and impacts on mentees and mentors

- different mentoring perspectives (including educative mentoring)

- characteristics of educative mentors

- professional development for mentors

- influences on mentors' learning

The chapter begins by describing how mentoring is perceived and defined, and identifies some of the benefits and challenges associated with it.

Mentoring Definitions and the Impact of Mentoring on Mentors and Novice Teachers

Mentoring is utilised in many different fields such as medicine, banking, sport, law and the military (Strong & Baron, 2004) and, accordingly, mentors' roles have been adapted to support a range of purposes and goals. The role of the mentor has been described as that of a "coach, confidant, teacher, parent figure, role model, counsellor" (Upson Bradbury, 2010, p. 1050), as well as a buddy, educational companion and agent of change (Feiman-Nemser, 2001a). Despite these varied perceptions of mentors, a common notion of mentoring is that of the pairing of a veteran or expert with a novice or lesser-experienced individual, with the aim of supporting and developing the novice (Mullen, 2012). For the purposes of this study mentoring is understood as the formal one-to-one pairing of an experienced teacher (mentor), who has considerable pedagogical and professional knowledge, with a beginning teacher (mentee) in their first or second year of teaching in order to support and develop the novice's knowledge and skill in teaching. An effort has been made to find research literature that focuses predominantly on mentoring of novice teachers however, some literature incorporates findings relating to novices and more experienced teachers, while a few pertain solely to pre-service teachers.

The first years of a teacher's career are formative in influencing the likelihood as to whether they remain in teaching, as well as determining what type of teacher they become (Feiman-Nemser, 2001a). Beginning teachers, or Provisionally Certificated Teachers (PCTs) as they are

known in New Zealand, face many challenges and one of the most significant and daunting can be attributed to the two jobs they have of teaching simultaneously whilst learning to teach (Feiman-Nemser, 2001b). In addition, new teachers can experience "reality shock" (Hobson, et al., 2009; Wang & Odell, 2002) where they feel overwhelmed and may be in survival mode (Achinstein & Athanases, 2006; Rajuan, Beijaard, & Verloop, 2008; Stanulis, Brondyk, Little, & Wibbens, 2014). To support and move PCTs through this phase, induction programmes (of which mentoring is a central strategy) have been implemented. Some scholars propose that mentoring in itself could be "the most effective form of supporting the professional development of beginning teachers" (Hobson et al., 2009, p. 209), however, making links between mentoring and the influences it has on the growth of PCTs is not without its challenges.

Evidence as to how and in what ways mentoring support directly impacts novice teachers' development and teaching is limited (Hobson et al., 2009; Richter et al., 2013). This is partly due to the difficulties in separating the influence of mentoring from other types of assistance PCTs can access (Hobson et al., 2009) and also because a universal agreed definition or purpose for mentoring has not been established (Aspfors & Fransson, 2015; Kemmis et al., 2014). In the absence of a single definition, multiple understandings of mentoring have evolved which have been shaped by the various goals, practices and purposes of different mentoring programmes in use at the time (Hobson et al., 2009; Roehrig et al., 2008; Tang & Choi, 2005). Whilst mentoring can be used flexibly to achieve a range of goals in different contexts, it can also be a "contested concept" (Kemmis et al., 2014, p. 155), especially when it is intended to address conflicting purposes.

Support versus evaluation. A difficulty arises where mentoring is expected to help socialise PCTs into the profession as well as measure their performance against set criteria as they progress towards becoming fully registered teachers, as is the situation in New Zealand (Langdon et al., 2011). Some authors argue that these purposes are in conflict because they cause personal and ethical dilemmas for mentors (Koballa, Kittleson, Bradbury, & Dias, 2010), particularly when mentors struggle to establish the boundaries of their role, determine whom they are accountable to and to whom they owe their allegiance (Orland-Barak, 2002). Furthermore, by positioning mentors as trusted colleagues and evaluators, the formation of

mutually trustworthy relationships becomes more difficult (Hobson et al., 2009; Langdon, Lind, Shaw, & Pilcher, 2009), potentially to the extent that the quality of the relationship and the learning process is seriously impaired (Jones, 2009). This paradox of supporter and assessor is also a barrier for the mentee who wishes to present a good image and, wary of an evaluative purpose, is hesitant about seeking help and sharing problems with their mentor (Feiman-Nemser, 2001a).

In contrast, there is a view that mentors can and should simultaneously take on the mantles of supporter and assessor. By considering assistance and assessment to have "overlapping, blurred boundaries" (Piggot-Irvine, Aitken, Ritchie, Ferguson, & McGrath, 2009, p. 193) it is thought that developmentally and more accountably oriented roles and responsibilities of mentors can co-exist. There is a suggestion that more thought needs to be put into considering the natural interdependence of support and assessment rather than assuming the two roles cannot be combined (Education Council, 2015b). Feiman-Nemser reasons that mentors need to collect evidence about their mentees progress and the impact of mentees' growth on students' learning, and by ensuring that a transparent teacher evaluation system is in place, it is possible for mentors to act as both evaluators and supporters (as cited in Education Council, 2015b).

An alternative understanding of mentoring and assessment of beginning teachers is evident in Finland where no assessment takes place. Here, groups of beginning teachers voluntarily meet with a mentor who facilitates a group discussion within a community of practice. The mentees assume the roles of co-mentors and co-mentees for the mutual development of all (Kemmis et al., 2014). Kemmis et al. (2014) assert that high levels of trust in the teaching profession to collaborate and self-regulate, such as exemplified in the Finnish context, enables a mentoring culture of "collaborative self-development" to prevail and endure (p. 158). Such perspectives on teaching and mentoring are rare.

Mentoring Perspectives

Specific conditions and discourses both enable and constrain mentoring perspectives. This is exemplified by Wang and Odell (2002) who identify and critique the humanistic, situated apprenticeship and critical collaborative learning mentoring approaches, all of which are

underpinned by political and paradigmatic beliefs about the functions of mentoring programmes, mentors' roles and how and what mentees need to learn.

Humanistic and situated apprenticeship mentoring. According to Wang and Odell (2002), humanistic perspectives of mentoring emphasise the interpersonal skills of the mentor and emotional and psychological support for the mentee. While, situated apprenticeship perspectives stress the need for mentors to have practical and contextual knowledge of existing teaching practices that are then transmitted to the mentee (Wang & Odell, 2002). There is an assumption that the mentor's practices will not be challenged and the mentee will replicate these or adhere to the mentor's expectations. Therefore the primary function of situated apprenticeship mentoring is to ease the transition of newcomers into the culture and norms of teaching, whereas the aim of the humanistic approach is to retain novice teachers through the provision of nurturing psychological support. Consequently the mentor's role differs between the two perspectives.

Within the situated apprenticeship perspective, mentors are expert teachers that guide mentees to conform to existing school and system wide expectations and policies. However, mentors that adhere to a humanistic viewpoint, are deemed to be encouraging and non-judgemental colleagues who answer questions and assist with problem solving and immediate concerns (Norman & Feiman-Nemser, 2005; Wang & Odell, 2002).

The issue with mentoring that privileges a humanistic perspective is that it fails to challenge existing assumptions and knowledge held about teaching and learners. This can be problematic because entrenched and undisputed beliefs and images that beginning teachers hold from their own schooling and teacher training experiences can mistakenly lead them to think they know more about teaching than they actually do (Feiman-Nemser, 2001a). As a result this can make the formation of new ideas, thinking and behaviour much harder (Feiman-Nemser, 2001a). Studies have also found that pre-service teachers view their students from "abstract and contradictory perspectives and have narrow and contradictory ideas about how to deal with diverse students and their learning" (Wang & Odell, 2002, p. 504). Research also indicates that even though mentoring with a humanistic philosophy is valued by novice teachers and

contributes to their remaining in the profession it does not mean that their teaching practices would be any better than if they had no mentor at all (Wang & Odell, 2002).

In contrast to humanistic and situated apprenticeship viewpoints, the aim of the critical constructivist mentoring approach is to challenge the status quo. Elements of social justice and a belief in the construction of knowledge through collaborative inquiry lies at the heart of this perspective, as mentors and mentees jointly critique existing ideology about teaching and schooling. Within this perspective mentors are required to be agents of change who are predisposed towards asking questions, open to new and alternative ideas, and are capable of challenging their own assumptions and those of the mentee. The combination of the humanistic and situated apprenticeship approaches constitute, what is known in New Zealand as, traditional or limited mentoring, which has long prevailed here.

     Limited mentoring. As the term suggests, limited mentoring, takes a narrow short-term view of mentoring (Feiman-Nemser, 1998, 2001a) where new teachers are regarded as learners whose role is to transmit basic content knowledge to well-managed students (Achinstein & Athanases, 2006). Inherent in this view is a power differential of mentor as the expert, and the mentee as the recipient of knowledge where "the mentor alone possesses the relevant expert knowledge, social capital and support that are transmitted to the protégé" (Crow, 2012, p. 232). The focus is on the mentor transmitting technical advice and guidance (e.g. classroom management, sharing of planning and resources, explaining school policies and practices), promoting socioemotional support, (Achinstein & Athanases, 2006; Feiman-Nemser, 2001a; Langdon et al., 2011; Norman & Feiman-Nemser, 2005; Upson Bradbury, 2010) and the hierarchical positioning of mentors as expert advisors and mentees as listeners (Langdon et al., 2011). In addition a traditional viewpoint of mentoring assumes a functionalist perspective, one that privileges the status quo and stable functioning of an organisation over innovation and change (Crow, 2012).

Both humanistic and situated apprenticeship perspectives support specific objectives but fall short of ambitious mentoring aims that are intent on improving the quality of teaching and treating PCTs as learners capable of; focussing on the learning of individual students, developing personal and professional content and pedagogical knowledge and actively participating in and contributing to a school's culture (Achinstein & Athanases). A type of

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mentoring that supports such aims and is gaining credence, is known as educative mentoring (Achinstein & Athanases, 2006; Feiman-Nemser, 2001b; Patrick, 2013; Upson-Bradbury, 2010).

Educative mentoring. Educative mentoring is a form of individualised PD (Feiman-Nemser, 2001b) that is "linked to a vision of good teaching and a developmental view of learning to teach" (Norman & Feiman-Nemser, 2005, p. 680). It also emphasises the utilisation of feedback and assessment gathered from purposeful and detailed classroom observations and interrogation of student data as a means for the mentor and mentee to collaboratively set learning goals, self-reflect and examine teaching practices (Langdon et al., 2011). Central to educative mentoring is the notion of mentees and mentors' learning through social interaction with others.

Whilst limited mentoring takes a behaviourist approach through the transmission of knowledge by telling the mentee what to do and how to do it, educative mentoring favours a constructivist philosophy and approach (Richter et al., 2013). Within this style of mentoring, the mentor and mentee engage in serious and deep professional conversations with the aim of building the mentee's professional autonomy and pedagogical expertise (Langdon, 2011). In contrast to traditional mentoring where the mentee is positioned to be a listener and the mentor as the expert with advice to impart, mentors who practise educative mentoring are assumed to be learners too. This then has implications for how power within the mentoring relationship is viewed.

The issue of a power imbalance within a mentoring dyad, with mentors typically exerting or holding more power than the mentee, has long been recognised and accepted as an inherent feature of the mentoring relationship (Cain, 2008). However, educative mentoring takes steps to alter this by promoting a relationship that is more of an "asymmetrical but collaborative" one, where mentors are co-thinkers and joint problem solvers (Richter et al., 2013, p. 168). This notion can be further advanced with the implementation of communities of practice amongst and between mentors and mentees such as in the Finnish context (Koballa et al., 2010; Hargreaves & Fullan, 2000; Upson-Bradbury, 2010).

Educative mentoring is also strongly based on the provision of "experiences that promote rather than retard future growth and lead to richer subsequent experiences" of the mentee (Feiman-Nemser, 2001b, p. 17). As Jarvis (2004) says, "there can be no learning without experiencing but a great deal of it actually begins with an experience" (pp. 94-95). Expanding on this Feiman-Nemser, in an interview with a member of the Education Council (2015b), argued that experience alone is "not a very reliable teacher" and "you don't learn from having experiences, you learn from thinking about the experiences that you have, from making sense of them, from looking for evidence of learning." This is where a mentor's knowledge and expertise in critical reflection, understanding of adult learning and ability to explain and demonstrate the links between theory and good teaching practice comes to the fore (Feiman-Nemser, 2001b).

A role that educative mentors perform is assisting their mentees to understand how theory and practice are interwoven. Teaching is complex and propositional knowledge associated with pre-service study is not obviously apparent or immediately applicable to the PCT who may be engrossed in mastering procedural or technical matters. To overcome this mentors need to find "productive openings for constructing and reframing problems of practice" (van Ginkel, Oolbekink, Meijer & Verloop, 2016, p. 201). This needs to be conducted in ways that engage PCTs' personal theories of learning and teaching while explicating mentors' thinking and understandings of good teaching so that mentees can understand and apply what is theory of practice (Jarvis, 1999) to the classroom situation and so as to improve their own teaching (Timperley, 2001).

As opposed to limited mentoring, which is based on notions of short term, quick fixes, educative mentoring takes a longer-term view of the mentee's growth. It heeds and responds to the immediate needs of new teachers (e.g., classroom management, curriculum planning, managing workloads and adjusting to and learning about a school's culture and organisational systems) whilst simultaneously developing their ability to focus on students and how they can progress their learning over time (Feiman-Nemser, 1998). It has been suggested that educative mentoring may "make the early years of teaching harder rather than easier by holding out higher standards than beginning teachers are likely to work toward on their own" (Norman & Feiman-Nemser, 2005, p. 681). However, any extra duress should be short-term

and balanced out by the long-term gains and rewards for the individual mentee, students and the teaching profession (Feiman-Nemser, 2001b).

Why educative mentoring? Where does the impetus for educative mentoring theory come from? For many it is the realisation that the status quo is not providing educational success for many students and that it holds the potential to transform teaching practices and improve student achievement by focussing more on student outcomes and learning. Poor results by some groups of students in New Zealand are evident in global and local assessment achievement data, which show that a disproportionate number of Pasifika or Māori students are falling behind or failing (Snook, O'Neill, Birks, Church, & Rawlins, 2013).

Educative mentoring is deemed to be one approach in conjunction with a high quality induction programme that can help beginning teachers cater for diverse learners and thus begin to redress some of the inequalities in the current system. Educative mentoring also shows promise as a method that could improve the quality of teaching by accelerating the learning and expertise of beginning teachers (Education Council, 2015a) as they inquire into their own teaching through collaboration and reflection with others (Langdon et al., 2011).

Since 1985, PCTs in New Zealand have been entitled to induction and mentoring support (Langdon et al., 2011). History shows that preferences in mentoring approaches at a policy level have changed over time. A fundamental shift in direction from conventional advice and guidance mentoring approaches to those representative of educative mentoring principles were clearly signalled in the New Zealand Teachers Council (NZTC) 2009 Draft Guidelines for Induction and Mentoring (Langdon et al., 2011). This is exemplified in the vision statement that portrayed mentors as leaders capable of effecting change: "an effective mentor acts as a change agent and educational leader, dedicated to facilitating growth in professional growth of the colleagues they specifically support and to the wider learning community" (Langdon et al., 2011, p. 77).

Agents of change. Mentors who are change agents take a critical constructivist stance and work collaboratively, through shared inquiry with their mentees to reveal assumptions, challenge current teaching practices and thinking, consider alternative perspectives and teach in ways that promote social justice and equity (Achinstein & Athanases, 2006; Wang & Odell,

2002). These types of mentors are in a prime position to interrupt the stance of beginning teachers who are in survival mode. By facilitating professional discourse that focuses on students, and teaching and learning pedagogy, mentees can be assisted to critically reflect on their classroom (Achinstein & Athanases, 2006).

In referencing the phrase 'change agent', a term that epitomises educative mentoring (Feiman-Nemser, 2001a) the NZTC unequivocally indicated its intent in promoting an educative mentoring stance. Furthermore by querying whether the purpose of induction was to prepare teachers for the status quo or for a transformative vision of induction and mentoring practices and programmes (Langdon et al., 2011), it also signalled a change in direction and ontological positioning. Unfortunately, such forward thinking mentoring ideals have proved to be short lived. The Education Council (2015a), which replaced the New Zealand Teachers Council, has removed any reference to mentors as change agents and as professionals who can support the learning and growth of other colleagues from the current mentoring and induction guidelines. Yet, other characteristics of educative mentoring have been adopted such as mentors and mentees collaboratively problem solving by utilising classroom based evidence and good teaching practices.

Nonetheless, it would appear that an opportunity to truly transform mentoring purposes and practices across all sectors of New Zealand's teaching profession has conceivably been lost, in at least a formal and regulatory sense. There is the possibility that mentors can still opt to become change agents and reform teaching and learning experiences for teachers and students but they are unlikely to be able to do so without on-going PD. This becomes all the more important when considering how different mentoring is to teaching (Bullough Jr., 2005; Orland-Barak, 2001a) and how difficult and time consuming it is for mentors to transform limited mentoring practices to those of educative mentoring (Langdon, 2014).

Characteristics of Educative Mentors

Mentoring is a new and different practice for teachers (Beutel & Spooner-Lane, 2009; Moore, 2014; Orland-Barak, 2001a) and the specialised skills associated with it are not regarded as a familiar or common aspect of a teacher's role. Having sufficient teaching experience and being a 'good teacher' is often deemed a prerequisite and sole requirement for the mentoring of

PCTs. An assumption exists that teachers will naturally or intuitively take on mentoring roles and transmit their teaching knowledge and skills to their mentees. This may suffice when all the mentor is obliged to do is pass on existing practical teaching knowledge and act as an emotional support (Ulvik & Sunde, 2013), but is inadequate when the aim is to transform teaching practices, challenge a mentee's assumptions and knowledge of teaching, particularly when it comes to educating diverse students (Achinstein & Athanases, 2006; Feiman-Nemser, 2001a; Wang & Odell, 2002).

Mentors are made not born. While successful mentoring does require an experienced practitioner with an effective teaching base, this alone is insufficient to produce good mentors (Hobson et al., 2009; Leshem, 2014; Roehrig et al., 2008). Studies have shown that assuming good teachers will inherently make good mentors is unfounded (Achinstein & Athanases, 2006; Athanases et al., 2008; Feiman-Nemser, 2001a; Roehrig et al., 2008; Timperley, 2008; Ulvik & Sunde, 2013) and, furthermore, " not all good mentors make good mentors of all beginning teachers" (Hobson et al., 2009, p. 212). Feiman-Nemser (Education Council, 2015b) distinguishes between good teachers and good mentors when she explains in an interview, that a good teacher is "able to pull off a seamless performance…" but a good mentor requires the ability to take that performance apart and "…talk about it and model it and help somebody else learn it in an integrated and principled way." The notion that good teachers do not necessarily equate to being good mentors suggests that mentoring requires a different set of skills, dispositions and knowledge to that of teaching children and adolescents.

Orland-Barak (2001a) argues that learning to be a mentor is not a natural development for teachers but instead is a "highly conscious and gradual process of reorganising and reconstructing beliefs and understandings" (p. 53), a " *reskilling* rather than deskilling activity" (p. 56). Transitioning from being a teacher to a mentor has been compared to the learning processes beginning teachers make as they learn to teach by teaching; so mentors learn to mentor by mentoring. Orland-Barak (2001a) uses the metaphor of learning to mentor as learning a second language; in this case a second language of teaching, to explain the similarities between the two learning processes. She explains that just as the language learner often references the first language to "compare, transfer and extend understandings from one language to another" (p. 54) so the novice mentor draws upon knowledge and expertise from

the first language of teaching, to the second language of mentoring. What's more just as acquiring a new language with all its associated idiosyncrasies takes time so does learning to become a good mentor which takes years as opposed to months (Aspfors & Fransson, 2015; Koballa et al., 2010).

Despite the best of intentions teachers are often ill equipped to mentor beginning teachers. Mentoring is complex (Hobson et al., 2009) and therefore mentors need to be highly skilled professionals who are able and willing to support a mentee's growth and learning (Feiman-Nemser, 1998; Koballa et al., 2010; Ponte & Twomey, 2014; Ulvik & Sunde, 2013). Mentors need in-depth knowledge and experience of curriculum and teaching pedagogy that they can employ when discussing good teaching practices and current theory with their mentees. They also need an ability to outwardly express "an internal dialogue with the situation" (Feiman-Nemser, 1998, p. 69), which is critical to the mentor and mentee jointly reflecting on practice through focussed and high level discussions. It could be assumed that experienced teachers have the knowledge and skills to enact this but the problem remains that they can experience difficulty in articulating their pedagogical knowledge (Clarke, Killeavy, & Moloney, 2013; Hobson et al., 2009; Jones & Straker, 2006) and making their expertise accessible to their mentee (Wang & Odell, 2002).

The paradox of teaching and mentoring. Mentoring has its own language, attitudes (Orland-Barak, 2002; Ulvik & Sunde, 2013) and knowledge base (Achinstein & Athanases, 2006; Koballa et al., 2010) yet the paradox is that mentoring and teaching are also inexorably entwined (Koballa et al., 2010; Orland-Barak, 2001a). Literature confirms teachers' utilisation of personal mentoring and teaching experiences as two significant sources that underpin their beliefs and knowledge about mentoring practices (Bullough Jr., 2005; Koballa et al., 2010; Langdon, 2011; Piggot-Irvine et al., 2009; Ulvik & Sunde, 2013). It is not surprising that teachers rely on their teaching expertise since many of them have been selected to be mentors for this reason (Achinstein & Athanases, 2006; Langdon et al., 2011; Orland-Barak, 2002).

At a surface level it would appear that teaching and mentoring can co-exist however this relationship becomes more problematic when mentors attribute their success or otherwise to their teaching performance and identity (Orland-Barak, 2002). This duality, which can be

thought of as "a kind of double mindedness" (Bullough Jr., 2005, p. 152) can also cause conflict for the mentor when the role of teacher and mentor are at odds and the mentor has to choose between these two identities and affiliations (Beutel & Spooner-Lane, 2009).

Taking an educative mentoring stance necessitates mentors maintaining a bifocal vision (Norman & Feiman-Nemser, 2005). This entails mentors holding an overarching vision of good teaching and what is needed for the students and their learning, whilst simultaneously focussing on the needs and developing knowledge of the novice teacher (Achinstein & Athanases, 2006). Therefore, a significant purpose of the educative mentors' role is to share teaching knowledge and practice, not withhold it from their mentee in the belief that new teachers need to discover their own teaching style (Feiman-Nemser, 2001a). Dewey argues that mentors need to draw upon their own expertise and experiences and be able and willing to share these. He states, "there is no point in being more mature if the educator, instead of using or her greater insight to organize conditions of experience, throws away his or her insight" (as cited in Feiman-Nemser, 2001b, p. 24). At the same time, mentors also need to be cognisant of the times when it is most appropriate to share personal teaching experiences, provide advice, give instructions or just listen. In the words of Horton (Horton & Freire, 1990):

> Do you tell people what you know is good for them, or do you let them flounder around and find out for themselves, maybe helping them explore possibilities? Do you set up situations in which they can learn but use that as a learning experience instead of a telling experience? (pp.192-193)

As indicated here, mentors require an in-depth knowledge of their PCT's needs as adult learners when deciding how best to progress their learning and support them.

Knowing and catering for the adult learner. It is only in recent times that theories of adult learning have emerged. The popular and seminal work of Malcolm Knowles and his theory of adult learning, also known as andragogy and distinct from pedagogy has widely influenced those who teach and work with adults. While a universal theory about adult learning has not eventuated it is generally accepted that adults have a greater breadth of life experiences than children that can be utilised when making connections to prior knowledge and new learning (Knowles, Horton III, & Swanson, 2014; Merriam et al., 2007; O'Toole & Essex, 2012). O'Toole and Essex (2012) argue that a common pedagogy or art of teaching can apply to the learning processes of children and adults alike however the methods, contexts and systems of learning

differ. Merriam et al. (2007) concur and provide examples of the differences. For instance there are specific life experiences and transitions pertaining solely to adults, such as becoming a parent or entering employment.

Another example of the difference between adults and children's learning can be found in the learning context. While children are constrained by the school learning curriculum, which is typically pre-determined 'just in case learning', the adult learner wants 'just in time learning' that will meet their perceived immediate and relevant needs (Fogarty & Pete, 2004; O'Toole & Essex, 2012). Adults are less inclined to engage in learning if it is not deemed relevant to their professional lives (Timperley, Wilson, Barrar, & Fung, 2007) and can be tough critics who have little tolerance for "poorly constructed learning experiences" (O'Toole & Essex, 2012, p. 187). They are also extremely capable of judging what learning is valuable and valid and of expressing any discontent directly to the person responsible for the delivery of the PD. Bearing these points in mind educative mentors, therefore, need knowledge and skill in how to teach adults (Feiman-Nemser, 2001a; Jones & Straker, 2012; Langdon, 2014; Ulvik & Sunde, 2013).

It has been suggested in the literature that mentors tend to use directive approaches with their mentees by telling, giving advice and offering affective support (Feiman-Nemser, 2001a; Langdon, 2014). An exception to this finding is the study of Strong and Baron (2004) who found that the mentors in their study (who were mentoring student teachers) went to extreme efforts to avoid offering advice directly. In keeping with the Strong and Baron study it would seem that mentors themselves are aware of this difficulty and can be cautious or reluctant to challenge their mentee and raise concerns, as they are fearful of causing offence or damaging their professional relationship (Hobson, 2002; Moore, 2014; Timperley, 2001). It has also been found that mentors may not have the skills to conduct professional learning conversations that explore deeper issues, are evidence based and challenge thinking whilst promoting the learning of the mentee (Stanulis & Ames, 2009; Tang & Choi, 2005; Timperley, 2001). Yet this is precisely what is required of educative mentors.

