Mentoring for student teachers in Post-Compulsory Education in England and Norway: Judgemental and developmental approaches

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Abstract

This thesis presents a study of mentoring for student teachers in Post-Compulsory Education in England and Norway. The study sought to generate further understanding of judgemental and developmental approaches to mentoring and drew on both a qualitative and comparative research design. Twelve mentoring pairs participated (six from England and six from Norway). These pairs were recruited through three universities in England and two in Norway. Each mentor and mentee took part in two semi-structured interviews. In addition, each mentoring pair completed two audio recordings of mentoring meetings. Findings indicated that none of the mentoring enactments in England or Norway were 'purely' judgemental or developmental in nature. Three derivative versions of mentoring were instead identified: a hybrid of judgemental and developmental mentoring, a restricted version of developmental mentoring and a more extensive version of developmental mentoring. Mentees reported varying positive and negative consequences of the mentoring and none of the approaches were found to be realising the full potential of mentoring to support the student teachers' learning and growth. A number of factors contributing to the use of judgemental and developmental strategies were identified. These included: mentors' perceptions of mentees' teaching competence, mentors' perceptions of mentees' qualities, and the way that mentors drew on formal assessments in the mentoring process. This study recommends that in the future judgemental and developmental approaches might be viewed as 'archetypes' of mentoring. Additional recommendations for policy, practice and research are offered, and a 'personalised' mentoring approach is proposed which seeks to maximise development opportunities for mentees by tailoring the mentoring process to their individual learning and support needs.

Contents

List of tables

List of figures

Abbreviations and acronyms

ACL – Adult Community Learning

AoC – Association of Colleges

BIS – Department for Business, Innovation and Skills

Cert. Ed. – Certificate in Education

CPD – Continuing Professional Development

CTLLS – Certificate in teaching in the lifelong learning sector

DfE – Department for Education

DTLLS – Diploma in teaching in the lifelong learning sector

ETF – The Education and Training Foundation

HE – Higher Education

HEI – Higher Education Institution

IfL – Institute for Learning

ITE – Initial Teacher Education

FE – Further Education

NOKUT – the Norwegian Agency for Quality Assurance in Education

OECD – Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development

Ofsted – Office for Standards in Education

PCE – Post-Compulsory Education

PGCE – Postgraduate Certificate in Education

PISA – Programme for International Student Assessment

PPU - Postgraduate teaching qualification in Norway

PTLLS- Preparing to teach in the lifelong learning sector

QA – Quality Assurance

UCET – Universities Council for Education of Teachers

UNESCO-UNEVOC – United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation –

International Centre for Technical and Vocational Education and Training

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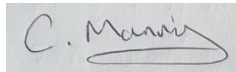
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Author's declaration

I declare that the research contained in this thesis, unless otherwise formally indicated within the text, is the original work of the author. This thesis has not been previously submitted to this or any other university for a degree, and does not incorporate any material already submitted for a degree.

Signed -

Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

This thesis presents a study on mentoring for full-time student teachers in the Post-Compulsory Education (PCE) sector in England and Norway. This introductory chapter outlines key details about the study and is divided into five main sections. The first section presents the rationale for exploring this particular topic of research in the chosen contexts. The second section then sets out the research questions which this study sought to address. Then, there is a brief overview of the research design. This is followed by a researcher biography containing information about my own experiences of mentoring as a student teacher, mentor and teacher educator in the English PCE sector. The final section provides an outline of the remaining chapters of the thesis.

1.2 Rationale

This section outlines the key reasons for undertaking this research study. It begins by highlighting uncertainties around the term 'mentoring' in a wider context, before then examining its reported strengths and limitations in the field of Initial Teacher Education (ITE). The rationale for conducting research on mentoring for student teachers in England and Norway, and in the PCE sector in particular, are then presented.

1.2.1 Uncertainties around mentoring

Since the 1980s, there has been a 'meteoric rise' in the use of mentoring across a range of contexts including the commercial sector, health, and education (Colley, 2002, p. 248). This has reportedly been accompanied by a 'proliferation of mentoring research' (Irby and Boswell, 2016, p. 2). Despite, or perhaps due to this propagation, there is a lack of clarity about what mentoring means (Clutterbuck, 2004, p.1). Indeed, mentoring has been described as 'not just one thing [but]… a range of possibilities' (Hall, 2003, p.9). Literature on mentoring often references its origins in Greek mythology which portrays the mentor as a more experienced guide to a less experienced mentee:

> Mentor, Odysseus's friend in Homer's *Odyssey*, was entrusted with the education of his son, Telemachus, during Odysseus's long voyage. Mentor's task was to manage the king's son's personal, professional, and political education, training, and socialization.