Feiman-Nemser (2001b) says that educative mentoring requires a combination of "showing and telling, listening and asking" (p. 19) by and from the mentor to support a beginning teacher's development. Integral to this is a mentor's ability to make informed choices about their

mentoring stance and a willingness to treat adult learners as capable and independent decision makers. For a mentor this entails perceiving the mentee as a subject of the learning rather than as an object, "something that can be used by someone else" (Vella, 2002, p.15). Mentors need to remember that for the mentee, "the learning is in the doing and the deciding" (Vella, 2002, p.16) and, therefore, care must be taken to not rob the mentee of learning opportunities.

Working with adults also requires mentors to have an understanding of what learning is needed for the individual mentee and skill in promoting the growth of a PCT by balancing appropriate levels of challenge and support (Harrison, Lawson, & Wortley, 2005; Ulvik & Sunde, 2013). Harrison et al. (2005) propose that inadequate or unbalanced levels of support or challenge can cause negative consequences for the mentee such as a focus on survival, replication of the status quo, withdrawal from teaching or stagnation in growth and learning. Furthermore, mentors need to have a repertoire of strategies that they can draw upon and use in flexible ways. Educative mentoring requires mentors to be responsive, adaptable, attuned to their mentee's current and future needs and able to provide differentiated mentoring approaches (Stanulis et al., 2014; Upson-Bradbury, 2010; van Ginkel et al., 2016). Catering for a PCT's developmental needs requires the mentor to be able to adjust his or her mentoring practices and work within the mentee's zone of proximal development (Harrison et al., 2005).

Another prerequisite is that mentors possess well-developed interpersonal skills, however, not all authors identify links between improving such skills with lifting the quality of teaching. A study by Lopez-Real and Kwan (2005) equated the improvement of interpersonal skills by mentors during the mentoring process to be of *personal* benefit to a teacher rather than a *professional* benefit. Considering that part of the teacher's professional role in the Lopez-Real and Kwan study was to mentor adult student teachers and presumably these same mentor teachers also interacted and learnt from and with their colleagues this is surprising. It is also in stark contrast to other studies that advocate a need for interpersonal skills because they are beneficial if not crucial when mentoring adults (Hobson et al., 2009; McDonald & Flint, 2011; Moore, 2014; Rippon & Martin, 2003).

Professional Development for Mentors

Whilst PD is clearly necessary for the continuing education of the PCT, it is also important for the mentor (Feiman-Nemser, 2001a). As role models and sources of knowledge for PCTs it is of the utmost importance that mentors are conversant with good teaching practice and current theories of teaching and learning (Hudson, 2013). Mentors also need to continually develop specific knowledge, skills and dispositions pertinent to educative mentoring so require targeted learning opportunities to support this (Achinstein & Athanases, 2006; Education Council, 2015a; Feiman-Nemser, 2001a; Upson-Bradbury, 2010). In keeping with this a revisioning of the type of PD that is offered to mentors is called for (Koballa et al., 2010; Jones & Straker, 2006); one where mentors' knowledge of how to foster quality teaching by PCTs while maintaining a bifocal focus on the learning and progress of PCTs and their students is promoted (Athanases et al., 2008; Achinstein & Athanases, 2006; Feiman-Nemser, 2001b).

A reoccurring theme in the mentoring literature is that PD is an essential component of mentors' learning and, thus, all mentors should participate in it (Aspfors & Fransson, 2015; Feiman-Nemser, 2001a; Langdon, 2014; Moore, 2014; Piggot-Irvine et al., 2009). Within the New Zealand context, mentors have expressed a desire for greater support and professional development (Moore, 2014; Piggot-Irvine et al., 2009). A lack of mentoring PD may create a vacuum, which teachers fill by defaulting to a reliance on personal mentoring and teaching experiences (Bullough Jr., 2005; Clarke et al., 2013; Koballa et al., 2010) or beliefs they need to act as an emotional support and provider of practical assistance, as the basis for their mentoring practices. Mentoring PD is not a silver bullet as it can also reinforce current norms or poor practices (Hobson et al., 2009; Timperley et al., 2007), however, there is also the potential for it to be a reformative and valuable learning experience for mentors (Achinstein & Athanases, 2006; Feiman-Nemser 2001a; Wang & Odell, 2002).

It would be useful at this point to clarify what the term professional development means as various authors have apportioned different understandings and conceptions to it. Two main streams of thought are evident. One relates to notions that PD is about activities, relaying information and particular content to teachers, while the other promotes ideas that it is about instigating change or transformation within the individual, school or education system. For instance, Aspfors and Fransson (2015) take the former perspective where PD is regarded to be

one element within the wider field of mentoring education and includes activities such as seminars on coaching or reflection.

Timperley et al. (2007) regards professional development to be the procedures for delivering information that will potentially influence teachers' practices. Whereas Feiman-Nemser (2001a) regards professional development to be an ambiguous enterprise because it references technical aspects such as time, place, structure and content in conjunction with a higher core purpose of instigating "transformations in teachers' knowledge, understandings, skills, and commitments, in what they know and what they are able to do in their individual practice as well as in their shared responsibilities" (p. 1038).

Though PD for mentors about mentoring is recommended, some studies have researched how mentoring per se can also be a stand-alone form of PD (Hudson, 2013; Lopez-Real & Kwan, 2005; Smith & Nadelson, 2016). The context for the three studies mentioned above all took place in primary or secondary schools with mentors who were mentoring student teachers and the results indicated that mentors can and do learn from the process of mentoring. Specific instances of learning that the mentors self-identified and that applied to all three studies included learning by reflecting on their own teaching processes and programmes and acquiring innovative or new ideas and approaches from their mentees (Hudson, 2013; Lopez-Real & Kwan, 2005; Smith & Nadelson, 2016).

In addition, the mentors also felt that they gained skills in mentoring practices such as observing and giving feedback to mentees (Lopez-Real & Kwan, 2005). They also learnt how to articulate their own teaching practices for the benefit of the mentee (Hudson, 2013) and developed leadership skills through collaborative problem solving and by analysing issues (Hudson, 2013). Although mentoring as a process can provide a form of professional learning for mentors, on its own it does not provide the deep theoretical knowledge base that mentors need in order to assist novices in mastering the complexities of teaching (Achinstein & Athanases, 2006; Beutel & Spooner-Lane, 2009, Feiman-Nemser, 2001a).

What is Known About Mentoring Education

Research literature has highlighted requests by mentors for PD in mentoring and recommended access to it (Langdon, 2011; Leshem, 2014; Moore, 2014; Piggot-Irvine et al., 2009), yet there

is a scarcity of research about mentors' professional knowledge and needs, how they are educated and what impact participation in mentoring education or professional development has on the development of their skills and knowledge (Aspfors & Fransson, 2015; Hobson et al., 2009; Jones & Straker, 2006; Ulvik & Sunde, 2013). Research conducted in these areas has tended to focus more on the education of mentors who work with student teachers as opposed to those who mentor PCTs (Aspfors & Fransson, 2015; Leshem, 2014) with an implication that any PD mentors participate in is equally applicable to both groups. Aspfors and Fransson (2015), however, reject this idea and believe the two groups are distinct because "different logics, contexts, relations and effects" apply (p. 76).

Even less is known about the types of professional development learning and programmes for mentors that, in turn, have the greatest influence on the teaching practice of beginning teachers (Aspfors & Fransson, 2015). Studies that have been conducted into mentors' education have tended to not emphasise or single out their processes of learning. Instead, the focus has been on specific aspects of mentoring and the knowledge mentors have gained from learning about these such as: mentoring curriculum (Athanases et al., 2008), cultural tools and their relevance to mentoring (Koballa et al., 2010), influences of professional learning conversations on mentors' practices (Langdon, 2014; Timperley, 2001), the importance of critical reflection (Harrison et al., 2005), and communication skills, developmental needs of mentees and theories of adult learning (Beutel & Spooner-Lane, 2009) to name some.

For those new to educative mentoring, whether they be relatively inexperienced or veteran teachers, PD potentially offers opportunities to hone or develop new skills such as how to: facilitate professional learning conversations (Langdon, 2014; Timperley, 2001), teach diverse student populations, use students' work and data as a focus for developing PCTs' awareness of students' learning (Achinstein & Athanases, 2006), refine observational and analytical skills (Feiman-Nemser, 2001a) and develop critically reflective practices (Harrison et al., 2005). The content and activities associated with PD are just some influences that potentially have an impact on mentors' learning.

Additional factors also have a part to play such as interactions with and between teachers, and beliefs, assumptions and values accumulated and reinforced through previous personal and

professional experiences. Ulivk and Sunde (2013) hypothesised from their study that it was "the interplay between the participants and between input and processing, between theory and practice" (p. 766) that appeared to influence how and what mentors' learn. Kolb's learning cycle model, which promotes learning as a continuous interactive process (Jarvis, 2004) also links to this idea. Rather than viewing learning as something to be acquired or transmitted, the model encompasses modes of concrete and abstract experiences where "the interaction between content and experience" transforms both (as cited in Knowles et al., 2014, p. 197). Several criticisms are directed towards Kolb's model; namely that it is an overly simplistic representation, is behaviourist in its orientation (Jarvis, 2004) and disregards the learners' context (Merriam et al., 2007). Nevertheless it continues to be a popular model used to explain human learning (Merriam et al., 2007).

Designing mentoring professional development programmes requires something quite different if changes in mentors' thinking and practices are to result. Koballa et al. (2010) discovered this in their study where they aimed to research how cultural tools could lead to new understandings of mentoring by their participants who were mentors in training within the field of Science. Their findings showed that the "application-of-theory" process they used *reinforced* mentors' thinking of mentoring in traditional ways when what was actually needed was a challenging-of-theory process.

A challenge for facilitators of PD programmes is that they are generally trying to effect a change in teachers' theories, practices or a combination of the two, however, this purpose is not one that teachers typically ascribe to as they do not consider that they need to make changes (Timperley et al., 2007). Another issue is that after participating in PD mentors can resort to previous practices, not in keeping with the new learning they have undertaken (Langdon, 2014) or, due to a lack of confidence, they can be unwilling or hesitant to implement their new found knowledge and skills (Langdon, 2014; Ulvik & Sunde, 2013).

Facilitators also need to be aware of potential challenges mentors can face when learning about educative mentoring. Studies have found that some mentors can struggle with the practicalities or relevance of applying their learning about educative mentoring theory to practice (Tang & Choi, 2005; Ulivk & Sunde, 2013). These findings point to the premise that adults want to try out

their new learning for themselves and to experience their learning in developmentally appropriate progressions (Fogerty & Pete, 2004). Experiential learning is generally recognised as a necessary if not vital component of how adults learn (Fogerty & Pete, 2004; Knowles et al., 2014; Merriam et al., 2007). Experience can be found in both an abstract and concrete form and it is the formulation of connections between the two that appears to contribute to mentors' learning.

Influences on Mentors' Learning

There are no guarantees that mentors will learn from PD or that there will be any change in their thinking or practices (Feiman-Nemser, 2001a). However, chances of PD being successful from the participants and a facilitator's point of view are increased when it is: on going (English, 1999; Feiman-Nemser, 2001a; Langdon, 2014; Upson-Bradbury, 2010), focussed on classroom related problems and practicalities or real life dilemmas (Feiman-Nemser, 2001b; Koballa et al., 2010; Upson-Bradbury, 2010), flexible enough to accommodate the unique and personalised learning needs of participants (Athanases et al., 2008), and assists educators to bridge the gap between theory and practice in ways that demonstrate its relevance and allows them to put into practice what they are learning as they learn (Aspfors & Fransson. 2015; Tang & Choi, 2005; Ulvik & Sunde, 2013). Provision for mentors to concurrently implement their new learning as they learn about it increase the chance that changes will occur in mentors' beliefs and practices, and new learning will gain a foothold and persist beyond the PD sessions themselves.

The relational dimension of PD needs to be taken into account also. Aspfors and Fransson (2015) recognise that this component lies at the heart of mentoring education and assert that "support from others and joint communication and learning are crucial" (p. 83). Contributing to this is the development of a safe, supportive learning environment for all that promotes collaboration, honesty and trust (Beutel & Spooner-Lane, 2009). In alignment with these notions, constructivist principles and adult learning theory have their place too.

Constructivism is based on the premise that learning is an active endeavour often occurring through dialogue, collaboration and cooperation with others, which also feature prominently in adult learning ideologies (Fogerty & Pete, 2004; Merriam et al., 2007). Dialogue with others is perceived to be an important source of learning for mentors, particularly when new or alternative

perspectives arise and mentors have occasions to grapple with problems, and receive and offer support and advice to each other. In addition, opportunities to read, analyse and critique professional texts in focussed discussions with fellow colleagues are also believed to support mentors' learning.

Timperley et al. (2007) propose that to instigate changes in teachers' thinking and practices three iterative professional learning processes need to be present. These are: the prompting and recalling of prior knowledge, the provision of opportunities that integrate new information or skills into existing beliefs and values, and the creation of dissonance with prevailing perspectives and beliefs. In the Timperley et al. (2007) synthesis, success was determined by the extent of improvement in students' learning and achievement that could be associated directly with teachers' professional learning and participation in various forms of PD. Another measure to ascertain the success of PD is to take the perspective of the teachers themselves and gauge their levels of satisfaction (Nir & Bogler, 2008). Whilst it is essential that teachers have some autonomy in shaping the content, structure and evaluation of PD, a sense of satisfaction or relevance as perceived by the teacher is not enough to conclude that it has made any impact on the beliefs of the teacher or the learning of the teacher and his or her students (Timperley et al., 2007). So it would appear that rather than a bifocal emphasis as currently touted, a trifocal mentoring approach, where the learning of students, the mentee and mentor are all attended to, is required for mentors and mentees to both become aware and capable of improving learning outcomes and achievement for all students (Langdon, 2014).

Engaging in reflection. A significant recurring aspect of mentors' learning identified throughout the literature is the correlation between mentors' high cognisance of their own teaching and mentoring practices and engagement in deep, continuous reflection. It is easy for teachers and mentors, particularly those that are more experienced, to become laissez-faire about their teaching and to revert to a form of automaticity with their practice (Langdon, 2014). Sometimes it takes a catalyst such as working with a mentee to prompt introspection into their personal theories, actions and the rationale for these (Lopez-Real & Kwan, 2005).

An assumption exists that it is virtually impossible for mentors to avoid acting reflexively because they are the perceived experts within the mentoring relationship (Smith & Nadelson,

2016). This assumption is reiterated in the Lopez-Real and Kwan (2005) study where one of the findings was that the constant scrutiny by mentees caused the mentors to feel beholden to model quality lessons and to be up to date with current pedagogy of student learning as well as teaching theory. Arguably, however, there are also mentors who do not engage in reflection because they see themselves as experts and mentees as novices and, therefore, consider there is no need to change their practice (Beutel & Spooner-Lane, 2009). Of concern is a finding in the research of O'Brien and Christie who (as cited in Patrick et al., 2010) "found little evidence" (p. 279) to suggest that mentoring led mentors and mentees to engage in reflection.

Other reasons given for mentors not engaging in self-reflection are due to a lack of confidence or knowledge in how to do this or how to instigate critically reflective conversations (Beutel & Spooner-Lane, 2009; Leshem, 2014). Not being able to find dedicated time to reflect has been suggested as another explanation as to why mentors do not engage in reflection. However, Beutel and Spooner-Lane (2009) propose an alternative perspective and propose that the issue is more that mentors do not make time for reflecting a priority. Regrettably, the less time mentors set aside to think about and improve their practice the higher the likelihood that they will rely on existing practice and knowledge that they believe works for them (Jones & Straker, 2006). Activities and reflective practices which expose the gaps between a mentor's current assumptions and values and new or alternative learning and ideas encountered becomes all the more important because the corresponding dissonance or disjuncture is imperative to shifting mentors' thinking and practices.

Summary

Mentoring in any shape or form has its challenges and rewards, though; educative mentoring requires far different understandings and actions from the mentoring relationship and the roles of the mentor and mentee today compared to the past. This chapter has argued that a reliance on what mentors know about the learning and teaching of children or adolescents is inadequate in fostering the accelerated learning and growth of PCTs. Rather what is needed are mentors who: possess highly developed interpersonal skills, pedagogical and professional knowledge and the ability to explicate this; exhibit a desire to work in joint inquiry with their PCT, and view themselves as learners rather than experts whose role is to transmit knowledge to the mentee. Consequently a shift in emphasis from viewing mentoring as merely advice and guidance to an

educative mentoring stance has transpired and is now the mentoring approach advocated by the Education Council (2015a) in New Zealand.

This chapter has illustrated that taking on an educative mentoring role is a complex one and not a natural extension of teaching. This is further reinforced when it is understood that the role of educative mentors is to accelerate the learning of novices by guiding them to focus on students' learning and achievement. To achieve this mentors need to simultaneously sustain a trifocal view of their own learning and that of the PCT and students, while assisting the mentee in developing his or her own professional identity based on understandings of good teaching.

An important feature of educative mentoring is also that mentors act as agents of change who challenge the status quo and invite their PCTs to do the same. A change agent seeks to improve learning and school experiences for students who are excluded, disengaged, or overlooked by the current education system. As underachievement of Māori and Pasifika students persists within New Zealand schools, this stance is all the more imperative, particularly if mentoring in the 21st Century is to disrupt entrenched educational norms. Nevertheless, as this chapter has illustrated, very little is known about how mentors learn or what impact professional development has on their learning and practices. This research project aims to contribute to understandings about these aspects, particularly in the field of educative mentoring.

The following chapter describes the methodology, methods and data collection tools and explains how these all link to the paradigmatic framework that underpins this study. It also provides contextual information and addresses the ethical issues and processes involved.

Chapter 3 Methodology

This study sets out to explore and understand how a collaborative professional development programme about educative mentoring impacts on the learning and actions of a group of primary school-based mentors. Consequently, mentors' perceptions of their own learning were of utmost importance as was the belief that knowledge is constructed through social interaction with others. In an effort to provide a forum for mentors to learn collaboratively, an interpretive/qualitative Participatory Action Research approach was employed.

Research Paradigm

A paradigm can be likened metaphorically to a 'net' that encompasses the researcher's epistemological, ontological and methodological viewpoints and beliefs (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). Utilising this conceptual understanding the diagram below (see Figure 1) illustrates my view of the relationship between the selected paradigm, methodology and research methods. Situated within my 'net' are my selected methodology and data collection instruments. Although the methodology and research methods for this study are interconnected, through their mutual support of the overarching beliefs of the paradigm, they are not hierarchical and alternatives could just as equally be inserted. However, as this study seeks to understand the meanings participants express, these particular tools and methods have been chosen because I consider they best allow for the participants' voices to dominate the data, enabling rich and thick descriptions to emerge.

Interpretive/Constructivist Paradigm
(Ontological and epistemological assumptions)

Methodology

Qualitative research

Participatory Action Research

Data Analysis

Thematic analysis

Data Collection Instruments

Semi-structured individual interviews

Focus Group interviews
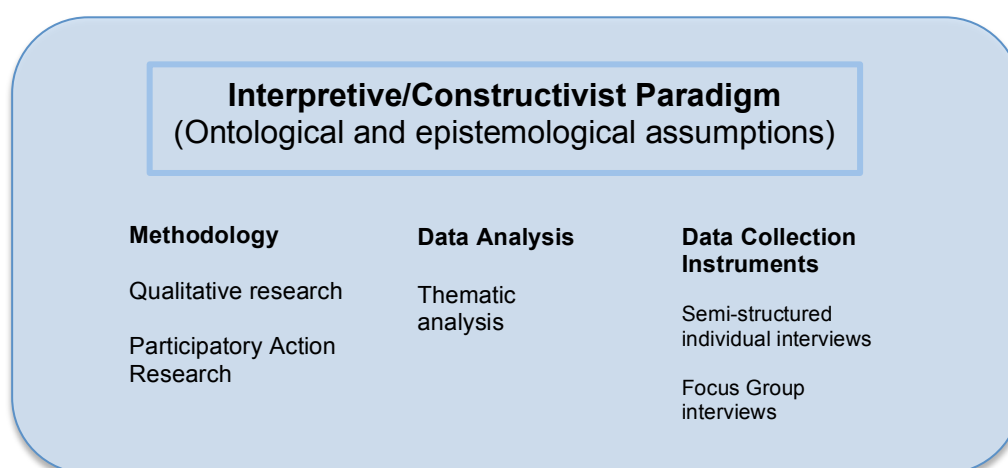
Figure 1. Theoretical overview of my research design.

Ontological and epistemological premises. It is said that all research is interpretive (Denzin & Ryan, 2007) because all researchers seek to understand or interpret their object of inquiry in some shape or form. However, the difference between how we understand the natural world compared to the social world of human beings is that "we explain nature, but human life we must understand" (Dilthey, as cited in van Manen, 1997, p. 4). The overall intention of the interpretivist paradigm is to "understand the subjective world of human experience" (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007, p. 21). Therefore, interpretivist researchers seek to understand and describe how participants experience and construct their worlds, something I aspired to, and which meant taking a subjective stance and getting close to the participants.

Subjectivity is central to the interpretivist paradigm and is evident in assumptions about reality. From an ontological perspective, reality is regarded to be a human construct (Merriam & Tidsell, 2015; Newman, 2016; O'Toole & Beckett, 2013; Stake, 2010). It is not something that is external to the individual, waiting to be discovered, interpreted, or explained (Tracy, 2013), but is a result of humans interacting with others as they engage with their worlds and their surrounds (Merriam & Tidsell, 2015). In support of this belief, providing opportunities for the mentors to come together and talk as they shared their own experiences, perspectives and assumptions was a crucial component of this study and was achieved through the formation of focus groups. These groups provided a forum for the mentors to discuss their learning, and in so doing construct personalised knowledge about educative mentoring. It was also intended that participants would be able to freely express their realities and feel that these were valued equally. This is an important feature of this study because reality is unique to each individual, to the context and situation and is based on an individual's "perceptions of their experiences within society" (O'Toole & Beckett, 2013, p.17). Thus, it can be said that reality is a social construct and the product of individual consciousness (Cohen et al., 2007), which are features of constructivist theory that underpins the research design of this study.

Central to the constructivist perspective is the belief that people construct their personal subjective realities or worlds that they individually inhabit (Burr, 2011; Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006), and, therefore, multiple realities (Lincoln, Lynham, & Guba, 2011), perspectives and interpretations of reality exist (Burr, 2011; Mack, 2010) and an undisputed single true interpretation for any given event is not possible (Stake, 2010). Accordingly, constructivism

values each and every individual's interpretation of their world and regards all viewpoints to be of equal worth (Crotty, 1998). Furthermore, there is a belief that "humans construct their understanding of reality and scaffold their learning as they go along" (O'Toole & Beckett, 2013, p. 26) so constructivism also entails a relativist view of human behaviour.

Interpretivism and constructivism are terms that are often associated or used interchangeably. For the remainder of this report I shall refer to the interpretivist/constructivist paradigm as simply that of the interpretivist with the understanding that constructivism is inferred within this term.

An epistemological perspective within the interpretive paradigm is that knowledge is gained through and from different perspectives and understandings. To aid my knowledge of the perspectives and understanding the mentors expressed, I decided I could not stand outside, observing neutrally and objectively with a division between "the self and the world", (Scott & Usher, 2010, p. 27). Rather, I would need to conduct my research as an insider. With this role come responsibilities, including ensuring that any knowledge produced is reflective of participants' realities, and makes sense to the people to whom it applies (Cohen et al., 2007), while bearing in mind that "no interpretation can ever be uniquely correct" (Scott & Usher, 2010, p. 30). So the methodology I believed that would best foster the joint construction of knowledge between researcher and participant, and bring participants' voices to the fore was qualitative participatory action.

A dilemma with an ontological belief. Through professional readings, interactions and learning with others, and reflections on personal experiences I have progressively become aware of an epistemological assumption I hold about my participants' knowledge. Prior to starting my research I assumed that traditional mentoring approaches would be the dominant form of mentoring in use, because in my experience, teachers know little if anything about educative mentoring. Consequently, I speculated that mentors would need support implementing this approach and changing existing mentoring practices as they developed new knowledge and reflected on their practices.

This assumption could also potentially be regarded as a hypothesis. Interpretive research generally eschews hypothesising due to the belief that the researcher influences the research

and theory must emerge from the evidence not precede it (Cohen et al., 2007). However, Cohen et al. also acknowledge that the researcher has a prior interest or knowledge of the study in question and therefore the research, data and knowledge are not exempt from theory. Realising that I held this assumption, or hypothesis, I then wondered how I should proceed.

One suggestion proposed by Scott and Usher (2010) is that researchers "temporarily suspend, their subjectivity and explanatory frames" (p. 32). They go on however to reject this notion, in the belief we cannot simply step aside from our pre-understandings (knowledge), even momentarily. Instead our subjectivities or biases can be valuable to our research providing we are aware of them, can monitor them and identify how they influence our work (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016; Scott & Usher, 2010). O'Toole and Beckett (2013) also recognise that researchers are never neutral, and they bring with them their own personal biographical perspectives such as race, gender, class, values and culture (Denzin & Ryan, 2007; Holden & Lynch, 2004; O'Toole & Beckett, 2013).

Acknowledging my existing assumption I realised could be beneficial to my study. As Scott and Usher (2010) suggest having an awareness of these pre-understandings can "make one more open minded because in the process of interpretation and understanding they are put at risk, tested, and modified through the encounter with what one is trying to understand" (p. 32). This of course meant I would need to actively engage in a dialogue with my preconceived ideas and the emerging evidence. It was imperative then as the primary research instrument (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016; Stake, 2011) that inductive processes took precedence (Cohen et al., 2007; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016; Mack, 2010; Scott & Usher, 2010).

This study calls for an openness as to how meaning is constructed and construed by my participants. It embraces the questions of 'how' and 'why' in an effort to better understand participants' views of the worlds they create, inhabit and experience (Newby, 2014). As a result of my own experiences, and curiosity about how mentors act and what they believe and know about educative mentoring, I proposed the following overarching research question:

How does a collaborative professional development programme about educative mentoring affect the learning and actions of mentors in a primary school?

Supporting this main question is a series of sub questions. These questions were aligned with different phases of Participatory Action Research, which forms part of the methodology. The sub questions are:

- How can a professional development programme of educative mentoring be co-constructed and applied in a primary school setting?

- How does a collaborative professional development programme of educative mentoring promote and influence mentors' learning?

- How does educative mentoring promote Provisionally Certificated Teachers' awareness and understanding of individualised student learning in the classroom?

- How does the mentors' learning then influence Provisionally Certificated Teachers' professional growth and teaching practice?

- How do an awareness and understanding of individualised student learning in the classroom then influence Provisionally Certificated Teachers' professional growth and teaching practice?

Research Design

The remainder of this chapter explains the methods, data collection and analysis processes as well as descriptions of the participants, setting and ethical considerations.

 Qualitative research. All qualitative research aims to understand or interpret how people make sense of their world and experiences through social practices and interactions (Denzin & Ryan, 2007; Merriam & Tidsell, 2015; Scott & Usher, 2010). Many of the characteristics of qualitative research apply to this study. For example it is ideal for small studies that utilise non-random samples (Holden & Lynch, 2004; Morrell & Carroll, 2010) and where findings are localised and unique to the specific context, setting and situation (Stringer, 2007), such as this one. Creating "local theories for practice rather than generalizable findings" (Mack, 2010, p. 8) was a goal of this research project and is a common feature of qualitative research. Small qualitative studies also include rich descriptions that convey the researcher's learning about the phenomenon under investigation (Merriam & Tidsell, 2015). Capturing, describing and explaining participants' interpretations are vital data for the researcher as it is

their viewpoints that are at the heart of qualitative research (Cohen et al., 2007; Denzin & Ryan, 2007; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Stake, 2010). So taking an emic stance as the researcher was essential in gaining a more nuanced understanding of participants' perspectives and insights into how they view and construct their world as sense makers and sense seekers as well as developing a deep understanding about the mentors' learning processes and outcomes.

Perceived power imbalances can also exist between a researcher and participants because the researcher can "interrogate the lived behaviour of students, teachers and their communities who constitute the subjects of the research" (O'Toole & Beckett, 2013, p. 20). Therefore, acting democratically, sharing decisions and developing egalitarian relationships by empowering the mentors were touchstone principles throughout the research process. Holding a belief that the mentors should have control of and input into their own professional development the method that I considered would best support this vision and my philosophical and research perspectives was Participatory Action Research, a type of action research.

Action research. Action research takes many different forms but it always relates to practical problems or issues pertinent to a particular individual, group of people or organisation and aims to implement change or find solutions (Cresswell, 2012; Newby, 2014; Reason & Bradbury, 2008; Stringer, 2007). A series of systematic, iterative cycles involving high levels of involvement and collaboration between participants and researchers (Noffke & Somekh, 2011; Piggot- Irvine, 2009) are involved. Integral to collaboration is the forging of democratic relationships between the researcher and the participants (Cresswell, 2012; Stringer, 2007). Such relationships are a crucial component in the belief that action research is a liberating practice with the aim of "redressing imbalances of power and restoring to ordinary people the capacities of self-reliance and ability to manage their own lives" (Reason & Bradbury, 2008, p. 7). Reason and Bradbury (2008) also argue that researching with people means working with them holistically and remembering that, participants' experiences of the research process and encounters with their own learning are unique and pertinent to them.

Participatory action research. As my preferred method, Participatory Action Research (PAR) is one form of research that sits within a wider family of action research practices (Noffke & Somekh, 2011; Reason & Bradbury, 2008). What distinguishes PAR from

other forms of action research is its emphasis on collaboration between the researcher and participants (Brydon-Miller, Kral, Maguire, Noffke, & Sabhlok, 2011; Cresswell, 2012; McIntyre, 2008), and on action that recognises and addresses inequalities and injustices (Brydon et al., 2011) thereby liberating people from the constraints that restrict "self-development and self-determination" (Cresswell, 2012, p. 583). Furthermore the knowledge generated through PAR is regarded to be something that should contribute to "greater social and economic justice locally and globally" (Brydon-Miller et al., 2011, p. 388) and belong to everyone.

All PAR projects are bound by ideological beliefs and these determine the issue that captures the attention of the researcher, the anticipated outcomes and purpose, process and direction of the study and procedures to be used (Cresswell, 2012). Thus, there is no one right way to plan and conduct PAR (McIntryre, 2008) but Willis and Edwards (2014), advise researchers to clearly stipulate the type of PAR they engage in. In the interests of transparency and clarity, this study takes a conservative approach compared to that of critical PAR. Whilst it does not exhibit the necessary features of *critical* participatory action research, there are characteristics within this research project that distinguish it as a form of PAR.

Namely, PAR is a collaborative inquiry where the social construction of local or living knowledge is gathered through dialogical and interactive processes. The researcher-participant relationship is one of equals working together with the belief that all participants have valuable knowledge and experiences to contribute. An important facet of this study was that participants would be empowered through their own decision-making processes and could thereby achieve some form of self-determination and self-development. It was intended that the mentor participants would determine the content of the PD for each focus group and this would drive the PD I prepared for them. However, mainly due to time constraints and a desire to lessen the work load for the mentors I took on the role of planning the PD. Consequently I shifted the mentors' locus of control from determining the group's learning direction to individual choice, where each mentor selected a facet derived from the educative mentoring PD they wanted to focus on and implement.

Other than planning the PD for the groups I also participated in discussions with the mentors about their learning. I asked questions, prompted and probed their thinking and sought their

comments on the key ideas I gathered from the focus group sessions. As a researcher participant I also reflected on my own learning throughout the research process. An essential feature of all action research is the capacity for reflection, which is essential to determining future learning (Piggot-Irvine, 2009) and to establishing whether improvement or change is eventuating throughout the action research process (Cresswell, 2012). As a result of on-going iterative and recursive phases, self and group collective reflections were expected outcomes of the study.

Models of action research. Researchers have devised different models to represent their chosen action research process. Two models I encountered seemed to suit the purpose of my study and reflected my understanding of action research. They are the Action Research Interacting Spiral (Stringer, 2007) and the Problem Resolving Action Research (PRAR) model (Piggot-Irvine, 2009).

Figure 2 shows Stringer's model (2007), which illustrates the archetypal cyclical nature of action research. Stringer's representation consists of three phases that in broad terms are believed to mirror the traditional research process of data collection of: (look), analysis (think) and reporting (act) on the results.
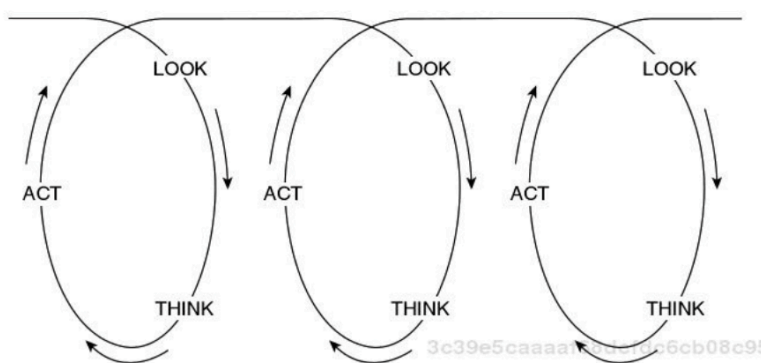
Figure 2.Action Research Interacting Spiral. Reprinted from Action Research (3rd Ed.) by E. T. Stringer, 2007, Los Angeles, CA: Sage publications. Copyright,2007 by Sage publications. Reprinted with permission.

The three phases can be explained as follows:

Look- an initial picture of the current situation is built as the researcher gathers information from various sources, which is analysed and shared with the stakeholders (Cresswell, 2012; Stringer, 2007).

Think- the researcher reflects on what is happening and emerging. Early stages of analysis are conducted.

Act- plans of action are formulated based on data gathered from the think phase. These are implemented and evaluated, and the corresponding results provide data for the look phase of the next cycle.

As a novice researcher the simplicity of Stringer's model appealed. Having only three phases and straightforward language made it easy to remember and given the short time frame of six weeks for my research I believed this model could work. However, there were features missing found within the PRAR (Piggot-Irvine, 2009) model that I deemed relevant to my research.
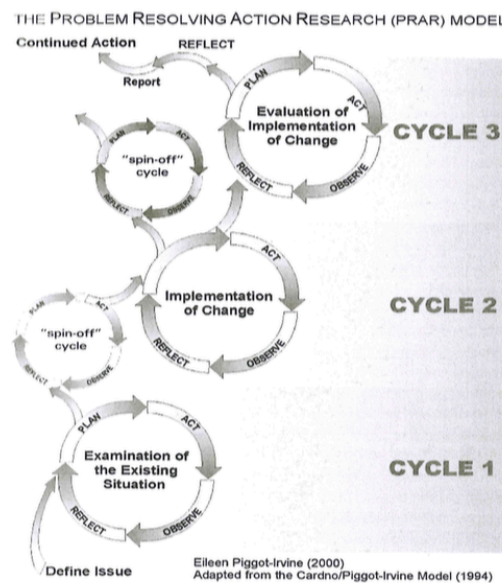
Figure 3. The Problem Resolving Action Research (PRAR) model. Reprinted from Action Research in practice by E. Piggot-Irvine (Ed.)., 2009, Wellington, New Zealand: NZCER press. Copyright, 2009 by NZCER Press. Reprinted with permission.

The PRAR model differs from that of Stringer in several ways. There is a deliberate upward slant, which is a symbolic representation of the author's belief that action research is about continuous improvement (Piggot-Irvine, 2009). Action research can be regarded as powerful educational research because it "is always to do with improving learning, and improving learning is always to do with education and personal and professional growth" (McNiff, 2013, p. 24). This

resonated with me and a sense of moving upward and of building on of previous learning made sense.

The PRAR model also differs in that it has four phases of plan, act, observe and reflect which are included within three distinct cycles. These cycles involve the researcher and participants examining the existing situation (reconnaissance), acting to improve current practice (implementation) and culminate with reflection on change (evaluation). Mini cycles called spin off cycles, also feature in this model. These allow for unexpected issues to either be included, or dealt with independently of the main issue (Piggot-Irvine, 2009). From my perspective the spin offs could provide a format for participants to pursue their own learning. This aspect was appealing because I believed that individual participants needed to determine their own trajectory of learning and trying to impose a set focus or direction for all would negate the ethos of my study. It could be argued that I am encouraging individual professional development, rather than collective learning as is the primary goal of action learning (Piggot-Irvine, 2009), however, the best learning occurs when it is immediately of use (Knowles et al., 2014). I also thought the spin offs might provide opportunities for greater participant self-efficacy and agency. Benefits to the group's learning and development would occur through discussion, reflection and mutual questioning.

A significant concern I anticipated with the PRAR model was that I would not be able to complete the three cycles in the limited time I had available. Owing to the timing of the school holidays and other commitments the teachers I only had six weeks to work through the PRAR process. This is why Stringer's model seemed a more viable option. As it came to pass my concerns were justified and the reality was that neither model was fully achieved. I only managed to work on one cycle within the given time frame and my final action research process became a combination of the two models where I used the look, think, act model (Stringer, 2007) but simultaneously incorporated spin offs from the PRAR model (Piggot-Irvine, 2009) so the mentors could pursue their own learning goals.

Data Collection Instruments

Two instruments were used to collect data for my study: semi-structured individual interviews and focus group interviews. All interviews took place in the third term of the school year, at times convenient to the participants, and on their school site.

The schedule for interviewing my participants is indicated below:

1st interview – semi-structured interviews, individuals (mentees only)
2nd interview – focus groups (the two mentor groups to be interviewed separately)
3rd interview – focus groups (the two mentor groups to be interviewed separately)
4th interview – focus groups (the two mentor groups to be interviewed separately)
5th interview – semi-structured interviews, individuals (mentees and mentors)

One modification to this plan eventuated when it became apparent that two mentees were no longer being formally mentored because they had completed their formal two-year induction and mentoring programme. I thought a second interview was unlikely to produce any new data since these mentees were no longer formally meeting and working with their mentor so I thanked them for their participation and cancelled the interviews.

Semi-structured interviews. Interviewing is a common method used by qualitative researchers because they believe "they can get closer to the actor's perspective by detailed interviewing and observation" (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011, p. 9). The more the researcher seeks to "acquire unique, non-standardized, personalized information about how individuals view the world" (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 354) the more they will look towards qualitative forms of interviewing; and the form this takes most of the time is that of semi-structured interviews (Brinkmann, 2012). With semi-structured interviews some key questions are posed to all participants with leeway for additional or alternative questions to be asked thereby generating a variety of responses and opinions whilst simultaneously ensuring some commonality in the data (O'Toole & Beckett, 2013). A crucial aspect of semi-structured interviews is the capacity for salient topics raised by the respondent to influence the direction of the interview (Barbour, 2014).

I devised a tentative schedule of questions for my interviews to help me map these back to my original research question thereby ensuring my data answered or responded to this (Trainor, 2013). In an effort to design clear, one-dimensional questions (Krueger & Casey, 2015) I broke my sub questions down further and assigned these questions to different phases of the PAR process. A copy of the schedule of questions used for the semi-structured and focus groups can be found in Appendix A.

An advantage with semi-structured interviews is that the interviewer can deviate from a line of questioning to pursue unexpected insights, ask additional questions to elicit further information, and clarify or expand on what has been said (O'Toole & Beckett, 2013). This format proved advantageous for me as I could follow a line of inquiry that might not appear relevant to an interviewer unfamiliar with the day-to-day lives of teachers and mentors. Fortuitously, I also gained access to mentors' thinking and understandings in unanticipated or hidden areas that I thought might be too private for mentors' to talk about such as the gaps between their espoused theories and theories in action (Argyris, 2002). Familiarity with the language teachers use was also helpful because they are prone to using acronyms, and having this pre-existing knowledge meant I need not stop the conversation to ask for explanations.

Conversely, my knowledge and familiarity with teaching could also negatively impact on an interview. Stringer (2007) states that a significant problem with the interview process is the capacity for the researcher's own "perceptions, perspectives, interests and agendas" (p. 58) to influence the questions when the primary purpose of the interview is to obtain the interviewee's viewpoints. Interviewers need to be cautious in not steering interviews in ways that will lead to information they are seeking (O'Toole & Beckett, 2013). I endeavoured to remain neutral but not indifferent to what my participants were expressing, and to not become overly involved or forthright in sharing my views.

A critique of interviews that follow a qualitative approach is that there is a lack of objectivity and neutrality by the interviewer. A qualitative stance "involves focussing on the cultural, everyday, and situated aspects of human thinking, learning, knowing, acting, and ways of understanding ourselves as persons" (Kvale & Brinkman, 2009, p. 12). Attempts to understand the inner life of actors as an insider are viewed by some as a limitation because the interpersonal transactions between the interviewer and interviewee are believed to inherently include biases. Nevertheless, interviews are always going to be humanistic interactions bound by factors that cannot be controlled such as "emotions, unconscious needs and interpersonal influences" (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 350) of its participants.

In a research situation an interview is a professional conversation of daily life designed to produce knowledge from "an inter-change of views between two persons conversing about a

theme of mutual interest" (Kvale & Brinkman, 2009, p. 2). I had a genuine interest in what the participants shared with me and did not view the interview as a one sided affair. I was also aware that our interactions were "a social interpersonal encounter, not merely a data collecting exercise" (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 361). Thus interviews became an opportunity for participants to lead the conversation by doing most of the talking while I asked my questions, demonstrated active engagement and checked in to ensure I correctly understood the meaning of what I was hearing.

Focus groups. Focus groups are "collective conversations or group interviews" (Kamberelis & Dimitriadis, 2011) that discuss or debate a topic of collective interest. They are designed to stimulate and explore a range of perspectives, responses and experiences rather than achieve a group consensus of opinion (Callaghan, 2014). When establishing a focus group factors such as gender, ethnicity, knowledge of the topic or issue and possible power differentials need to be considered.

Power was the defining factor in formulating my focus groups. Since the mentors held different positions of seniority it would not have been appropriate to place all the mentors in one focus group, hence, two focus groups comprising three mentors each were created. Splitting the number of mentors in half effectively produced two groups of peers. Generating groupings that replicate peer or professional teams is more in tune with naturalistic settings "where people discuss, formulate and modify their views and make sense of experiences" (Barbour & Schostak, 2011, p. 63). Though many writers propose focus groups of between six and 10 participants (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015), very small groups of three or four participants, what Krueger terms "mini-focus groups" (as cited in Onwuegbuzie, Dickinson, Leech, & Zoran, 2009) are also viable. Small focus groups work particularly well when participants have "specialized knowledge and/or experiences to share" (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2009, p. 3) as was the case with my participants.

I had dispelled a power imbalance between my participants; yet, there was still the issue of power that I conceivably held as the researcher.

Focus groups challenge the privileged role of the researcher by acceding power to the participants who determine the flow and content of their discussions unimpeded by the researcher (Callaghan, 2014), and allowing for multiple viewpoints to emerge. For the

researcher, being on the periphery of conversations provides the opportunity to observe group dynamics and interactions. As Doody, Slevin and Taggart (2013) explain, attention must be paid to "interaction analysis and the unique insights obtained about the phenomenon during this process" (p. 16) to realise the full potential of focus group research. The researcher's role is also one of stimulating conversation by posing engaging and open-ended questions so that spaces for new, interesting or even contrary information can emerge.

In phrasing my questions it was imperative that I did so in ways to elicit the greatest response (Krueger, 1994). To avoid influencing participants by asking leading questions I designed open-ended ones, which are regarded to be helpful in producing descriptive data (Krueger & Casey, 2015; Merriam & Tidsell, 2015). Open-ended questions allow participants to respond in ways they deem fit and a benefit to the researcher is that they "reveal what is on the interviewee's mind as opposed to what the interviewer suspects is on the interviewee's mind" (Krueger, 1994, p. 57). I also endeavoured to use language known to my participants and that was reminiscent of their worlds and lives (Merriam & Tidsell, 2015).

Each focus group interview commenced with questions that could be construed as easy to answer and moved progressively towards those that probed more deeply (Barbour, 2014) and were more explicit and important in the latter part of the interview (Krueger & Casey, 2015). The focus group sessions had a strict time limit of 90 minutes as these all occurred once students had left school for the day, and I was mindful that my participants could be fatigued. A focus group session commenced with a professional development session of 30-45 minutes that I led about educative mentoring, followed by a focus group interview of 45-60 minutes. In the second and third focus group sessions, during the interview component, participants would share the progress they had made with their self-selected goals, set new goals or talk about what they were going to do next and the group would finish by responding to some pre-set questions that built on the previous session's learning and agreed actions.

Setting and Participants

This study takes place in a large, urban, high decile primary school in central Auckland. The school works with large numbers of student teachers from different initial teacher educator providers. Successfully growing and catering for these students is something the school is well

set up for with all teachers (other than Provisionally Certificated Teachers) taking on the role of mentor teacher. At the time of this study, 50 per cent of the school's permanent teaching staff was Provisionally Certificated Teachers. A Provisionally Certificated Teacher (PCT) is typically a teacher new to the profession who has successfully attained a recognised New Zealand teaching qualification and is completing a formal induction and mentoring programme within a school (Education Council, 2015a).

Selection of participants. I chose to use purposive sampling, a form of non-probability sampling, to select my participants. Purposive sampling allows researchers to deliberately handpick participants according to their suitability such as their "typicality or possession of the particular characteristics" (Cohen et al., 2007, pp. 114-115) for the focus of a study. Having set my prerequisites it was essential that I could select participants representative of these. This form of sampling is also generally utilised to convene focus groups (Barbour & Schostak, 2011), which further reinforced my reasoning.

Upon determining who my potential participants could be, information packs containing recruitment letters, Participation Information Sheets (Appendix D provides a sample of the PIS) and consent forms (refer Appendix B for an example of a consent form) were delivered to invited participants' individual cubbyholes. A box was placed at the school main office for participants to return their signed consent sheets. It is important to note that it was never intended to deliberately match up dyads of mentors and mentees however this became the case with the exception of one mentor.

Participants for this study were either mentors or mentees. All mentees were Provisionally Certificated Teachers (PCTs) in their first or second year of teaching or had recently completed their induction and mentoring programme and were seeking full registration. Mentors were either teachers experienced in, or new to the role of mentoring PCTs, who were also paired with at least one PCT each. To limit elements of coercion due to my administrative role, teachers with a direct working relationship to me, or those whom I had mentored or was currently mentoring, automatically became ineligible to participate. This left 13 participants who were invited to participate and 10 consented to do so.

The group of 10 participants equated to six mentors and four mentees. Two males and four females were mentors and one male and three females were mentees. Two mentees had completed their first two years of teaching, and from the remaining two, one was in the first year of teaching and the other was in the second year of teaching. With the mentors, one was new to mentoring a PCT while the others had all mentored PCTs before. The most experienced mentor had worked with six PCTs.

Confidentiality and Informed Consent

It is important to distinguish between confidentiality and anonymity when considering how to safeguard participants. It is sometimes mistakenly assumed that providing pseudonyms, a form of anonymity equates to confidentiality. Assigning pseudonyms is a form of privacy awarded to participants in an effort to protect their identity but this does not protect them from harm (Piper & Simons, 2011). In this study I have deliberately used non-gender specific pseudonyms to reduce the chance participants can be identified (particularly since only three participants were male) or that pairings between mentors and mentees can be made. I have also withheld information about individual mentor professional roles as an additional measure to conceal identities.

The principle of confidentiality is that people can talk in confidence but also have the right of refusal to "allow publication of material they think might harm them" (Piper & Simons, 2011, p. 26). All participants signed a consent form, which highlighted to them the limitations of confidentiality that I could extend to them. Participants were also advised as part of the consent form that they may withdraw from the study prior to completion of data collection and that any data pertaining to them would be destroyed. The exception was for mentors in the focus groups who could only be guaranteed that data pertaining to them would not be used. For obvious reasons anonymity is impossible within a focus group. However, maintaining confidentiality is imperative for participants to feel comfortable and confident that all information and identities of are confidential to the group and will not be discussed elsewhere. Mentors agreed to abide by this when they signed their consent forms and were also reminded of this commitment at the beginning of their focus group sessions. Refer to Appendix B for an example of the consent form.

In accordance with my ethics proposal approved by Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee all participants were notified in writing that all data would be stored safely and securely for six years on university premises when digital voice recordings would then be permanently deleted and transcripts destroyed.

Ethical Considerations

Kvale and Brinkman (2009) state that during interviews researchers need to "create a stage where the subject is free and safe to talk of private events recorded for later public use" (p. 16). The researcher can be privy to quite personal and sensitive information and may even be regarded by some to be in a position that entices participants to reveal intimate aspects of their lives, which are then publically relayed via "the interpretations and representations of the researcher" (Brydon-Millar, 2011, p. 391). One instance arose where I felt I needed to counsel a mentor after our interview because it had raised feelings of failure and deep regret, so I took the opportunity to talk off the record hoping to leave the mentor in a more positive frame of mind. As a researcher it is my responsibility to ensure the emotional safety of all participants while working with me (Cohen et al., 2007) and that they do not leave feeling "more humiliated, insecure and alienated than when they arrived" (p. 62).

Focus groups have different ethical considerations due to the group context. This is where the principle of partnership comes to the fore as the participants and researcher show mutual respect for each other and act in good faith (Auckland University of Technology, 2016). To support this, a recommendation is that protocols or ground rules are established (Krueger & Casey, 2014; Stringer, 2007). I composed some basic protocols, which included norms such as speaking respectfully, challenging ideas but not the person and maintaining confidentiality within the group. These were shared with each group and agreed to by all.

Deciding which data to include or exclude data became another ethical issue. Research is always going to identify limitations or barriers; however I believe some discernment needs to be utilised in determining what should be included. To assist me in my decision making processes I was guided by my own values and the commitment I made as part of my ethics proposal to

protect the privacy of my participants and to cause them no harm (Auckland University of Technology, 2016). For these reasons some data have been excluded from my final report; particularly where the content of a conversation, due to its sensitive nature or lack of generalisability, could potentially identify an individual or group of people.

Data Analysis

Analysis within a qualitative framework is a recursive, inductive and interactive process that aims to identify "themes, categories or patterns or answers" to the researcher's questions (Merriam & Tidsell, 2015, p. 183). Data for this study came from the semi-structured individual and focus group interviews. All interviews were recorded on a digital audio recording device and transcribed verbatim, either by a transcriptionist (who had signed a confidentiality agreement) or me. Transcripts from the semi-structured individual interviews were returned to the participants for verification before formal analysis and coding began however, focus group transcripts were not shared with the participants.

As soon as possible after completing my interviews I made notes of my musings, thoughts, feelings and potential themes. These proved invaluable as participants' responses sometimes triggered connections to literature I had read, or to similar or contradictory responses of other participants. To provide a robust framework for my analysis I followed the six steps of qualitative data analysis as outlined by Creswell (2015). These are: preparing and organising data for analysis, exploring and coding of data, using codes to build description and themes, representing and reporting qualitative findings, interpretation of findings and validating accuracy of findings.

I began by reading my transcripts as a whole and since data collection and analysis should occur simultaneously (Krueger & Casey, 2015, Merriam & Tidsell, 2015) I also commenced my preliminary analysis. I strived to ensure that each text segment was assigned a code or phrase that I considered accurately depicted its meaning. Some of my codes were *a priori*, meaning I had a preconceived idea of what these might be prior to conducting my interviews (Barbour, 2007) while others were *in vivo* codes (Cresswell, 2015) as they came directly from the wording of the transcripts. An example of how the interviews were coded can be found in Appendix C.

To keep myself on track with my analysis I found the question "What is this person talking about?" helpful (Cresswell, 2015, p. 268). Rather than adding my own meaning or interpretation of what was being said, I endeavoured to consider the meaning behind the words from the participant's perspective, as I coded different text segments. Then I reduced the number of codes to a more manageable size of 20 to 30 by searching for those that could be clustered together. The final step was to collapse all remaining codes down to between five to seven themes, as "detailed information about a few themes rather than general information about many themes" (Cresswell, 2015, p. 269), is preferable when it comes to qualitative reports.

Validity

A criticism of qualitative research is its unscientific and subjective nature, which can lead to questions about the reliability and validity of data (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Mack, 2010). A premise of qualitative research, however, is its subjectivity and reliance on participants' interpretations being authentically reported from their perspectives. Some authors suggest that an intensive connection and involvement with participants and reporting of in-depth responses is all that is required to say a text is valid and reliable while others say these are insufficient to validate the rigour and quality of a piece of qualitative research (Cohen et al., 2007). A strategy proposed to address this is triangulation where multiple and different sources of data are collected and compared to corroborate or discount themes (O'Toole & Beckett, 2013; Piggot-Irvine, 2009; Stake, 2010; Tracy, 2013). My study has used multiple sources as the means to verify the accuracy or credibility of my findings (Stringer, 2007). I have interviewed both mentors and mentees and used semi-structured individual and focus group interviews as data sources.

Triangulation also allows the researcher to "clarify meaning by identifying different ways the phenomenon is being studied" (Stringer, 2007). As I have collected and analysed my data I have been searching for corroborative evidence (Cresswell, 2015). I have asked questions such as does this data stand-alone or have others said something similar? Does this data support or refute my themes? How do I interpret this text to authentically represent its meaning from the participant's perspective?

Another strategy suggested to improve the validity of qualitative research is member checking (Cresswell, 2015; Stake, 2010; Stringer, 2007) whereby participants receive a draft

copy of an observation or interview pertaining to them "for correction and comment" (Stake, 2010, p. 126). All my participants were given draft copies of their individual interviews for verification. A challenge of member checking is that participants might be time poor or disinterested in reviewing their transcript so it is advised that participants receive their documentation as soon as possible after the event (Stake, 2010). I endeavoured to have a quick turn around with my transcripts but this was not always possible.

External audits are also considered useful (Cresswell, 2015) where a person outside of the research objectively evaluates and comments on the work. I regard my supervisors to be my external auditors and I welcomed their advice to improve the quality and validity of my work.

Summary

In this chapter I have described, how my research design fits within my chosen paradigm of interpretivist/constructivist research, and the importance of understanding participants' experiences from their perspectives. I have explained the links between my chosen paradigm, methodology and data collection instruments; all of which support my efforts to understand how mentors' learning and actions are influenced by collaborative professional development about educative mentoring. My personal beliefs and reasons for my decisions have been provided throughout this chapter with the understanding that for my research to stand up to scrutiny I must declare my personal assumptions, as these have influenced my research processes and findings. The next chapter explores the themes that have emerged from my interpretations of the participants' narratives.

Chapter 4 Findings

In this chapter, I present my findings, which are organised thematically. Although the themes are reported on separately, in reality they are intertwined. For example the learning of a PCT does not occur in a vacuum. All novice teachers face challenges and need help and advice in how to deal with these. Their survival and growth is closely linked to the type of mentoring and support provided by the mentor and other colleagues in the school. In turn what the mentors understand and believe mentoring to be affects the PCT as well. The first theme that is explored is traditional mentoring approaches.

Traditional Mentoring Approaches

A feature of traditional mentoring is the provision of emotional support and technical assistance to the mentee. Prior to embarking on this study I had assumed that traditional mentoring would be a feature that both mentees and mentors would comment on and would expect to be part of the mentoring process. This has proven to be the case.

Making the shift from student teachers in training to classroom teachers is challenging and can be confronting for a PCT, "Being a student teacher sets you up for so much but it's still so very different when you've got your own class and it can be quite harrowing at times" (Mentee A). This period can be viewed as a time where mentees are in survival mode because all they can cope with is just getting through each day, "There's always so many other things you have to do, and also you're sometimes exhausted because you are just still getting your head around things" (Mentee B). Mentees also have to learn how to manage and prioritise their workloads " I'm learning that…your to do list, can't be done, which…at the start was like I wanted to get everything done each day. And you kind of as a teacher learn what's the priority and what's not" (Mentee B). Mentors also recognise the complexity of teaching and the demands placed on their mentees.

> *There's such a lot to come to grips with.* (Mentor F)

> *Especially at the very beginning…there's a lot of pressures and it can be overwhelming.* (Mentor B)

Inducting the PCT into the school and teaching profession. To alleviate the pressures on their mentees, mentors may actively relieve the PCT of some responsibility or directly instruct their mentees with what they need to do. This is done in the belief that it

assuages some of the stress felt by the PCT, "Part of my role, I think, as a mentor, is to not let it

be so overwhelming that it's crippling" (Mentor F) and so mentees can find their feet and

concentrate on developing one thing at a time rather than being expected to do everything all at

once. "I do now, start with kind of one thing so that they can control that and focus on that. And

I will be very directive in many other areas and then we'll add to that" (Mentor B). Mentees may

not always appreciate this type of support at the time and even feel stymied by it:

> *Because when you first start here it's do this, do this, do it this way. It's just I feel at least in this school there are many strict guidelines that you have to follow or at least when I first started that's how I felt and I couldn't be that creative.* (Mentee A)

There was a realisation later, that this was not necessarily as first seemed, and Mentee A came

to realise there were actually opportunities to develop one's own identity and ways of doing

things. "Now that I understand how things work here I feel like I know now when I *can* try

something new and when I can't and it's a lot more fluid than I expected". Mentor B also

commented on how difficult it was for an assigned PCT to unquestionably accept this type of

help. The gratitude that the PCT felt towards Mentor B making many of the decisions and

directing him early on in the year is relayed by Mentor B, "But he did say in reflection, like at the

end of the year, that was actually a good way of going about it because it would have been too

much. It…was overwhelming and it would have drowned him".

Mentors also see part of their role to be easing the PCT into the teaching profession and

socialising them to the ways of the specific school context because "They really need to get

their head around the school systems, expectations, what do we want, year level expectations,

school expectations" (Mentor A). Mentees can also feel unsure of how to act or what is

expected of them and appreciate the support and guidance of their mentor in this induction

phase:

> *Just having that support and knowing that there was someone there from the very beginning was really nice because you are coming in to a school and it is scary and it is big and lots is happening. But having someone there …you kind of come to have that person and know that you've always got that support and it makes you feel a lot more comfortable in the school.* (Mentee B)

> **Technical assistance**. The provision of technical assistance is another key principle of

traditional mentoring and all the mentors provided this type of assistance. "So when I get a new

PCT I always start with obviously the basics, and going over the school expectations for

planning and all that curriculum stuff" (Mentor E). Many mentees described ways that their

mentors helped them with technical aspects of teaching such as organising their classrooms, setting up routines, planning, and helping them understand how to use various assessment tools. Mentees commented on the formal structure and the guidance they encountered starting at the school. With hindsight it came to be regarded as helpful or even necessary.

> *I think because when I first came in here I knew nothing, I probably did need the firm guidance that I got and I'm glad I got it cause it did give me quite a bit of bearing here.* (Mentee A)

> *But it was quite good to have a really nice structure last year.* (Mentee C)

Technical assistance can even be assumed to be integral to a mentor's role as Mentor D explains; "This is going to sound terrible; I thought it (mentoring) would be easy, in that when I was viewing it at the beginning of the year, it was consciously, like, pastoral care and technical assistance".

Emotional support and advice. Although the mentees liked technical assistance, they also wanted support of an emotional or humanistic kind. "It's just having that someone to talk to and knowing that you are supported if you are stuck or you need some help or something" (Mentee B). They wanted a mentor who was empathetic, approachable and understanding of their needs and situation. This was particularly so when mentees were new to the school and just getting started with their teaching. Mentors also recognised the need for the pastoral care side of mentoring.

> *Cause I could tell by looking at her, like it was overwhelming and it was stressful, so that's why in the first term look I kind of gave her little bits at a time (Mentor B)*

> *And it's that reassurance that, you know, you are doing all these wonderful things…. but I think pastoral care is quite an important part of that, and making sure that they are okay, and that they have the strategies to deal with all the things that are going on at our school (Mentor E)*

Making time for the mentee and being available to answer questions on the spot was also appreciated by the mentees. "With… being a lot closer last year, she was right next door, I could literally walk over whenever I had a problem or question and it's really nice having someone close" (Mentee D). When the physical distance between the mentor and mentee was greater it meant that the mentees had to find time during the school day or after the students had left before they could talk with their mentors. For Mentee D this meant, "By the end of the day I might have either forgotten or like I would already come up with my own answers". There were advantages that mentors recognised in being physically near their mentees too as they

could keep their finger on the pulse and act as a sounding board or provide other forms of support on the spot:

> *But sometimes a lot of it can be just having that open ear, and having them feeling like they can actually come and talk to you during different parts of the day. And they know that you're there to listen to them, and to support them too, especially when they're very new to teaching.* (Mentor E)

A mentoring relationship built on strong and open communication was important to the mentees. Informal conversations were seen as an opportunity to ask questions or seek advice on any matter pertinent to the mentee at the time. "You could talk about things that you thought about during the lesson…like sort of talking to a friend but getting advice" (Mentee D). There were other benefits too: "I'm quite chatty and I like having a mentor that I can just talk to…Cause it helps me organise my thoughts" (Mentee A). For Mentee C the convenience of being in close proximity to the mentor made it easy for spontaneous dialogue, "I talk to [my mentor] all the time…So me and… don't actually arrange tutor teacher meetings, we are just always talking". Whilst the mentees principally felt comfortable with their mentors, there were also situations where they felt excluded; particularly when a power differential became evident.

Power differential. Mentees are beholden to their mentor in many ways so when a power imbalance is apparent this can impact on how included a mentee feels. For one mentee, some mentors made the PCT feel of lesser value with no voice. "For some of them it feels like they were *definitely* the mentor, they were *definitely* in charge and I felt almost like an underling and I just had to do what they said…. It felt bad at the time" (Mentee A). Having some control or at least a say in decisions made that affected the mentees or their students was deemed important by the PCTs. Sometimes mentors made decisions on behalf of their mentees but didn't fully involve or inform them. For one mentee this led to feelings of being excluded "I did feel like yes, I'm a beginning teacher but…I should have had input in that situation. So yeah, that was one time I kind of felt I'd been stepped over" (Mentee C).

Asymmetrical relationships can also be a cause for concern to mentees where the mentor is concurrently a supporter and evaluator. This was definitely an initial worry for one of the mentees:

> *I guess it did cross my mind that there might be some sort of conflict of interest. Cause [my mentor] is going to be the one in the end of the year that goes and says to management yes, hire [me] back or don't.* (Mentee C)

Fortunately this mentee 'clicked' with the mentor but Mentee C acknowledges it could have been a different story if "it had been somebody that I didn't think that I would get along so well with".

Growth of the PCT

   The impact of confidence on learning. An interesting but not unexpected finding was that many mentees attributed their personal growth as teachers to an increase in confidence. Having learnt from their mentors and others, mentees expressed greater self-assurance to explore and try things for themselves; "Now I feel more confident to go and be a lot more creative and to just explore a little bit more and to find almost, now that I've taken from everyone else I can start trying my own things" (Mentee A). Knowing they had the backing of their mentors boosted mentees' self-perception and knowledge of themselves as teachers.

> *My identity just as a teacher has changed since the beginning and I suppose that's just about me feeling more confident in my own abilities and having successful lessons and successes with the kids…just having that backed up by your mentor and stated by your mentor so you know that it's not just you thinking that…has made me way more confident* (Mentee C)

The mentees also took the confidence and ease with which they went about the daily business of teaching as a sign of their own growth:

> *I've noticed that as time goes on things are getting a lot more efficient, and easier to do…When you're first doing it …you know you're just not as confident so you want everything to be as thoroughly planned as possible.* (Mentee B)

Mentors also viewed an increase in confidence as an indicator of a PCT's growth. They recognised this as "self-confidence, or self-efficacy" (Mentor F), a developing sense of autonomy as "they become more independent and are solving their own problems" (Mentor B) and a willingness to share their learning or experience with others, "So when *they* are actually becoming a mentor, that's indirectly their growth…they're giving advice to others" (Mentor A). Mentee A corroborates the link between personal learning and the application of this through teaching others; "It's great because I've got student teachers now, and I can reflect on that. I feel like it's almost being able to *teach* someone something that I feel I've learnt."

   Personalising learning. Providing a personalised professional development programme that included the right amount of balance and challenge, and that catered for the differing needs of each PCT was integral to moving the mentee forward with their learning. This

was something the mentors consciously worked to provide. "I feel like it's a personalised thing so each mentee is different…so it's not just a programme that we have one for all" (Mentor C). This ethos has worked well for the mentees as how they learn varies from one mentee to the other. For example one mentee discovered that learning meant being thrown in the deep end, "I think I'm the kind of person that learns best from just being chucked into situations so I quite like it when somebody just tells me, you're doing this" (Mentee C). In contrast, another mentee preferred to use the knowledge and experiences of other teachers and make adaptations as appropriate. "I can sort of see the steps they take to teach a certain idea. And then use the same steps on different lessons I suppose to get to an idea that I want to teach the kids as well" (Mentee D). Correctly determining when to provide support and when to step back can make all the difference for a PCT as exemplified here:

> It was the perfect situation and I feel like I've been able to make the most of it because, it's almost like "Alright, you don't know the ropes yet, let me show you. Alright, you know the ropes, let's see what you can do" and I think that really works for me. I think of it as a challenge almost and I think it was really important. (Mentee A)

The influence of observations. The mentees also noted how observing mentors teach the PCT's class or by watching other teachers in action elsewhere followed up with feedback and learning conversations were positive learning experiences. Observing others led to learning about how to manage students:

> But just sort of seeing how [my mentor] can be very, very relaxed with the students but then serious at the same time. I think has shown me…how to have this really good relationship with the kids but also have the line drawn somewhere. (Mentee C)

Observations also provided an opportunity to see first-hand how to put ideas into action

> By watching someone else do it you're like, oh, I can see why the kids are really responding to the way that she talks or like this activity…But sometimes you need to see it before you can actually, you're like, I really want to do this but I don't know how. (Mentee D)

Another mentee was able to directly access the mentor's thinking on the spot (a form of reflection in action) when the mentor explained what she was doing and why she was doing it.

> She'll often stop and be like, so at this point I would bring them back down to the mat, I'd do this because they need that refocussing. And so she's shown me what a good teacher does at a point and explained it to me while she's doing it. (Mentee B)

Mentees were also formally observed by their mentors as part of the induction and mentoring process, which elicited mixed opinions from the mentees. One mentee found these to be somewhat stressful.

> *I'm the type of person that doesn't like having formal observations. I like them informal and I like them to happen when I don't even realise it because…those formal observations are the things that stress me out the most.* (Mentee A)

Although Mentee A knew that formal observations were a requirement there was also a belief that this produced an artificial form of teaching that did not reflect the mentee's natural teaching environment or ways of doing things. This was because the mentee felt "like I had to do the perfect lesson" (Mentee A), which resulted in an acutely heightened awareness of being observed and lead to higher levels of anxiety. In contrast, another mentee found that becoming engrossed in the teaching meant little thought was given to the observation process, "I actually don't mind them because I find that when the observer comes in… there are so many kids there, that you sort of forget about them" (Mentee C).

Feelings of inadequacy or not wanting to make a public mistake also raised concerns when being observed as Mentee D explains, "Maybe it's just me thinking, oh, I'm not very good at teaching this and they can see that. Oh, and I made a mistake here and it might be like, all in my own head". Therefore *how* mentees receive feedback about their lessons is critical to their self-esteem and learning which was emphasised by Mentee C, "the most helpful things have been the observation and feedback process, which I don't think would be as helpful if we didn't have a really positive way of doing that at this school" (Mentee C). The mentees commented on how affirming positive feedback was to their growth as teachers and to their emotional well-being:

> *The feedback that I got was always quite positive so it did make me feel a lot better* (Mentee D)

> *[The observer] gave me really good feedback afterwards. She was like, I'm so impressed and that made me realise, oh I've actually improved a lot since last time* (Mentee C)

Learning on the job. Some aspects of teaching can only be learnt in the classroom and perhaps the most powerful and relevant learning occurs through direct experience on the job. Mentee D described how working with students and receiving additional training on site in mathematics, led to less rigid teaching approaches. More attention was now directed towards understanding students' learning processes and prior knowledge, "I feel like now that I know they all have such different learning styles, I'm more fluid with how I teach them" (Mentee D).

Learning from experience is not always through success. Mentors will sometimes allow PCTs to make mistakes, "Sometimes I let them crash and burn and then say, so how did that go?" (Mentor B). This is seen as a way to promote the mentee's learning and to potentially stimulate reflection leading to change or improvements in teaching "so when she had something that went very wrong she can step back and think about it…now she's able to go next time I would do this" (Mentor B). Developing self-reflective skills is an essential component of becoming a teacher so that PCTs can think independently about how to improve their teaching, and learning outcomes for students.

Learning through reflection. Mentee B was very self-aware of the personal learning process, "For me I'm someone that needs to say something out loud and then I know I've learnt it". Therefore instances of reflective dialogue with the mentor were particularly revelatory:

> *You can think about it internally but sometimes you don't actually think about it enough, whereas if you have to say it, you really have to think about it. And if she questions me, well, what are you doing to help that, you sort of think about the things you're doing and sometimes you're doing them automatically but you just don't think about why you're doing it…and that's really valuable.*
> (Mentee B)

Mentee B liked these reflective conversations because they stimulated serious thinking and spotlighted what the mentee was doing and why. They were also seen as a way to stretch the mentee's thinking by encouraging questions about practice, "Another thing I really like is to probe their thinking as well and not to settle for whatever advice I give them…to actually question it and ask why?" (Mentor C). Discussions of a pedagogical nature such as these, are believed to help mentees develop deeper understandings about teaching, "it's, not just accepting the status quo… it's to do with that developmental thing where they're really understanding about children's learning and delving into it" (Mentor F).

For Mentor F, the learning from the focus group PD triggered a desire to know and understand the PCT's assumptions about students' learning. Mentor D, however, took the notion of social justice as the means to challenge a mentee's assumptions about relying solely on assessment results to understand students' needs and abilities. "[My PCT's] very assessment based and I had to talk about how it's holistic, it's not just about that. That you need to be aware of…social factors that are there, outside influences" (Mentor D).

Learning takes time. Time is needed for mentees to make gains and grow. Mentor A reflected on the changes in a PCT's teaching practice over two years, "Her first term she struggled….But when you see her at the end of the second year, she had solid teacher practice". For Mentee B, time was instrumental in developing confidence to deviate from what was familiar to try something different, to the point where students' needs were placed ahead of the PCT's insecurities:

> *From the start of the year where, you're kind of trying to play things a little bit safe at the start cause you're a bit worried…you're just a little bit like, ooh, what do I do?... I'm just like, no, kids learn when they're doing and when they're hands on and by seeing the students that excel and do such great things when they're doing that hands on stuff, it has definitely changed my teaching practice.* (Mentee B)

Meeting students' needs. One of the most significant differences between educative and traditional mentoring is that educative mentors place great emphasis on helping mentees to develop an awareness of and ability to cater for students' learning needs. Over time this has become more central to the mentees' learning.

> *I guess I've learnt… it's really been quite obvious to me since I started teaching that these kids are learning in completely different ways, at completely different speeds and that means that I have to cater to them in completely different ways.* (Mentee C)

> *When I first started I wasn't completely sure where they (the students) needed to be, where they should be at…but I think through talking with [my mentor], I would know, here are some strategies I can use to get them to… in reading or something like that.* (Mentee D)

> *At the start of the year I was sort of still getting my head around things and stuff and now I can really see what students need... So already I am starting to adapt things and different activities even within a group.* (Mentee B)

Catering for students' learning was critical for another reason too, because when asked how mentees identified their own learning, typically they referred to their ability to teach or pass on their learning to someone else, and for most mentees this meant their students.

> *When I can teach it to my kids…that's when I feel I've learnt it.* (Mentee A)

> *I feel like I've learned if I can teach it to my class and they respond really well to it.* (Mentee D)

Another important contributor to the growth of the mentee was the learning gleaned from seeking the knowledge and experience of other colleagues within the school.

It Takes a Whānau to Develop a PCT

Although allocating a sole, competent mentor for each PCT has been shown to be influential on the early development of PCTs, educative mentoring theory favours PCTs learning from the

wider community and other colleagues as well. The mentees in this study proactively sought help and advice from different colleagues, some of whom were regarded to be mentors too. "I also feel you don't have a limited amount of mentors. You've got mentors all around the place" (Mentee C). It would appear that the reason for looking for help beyond the delegated mentor was not due to any sense of dissatisfaction, but rather could be attributed to what was convenient for the mentee. Therefore, as would be expected the teacher next door was often called upon. "Although… is my mentor I think I have other people. So I mean I have… who is my team teaching buddy and she also has mentored me because we are constantly together" (Mentee B). In some instances the teacher next door might also be a PCT but this wasn't prohibitive in the mentee's eyes. "I was working with… who was also a beginning teacher but we were sort of mentoring each other" (Mentee C). At other times, a person's specific skill or knowledge might be sought, "there's certain people you'll go to for different things for. If I need critical literacy I may as well go to…cause she has a strength in that, Maths, it's…" (Mentee B).

Mentees can learn much from working with different mentors and teachers in their induction phase, even learning incidentally from observing a release teacher as Mentee C explains, "I sort of watched how she roamed around and made sure that she checked with in with every single group". Learning through observation was not confined only to the classroom setting. Mentee D found team meeting times fruitful for the gathering of new ideas and problem solving situations when considering how to meet students' needs. "It's really nice to be able to come together and discuss how we can cater for them. And then that's a whole team like sharing ideas thing, which really helps as well". The group discussion had a positive spin off for Mentee D who learnt from the collective wisdom of the group, "we get to share ideas and come up with more, creative ways of presenting an activity for the children" and who could then put these ideas into practise.

Widening their repertoire of teaching strategies, resources and ideas by tapping into the experience of other teachers is one reason that mentees move beyond the dyad of the mentoring relationship. As Mentee C explains "That's been the major help for me, asking other teachers with more experience, what would you do in this situation? Have you had anything like this before?... So asking teachers just for different strategies for different children". The adage that two heads are better than one certainly applies in the world of the mentee where there is

much to learn and problems can be solved with the help of others. In the words of Mentee C "If you're going to try and go it alone I think you're going to make mistakes that you could easily avoid if you just asked somebody else about it".

Three of the four mentees have had more than one mentor, which was perceived to be a positive school attribute. "I think it's great at this school how we sort of have multiple mentors…they're all different people I can go to. I think that's really valuable because there's different things and different aspects that people have that you can go and talk to them about" (Mentee B). The differences in what mentors bring to mentoring was likened to sampling from a "smorgasbord" (Mentee A), where mentees could "take bits and bobs" (Mentee B) from what was offered as they developed their own teacher identities and learnt about teaching and the teaching profession. Diversity within mentors was thought to reflect the teaching profession at large and positively illustrated that it is acceptable to be you.

> *There's lots of different types of teachers as well so you don't have to have the same kind of attitude or strategies that you use with kids and you can be just as effective. So I think actually…having lots of different mentors is a really good thing* (Mentee C).

One of the mentees acknowledged how the school's structures and culture contributed to successful mentoring; "I just think the way we have the mentoring set up here is just such a good thing because I don't believe I would be in the same position as I am now without that kind of support" (Mentee C).

Shifts Towards Educative Mentoring

Power differentials. Mentoring is generally considered to involve a hierarchy with mentors wielding greater power than the mentee. Participation in this study has stimulated greater thought from mentors about their relationships with their mentees, including raising awareness of how educative mentoring approaches view power, "I think what's stuck in my mind is the partnership aspect of it, how it's supposed to be about working together. There isn't supposed to be a hierarchy about it" (Mentor D). Reflecting on a particular event helped one mentor realise how sharing power, when discussing a concern about teaching practice, could have yielded a better outcome. "I feel like she was more shut down with the first approach. With the second approach she was a lot more open to adapt some of her practice, because it had come from her" (Mentor E).

The mentees were aware of asymmetrical relationships at times, but they also noticed shifts in the power dynamic, "It's definitely changed in terms of maybe being told what to do a little bit more last year and actually asking what do I do, last year compared to this year" (Mentee C). Mentee A references a change in the mentor-mentee discussions and how these have become more collaborative, "I would say it's not always been that way. I mean when I started it was the opposite. It was the power dynamic that shifted". Redressing the power imbalance has led mentees to feel as equals or partners in the relationship:

> *"I mean it's a partnership."* (Mentee B)
>
> *"It's less one sided."* (Mentee C)
>
> *"We almost see other as if we're equals."* (Mentee A)

Relinquishing power is necessary if collaboration, another characteristic of educative mentoring, is to occur. An example of this was evident where a mentor changed how mentees were to be observed. Previously the mentor would observe a lesson without seeking any prior input from the mentee, now the mentor and mentee collaborate in determining the foci for the observation. "When I observe my mentee I ask them. It's a collaborative thing and I ask them what do you want me to focus on?" and consequently a new appreciation for this way of working has developed. "I like the idea of things being collaborative and co-constructed. It's not just a one way street…we can build it together" (Mentor C).

The emergence of PCTs' identities. Respect for the mentees as colleagues also encompassed providing the freedom for their teacher identities to flourish. Mentors spoke strongly about the importance of this and often their comments reflected personal deeply held convictions, "To me teaching is who I am and it's your personal identity and you evolve as a teacher. It's quite unique; your style of teaching is unique" (Mentor A) and "I wouldn't want anyone to imitate me because I'm me for a reason and I want them to be themselves and bring their own strengths and beliefs to this profession" (Mentor C). Mentor F concurs and has no desire to create a "mini me model". The mentees certainly were grateful for opportunities to be themselves and the trust placed in them by their mentors, "She's not overprotective. She trusts me and I like having that independence as well where I can just be myself as a teacher" (Mentee B).

Paradoxically mentees at times also wished to emulate their mentors because they could see that what their mentors did worked, "I have adopted quite a lot of [my mentor's] practices and the way that [my mentor] does things because they work and I agree with the way that [my mentor's] doing it" (Mentee C). The mentee may also like the culture created by the mentor and wish to replicate this " I've watched her and just seeing her in practise makes me want to be like her because it's just such a nice feeling in her room" (Mentee D).

Bifocal emphasis. Focussing on student learning has been a key topic discussed between mentors and mentees, and been a recurring principle discussed throughout the PAR process. Consequently, the mentors made concerted efforts to move from concentrating predominantly on what the PCT was doing, to how the mentee was influencing students' learning. One mentor appreciated this shift in attention, "I like the fact that, it's a bifocal lens not just you as a teacher but with your students as well" (Mentor C). This shift also reinforced the importance of students' learning over personal growth:

> *It means a shift of the lens to saying, how is this impacting the learners? Is your growth going to be growing yourself as a teacher or is it going to be benefiting the students more?...It's a bit of balancing both. It's not just you as a teacher and you're going to be a team leader next and then you're going to be a principal, it's not about your personal growth. I think it's about more the students in front of us.* (Mentor C)

The mentees valued opportunities to speak spontaneously and informally with their mentors about students where they asked for advice in how to cater for them, "I'll ask him…what would you do about this? But mostly actually, it's more about what should we do about so and so?" (Mentee C). Mentees also used their mentors as sounding boards to help them problem solve where students were involved. For Mentee D who had tried numerous things to support and engage a challenging student, input from the mentor was needed. "I am sort of running out of ideas…I've tried this and this, what else can I do? [My mentor's] really calm and understanding. She'll be like, take a deep breath, it's okay. Have you tried this?" Speaking with the mentor provided another source for this mentee to gather ideas and was also a calming influence.

Reciprocity of learning as adults. Mentors have also engaged in joint learning with their mentees. Mentee F experienced this when modelling a writing lesson in the PCT's room and explained that as the mentee worked alongside the children it became "a learning

experience for both of us". Sometimes reciprocity of learning can occur where the mentee teaches or leads the mentor and it can happen when the mentor least expects it, "I went to observe [my mentee] doing maths a little while ago. She was doing this cool warm up that…I've read in the framework but I've never actually seen someone do that and now I do it all the time" (Mentor E).

Another mentor asked the mentee to try different solutions for a class based problem and was surprised to discover that the mentee successfully trialled an idea not thought of by the mentor, "I said fantastic, cause that wasn't something I was thinking about that she could do so I learnt that, yeah that's a really good idea that she's tried and she's implemented that" (Mentor A). Mentors can also learn from their mentees when they tap into their existing knowledge, skills and strengths as Mentor C explains, "So often when I learn… is when they use their strengths as well…and use current research and readings from university to trial in our class".

Understanding adult learning theory and how to work with mentees as responsible adults who bring varied life experiences to their work is something that mentors take seriously. It also has implications for the mentors in that they should not see themselves as the expert or the person with all the answers, "the mentor is not the font of all knowledge" (Mentor B). Mentor B qualifies this however by stating that it is the mentor's role to use the mentee's "bag of tricks" within the context of good teaching to grow PCTs into high quality teachers.

The Mentors' Learning

Mentors' perspectives about the aspects *they* believed impacted on them the most provides the content for this chapter. Participants were not prompted to share their thoughts explicitly about the two focus groups but incidental comments about these did arise. For ease of reference, and to protect participants' identities, these are referred to as Focus Group A and Focus Group B

Focus group dynamics. Although all participants knew each other there was not a feeling of familiarity that I expected, though the manner of interactions did evolve throughout the PAR process. Initially Focus Group B interacted more naturally and freely than Focus Group A, but still with a sense of formality as participants took turns speaking and politely allowed people

to finish before speaking themselves. By the third session together a change had occurred. All participants were interjecting, seeking clarity, building upon ideas and questioning each other while Focus Group B participants also brought their problems to the group, viewing it as a source of support and advice.

For the most part, the mentors in Focus Group B were more open with their thoughts and beliefs. There was one instance though where a mentor wanted to challenge another mentor's assumptions but did not do so, "Part of me is like I want to get in there and tell her what stage 4 looks like! But…said, yeah she does know but I asked does she *really* know?" (Mentor A). This thinking was only revealed later in an individual interview and it would appear that strong urges to act congenially prevailed. Despite this reluctance to speak out, it seems that overall, the focus group sessions were a space where the mentors could learn from and with each other, share their trials and tribulations, receive support and reflect on their own learning.

> *Opening up that dialogue with my colleagues to help and support has been important.* (Mentor B)

> *You learn from the other mentors.* (Mentor A)

> *The ones [discussions] that we've been having… that's all helped develop my own ideas*. (Mentor F)

> *It was really good to hear what the experiences of the other mentors were and some of their frustrations. And that has made me think really deeply.* (Mentor A)

These comments reinforce the notion that reality is constructed in social contexts and that PAR was an appropriate and successful method to promote such learning.

New conceptions of mentoring promote change. During the focus group sessions, new learning about educative mentoring through exposure to professional readings provided a stimulus for mentors to rethink some of their assumptions. By reflecting on these, in tandem with putting their learning into practice through the look, think, act cycle of PAR, the mentors came to the conclusion that they needed to make some changes. What struck many of the mentors was the need to change their focus or approach.

I think as I've been working in this group my idea of mentoring has developed more. I really like the educative mentoring that we've been discussing, so I've been trying to model my own mentoring more on that. (Mentor F)

You're more of a co-thinker so you're not the expert and…I've really taken to that idea. (Mentor F)

The point is for them (mentees) to become quality teachers so that the kids actually learn and I think when that becomes a goal that changes your goal. (Mentor D)

Before, my mentees would just probably imitate me and do whatever I did and I didn't really know anything better before and thought that was okay. And now it's about them and building their own practice, not imitating me. (Mentor C)

Making change requires a willingness to grapple with the unknown. There can be a tendency to shy away from areas where people feel less confident or lacking in knowledge. An absence of pedagogical content knowledge caused one mentor to avoid conversations with mentees that were at a deeper level, "Rather than giving them advice, before I used to just tell them go to this website it's all there or I'll help you do this planning, you just do it, teach it kind of thing" (Mentor C). After gaining knowledge about educative mentoring theory Mentor C's confidence to enact it increased, "I think by getting exposure to what's going on in terms of educative mentoring and adult mentoring…I know I can talk the talk and walk the walk" and with this has come an ability to hold serious conversations about teaching:

Now I go deeper…So, I think I've grown in terms of having a more open conversation about a mentee's practice. I feel like I know a bit more about theory and what's out there and reasons for things and before I didn't really know much about mentoring and the current practice around like educative mentoring…and now I know quite a bit about it. (Mentor C)

Exposure to new concepts also prompted the mentors to direct more attention to students' learning "When I meet with (my mentee) I feel like I've tried to focus our meetings on what's happening with those children" (Mentor E) and "one thing we've been doing is really looking at the data and really helping the PCT to know the learners… and see where the next steps are" (Mentor F). One mentor measures the success of a mentee's lesson now by talking with students about their learning, "going to the students, asking the learners, checking in that they've actually got the learning intention…That's how I measure success now rather than did you find the lesson went well?" (Mentor C). There is a view now that mentoring is not about focussing solely on what gains and learning the PCT is making but is also linked to the progress and achievement of students. A bifocal focus is superseding previous beliefs and practices.

Taking action. All mentors were asked to make a commitment to take an aspect of educative mentoring theory and work on it as a professional goal. Mentors were asked to commit to this for two reasons, 1) they had indicated that for professional development to be effective for them it had to hold them accountable or they were unlikely to act because of the busyness of their daily lives; and, 2) I needed the mentors to take some form of action in order to gather data for my study. Learning about mentoring is a complex process and what may be important or relevant to one individual may not be to another and this is why I wanted mentors to have the freedom to self-select what they wished to work on.

All mentors chose aspects they saw as being relevant to their own needs or interests and that simultaneously aligned with their own assumptions and philosophies of mentoring. For example as a mentee, Mentor E experienced feelings of being equal in the mentoring relationship and this early experience appears to have influenced a desire to create a more egalitarian mentoring relationship, "I want her to have more of a voice but also, again it comes back to developing her practice and trying not to focus on, just telling her".

Professional readings also influenced Mentor E, "that reading where it talked about the guy from the U.S…he talked about how he went into that meeting, like he didn't have an agenda and then they would be talking about things and reflecting on things". The Feiman-Nemser (2001b) article, prompted Mentor E to encourage the PCT to take the lead in deciding the content and direction of their discussions. Mentor E had to make deliberate changes in practice to achieve this by consciously choosing to speak less, share power and trust that the mentee knew what personal learning was needed. What might have remained as espoused theory became theory in action for Mentor E.

Experiential learning. Previous experiences as a mentee can profoundly influence the development of personal mentoring styles and how mentors view the mentor-mentee relationship. Reflecting on this for one mentor has revealed the subtleties involved and how actions of the mentors' led to personal learning:

> *A lot of the things that my mentors did for me I think was [sic] so subtle that I didn't actually really realise it. So I think it's more facilitating than showing and there's a lot of things that I've been trying to let [my mentees] find on their own or explore on their own rather than me outright telling them. Because I was starting to realise that there were all these things, everyday things that I'd figured out on my own.* (Mentor D)

Another participant recalls the regular presence of the mentor in the classroom and how advice was given:

> *The tutor teacher I had was in the classroom, and she was constant, she was the same year level, she was doing the same kind of things, she was constantly feeding me in with, okay, try this.... And I never felt like she was there, telling me, that hierarchy thing… I always felt like she was an equal to me, and she obviously had that experience so she could make suggestions to me.* (Mentor E)

These past experiences can become the default setting for determining future mentoring behaviour and what is important in the mentoring relationship and process. Mentor E's experiences as a mentee have influenced current mentoring beliefs and practices such as the importance of staying in touch with the PCT, "I feel like the more I'm in that space the more I'm aware of what is happening in the classroom". Furthermore, Mentor E believes this contact and knowledge is essential if the mentee is to be helped to develop reflective practices:

> *Because it's very easy, obviously, if you don't regularly look at the planning, and regularly go into that space, you don't notice those things, so you don't ask those questions. So then they're not reflecting on their practice.* (Mentor E)

Learning is not just the result of an event or experience. Deep reflection about the experience, what Schön (1983) refers to as reflection on action, is also required. Mentor D discovered this early on when simultaneously mentoring two PCTs, and realising that a prescribed type of mentoring would not work. What was required was an astute awareness of the mentees' requirements and goals, and an ability to adapt. "It's been good for me because I've been forced to differ from the very beginning. I learned real quick that I couldn't treat one of them the same as I treated the other" (Mentor D). Experiential learning can also be responsive rather than planned or deliberate as Mentor B explains that at times "you kind of make it up". This illustrates that learning on the job is another source of learning.

Indicators of learning. When explaining how they knew they had learnt the mentors, like their mentees, determined their learning from an external source, but for them it was the PCTs not students.

> *I would measure that (my learning) against my mentee's response and how they feel the mentoring journey has been and how it's grown.* (Mentor C)

> *You can see that what you're putting into practice is working through them. What you're getting back from them, their responses.* (Mentor F)

A change in their own behaviour was also an indicator that learning had occurred; "there's been a shift in the way I do things as a mentor" (Mentor F). Reflecting on their own goals, assumptions and actions pointed to mentors' learning as well.

> *I kind of think back at my practice. How have I changed in my mentoring style?* (Mentor C).

> *You have those aha moments. Firstly you reflect and you think about what you've done and you think, oh, could I have done it differently? What else could I have done? And then you think, oh I did learn this from it.* (Mentor A)

Reflecting on instances where the mentor has grappled with how to help a PCT has also been a learning experience. "I could see [my mentee] struggling, maybe I tried to do too much too quickly and I should have you know, made smaller steps for her. So that's something I have learnt" (Mentor A). Mentor A also stated that "it's gut…it's intuition." Learning is not easily pinned down and cannot be constrained solely within the bounds of logic or the affective domain.

As the mentors were unfamiliar with educative mentoring it is not surprising that there was a desire to find something relatable to hang existing presuppositions of mentoring on. When unpacking the traits of educative mentoring from the Langdon et al., study (2011, p.44) Mentee D said, "All three of us looked at that and thought, oh, we actually do most of these things just quite naturally based on what we've learnt from being here [at the school]." Nonetheless it was also recognised that some change would be required and that educative mentoring is more than the mere provision of technical assistance and emotional support, "so looking at the difference, it kind of opened my eyes to the fact that it should be more than that" (Mentor D) and this too became a stimulus for change.

Barriers

Time was a reoccurring issue commented on by both mentees and mentors. The main concern for mentees was knowing that regular meetings would take place, "You know things get busy and sometimes we don't always get time to see each other" (Mentee B). For the mentors it was feelings of letting mentees down by not being able to give as much time to their mentees as they would like.

> *I thought maybe I wasn't doing as much as I should be as a mentor. Because, you know, it does get really busy, and on top of doing your planning, as well as meeting with your mentee, it can be really hard to manage.* (Mentor E)

To overcome this issue many of the mentors would prefer to team-teach with their mentees because they felt it would be easier to monitor how their PCTs were doing and they would be more accessible. "I think…being with the same person mentoring you and seeing that person every day and teaching with them every day I think would be really, really helpful" (Mentor D). It was also suggested that it was harder for senior managers to be mentors as they are so busy with other commitments and cannot have that close and regular contact that a teacher next door or nearby can.

An area the mentors found particularly difficult and wanted assistance with was the giving of constructive criticism, "that's always the hardest stuff, giving them that feedback even when it's not positive" (Mentor E). One mentor wanted to know how to "not beat around the bush and just get straight to the point" but to do so without "being too direct" (Mentor C). The mentors invested wholeheartedly in maintaining the mentoring relationship, so when a mentee struggled or failed in some way a hard toll was exerted on the mentor. "I've tried desperately to make it work and be successful for her, but I failed, and I failed miserably from my point of view" (Mentor B). A lot of self-blame and negative self-talk by the mentor can result so mentors also need emotional support.

An aspect of educative mentoring that was touched upon less was making links between theory and practice, "we haven't done as much like linking with theory" (Mentee B) and "I'm just wondering if we've ever really had an explicit conversation about that. I don't really think so" (Mentee C). In one instance a mentee noted that it was more that philosophies of teaching were discussed, "So we haven't specifically talked about this theorist or that theorist but our philosophies of teaching" (Mentee C). A justification for little time being given to talking and learning about theory and practice comes from Mentee A who thinks that "because we do so much professional development here it's almost separated from those conversations" (Mentee A). My interpretation of this statement is that whole staff professional development, an inherent feature of the school's culture, was deemed to serve this purpose.

Summary
This chapter explained how and what mentors and mentees have learnt, validated that mentors can make shifts towards educative mentoring approaches in a short space of time and identified

some potential barriers. In the next chapter, the findings are explored further by making links to current research and literature that support or contest these interpretations.

Chapter 5 Discussion

In the ensuing chapter, the key findings are discussed and linked to the relevant research literature. Whilst this chapter is structured in an orderly and coherent fashion to assist the reader in understanding key ideas it needs to be remembered that learning is not linear and learning processes cannot be generalised as they are unique to the individual. Understandings of how people learn from their own perspectives, lies at the heart of this research project. So this chapter begins by explaining from the mentors' viewpoints how and what they learnt about educative mentoring through their participation in collaborative professional development (PD).

A fundamental finding was that the mentors were able to learn about educative mentoring in a short period of time, through intensive, focussed PD abetted by a PAR process. The PD was designed so that the mentors would implement their new learning in situ. This was a deliberate act on my part, as the mentors had indicated early on in the PAR process that they felt good PD needed to be continuous and hold them accountable for their learning. To achieve this I thought that the mentors needed to apply their learning as they learnt it, so it would become a routine and enduring part of their mentoring work. Equally, they would make direct connections between theory and practice and the value and relevance of their learning would be reinforced.

The opportunity to implement learning 'on the go' proved to be an important contributor to the mentors' learning journey and outcomes because they were able to alter their practices, and gain new understandings about their PCTs learning and abilities which in turn challenged their beliefs and knowledge of themselves and their mentees. This then provided an impetus for the mentors to adjust their mentees' goals and amend their planned mentoring PD programmes to better suit the needs and strengths of their PCTs.

From the mentors' comments it was evident that instances of double loop learning occurred and a range of influences contributed to their learning. For example, time spent together analysing professional readings, discussing individual goals and experiences and reflecting on their mentoring approaches proved pivotal. Another catalyst for the mentors' learning was, the disjuncture that arose between their existing beliefs and practices compared to the key messages from the professional development content.

When it came to explaining their own learning outcomes, rather than viewing learning as innately an internal process (Merriam et al., 2007), evidential changes by the PCTs were looked-for by the mentors as indicators of the success of their own learning. Consequently the understandings garnered from observing the growth of their mentees fed into the changes the mentors made with their own thinking and actions and so the cycle of learning between the mentor and mentee was further reinforced. It was noted that the mentors all experienced difficulty explaining exactly when or how learning had occurred, but this is not unusual as learning can be implicit or incidental, and the learner may be unaware of any corresponding influences (Alexander et al., 2009).

The remainder of this chapter expands on these findings and is divided into three parts that cover: the mentors' prevailing beliefs about mentoring, the influence of PD in shifting mentors towards educative mentoring approaches, and how mentors perceived their learning and its outcomes.

Phase I: Mentors' Initial Beliefs About Mentoring Roles and Approaches

It is widely believed that mentors are most comfortable when offering emotional support or technical assistance as they familiarise PCTs with their unique school contexts and cultures (Achinstein & Athanases, 2006; Moore, 2014). In keeping with this, the mentors in this study felt their role was to, be an empathetic listener, instruct the mentees in what they needed to do and know, and provide opportunities for PCTs to gradually increase their autonomy until they became independent of the mentor. They considered their purpose was to help mentees become successful teachers who meet school and professional regulatory expectations, and they viewed themselves as supporters, guides, co-workers and professional role models. These ideas echo many of those associated with traditional mentoring practices. This study found that the mentors were able to move beyond these types of approaches by adapting their practices but there were also instances and times where traditional mentoring took precedence. According to the mentors, this was most needed early on in the mentee's first year as a PCT.

A key reason given for this type of support is the need to establish and build a trusting mentoring relationship, which underpins mentoring (Beutel & Spooner-Lane, 2009; Hobson et

al., 2009; van Ginkel et al., 2016). In this study, the mentors wanted their mentees to be successful and achieving this meant developing a relationship where they were approachable, available, compassionate (Jones & Straker, 2006; McDonald & Flint, 2011) and aware of the "steep learning curve" (Birkeland & Feiman-Nemser, 2012, p. 109) mentees were embarking upon. They were also highly cognisant of the pressures mentees faced in managing and prioritising their workloads as they adjusted to the realities and practicalities of teaching. To alleviate some of these the mentors relieved their mentees of some of their responsibilities by making decisions on their behalf and instructing them on what they needed to do.

These actions were taken because the mentors thought they would be easing the burden on their mentees. Consequently the PCTS would feel less overwhelmed, their focus would be narrowed, and they would be better positioned to manage their workload. However, making arbitrary decisions on behalf of PCTs may lead to friction or disagreement within the mentoring relationship and negates what is believed about adult learners' preferences in having control over their learning (Knowles et al., 2014, Vella, 2012). Mentee A's comments illustrate two contradictory viewpoints about being directed what to do. "When I first came in here I knew nothing. I probably did need the firm guidance that I got and I'm glad I got it…" but at the same time inklings of resistance lay below the surface too, "and as much as you always want to question why or say no I want to do it my way, there's a reason for it."

Developmental understandings of mentees' learning. The mentors believed the beginning of the school year was particularly formative for the mentee's learning so establishing good teaching practices with associated thinking was considered essential. Novice teachers can think they know more about teaching than they actually do which can cause difficulty in the formation of new ideas, thinking and actions (Feiman-Nemser, 2001a; Roehrig et al., 2008). Deep-seated views and images of teaching and learning that are out of step with current thinking about good teaching and how this relates to teaching diverse student populations may also be present (Wang & Odell, 2002). Therefore, the mentors wished to influence their PCTs patterns of behaviour and thinking about teaching and how this related to the school's culture early on in their learning.

All new learning, whether it relates to skills or knowledge involves developmental progressions as learners move from novice to expert (Timperley et al., 2007). A belief exists that the primary focus for novice teachers is initially on themselves, their performance, and what equates to a form of survival (Achinstein & Athanases, 2006; Norman & Feiman-Nemser, 2005; Stanulis et al., 2014). The findings from this study indicated that the mentors recognised and accounted for this early developmental phase by firstly providing support from the affective domain and utilising a situated apprenticeship style of mentoring as they eased their PCTs into the school and the profession (Wang & Odell, 2002). The majority of the mentors applied a similar pattern to assimilate their PCTs, which I have presented in diagrammatic form in Figure 4.

Locus of control	Mentoring Model of Acculturation		Mentoring approach
Mentor controls and determines the learning	**Technical Assistance** (setting up of the classroom environment, timetabling, grouping students for learning, discussing school expectations for curriculum delivery, sharing ideas and resources)	**Emotional Support** (answering questions, being encouraging, instilling confidence in the PCT, asking how the PCT is feeling, offering advice and guidance on behaviour management, celebrating successes, being a sounding board)	Transmission oriented model of mentoring
Control of learning shifts more towards the mentee	**Shift to a Focus on Curricula** (Good teaching practices discussed, assessment tools explained, achievement data analysed and used as basis for teaching foci. Mentors are observing the mentee and vice versa)		Shift towards transformative model of mentoring
Mentee is expected to make decisions and solve problems	**Homing in on Students' Learning and Achievement** (The focus turns more to the impact of teaching on target and priority students' learning. These students are of Maori and Pacifica ethnicity and also include students identified from previous assessment data who need additional support or alternative teaching approaches)		Transformative model of mentoring emerging

Figure 4. Progression of Mentoring Foci and Approaches as Utilised and described by the Mentors in this study.

Figure 4 demonstrates that over time the mentors shifted from transmission styles of mentoring to transformative ones (Richter et al., 2013), the locus of control and decision-making shifted towards that of the PCT rather than the mentor, and the mentoring curriculum changed. Novice

teachers are capable of grappling with complex matters whilst simultaneously establishing procedural routines and can be challenged to move more quickly towards focussing on their learners (Athanases & Achinstein, 2003). Fortunately, for the most part, the mentors in this study were able to judge when it was time to move their mentees on to other areas of pedagogical content learning that were of a deeper and complex nature.

From Figure 4 it can be determined that the mentors typically began by helping their mentee with areas such as planning, behaviour management, development of classroom environments and sharing resources all of which fall under the umbrella of traditional mentoring. They then chose to concentrate on how to teach one essential learning area in depth at a time so the mentee could feel confident and knowledgeable with this particular curriculum. This was usually Mathematics, reading or writing. Throughout their time together the mentors modelled lessons for their PCTs, provided input and advice, worked alongside their mentees, answered their questions and offered guidance on a formal and casual basis. They also gradually withdrew their support and expected greater levels of independence from their PCTs.

These changes demonstrate an adaptive ability to provide individualised PD for their mentees, a core tenet of induction and mentoring programmes for PCTs (Education Council, 2015a). Being adaptive is also a principle feature of educative mentoring, particularly if mentors are to respond flexibly to mentees' needs. It is essential that mentors are skilful at reading mentoring situations (Orland-Barak, 2001b), know when and what stance to take (Athanases & Achinstein, 2003), and have a repertoire of strategies they can employ (van Ginkel et al., 2016). Adaptive mentors cater for their mentees' immediate needs while concurrently keeping in mind the long-term goals for their PCTs (Feiman-Nemser, 2001b).

One aspect consistently viewed as being imperative throughout the mentoring programme was time spent in conversation. Mentees were particularly appreciative of the informal conversations or chats on the run they had with their mentors. They liked having opportunities to discuss their issues, source ideas and engage in critically reflective discussions whilst the mentors knew that putting time aside to meet and talk with their PCTs was important to their growth. Some mentors expressed a preference to be physically situated near their mentees so they could

accommodate spur-of-the-moment conversations and keep a close eye on them during the school day.

Whilst instances of informal mentoring are valuable to the mentor and mentee (Richter et al., 2013), on their own they are also inadequate in meeting a PCT's needs (Beutel & Spooner-Lane, 2009). The frequency of mentor interactions can impact on a PCT, especially when considering the type of mentoring they are receiving. A study by Richter et al. (2013) found that constructivist mentoring, which encompasses educative mentoring and the belief that learning occurs actively through interaction with others, is important to the growth and development of PCTs in their first years of teaching. Based on their findings the authors hypothesised that mentees may require less close guidance and frequent interactions when constructivist mentoring approaches are employed.

Regular monitoring of their PCTs was important to the mentors too because it contributed to the building of a trusting mentoring relationship which took time, "trying to establish that relationship, that takes time so that they [mentees] can feel comfortable and trusting" (Mentor B). However, contending with the other demands they faced as teachers and leaders within the school was an issue mentors grappled with and for some there were nagging doubts as to whether they were giving their mentees enough time. Having to juggle commitments outside of their mentoring roles to find times to meet on a regular basis was not always possible and, regretfully, the mentoring meeting time sometimes had to be forsaken or rescheduled. For mentors' feelings of discomfort and of letting the mentee down arose when they were not able to meet these commitments. Nevertheless all participants perceived the time they spent together as desirable and valuable.

Mentoring stances. The stance that a mentor takes within professional learning conversations has been shown to be influential on the extent that mentees dedicate to reflection during the conversation (Helman, 2006). Yet shifting mentors practices from traditional mentoring approaches of telling, advising and giving emotional support can be difficult (Langdon, 2014) and takes time (Langdon et al., 2011). There are also instances where a mentoring stance of directing or instructing may also be justified, as was the case for one

mentor in my study who saw it as a form of protection for a mentee that was experiencing some difficulty. "I just need you to do this, it'll be good for you….and so it was like a protective thing" (Mentor B). Nevertheless, questions as to whether mentors can actually accommodate PCT's varied learning needs and long-term development have been raised when mentors over use such approaches (van Ginkel et al., 2016).

Furthermore these types of mentoring behaviours reinforce traditional hierarchical mentoring roles of the mentor as expert with knowledge to be imparted or transmitted and mentees as listeners who need to learn from the wisdom of the mentor. Mentors may also not be receptive of new ideas or different ways of teaching that the mentee introduces and can compel PCTs to mimic them or follow in their footsteps. Consequently mentors need to resist "the temptation to create clones of themselves" (Beutel & Spooner-Lane, 2009, p. 358).

Teacher and mentor identities. For Mentor C the learning during this study triggered a realisation that a form of mimicry had been unwittingly encouraged, which then led to a significant change in behaviour and thinking. Other mentors spoke strongly of their beliefs in the need for mentees to develop their own teacher identity, not merely assimilating that of their mentor. Educative mentoring is not about duplicating a mentor's teaching style but is about developing the identity of the PCTs in ways that are congruent with good teaching and that encompasses knowledge of how students learn (Athanases & Achinstein, 2003; Feiman-Nemser, 2001b; Langdon, 2014). Efforts to emulate a mentor's teaching style however, can lead to a distortion of the mentee's identity and integrity which can be disastrous for the mentee who loses him or herself within an identity that is not his or her own (Palmer, 2007). Novice teachers need to be their authentic selves and mentors need to encourage and support the growth of the PCTs' identity (Beutel & Spooner-Lane, 2009), which were understandings echoed by the mentors in this study.

The mentees were highly appreciative of the freedom afforded them to develop their teacher identities. Mentee B described this freedom as the mentor offering suggestions rather than directives and exhibiting faith in the mentee's abilities to independently address classroom-situated problems of practice. Another mentee described how the authentic self can affect

students' perceptions of the teacher, "unless the kids… have some idea about who you are and that you're a nice person that wants to help them, they're not going to ask questions or anything like that" (Mentee C), indicating a deep awareness of the links between teacher identity and perceptions of the teacher-student relationship by students themselves.

Prior to this study all of the mentees had a strong sense of who they were as teachers and credited their previous teaching experiences on practicum, their university work and encounters with other mentors and teachers they had taught with as factors informing their teacher identities. They acknowledged that their current mentors had a part to play in their continuing development of these but did not regard their mentors to be a major influence at this point in time.

Participating in this study has enabled the mentors to contemplate what it means to be an educative mentor and how their mentoring identity is distinguished from that of being a teacher. When teachers become mentors they then have dual identities that need to be developed, and separating the two is not straightforward (Bullough Jr., 2005; Orland-Barak, 2002). Whilst mentors need to be highly competent teachers with "an intimate knowledge of teaching and teaching practices" (Beutel & Spooner-Lane, 2009, p. 351), mentoring requires a new set of skills and knowledge different to teaching children (Beutel & Spooner Lane, 2009; Leshem, 2014; Moore, 2014).

Collegiality and congeniality. An issue for the mentors was maintaining a positive, trusting relationship whilst promoting the growth of the PCT which meant at times needing to talk frankly about areas of the mentee's teaching practice that required improvement. The mentors did not want to hurt the PCTs' feelings or damage the relationship so they struggled with how to act collegially as opposed to congenially. An example of this was shared by one mentor who sought advice from me during an individual interview about how to tackle issues head on with teachers rather than skirting around the edges. The mentor was unsure how to proceed when confronted with these issues but thought they needed to be handled in ways that were "not too authoritative and not too kind" (Mentor C). Paradoxically, this mentor was also of the opinion that teachers can be "too humble and too kind". From this example the scope of interpersonal skills a mentor needs becomes more self-evident, particularly in relation to

emotional intelligence, communication skills (McDonald & Flint, 2011) and understanding how to facilitate the learning of adults (Jones & Straker, 2006).

Collegial relationships are not the norm for adult interactions in school environments and a compelling reason given for this is that "educators are profoundly conflict avoidant" (Evans, 2012, Conflict avoidance section, para.1). It was a finding of this study that difficulties in interacting at a deeper level extended to the focus groups as well. The mentors made suggestions and asked questions of each other but did so in ways that were indirect or tentative so as not to offend. One mentor avoided an opportunity to challenge another mentor, which would seem to indicate that maintaining collegial relationships was paramount. This may also have been because the growth of the mentee was intrinsically considered the domain of the allotted mentor. If so, this is of concern when it is known that the ideal circumstances for PCTs to learn and grow are where there is an expectation that everyone in the school contributes to and supports the growth and development of mentees (Piggot-Irvine et al., 2009).

Phase II: Professional Development for the Mentors and Corresponding Influences on Mentors' Learning

Unless mentors' thinking and assumptions are challenged traditional mentoring norms will continue to be problematic (Hobson et al., 2009). The provision of specific professional development that advocates and practices critical reflection for and with mentors is one way that this can be tackled. The PAR process supported mentors in providing time and space for them to learn more about their mentoring roles and to reflect on these. One mentor said "it's definitely something that's really made me think about my role as a mentor… and it's something that I think I can do better even though I feel like I've done a better job in the last couple of weeks" (Mentor E). Another mentor realised that having the support of colleagues who understand the role is not to be underestimated. "I think that having colleagues that I can say I've worked really hard on this, but it's not getting through, how can I look at it a different way, has been very powerful" (Mentor B), because discussion can also provide other perspectives which potentially lead to new learning. From this comment it would appear that a safe environment, necessary for the deprivatisation of learning and thinking to emerge was created (Edwards-Groves, Grootenboer., & Ronnerman, 2016). Studies also describe how participation in communities of learning can shape educators' identities (Leshem, 2014) and how support from others is important to mentors' learning (Aspfors & Fransson, 2015; Leshem, 2014).

As well as learning in social interaction with others, people also learn from experience (Jarvis, 2004; Merriam et al., 2007). Primary experiential learning, which occurs directly through the senses and the mind (Jarvis, 2004), was an important feature of the PAR process and for mentors to implement educative mentoring theory and make connections between the theory and practice because "skills are actually learned from practical experience" (Jarvis, 2004, p. 98). The aim was for mentors to engage in dialectical ways of knowing as they learnt about and enacted educative theory moving back and forth between action and reflection with others in recurring cycles. The mentors all self-selected areas of personal development related to educative mentoring to focus on and as would be expected these all varied.

The factors that influenced the mentor's choices as to what facet of educative mentoring to focus on were: the focus group discussions, the mentors' knowledge of their PCTs' needs, and the professional readings. The readings included in the professional development sessions were Feiman - Nemser (2001b), Helman (2006), and excerpts from Norman and Feiman-Nemser (2005) and Langdon et al, (2011). Each mentor chose a perceived relevant aspect of educative mentoring to focus on. These are indicated below:

- using evidence of students' learning as the basis to discuss the impact of the mentee's teaching

- revealing underlying assumptions and personal theories of mentees' understanding of students' learning and behaviour

- increasing the agency of the mentee

- joint collaboration and inquiry into problems of practice

- growing the mentee's ability to critically reflect on teaching practice and its corresponding impact on students

Since each goal differed according to what the mentors perceived they or their mentee needed, it could be surmised from these choices that mentors' professional learning needs are individualised and a singular version of PD would not have been appropriate. As the facilitator of the mentors' learning it was important to me that I provided as many opportunities for personalised learning for the mentors as I could.

The process of selecting a goal to work on raised questions about choice and what takes precedence; the development of the individual or the group? One aspect of effective PD that I thought the mentors might mention was having choice in what they participated in. This was not mentioned and I was curious as to why, since literature about adult learners commonly references a desire for adults to be self-directed decision makers (English, 1999; Fogerty & Pete, 2004; Vella, 2002). Perhaps the mentors had become acclimatised to decisions being made for them about what PD they would be involved in over time that this created feelings of powerlessness and an acceptance that this was something beyond their control. Or, they felt they had choice in other ways, such as determining their own personal learning or goals within compulsory PD. When speaking of their involvement in former PD, it was evident that the mentors' learning had a profound and long lasting influence on their beliefs and practices as teachers and as leaders.

A significant reason for these enduring influences might be because they were held accountable for their learning and this was something the mentors regarded as an essential feature of effective PD. From their perspective, accountability gave the mentors the impetus they needed to ensure they took action and remained committed to working on their goals. It was their belief that without continuous follow up it was easy to not act on new learning. In the words of Mentor E it is important that there is always "that follow-up because sometimes it is very easy to do something and then you go away and forget about it. Then if it's not revisited you're already on the next thing." In this study, accountability was achieved through iterations of the PAR process where mentors talked about progress with their goals with other participants in the focus groups.

Other factors of effective PD that were identified included a need for it to be theoretically sound, practical and enduring, not a one-off learning event. Mentors felt it should stimulate their thinking and lead to changes in their practices. A good facilitator who uses a variety of techniques to motivate adults and who is not condescending was considered important. There was an acknowledgement that participants themselves affect PD, particularly in how they view what is being offered and the attitudes they bring to it, such as being open minded, willing to engage in new learning and taking risks. Furthermore, having an opportunity to share their learning, receive support and feedback, and hear other perspectives, were deemed important by the mentors.

Influences on Mentors' Practices and Learning. The mentors all appeared to appreciate the professional development they received and all benefited differently. In keeping with a belief that all professional development produces different results for each individual (Timperley et al., 2007), learning varied amongst the mentors. They identified their participation in the focus groups and the chance to talk about their own issues and to learn from each other, discussions of professional readings, observations of external facilitators teaching students and critical reflection on their own mentoring practices as being conducive to their own learning. What was common to all mentors was a realisation that they needed to make changes to their practice, and for some mentors this coincided with changes in their thinking about what mentoring entails. Mentor D's thinking was disrupted by exposure to alternative ideas in the PAR sessions when realising that the goal of mentoring was to develop "quality teachers so that the children actually learn" and to do this meant shifting from a bifocal to trifocal understanding of mentoring. "It's like a 3 step kind of thing, right? It's coming from you, going to them,[the PCT] but affecting the kids when initially it was just going from us to them. Yeah, that's how I was kind of framing it in my mind, that's what I've taken most from our sessions."

Mentor D would have liked PD in mentoring prior to embarking in the role and all the mentors thought the school staff should learn about educative mentoring because, like them, they believed their colleagues would be unfamiliar with this concept of mentoring; "I'd never heard of educative mentoring previously" (Mentor B). In the absence of formal and specific mentoring professional development, the mentors drew upon other sources to help them understand what they were expected to do and how they should act. These included previous experiences of mentoring student teachers, of being mentored themselves and some drew parallels between the teaching of children and mentoring; all common sources that mentors look to for knowledge of mentoring (Langdon et al., 2011; Leshem, 2014; Orland-Barak, 2002; Piggot-Irvine et al., 2009).

Orland-Barak (2001a) likens learning to mentor to learning another language. As the mentor participates in new learning comparisons are made with the first language (teaching) and the new language (mentoring) as the mentor assimilates and makes sense of the new learning.

This may give rise to instances of over-assimilation, where learners believe they are implementing new practice but are, in reality, continuing with their previous practice. It occurs most frequently when learners mistakenly view new ideas as being familiar (Timperley et al., 2007). Mentor D exhibited this phenomenon after reading about educative mentoring for the first time and stated that educative mentoring principles were already being enacted. A reason for this may be that Mentor D was merely trying to amalgamate this information with what was already known "to avoid the threat of chaos" (Mezirow, 2012, p. 73), which human beings are subject to as they negotiate a myriad of experiences. Another reason could be that, given a choice people "will tend towards that which is familiar, comfortable and reinforcing of their existing beliefs" (Sunstein, as cited in Weinberger, 2011, p. 82). To combat this, Timperley et al. (2007) suggest that creating dissonance between existing beliefs or practices and new information or learning is necessary to initiate change.

The mentors' thinking was nudged at times throughout the PAR process but their assumptions and actions were not rigorously or openly challenged within the two focus groups. These instead proved to be more of a trusting and confidential forum for mentors to raise issues they were grappling with and to seek the support and advice of their fellow colleagues. As was the case for Mentor B who was puzzled because previous strategies that had been used successfully with other mentees and were based on the mentor's knowledge in use and knowledge in action were not working. The focus group supported Mentor B by proposing different reasons for the mentee's actions, and making suggestions as to other approaches the mentor could use to help the mentee. The focus groups proved pivotal in the mentors' learning in other ways too, however this was also due I feel in part to the actions I took.

It is my belief that I too, influenced the direction and content of mentors' learning. The intent of this study was to develop a collaborative professional development model about educative mentoring with the mentors but I feel my actions did not live up to my vision or expectations of how a facilitator of PAR should act because I was too directive and controlling. This is partly due to thinking that the participants were looking to me for guidance and direction and because of the beliefs and expectations I set for myself as a Deputy Principal. I am confident and familiar with taking the lead and in this instance I found it difficult to relinquish control. I concede that I was conscious that time was limited and I felt a need to 'get the ball rolling' and to maintain the

momentum. A particular area that I influenced was nudging the mentors towards addressing a gap I saw in mentees' learning. This gap was congruent with educative mentoring theory and was connected to mentees' understanding of their students' learning.

Focussing on the Learning of Students. From analysis of the mentees' initial interview data it was apparent that deep discussions about students' learning and the links between theory and practice were two areas of educative mentoring that were lacking so, as intended, I shared these findings with both focus groups in the first focus group PD sessions. It is my assumption that these findings in conjunction with the final question of the first focus group interview that asked how the mentors might implement educative mentoring theory and principles to assist their mentees in focussing on their students' learning needs, prompted the mentors to choose this aspect as one of their goals to work on. Since all the mentors found this question difficult to answer it may also have stimulated a realisation that conversations with their mentees about student learning needed to take greater precedence.

Maintaining a trifocal vision of mentoring where the mentor is simultaneously growing the PCT and monitoring the learning of students is a key feature of educative mentoring (Achinstein & Athanases, 2006; Norman & Feiman-Nemser, 2005; van Ginkel et al., 2016). For the mentors, realising they needed to shift their focus from solely that of the PCT to also incorporate the learning of the students suggested a significant change in their thinking. This was revelatory for Mentor D who recognised this shift meant the mentee would not see learning as only for him or herself but would instead be looking though a different lens and thinking about how teaching practice is impacting on the students. This realisation then led Mentor D to recall a personal experience of university course work where in the mentor's opinion, reflection on self-improvement was encouraged to the exclusion of how considering how teaching practice might affect students' learning.

Adult Learning, Social Constructivism and Reflection

Even though I took on a leadership role by determining what and how the content of our professional development sessions would be delivered I was still committed to facilitating adult learning. By affording the mentors freedom to pursue the learning they believed was most pertinent to them I considered I was providing for them as pragmatic learners who need real

situations and dilemmas to engage with (Brockbank & McGill, 1998; Fogerty & Pete, 2004; Vella, 2002). Along with providing a practical reason for their learning, I thought this approach would allow for the idiosyncrasies of the individual mentoring contexts as the mentors trialled the theory for themselves (Fogerty & Pete, 2004). A premise of mine and of PAR was that the participants would learn from and with each other as they discussed their progress and issues in the focus groups. In effect they would enter into reflection-on-action, a form of reflection that involves the practitioner consciously thinking about past experiences, actions and feelings, re-evaluating these, deciding what could be done differently and then taking action (Merriam et al., 2007).

Reflection can occur at an individual level whereby a person enters into an internal dialogue as they consider and explore their experiences (Brockbank & McGill, 1998). For mentor teachers, this type of personal reflection is necessary because it supports a person's ability to learn from and through practice in order to enhance it, but the issue with relying only on personal reflection devoid of interaction with others, is that current beliefs can become entrenched and opportunities to develop and implement new or better understandings or practice are lost. The benefits of reflection are extended for the practitioner when the focus and outcomes of the reflection are shared and challenged with others (Leshem, 2014), and deliberate efforts are made to expose underlying assumptions because this is when *critical* reflection transpires which is of a deeper and more transformational nature (Brookfield, 1995; Fook, 2010; Kreber, 2012). A statement by Mentee B confirms how reflecting with a mentor can prompt PCTs to move beyond automaticity and to begin to question reasoning behind action – "If she questions me, well, what are you doing to help that, you sort of think about the things you're doing and sometimes you're doing them automatically but you just don't think about why you're doing it".

Reflecting with others is also advantageous because individuals can be helped to see themselves in a different light that may not be possible without the input of others (Brockbank & McGill, 1998). One mentor from my study certainly noted the value in reflecting with others, "I've just really valued the sessions and the deep learning conversations and really getting deeper into what's happening because I think we need to do that" (Mentor F). Another mentor credited the reflective process as the means to revealing instances of learning, "You have those aha moments…Firstly you reflect and you think about what you've done and you think, could I have

done it differently? What else could I have done? And then you think, oh I did learn from this" (Mentor A). As the mentors learnt about educative mentoring by attempting to put their new learning into practice while concurrently discussing and reflecting on these efforts with other mentors, their knowledge grew. Instances of knowledge construction about mentoring as a social interaction occurred through other avenues as well, such as discussion with other colleagues within and beyond the school staff.

According to Jarvis (1999), it is only when knowledge can be performed that it can be regarded as being legitimate. Thus, it would seem that changes in the mentors' behaviours, which eventuated as they realised their thinking and actions were not aligned to educative mentoring principles, indicated their increasing knowledge. One mentor admitted having a tendency to "jump in too much" (Mentor F) with advice so recognised a need to listen more. In addition, this same mentor saw a need to become more of a co-thinker and was keen to develop this aspect of mentoring further too. Taking on co-thinking and collaborative roles in mentoring demonstrates a valuing of the mentee as an adult learner and of the experiences, skills and knowledge they bring as novice teachers.

Contradictory to traditional mentoring, which promotes a unilateral direction of learning (Ponte & Twomey, 2014), when mentors act in educative ways they regard, themselves to be learners and reciprocity of learning can occur (Hobson et al., 2009). This occurred for some mentors who, upon reflection, realised they had learnt from their mentees. However, this was not the case for all mentors, which may indicate a dominant and hidden assumption exists whereby the mentor is still considered to be the person with expertise, and knowledge that needs to be imparted to the mentee. What is required instead, is that mentors consider themselves to be learners too, for effective educational mentoring to eventuate (Langdon et al., 2011). Committing to being a learner helps avert automaticity of mentoring practice in the belief that what has worked in the past will continue to be appropriate or change inducing and it encourages mentors to critically re-examine their own teaching practices and beliefs (Feiman-Nemser, 2001b; Patrick et al., 2010; Wang & Odell, 2002).

Phase III: Identification of Learning by the Mentors

Predominantly, mentors identified their own learning via the responses or evidence they gathered from noticing their mentees' learning. The fact that mentors made no reference to any awareness of their own learning from an internal sense surprised me. I had expected a realisation of some form of inner transformation to be apparent rather than a reliance on certain behaviours being exhibited by their PCTs. A possible reason for this is the strong influence that assessment and evaluation exerts in teaching. Teachers are constantly searching for evidence that their students are learning as recognition that their teaching is successful or otherwise. It may be that mentors are applying this thinking to their mentoring too by determining their success through the learning of the mentee. Jones and Straker (2006) certainly found that "the teacher inside the mentor" (p. 178) was a distinct feature that influenced how they mentored.

Jones (2013) also found that feedback from mentees was deemed to be a determiner of the mentors' learning and the reason attributed to this was that it provided confirmation to the mentors that their mentoring was having an impact. This finding corroborates the thinking of the mentors in my study who believed that as they worked to change their mentoring practices the proof of this would be a corresponding behavioural change in their PCTs too. Another possible reason for a reliance on action as an indicator of learning parallels an assertion by Argyris (2003) that it is only when "you can produce in the form of action whatever you claim that you know" (p. 1179), that you can assert something has been learnt. A problem with this is that there is a reliance on what can be observed and measured. Learning can often be tacit and so is not always visible to others or even to the individual who is immersed in the learning process (Alexander, Schallert, & Reynolds, 2009).

Jones (2013) contends that learners need to be consciously aware of their learning and this concept is supported by Weiss who says, "Human beings have no conscious access to the nonconscious process that they use to acquire information. People cannot describe them; they are only conscious of the *results* of their nonconscious mental activities" (as cited in Mezirow, 2012, p. 75). So mentors might simply be reporting on the results of their learning rather than explaining the learning process itself and this phenomenon may be more common than I realised.

Whilst all of the mentors referenced observable features of learning, such as changes in their own behaviour or that of their PCTs, only two participants mentioned in passing, forms of somatic learning that is learning through the body (Merriam et al., 2007). Participants commented that "gut" or "intuition" were the basis for some of their decision-making and actions. Intuition combined with personal experience is often given as the rationale for mentors' decision-making processes over that of theoretical knowledge (Jones & Straker, 2006). This can be problematic if a mentor's professional knowledge base is limited or out of step with current understandings and theory of teaching and mentoring. Yet, mentoring is based on personal, humanistic relationships and there is no discounting that somatic knowing and learning has a role here too.

Mentors need to be able to 'read' their mentees (Aspfors & Frasson, 2015) by observing and interpreting their facial expressions, body language (McDonald & Flint, 2011) and by listening for the silences or gaps so they can determine how far or how hard to push their mentees, when to back off or change tack and to find openings that might lead to deeper understandings of their mentees. This connection cannot be accredited to only the cognitive realm. Mentors will rely on their feelings or instinct as they determine the 'vibes' from their mentee and act accordingly. Mentor D exemplified this by picking up on the "very subtle cues" that the mentee exhibited, and intuiting that the mentee did not want the affective support being offered. This was later confirmed by asking the mentee directly. Somatic knowing and learning has its place in mentoring as the body is a knowledge source and its power is in its ability to "contribute to making sense of, or making meaning of" (Merriam et al., 2007, p. 198) humans' lives.

Relationships between mentor and mentee learning. It is evident from the findings that the actions mentors took over time led to the growth of their PCTs. Mentors catered for their mentees' needs as novices by working alongside them and scaffolding their learning. They gradually introduced new pedagogical content according to the PCTs' readiness or need for this knowledge (Fogerty & Pete, 2004). Achieving this required the mentors to be tuned in (van Ginkel et al., 2016) to their mentees so that they sustained a suitable balance of support and challenge (Harrison et al., 2005) and the self-efficacy of the mentee remained intact.

The mentors challenged their mentees in ways that shifted them out of their comfort zones. For example, through observing and reflecting on how the mentor taught, Mentee B realised there was a need to provide more hands-on learning activities and opportunities for students. This was something the mentee had shied away from previously in an effort to "play things safe" and thereby maintain control of the class. As the mentees gained confidence and became increasingly independent, mentors monitored their learning and progress and were there to "plug ideas" (Mentor E) in and to encourage reflection on options or results.

Mentees were not the only participants to be tested in their role. Mentor D found working with a highly competent mentee challenging too. This mentor's knowledge of pedagogical content and how to work with an adult learner was stretched, particularly when thinking about how to grow the PCT. For Mentor B, feeling unsuccessful with a mentee created disjuncture between what has proved to be successful in the past, what is known as personal theory (Jarvis, 1999), with current practice. Where there is a mismatch between practitioners' personal theories and their practice, meaningful learning opportunities can materialise (Jarvis, 1999; Timperley et al., 2007). Such instances can lead to double loop learning as new or different approaches and values that alter the status quo are trialled and lead to new thinking and routines (Argyris, 2003).

A past mentoring experience proved to be particularly poignant for Mentor A, who admitted to often reflecting on the actions taken and their associated consequences throughout the PAR process. This mentor felt that the mentee was fixated on getting things done and getting them right. As a result the PCT was unable to take in the bigger picture or pick up on the idiosyncrasies of teaching and consequently was unable to move beyond replicating exactly what had been modelled. This was disheartening and bewildering to Mentor A and, despite the mentor's best efforts, the mentee was unable to move beyond "standardized procedures" (Athanases & Achinstein, 2003, p. 1487) or tailor teaching to meet the students' learning needs. Nevertheless this has proved to be a learning experience for the mentor and group discussions with the other mentors have stimulated the mentor to reflect-on-action and ask questions internally about why this mentee struggled, what more could have been done by both parties and what additional strategies could have been tried to influence and change the mentee's thinking and teaching practices.

A gap in learning. All the mentors demonstrated high levels of reflexivity and so were constantly striving to find ways to engage their mentees in discussion and to provide personalised PD for them. According to the mentees, discussions about theory were either not touched upon "I'm just wondering if we've ever really had an explicit conversation about that. I don't really think so" (Mentee C), or some mentors raised the topic while for others it was not "such a big thing" (Mentee A). Yet this is a critical component of educative mentoring and is particularly important in assisting the mentee to learn how theory of and about practice translates into personal theory of practice (Jarvis, 1999). The importance of this aspect of mentoring is further emphasised by Corrigan and Peace who state that mentors are unlikely to be successful until they can "make their practice and the rational underpinning that practice accessible" to the mentee (as cited in Jones & Straker, 2006, p. 167).

By discussing espoused theories, and revealing the tacit knowledge inherent within theories in use, theorising becomes "an integral element in the learning process facilitated through mentoring" (Jones & Straker, 2006, p. 167). One mentee noted during observations of the mentor teaching, that the mentor could share tacit knowledge in the moment, "She is happy to, while she is teaching, explain why she's doing something" (Mentee B). These instances enabled Mentee B to make connections between the mentor's decision making, reasoning and teaching behaviours while observing the lesson as it ensued. The next step would be to critically reflect together as reflective dialogue promotes learning (Brockbank & McGill, 1998) and theory-based critical discussion is a key element in the "construction, deconstruction and reconstruction" (Jones & Straker, 2006, p. 167) of the mentor and mentee's professional knowledge.

Educative Mentoring, Partnerships and Learning

From the mentees' responses it can be determined that, for the most part, they felt they were partners, or on an equal footing with their mentors. Two mentees commented that it was difficult sometimes to even think of their mentors as mentors due to the sense of collegiality demonstrated in the mentoring relationship. For example, "It doesn't feel like a mentoring relationship. It feels like a professional relationship, almost collegial" (Mentee A). An affiliation with the mentor or a sense of being "in the same boat" (Mentee A) became apparent when it

was acknowledged that the mentee shared the same workload as the mentor due to their teaching roles. However, the mentees recognised too that asymmetrical relationships had been present at different times. This was particularly evident when mentors' actions caused mentees to feel excluded or undervalued. One such example was when a mentor made a decision about a student in one of the mentee's classes but did not consult or involve the mentee in this. Whilst these instances were shared with me they were never discussed with the mentors involved, suggesting that a power imbalance still existed. Another explanation might also be that mentees did not know how to broach and resolve issues in ways that retained their relationships with their mentors.

Hierarchical relationships are common to mentoring dyads and mentors need to consciously and consistently work to improve the relationship in order to alter this power dynamic. The findings from my study demonstrated a willingness by mentors to make changes in how they viewed and treated their PCTs. Viewing the mentoring relationship as a partnership was fundamental to changes in the mentors' attitudes and beliefs about their roles. They endeavoured to increase their awareness of their mentoring stances and, for some, there was a decision to move from telling and advising to listening and facilitating which led to decisions to work alongside their PCTs as co-inquirers and co-workers.

Mentors worked in different ways when they collaborated with their PCTs. They asked questions of their mentees, provided evidence of students' learning that was then discussed and unpacked, set problems for the PCT to work on and then jointly discussed the planned intervention or results and made suggestions about possible resources that could be useful. However possibly the most powerful tool that the mentors used and the one that most resonates with adult learning theory and educative mentoring, was when the mentors asked mentees for their opinions and ideas and then collaborated with them to put these into action. An example of this is exemplified where a mentoring dyad expressed a desire to make changes to their mathematics programme and then in partnership discussed, implemented and evaluated their plans and outcomes:

> "*I wanted to do it too so we kind of co-constructed what our maths lessons were gonna look like… we're still trialling things and sometimes they don't work. But you know we have had lots of discussions about what are the challenges? And, do you think that this*

is still the best way even though there are those challenges? I think we've thought a lot more about… if this is the challenge what's the process to kind of overcome that?" (Mentor E)

The mentors also saw the importance of expecting their mentees to reflect as a way to help them improve their practice and become better teachers. Learning about educative mentoring reinforced for Mentor C that mentees need to be given time to independently problem solve and reflect as this was more likely to develop the mentee's teaching than telling them what to do. Mentors often made reference to the growing independence of their mentees as a sign that their mentee was learning. There were implications by mentors that the mentees were reflecting independently because they were thinking about how to solve their problems, implementing preferred solutions and only reporting results back to their mentors as need be. An increase in the PCT's ability to articulate his or her thinking and discuss teaching practices was also regarded as an indicator of the mentee's capacities as shared by Mentor E, "when I go in to talk to her about something she will do a lot more talking and a lot more reflecting on things she's tried or what she's doing than she did when we first met."

Having opportunities to talk about their practice with another is vital for mentees since propositional knowledge that is acquired through mainstream study only gains real meaning when it is applied in practice in relatable ways. It occurs "where the learner as actor creates knowledge in collaboration with others" (Brockbank & McGill,1998, p.76). One of the mentees believed that "by having to tell someone else" deeper reflections resulted because "you actually have to think about why you're doing something" (Mentee B). Observation of mentors in action is commonly referenced by mentees as fundamental to their learning (Jones, 2013; Piggot-Irvine et al., 2009) and the mentees in my study were no exception. They all commented on the usefulness of observing others teach and the impact this had on their own teaching. For some, conducting observations proved helpful in visualising how to teach new content which could be replicated. For others, it caused them to reflect on their own teaching and to consider alternative practices.

The mentors in my study all ensured their mentees observed them teaching and they followed these up with discussions with their mentees afterwards. However, an issue that is raised in the literature is the difficulty mentors having in explicating their pedagogical knowledge, which is

often tacit, to their mentees (Beutel & Spooner-Lane, 2009; Hobson, 2002; Jones & Straker, 2006). This was not something that mentors talked about, but, one mentee did explicitly talk explain how the mentor was able to provide explanations on the spot as the mentee observed the mentor teaching, "She said, so this is why I did this and this is because you can see…And I could see it" (Mentee B). Learning in this format was regarded to be more valuable by this mentee than any discussions held in mentoring meetings. Possibly because the mentee was making links between propositional and professional knowledge, and practical experience (Brockbank & McGill, 1998) in the moment.

Agents of change. Four of the mentors referenced the educative mentoring principle of being change agents (Feiman-Nemser, 2001a) either for themselves or for their PCT. The mentors had varying conceptions of what this entailed and while they expressed a desire for their mentees to not just accept the status quo within teaching, to "go against the grain" (Mentor C) or they challenged their mentees' thinking, there was little evidence to support they acted on this. The exception was one mentor, who discussed bigger issues and the politics of education with the mentee. This finding resonates with that of Jones (2013) who also found that, despite an expectation and a willingness to engage in conversation by mentors and mentees about wider issues in a context other than education, these critical conversations did not eventuate.

In my study, Mentor C went beyond talking about being an agent of change to actively promoting it. Mentor C shared an example where a mentee queried the appropriateness and ramifications of discussing a feminist issue with children. The mentor listened to the mentee's concerns but simultaneously explained the importance of shedding light on social issues for students. This deep conversation enlightened the mentee about reasons for the mentor's actions and thinking and provided another perspective that had not been considered. Serious conversations such as this are central to educative mentoring beliefs (Achinstein & Athanases, 2006; Athanases & Achinstein, 2003; Feiman-Nemser, 2001a).

Whilst educative mentoring promotes the learning of individual mentees in ways that are intended to improve the learning of students in the PCT's classroom, there is also an underlying expectation that it should improve the education system over all by instigating changes in teachers' thinking and practices. Consequently, instead of reinforcing the status quo, educative

mentoring promotes change that benefits all students, but particularly those who are currently underserved by our education system such as Māori, Pasifika and special needs students. With its focus on improving learning outcomes for all students, but particularly those students who may be disenfranchised by the current education system, it can prompt double loop learning by mentors and PCTs as they critically reflect on their own and each others' assumptions and create action plans to find alternative, more just ways to connect students with curriculum and experience success as learners.

Summary

The mentors in this study all had existing practices that encapsulated some features of educative mentoring, however, there was also a tendency to favour aspects of traditional mentoring which aligned more with their initial perspectives of what mentoring entails. Educative mentoring was a concept new to the mentors, and once introduced to it they did not appear to be fazed or opposed to it and all were willing to learn about and trial some of the associated principles for themselves. However, a dichotomy that I grappled with was the amount of freedom I could afford to the mentors in determining the direction and rate of the learning with my need to control the PAR process and keep it moving. To bridge this gap and to try and remain true to the principles of PAR I decided that the mentors should choose the aspects of educative mentoring they wished to focus on though I did influence this by disseminating information about the gaps in the mentees' learning that arose from my interviews with them.

Accordingly, the mentors chose to work in these areas. From listening to and interpreting the experiences that mentors have shared throughout this study it has become apparent that mentors' learning resides within the interactions and interdependence of a variety of processes. By exposing the mentors to information about educative mentoring principles and encouraging dialogue with other participants, along with an expectation that they trial different approaches and reflect on these some of the mentors' thinking and practices have become more akin to those of educative mentoring. It has become clear that whilst the mentors all took action on the professional development they participated in, their learning processes are complex, highly individualistic and closely associated with the learning of their PCTs'.

In the next and final chapter, implications, limitations and suggestions for further research that stem from my findings and the research process are outlined and discussed.

Chapter 6 Conclusion

Considerable research has been dedicated to mentoring from the perspective of the mentee, including the benefits of mentoring to the mentee and how mentoring impacts on mentees' teaching practices and their learning. However, research yields little when it comes to understanding how mentors learn or what influence learning about mentoring has on mentors' practices and beliefs. With this apparent gap in the research field, and the emergence of educative mentoring as the preferred mentoring approach in New Zealand my interest was piqued and I decided to research how mentors learn about and implement educative mentoring, and to discover the effects of this on mentors' learning.

Realising that research has predominantly focussed on the mentoring of student teachers, rather than Provisionally Certificated Teachers (PCTs) who are beginning teachers in their first two years of teaching, I narrowed my focus further to centring on mentors who work with PCTs. It was important to me that the relationship with my participants was a co-operative one, hence, the selection of Participatory Action Research (PAR) as my chosen methodology. Taking account of all these factors the final overarching question underpinning this study is: *How does a collaborative professional development programme about educative mentoring affect the learning and actions of mentors in a primary school?* A further five questions were developed to unpack the main question, with the intent that they would be used in a progressive manner throughout the PAR process.

The setting for this study was a large urban primary school situated in central Auckland. All participants were either PCTs or mentors; four PCTs and six mentors consented to participate. Mentoring dyads were not an intended outcome however, some current or recent pairings did eventuate. Data were collected via semi-structured individual interviews with the mentors and the PCTs and with two focus groups that comprised three mentors in each.

This study is grounded within an interpretivist-constructivist paradigm and therefore qualitative research methods were applied, with PAR being my preferred methodology for several reasons. It was important to me that the mentors had choice in what they wished to learn and control over their own learning progress and outcomes. I also believed, and the extant literature affirms

this, that learning is socially oriented, so I regarded opportunities for the mentors to share and discuss their issues, successes and achievements with each other as being a necessary contributor to their own learning processes. Selecting a methodology that enabled the participants and I to work together in meeting each other's needs was something I regarded to be essential. Taking into account my beliefs and reasoning, in tandem with the elements of my chosen paradigm, I deemed PAR fit for purpose.

Having described the participants and setting, outlined the reasons for the focus of my study, and the choices behind my methodology, the implications, limitations and recommendations arising from this study are now discussed.

Implications Arising From the Study

A tentative overall finding of this study is that a range of interdependent factors needed to be present to shift mentors' thinking and behaviour. These are presented in diagrammatic form in figure 5. The diagram is a representation of my thinking and interpretation of the overall findings of this study. It is important for the reader to note that I do not believe any one factor is privileged over another and given different circumstances with a different group of mentors the influences I have identified could be supplanted by others. While there are limitations in representing the complexity of thinking in a one-dimensional form I believe the diagram provides the reader with a broad visual understanding of the major implications of my study that are discussed in this chapter.
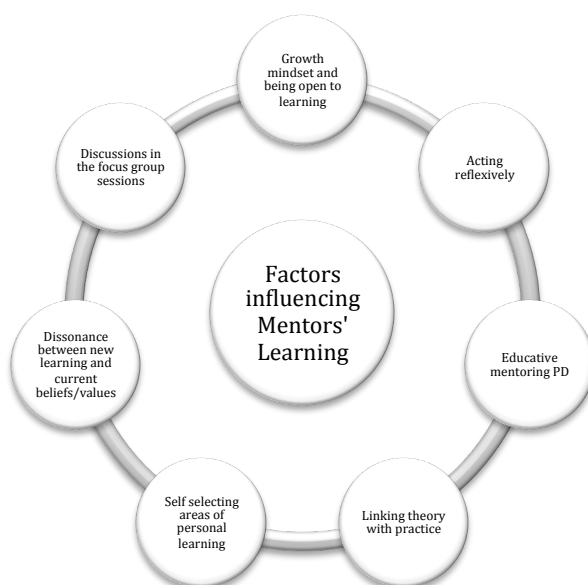

Figure 5. Factors Influencing the Mentors' learning processes and outcomes

When considering their own learning the mentors all attributed varied influences from their past histories as well as their involvement in this study as factors that affected their own learning and understandings of mentoring. Preceding influences included, professional development (PD) offered at the school or through tertiary study, exposure to professional readings personal experiences as a PCT or mentee and reflections on how they would like to be treated if they were a PCT. Since traditional mentoring approaches have been commonplace in New Zealand for sometime, it is feasible that the mentors have experienced this and adopted it as part of their mentoring repertoire (Langdon et al., 2011; Main & Hill, 2007).

Traditional mentoring. Mentors find themselves in a difficult position as they juggle a role that requires them to attain equilibrium between the amount of support and challenge a PCT receives. There is a complex interplay between supporting the mentee to get underway and relieving the burden of the pressures from the early stages of teaching, whilst simultaneously expecting the PCT to be an autonomous decision maker who has control over his or her own learning. A finding from this study was that the traditional perception of a mentor as a guide, friend or counsellor persists. The mentors identified with these role types and saw them as being fundamental to their own mentoring and to assisting their mentees to become certified teachers.

As mentoring success is built upon a trusting partnership there is still a place for traditional mentoring; particularly in the first few months of a PCT's teaching career. It was throughout this time that the mentors in this study most commonly spoke of taking on traditional mentoring stances as supporters, encouragers or advisors. The mentors did not remain in this mode, as they knew they needed to progress their mentee's learning. An interesting finding that emerged was that in progressing the learning of their mentees, the mentors typically moved through a series of common co-ordinated planned stages based on what appeared to be proven personal mentoring experiences.

The mentors began by concentrating on issues of immediate relevance such as how to set up the classroom environment, expectations with planning and positive behaviour management strategies. Attention then turned to curriculum where a specific discipline became the focus of observations, modelling and pedagogical discussion. After this, the mentors began to look at

students' learning and achievement in greater depth with their mentees, all of which tends to suggest that the mentors had existing ideas of what a mentoring curriculum looks like for them. In this study, the mentors' thinking and assumptions around this appeared to work successfully in scaffolding all the PCTs, bar one, through the early stages of school induction. It is my belief that the skilful and responsive mentoring approaches implemented by the mentors in this study served as a strength of their mentoring programmes. In conjunction with this the provision by all the mentors of personalised PD for each PCT was a finding that came through strongly in this study.

Professional development in educative mentoring. As a facilitator I had reservations about whether any learning had transpired as a result of my educative mentoring PD. I was pleased, therefore, to discover that the participants felt they had learnt and could share examples of their own growth. From their commentaries it became apparent that the PD programme had been a catalyst for the mentors to reconsider their roles, change their mentoring approaches and reflect on their own assumptions and values. An example of this came from Mentor D, who came to understand that improving the PCT's practice was not just about meeting regulatory requirements, but more importantly was about improving the PCT's practice for the benefit of students and the mentee.

This study was a foray into using collaborative practices in the form of PAR. There were indications that the mentors worked collaboratively, particularly when they supported each other's learning journeys and problem solved issues together. The PAR process however, would have been strengthened further if I had withdrawn more from guiding the groups. With more time, and as the mentors' knowledge of and skill in implementing educative mentoring grew, it is my belief that they could have taken greater control of the direction for their learning.

The PD was a catalyst for the mentors learning as it challenged their thinking and actions. The mentors accepted these challenges and they all made changes to how they mentored and what they focussed on. The greatest shifts were when the focus moved away from only considering the impact that mentoring has on the PCT to include that of the students in the class. Moreover the PD held the mentors accountable with an expectation that they would share their learning with others. In the mentors' words, the PD was valuable because they had dedicated time to

meet together and talk informally about their mentoring, PCT and any issues they were grappling with. In a way this was viewed as a luxury due to the other demands they dealt with on a daily basis. From listening to the mentors discuss their struggles it became apparent too, that they were exposed to alternative perspectives that might not have been gained elsewhere were it not for this time together.

Linking theory and practice through self-selection of learning foci. It was my belief that the mentors should determine what they wanted to focus on and that experiential learning was integral if they were to develop their understanding and adoption of educative mentoring principles and practices. This proved to be the case with the mentors remarking that primary and secondary experiences such as professional readings influenced their learning. Gaining newfound knowledge from research literature gave some mentors the confidence to take risks and to instigate conversations with their mentees that they shied away from in the past. For others, instances of trial and error as they implemented their learning were critical to challenging and changing their thinking and behaviour. The combination of both forms of experiential learning enabled the mentors to make links between mentoring theory and practice by learning on the job and through critiquing and analysing professional texts with others.

It was the self-selection component of the PAR process that led the mentors to turn their attention from exclusively the growth of their mentee, to making connections between the mentees' learning and that of the students in their classes. This was not necessarily a requirement for all mentees as some were already cognisant of the progress their students were making but may have needed prompting to think more deeply. For others this became a new focus and one they hadn't considered before, as the focus was more on themselves as learners.

Open to learning. The mentors were receptive to exploring and implementing new ideas and mentoring approaches that they learnt about through their participation in the collaborative PD programme. As discrepancies between their original beliefs about mentoring and those being promoted through the PD sessions came to the fore, most of the mentors altered their thinking and actions thereby experiencing some form of double loop learning. This finding has ramifications for anyone designing a mentoring curriculum or PD programmes on

educative mentoring that seeks to introduce new ideas or practices. Bringing existing beliefs and practices to the surface synchronously as new ideas are introduced along with the creation of disjuncture between the two is important to initiating change with mentors' thinking and practices.

Focus group sessions. The mentors viewed their learning as a long-term process and this belief was essential to helping them embed and practice new learning. The recursive design of the PAR process allowed for this through the focus group sessions where the mentors knew that they would be expected to discuss their progress and future intentions. Being held accountable for taking action with their self-selected goals was something that all mentors believed was essential to keeping them on track with their learning. Having dedicated time to focus on and talk about their mentoring with others in what they saw as a community of learning was deemed to be another advantage. Consequently, the focus groups became a forum for sharing issues and a place to seek help and advice in a trusting, confidential environment. Setting aside time for mentors to meet and converse together, reassess learning progress and set future goals and expectations are important considerations when planning educative mentoring PD.

One of the key findings from my study was the similarity in how mentees and mentors determined their own learning. The mentoring relationship is a dual one reliant on *both* parties contributing to and viewing themselves as learners. Both groups took an external view of their learning and ascertained learning outcomes according to the learning progress of others, rather than through a self-awareness of learning. The mentees judged their learning success by how and what their students had learnt while the mentors' learning was very much entwined with the accomplishments and growth of their mentees as novice teachers. This typically meant that the mentors determined their own learning by an increase in confidence of the PCT, and that the mentee demonstrated increased self-efficacy, along with an ability to independently identify and solve problems of practice and critically reflect at a deeper level.

Interestingly the mentees did not necessarily view the mentor as having the greatest impact on their own learning or on the development of their teacher identity. Whilst recognising that the mentor had shared knowledge, ideas, modelled lessons, observed their teaching, and

challenged them, they equally acknowledged and valued their own personal biographies they had formulated over their lives. Furthermore they noted that talking with and learning from other colleagues, and involvement in school and external PD had an impact on their learning and growth as well. Nevertheless all the mentees were immensely grateful to their mentors and recognised the important contributions they have made to their professional lives as novice teachers.

Reflexivity. A major finding of this study was that the educative mentoring PD gave the mentors cause to reflect on what had been a form of automaticity with their mentoring practices and the impetus to change these so they became more aligned with educative mentoring principles. It should be noted here too that the mentors exhibited distinctive characteristics of open mindedness, readiness and a capacity to engage in reflexive behaviour; all of which I believe positively affected the rate and depth of their learning.

As the researcher I was privileged to bear witness to the growth and changes in mentors' thinking and patterns of behaviour over the period of my study. There appear to be two specific areas that have impacted on mentors' learning and that have led to instances of double loop learning. Firstly that the mentors had choice and were able to self-select the aspect of educative mentoring that they wanted to learn about and secondly they could put this into practice and reflect on and share their learning, issues and next steps with the other mentors in the focus group sessions. Reinforcing my thinking about the occurrence of double loop learning are the comments from the mentors who all remarked on their shifts in thinking and corresponding changes they made with their practices.

An example of this is where Mentor E grasped that educative mentoring was not about being the expert who solved problems for the mentee and told him or her what was right or wrong with their practice. A shift in thinking came for this mentor when reading an educative mentoring text that provided an alternative idea as to how the pedagogical autonomy of the novice could be developed. Upon reflecting on this Mentor E then changed tack by relinquishing control, encouraging the PCT to lead mentoring discussions and provide solutions for classroom related problems while simultaneously holding the PCT professionally accountable and adding in ideas if needed.

Although the findings from my study suggest that mentors can learn about and enact educative mentoring principles in what was a very short time span a question still remains as to whether their learning will continue to influence their behaviours and thinking or whether these slip back to a default position. Previous studies have indicated that lapsing into old habits can and does occur, as it is easier for people to revert to what is tried and true than persevere with new or different behaviours and thinking.

A final implication relates to my own learning. Upon reflecting on my own actions and thinking (reflexivity) I have come to the conclusion that there are several things I could have done differently and that would have been more synergistic with PAR theory and principles, such as moving into the background more as the facilitator and not influencing the mentors' thinking about what elements of educative mentoring are most in need of attention. I have realised that I have gone through "a process of (first person) self-inquiry" (Reason & Bradbury, 2008, p. 6) while conducting action research with others. This experience has led me to become more cognisant of the effects of my actions and has increased the tools at my disposal to monitor the impact of my own behaviour and thinking as an educator and researcher.

Limitations of the Study

  Challenges as deputy principal and researcher. A significant limitation I have considered relates to my dual position as a researcher and Deputy Principal. There may have been instances where the participants withheld information in an effort to protect themselves or to portray themselves in a particular way in. My close involvement in the PAR process may have caused the participants to feel there was a power imbalance and that they were being coerced, which are aspects of the participatory-researcher role that I grappled with.

Many of the limitations arising from this study I attribute to my own learning journey as a novice researcher. One that I have identified relates to my actions as joint facilitator and researcher where I believe I influenced the content and direction of the PD and the discussions during the focus group interviews. Prior to starting this study I viewed the professional development aspect of the research to be one that could be guided by the needs and wishes of the participants but

this was not achieved in the way or to the level I sought. Looking back on my actions and even during the PD process I realised I was directing the content too much. I was frustrated and disappointed with myself for doing this but at the same time I felt that I needed to do more than facilitate sessions if the mentors were going to learn about educative mentoring and I was to complete my research project.

The ideal I had envisioned was one where I would initiate the PD by sharing some key principles of educative mentoring through professional readings and discussion which would then become more directed by the participants than me. However, after the first session I believed this was not feasible as it was my belief that the knowledge the mentors needed to take control of their own learning about educative mentoring was lacking. In addition, the time needed for the group to get below the surface of understanding the principles and theory behind educative mentoring and for the mentors to digest and implement these required far longer than I could provide.

To add to this I knew the mentors all had high workloads and my research was not a priority for them so to try and ease their burden as well as maintain momentum through the PAR process I resorted to front-loading information as much as I could. I felt that by doing this the mentors would at least have a preliminary understanding of the differences between traditional and educative mentoring. My feeling was that the mentors were looking to me as 'the expert' and that I needed to live up to their expectations, however, part of me also relished the opportunity to share my learning and knowledge in an area I felt strongly about. I did try and sit back and listen more but with limited success.

Ideally, I believe that by allowing a considerably longer time span of several months rather than weeks, with focus group meetings spread out, participants would be more likely to take greater control over the PD than occurred in this study. Moreover, increased time spent together may lead to a more relaxed and natural flow of dialogue, though there were instances of this. I felt that initially the dialogue was quite stilted and the mentors were acting politely not wishing to challenge or offend each other in any way. What I felt and observed was generally a lack of debate and I thought the focus groups ran the risk of reinforcing the mentoring status quo. This is a time where I could have interceded more and challenged what was being said, particularly

when one mentor stated that educative mentoring principles were already being enacted. This statement immediately prompted me to recall my own experiences of how difficult I found it to always act in educative ways; yet, I did not challenge this statement. Perhaps I should have raised debate about this but I felt I trod a fine line between researcher and educator and I did not want to overstep the mark and limit or shut down dialogue.

A criticism often directed at qualitative research is that it is subjective and, therefore open to interpretation and the biases of the researcher and participants. Whilst I made no attempt to intentionally substantiate mentors and mentees' beliefs about each other or their own learning or practices, incidental remarks did confirm some of these. An example of this was when the mentors and mentees both affirmed the value they found in having informal and incidental chats together during the school day. Conversely there were times when they held different perspectives. One such example was where a mentor misread a mentee's reticence, as a lack of awareness about her own learning needs. However, the mentee knew exactly what she wanted to learn, which was how to replicate the tone of the mentor's class with her own class, and in admiration of her mentor that meant seizing opportunities to learn by soaking up everything the mentor did and said. The mentor's assumptions remained intact and an opportunity was missed to inquire further and learn more about the mentee.

As the primary research instrument I acknowledge that I had immense influence over how data was interpreted, what was significant or relevant and therefore what should be included or excluded from this report. Although I endeavoured to understand my participants' experiences and thinking from their perspective rather than my own, as a fellow human being who has her own biases and cultural histories, I concede that I did not stand aside from my participants as an objective, neutral observer and my ontological position affected the way I viewed others. Thus the lenses that I view the world through play a significant role in the way I have interpreted the mentors' accounts, stories and interpersonal relationships.

This example exemplifies a restraint that I experienced as the researcher. Having this knowledge but needing to keep it contained was frustrating because I could see how alerting the mentor to an alternative perspective could have transmuted thoughts about the mentee, possibly improved understandings and challenged untested beliefs. While I was privileged to

gain insider information from the participants it is quite likely that there have been times where I have failed to comprehend the subtleties and intricacies of what participants are expressing or misinterpreted what I have heard or seen. It is important to note here, that the events and experiences as told to me by the participants were already an interpretation of their own realities that had been filtered through their own biases, assumptions and values. Therefore, neither the participants nor I can articulate the totality or the truth of our experiences and worldviews in ways that can be completely understood by the other.

Other limitations of qualitative research are that the findings are not transferable and therefore the validity of the data becomes questionable. As a localised small-scale study this research project did not set out to produce findings that could be generalised across other schools and with other mentors. Since the mentors' learning was complex, highly individualised and intertwined with the learning of their mentees it is not possible to make generalisations about how mentors learn or to determine universal factors that are guaranteed to influence all mentors all the time in the same way and to the same effect. As per Figure 5, a different context and PD programme combined with different mentors is likely to produce alternative influences that affect mentors' learning and yield different outcomes for the participants. While this is a limitation, the findings can be added to other studies to develop a wider understanding of what influences mentors' learning about educative mentoring.

Restricting the scope of this study to focus only on how collaborative educative mentoring PD influences mentors' learning is limiting because it does not present a comprehensive picture that fully represents the mentors' learning processes and outcomes. Other studies have already indicated that factors such as the school culture, school leadership and the priority and resourcing mentoring is given within a school can also impact on mentors' roles and their learning. Had more emphasis been given to these aspects the results may have been different.

Having only six weeks to complete an educative mentoring professional development programme through PAR made it a very pressured and constrained process for everyone involved. Time frames between the focus group meetings were extremely tight and restricted the time mentors had to action their goals. Consequently all stages of the PAR model were not completed and we did not progress beyond one action cycle.

By considering and discussing my own limitations and that of the design and implementation of my study I can now suggest some recommendations for future research projects and researchers.

Recommendations for Future Research

This study sought the participation of both mentees and mentors in an effort to ascertain what and how mentors' learnt about educative mentoring through collaborative professional development, however the PD was restricted purely to the mentor group. An aspect pertaining to this and that I consider worthy of research relates to an assertion proposed by English (1999) who explains that in accordance with adult learning theory mentors and mentees should both be prepared for mentorship. In the research literature to date the focus has been on singling out the mentor for specific training or professional development in mentoring while the emphasis for mentees is on preparing them for teaching rather than mentoring. English (1999) goes on to propose that professional development in mentoring can and should be conducted jointly with mentees and mentors in attendance together.

Joint PD programmes may provide an opportunity for the mentor and mentee to generate discussions that link theory and practice, which was an element of educative mentoring missing from the mentors' practices as noted by some of the mentees. Research into how theory and practice is addressed within mentoring and induction programmes in school settings could potentially contribute greatly to understandings about mentors and mentees' learning and the impact this has on students' achievement and outcomes.

Exploring the impact of educative mentoring on students' learning and achievement is in its infancy when it comes to research. Langdon (2014) recommends that the focus of mentoring should extend beyond the dyad of mentor and mentee to include students within the mentee's class, effectively producing a trifocal focus. While this study provided some data on how and what mentors' can learn from collaborative PD in educative mentoring it did not focus on the impact mentors' learning has on the learning of the PCTs' students. Therefore, research that focuses on the trifocal nature of educative mentoring, where the PCT's learning and that of the students in conjunction with the mentor's learning, all combine to create a picture of how

mentoring and learning by and between the PCT and mentor can positively impact on outcomes for all students is called for.

Current research about educative mentoring still tends to have a focus on mentoring dyads and traditional methods of up skilling mentors through PD. Nevertheless, alternative concepts of mentoring already exist, such as in Finland where PCTs meet in groups with a mentor who facilitates the learning but does not determine it. This notion would appear to hold promise for the New Zealand context where some case studies have shown that support and growth for PCTs from colleagues within a school contributes to the successful induction and mentoring of novice teachers. Yet, this field of study has not been widely researched within this country. The potential exists for research to contribute to the development of models suited to the New Zealand context where joint learning between mentors and PCTs can happen in groups rather than merely as pairings.

Considering the interdependence between the mentors and mentees' learning identified in this study, ascertaining whether similar findings arise in different school settings and with different groups of mentors is a potential area for further research. Furthermore, longitudinal studies with larger sample sizes are needed if findings such as those generated in this research project are to be generalised to other mentoring populations and school contexts.

My study has concentrated on how mentors learn and the impact this has on the learning of their PCTs and that of the mentors. There seems to be little distinction made between the mentoring of PCTs and student teachers in the literature yet there is some suggestion that differences exist. It would seem likely that this is the case; certainly within the New Zealand context where student teachers spend only a matter of weeks in schools and have little time to build trusting affiliations with their mentor teachers or to prove their competence. Provisionally Certificated Teachers, unlike student teachers, have considerable time to build lasting and deep relationships with their mentors, flexibility in the order and intervals they spend on developing and demonstrating their skill and knowledge and opportunities to receive personalised PD based on long term goals and milestones. Research into understanding how or if educative mentoring differs between student teachers and PCTs could provide additional data and

knowledge for those who design educational programmes for these two groups of adult learners.

Summary

In setting out to understand how mentors' learn through collaborative educative mentoring PD and what impact this has on mentees' learning, a range of influences emerged, including the qualities and previous histories of the mentors and my own deliberate actions. Underpinning my decisions as a participant-researcher were my own beliefs and values. A prime value I hold is that the mentors should be treated as self-determining, capable decision makers. So with this in mind I gave the mentors the freedom to choose their own learning content and pathway while simultaneously holding them accountable for this. Providing opportunities for the mentors to trial and implement new ideas as they learnt was, I believed, critical to their growth as educative mentors and to changing aspects of their thinking and actions about mentoring. As it turned out the mentors agreed that learning through practice and from secondary experiential sources did influence what and how they learnt.

For mentors to regard themselves as educative mentors they correspondingly need to be learners who continuously and consciously challenge personal assumptions and change their thinking and practices when these are not aligned with a vision of good teaching or educative mentoring theory. However, achieving deep critical reflection cannot occur in isolation. The importance of this is highlighted in my study where the mentors met and engaged in dialogue that exposed ideas and beliefs about their current and aspirational practices in productive non-intimidating ways. These discussions reinforced the importance of learning as a socially situated act for the mentors, though; I also felt that greater challenge was needed than eventuated to help the mentors think more deeply.

Pivotal to the successful growth of each of the participants were the attributes they all possessed; namely a willingness to try something different and engage in reflective practice, a growth mind set and an acceptance that they were learners. These qualities provided the foundation for the mentors to revisit their understandings of mentoring and to make changes accordingly. Perhaps the most telling learning influence for the mentors, however, were the times when there was a separation between what their ontological and epistemological

perspectives of mentoring were compared to what they were learning. The mentors in this study all took their roles very seriously and wanted to do the best they could for their mentees but dissonance arose when they realised that their espoused theories did not align with their theories in action. The most significant changes occurred when the mentors shifted from thinking and acting as the expert who was there to impart knowledge and experience to the PCT, to becoming a learner who collaboratively inquired with the PCT into solving problems of practice and who shared power and encouraged and celebrated reciprocity of learning.

Any influences that cause mentors to reflect on and develop their thinking and practices in educative mentoring are in my mind important, because improving the learning of mentors ultimately leads to enhanced learning and teaching of their PCTs, thus, improving the likelihood of producing better, more equitable learning outcomes for all students; and that is what lies at the heart of educative mentoring theory.

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Appendices

APPENDIX A

Indicative questions in relation to the Participatory Action Research Process

OVERARCHING RESEARCH QUESTION

How does a collaborative professional development programme about educative mentoring affect the learning and actions of mentors in a primary school?

Subquestions (Mentors)
1. How can a professional development programme of educative mentoring be co-constructed and applied in a primary school setting?
2. How does a collaborative professional development programme of educative mentoring promote and influence mentors' learning?
3. How does the mentor's learning then influence beginning teachers' professional growth and teaching practice?

Subquestions (Mentees)
1. How does educative mentoring promote beginning teachers' awareness and understanding of individualised student learning in the classroom?
2. How do an awareness and understanding of individualised student learning in the classroom then influence beginning teachers' professional growth and teaching practice?

Questions for Mentors (Cycles 2-4 Focus Groups and Cycle 5 Individual Interviews)

For ease of reference questions have been allocated to a cycle or series of cycles and an abbreviation attached. Therefore a question with the coding (C2-4) means it will be asked during cycles 2,3 and 4 of the PAR process.

How can a professional development programme of educative mentoring be co-constructed and applied in a primary school setting?

- What does mentoring mean to you? (C1 and C5)
- How would you describe your role as a mentor? (C1 and C5)
- What are the qualities of educative mentoring? (C2)
- How can we adapt educative mentoring to align to our school's needs and vision? (C2)
- How can we implement educative mentoring theory and principles to assist our mentees in focusing on the learning needs of their students? (C2-5)
- What do we need to know about adult learners? (C3)
- How do we combine educative mentoring and adult learning theory to best cater for our mentees? (C3-4)

How does a collaborative professional development programme of educative mentoring promote and influence mentors' learning?

- How can our evolving professional development programme support your mentoring practices and understanding of educative mentoring? (C2-4)
- What elements of the co-constructed professional development programme have most significantly impacted on your learning? (C5)
- How has the co-construction of our educative mentoring model significantly impacted on *your* mentoring and/or teaching practices? Why do you think this might be? (C5)
- Can you talk about an instance or experience where you noticed a shift in your thinking or assumptions about mentoring? How did you respond to this? (C5)
- How has your work with your mentee influenced your own learning as a mentor and/or teacher? (C5)
- How do you identify your own learning as a mentor? (C3-5)

- What aspect(s) of your learning journey has most significantly impacted on your implementation of educative mentoring theory? (C5)

How does the mentor's learning then influence beginning teachers' professional growth and teaching practice?

- Can you talk about how you have assisted your mentee to focus on individual students' learning? What was the outcome of this? (C3-5)
- Can you recall an instance where you and your mentee collaboratively inquired into a problem or question about your mentee's teaching practice and how it influenced individual students' learning? (C5)
- Can you share a time or event when you think you made a significant difference to your mentee's understanding of their own teaching practice? How do you know? What was the outcome of this? (C3-5)
- What indicators are you looking for to provide evidence of your mentee's learning? (C3-5)
- What is good teaching practice? (C3)
- How can you explicitly guide your mentee to make links between good teaching practice and theory? (C3 & 4)

Questions for Mentees (Cycle 1 and 5 Individual Interviews)
How does educative mentoring promote beginning teachers' awareness and understanding of individualised student learning in the classroom?

- How has your mentor impacted on your ability to cater for the individual needs of your students?
- How has your awareness of your students' learning changed as a result of conversations with your mentor?
- Can you recall an instance where you and your mentor collaboratively inquired into a problem or question about your teaching and the impact it was having on students' learning? What was the outcome of this inquiry?

How do an awareness and understanding of individualised student learning in the classroom then influence beginning teachers' professional growth and teaching practice?

- How has your understanding of your students' learning changed your teaching practice?
- How has your mentor assisted you in linking theory of good teaching to your teaching practice?
- How has your mentor made a significant difference to your teaching practice?
- What are the most effective elements of the mentoring process that assist you in improving your teaching practice?
- How do you identify your own growth as a teacher?

APPENDIX B

Consent Form

Mentor

Project title: *The influences of professional development, in educative mentoring, on mentors' learning and practices.*

Project Supervisor: *Dr Andrés Santamaría*

Researcher: *Deborah Cooke*

○   I have read and understood the information provided about this research project in the Information Sheet dated 06/07/2016.
○   I have had an opportunity to ask questions and to have them answered.
○   I understand that the identity of my fellow participants and our discussions in the focus group is confidential to the group and I agree to keep this information confidential.
○   I understand that, although pseudonyms will be used to protect the names of the school and participants, and school roles of participants will not be divulged, given the size and nature of the groups in this study it is not possible to completely guarantee that people will not be able to identify me.
○   I agree to make an audio recording of one of my mentor/mentee meetings as a learning tool to be discussed at a focus group session with the participants in my focus group. (Applicable only if your mentee has agreed) NB: The recording is the property of the mentee and mentor not the primary researcher.
○   I understand that notes will be taken during the focus group session and that it will also be audio-taped and transcribed.
○   I understand that if I withdraw from the study then, while it may not be possible to destroy all records of the focus group discussion of which I was part, I will be offered the choice between having any data that is identifiable as belonging to me removed or allowing it to continue to be used. However, once the findings have been produced, removal of my data may not be possible.
○   I agree to take part in this research.
○   I wish to receive a summary of the research findings (please tick one): Yes○ No○

Participant's signature: ………………………………………….……………………………………………………

Participant's name: ………………………………………….……………………………………………………
Participant's Contact Details (if appropriate):
………………………………………………………………………………………..
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………………………………………………………………………………………..
Date:

Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on 6 July 2016
AUTEC Reference number 16/220
Note: The Participant should retain a copy of this form.

APPENDIX C

Example of analysis from a focus group interview.

D I'd like you to tell me what are the qualities of educated mentoring and how are you showing that in your own practice as a mentor? So what examples of educated mentoring have you got to share? (*long pause here as group collect their thoughts*)

M1 I think like focussing on learners, like what we mentioned before, and when you are giving feedback you don't really focus on the mentee as an individual, (J mm) as the end point you say how successful were the learners kind of thing? So when you're giving your feedback from a lesson don't ask, don't ask questions like how was the lesson kind of thing? How successful were the learners, so you're giving the focus on the students in your group. I think that's part of the qualities of focussing on learners, rather than just focussing on how the lesson went.

> **Deb Cooke 17/6/2017 12:14 PM**
> **Comment [1]:** Focus is on the children as learners

> **Deb Cooke 17/6/2017 12:14 PM**
> **Comment [2]:** Success of PCT is determined through the success of the chn's learning

> **Deb Cooke 17/6/2017 12:14 PM**
> **Comment [3]:** Chging focus from tech or practical expertise of the mentee increasing to how their growth is impacting on students

M2 I think when I was modelling for mine, like my readings groups I try to, I run it as a conversation, I don't let them put their hands up. Like I expect them to be able to take, be able to take turns and share that conversation around and have a dialogue without me running it. And with my one coming from year 1, that was new, and she wanted to know why I did that, and I was able to say I do this because of how it affects the children. It wasn't I do this because it works for me or something, my focus was coz I found that it works this, and this, and this ways with my kids –

D Mmm.

M2 It grows dialogues, it grows critical thinking, it grows conversational skills, it grows being able to articulate their ideas, like all those things with –

D So that's all that good teaching practice sort of idea isn't it, yeah? That's a great example, yeah.

> **Deb Cooke 17/6/2017 12:18 PM**
> **Comment [4]:** Mentor can articulate thinking aloud and reasons to the PCT

M3 And I think the co-construction is hugely important too with, as you said not just telling them telling them I want you to focus on this, you know what do you think about it? And, and I suppose framing your questions so you kinda get them to the place that you want them to, that's what you want their focus to be. But they've got it then there themselves, like I've found just even the way I've changed how I have those conversations to try and, you know she's come up with that. The idea, what I wanted her to do, but she came up with it without me telling her to, so it's just giving her the opportunity to have that reflection time and think about her learners. And yeah, and then plug in some of those technical things where it's appropriate to. And I found it's a lot more responsive, you know I found through doing that she's a lot, she comes to me and goes oh that idea worked really, really well, da, da, da. I feel like there's a lot more celebrations –

M1 Mmm.

M3 Through this just framing, just through those conversations.

D And framing it differently?

M3 Yeah.

> **Deb Cooke 17/6/2017 12:14 PM**
> **Comment [5]:** Co-construction of goals

> **Deb Cooke 17/6/2017 12:14 PM**
> **Comment [6]:** Skilful questioning

> **Deb Cooke 17/6/2017 12:14 PM**
> **Comment [7]:** More open conversations

> **Deb Cooke 17/6/2017 12:14 PM**
> **Comment [8]:** Expecting and providing time and space for mentee to reflect and to problem solve

> **Deb Cooke 17/6/2017 12:14 PM**
> **Comment [9]:** Providing assistance, ideas, resources as needed

> **Deb Cooke 17/6/2017 12:14 PM**
> **Comment [10]:** Get better results, ownership by the mentee and growing the autonomy of the PCT

> **Deb Cooke 17/6/2017 12:18 PM**
> **Comment [11]:** Reframing conversations brought a significant change to the mentee's learning and agency

APPENDIX D

Project Title: *The influence of professional development, in educative mentoring, on mentors' learning and mentoring practices.*

An Invitation
Kia ora, my name is Deborah Cooke and I am a Deputy Principal and a researcher who has been fortunate to have been been granted a year's study leave to complete my Masters of Education qualification at Auckland University of Technology. I am contacting you in my capacity as a researcher to invite you to participate in a study which will assist me with my research into understanding how mentors learn as they collaboratively construct a professional development programme on educative mentoring theory and principles, for provisionally certificated teachers.
Please note that whether you choose to participate or not in this study will not disadvantage you in anyway or have any impact on your continued employment at your school. Your participation in my research is entirely voluntary and you may withdraw at any time, without giving a reason, prior to the completion of data collection on August 31 2016.

What is the purpose of this research?
The purpose of this research is to present a case study of a school that, from the teachers' perspectives describes how teachers learn and how educative mentoring can successfully be applied in a school setting. In doing so this case study may also offer an insight into how teachers in other schools could develop their own educative mentoring professional development programmes that embrace the specific situational, cultural and educational features unique to their schools.
I intend to use Participatory Action Research (PAR) design, which is a method found within the qualitative/interpretative paradigm for this study. Key features of PAR are that it; is practical and collaborative, embraces critical pedagogy therefore contributing to the emancipation of participants, and focuses on bringing about change in practices through cycles of reflection and action.
As stated previously this research will lead to the completion of my Master of Education qualification however the findings from this study may also be used for other purposes such as publication in journal articles and conference presentations.

How was I identified and why am I being invited to participate in this research?
Provisionally Certificated Teachers and teacher mentors are eligible to participate in this study however due to the power differential between some staff these people have been excluded from this study. You have been selected because you are an eligible teacher mentor and I am interested in understanding first hand, your experiences and interpretations of mentoring and how professional development in educative mentoring impacts on your learning and that of your mentee.

What will happen in this research?
As a mentor you will be asked to participate in one individual semi-structured interview that will take between 45- 60 minutes. This will take place at the end of the research project. Some indicative questions are: What does mentoring mean to you? How has the co-construction of our educative mentoring model significantly impacted on *your* mentoring and/or teaching practices? Can you recall an instance where you and your mentee collaboratively inquired into a

problem or question about your mentee's teaching practice and how it influenced individual students' learning?

In addition to the individual interview you will also be part of a focus group that will meet 3 times for group interview sessions. These will be of 1-1 ½ hours in duration and all meetings will be recorded (audio only). This is where PAR comes to the fore. At the focus group meetings all participants in your group (mentors only) will be able to share ideas, thoughts and tribulations, ask questions, seek assistance and support from the group and determine the learning and action needed for the group and for themselves.

If participants (both mentor and mentee) give consent some audio recordings of mentor/mentee meetings will also be shared during focus group sessions. These recordings are intended to be used as learning tools for discussion, and will be led by the mentors who made the recordings.

I will audio record all individual and focus group interviews and keep written notes from these. Either a transcriptionist or I will transcribe your interviews and a copy of your individual interview only, will be returned to you for your approval.

All data collected from you, will be stored safely and securely for six years on university premises. After this period, digital voice recordings will be permanently deleted and the transcripts destroyed.

What are the discomforts and risks?

Participation in this study might lead you to experience feelings of frustration, inadequacy or vulnerability as you possibly undergo transformation about how and what you think and believe. Participatory Action Research brings with it an openness about the direction and end point of the research so if you are a person who likes to be in control, know exactly where you are heading, and have a preordained plan of action you may feel some levels of frustration or consternation.

It is generally believed that schools are hierarchical and that a power differential exists between teachers and senior leaders. My role as a deputy principal therefore could be considered a potential risk by participants because of this power differential. This may cause you to feel uncomfortable or unable to respond to some questions, reluctant to reveal your deepest feelings or thoughts, or make you hesitant about participating in my research. Participation is entirely voluntary and should you choose to not participate I wish to assure you that, this will not impact in anyway on your on-going employment.

How will these discomforts and risks be alleviated?

To minimise feelings of discomfort or unease I will be asking mainly open-ended questions. At any point in time you can decline to answer a question or choose to end the interview. It is entirely at your discretion as to how fully you decide to respond to a question and to what you wish to share. I would also like to alleviate any concerns you may have about sharing information with me because of my dual roles as deputy principal and researcher. Any information you share with me will not be divulged to your mentor, employer or anyone else at any point now or in the future.

To alleviate frustration and issues with control of learning, your active involvement in the action research process should give you some sense of control and by establishing and expressing *your* needs you can determine how this can occur.

You can also choose to withdraw from the research prior to the completion of data collection on August 31 2016 should you wish to do so.

What are the benefits?

The benefits to you are that:
- your perspectives and experiences will influence the development of this research and how educative mentoring for Provisionally Certificated Teachers is implemented
- you will have an opportunity and a forum to reflect in and on action
- your understandings and experiences of the mentoring process and as an adult learner will be a valuable addition to the literature about educative mentoring of PCTs and how we can make the shift from traditional mentoring to educative mentoring
- you have an opportunity to learn with and from other mentors in a learning community
- as a mentor with knowledge of educative mentoring you will be able to offer your knowledge and services to support novice mentors within the school

- the learning you take from your participation can be used immediately and in the future with other mentees
- the skills, knowledge and understandings you gain from your participation and experiences can potentially be shared with other mentor teachers and interested others in the wider education field

If you choose to participate I would like to thank you and all the other participants by inviting everyone out for a meal, at my expense. As your involvement cannot be acknowledged publicly I feel this is the least I can do to express my thanks.

How will my privacy be protected?
It is possible that people accessing the final findings will link me with the school I work in and therefore assume the participants of this study are from my school. To minimise this risk and to protect your identity I will use pseudonyms for all participants. Furthermore the principal, Board of Trustees and other staff members will not be notified who the participants are.
Any external transcriptionist that is contracted will be required to sign a confidentiality agreement prohibiting the sharing of information with anyone other than the researcher.

What are the costs of participating in this research?
You will need to allow time for one individual interview with me that will take place at school. This will occur at the end of the research process and will last between 45-60 minutes. In addition the three scheduled focus group meetings will take a further 1-1 ½ hours each so you will need to allow approximately 5-6 hours for your total involvement in this research study. Please note that this time is spread out over 6 to 8 weeks.

What opportunity do I have to consider this invitation?
You have 2 weeks from receipt of this information sheet. A reminder email will be sent to you at the end of the 2 weeks if I have not heard from you before that.

How do I agree to participate in this research?
A consent form has been given to you with this information sheet. If you wish to participate in this research please read and sign the form then return it in a sealed envelope (also included with this sheet) to a box I have set up in the school office.

Will I receive feedback on the results of this research?
Yes, if you would like a summary of the findings just indicate this on your consent form.

What do I do if I have concerns about this research?
Any concerns regarding the nature of this project should be notified in the first instance to the Project Supervisor.

Concerns regarding the conduct of the research should be notified to the Executive Secretary of AUTEC, Kate O'Connor, ethics@aut.ac.nz, phone: 09 921 9999 ext. 6038.

Whom do I contact for further information about this research?
Please keep this Information Sheet and a copy of the Consent Form for your future reference. You are also able to contact the research team as follows:

Researcher Contact Details: Deborah Cooke dcooke@epsomnormal.school.nz

Project Supervisor Contact Details: Dr Andrés Santamaria
andres.santamaria@aut.ac.nz 09 921 9999 ext. 6753

Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on 6 July 2016, AUTEC Reference number 16/220.