As the use of mentoring has grown, so have the forms in which it occurs. Now there are various types of mentoring including peer mentoring, reverse mentoring, and group mentoring (Crow, 2012, p.229). As such not all mentoring arrangements are 'adequately defined by [the] novice-expert conception' (Mooney Simmie and Moles, 2012, p. 109) depicted in Homer's *Odyssey*. In addition, mentoring can be used for different purposes. For example, Brockbank and McGill (2012) illustrate that mentoring can be used to improve the performance of an employee, to bring about organisational change, or to enable personal transformation for an individual (pp. 12-16). The authors also suggest that the mentoring approach adopted may vary depending on the underlying purpose. For instance, when addressing a mentee's performance, a mentor may choose to adopt the approach of "telling" the mentee what they need to do, whereas when enabling personal transformation, the approach may involve more of a 'reflective dialogue' between mentor and mentee (ibid., p. 12 and p. 16).

Literature has highlighted that organisations do not always offer clarity about the underlying purpose of mentoring and even within the same setting it is possible for stakeholders to perceive the purpose of mentoring conversations differently (Garvey et al., 2014, p.11). Where there is a lack of clarity around the purpose and/or a mismatch in expectations for the process this can lead to disappointment for the mentee, the mentor and/or the organisation (Brockbank and McGill, 2004, p.1). Whilst mentoring, then, is a widely used phenomena, there is not necessarily a shared understanding of what it means, what it is for, or how it should be approached.

1.2.2 Mentoring in ITE

Mentoring for student teachers is now a common feature of ITE programmes in many European countries and other parts of the world including North America, Australia and Japan (Maynard, 2008). It usually consists of a one-to-one relationship between an unqualified teacher (the mentee) and a qualified and usually more experienced one (the mentor). There are instances of student teachers engaging in group or peer mentoring arrangements in some of these countries (Heikkinen, Jokinen and Tynjälä, 2012; Sundli, 2007) however, this study focuses on the more widely used one-to-one relationships between existing teachers and student teachers.

Whilst mentoring for student teachers is well-established in many countries, some researchers highlight that 'clarity about what it is, how it occurs or who mentors are is scarce' (Helgevold, et al., 2015, p.129). There is also research which indicates there may be a lack of consistency in mentors' perceptions about the purpose of mentoring (Ingleby and Tummons, 2012; Lawy and Tedder 2011). In addition, there are mixed reports about the success of mentoring in supporting student teachers in the process of learning to teach. There is some evidence to suggest that mentoring is 'perhaps *the* most effective form of supporting the professional development of beginning teachers' (Hobson et al., 2009, p.209, italics added). However, research has also found that in some cases ITE mentoring is failing to realize its potential, and furthermore, may sometimes be stunting, rather than facilitating, mentees' development (Hobson and Malderez, 2013, p.92 and p.96). It has been argued that the effectiveness of mentoring can be enhanced by several factors including: an institutional commitment to mentoring, a collegiate ethos, physical resources such as a dedicated space or room, the use of mentoring contracts which set out entitlements for mentors and mentees, and researching mentoring practice (Cunningham, 2007). However, another key factor identified and discussed in recent research as potentially impacting on the effectiveness of mentoring is the approach itself - more specifically, whether it is 'judgemental' or 'developmental' in nature. This particular factor is elaborated on below.

In 2013, Hobson and Malderez published an article drawing on studies of school-based mentoring in England which identified that some mentors were adopting the role of 'judge' and were enacting "*judgementoring*" (p. 90). They define this approach as when a mentor:

> in revealing too readily and/or too often her/his own judgements on or evaluations of the mentee's planning and teaching (e.g. through "comments", "feedback", advice, praise, or criticism), compromises the mentoring relationship and its potential benefits.

> (Hobson and Malderez, 2013, p. 90)

They found that the use of "*judgementoring*" was a key 'impediment to the professional learning and wellbeing of beginner teachers' (ibid., p. 89). In their study, and a subsequent publication by Hobson (2016a), it is suggested that a key cause of this mentoring approach is mentors having two 'conflicting roles': assessing the mentee's teaching and supporting their professional learning and growth (Hobson, 2016a, p. 95; Hobson and Malderez, 2013, p. 100). The authors contrast "*judgementoring*" with a

more favourable developmental mentoring approach which seeks to enable and empower the mentee (ibid.). However, it is highlighted that *"judgementoring"* may be becoming the 'default understanding of mentoring in England' (ibid., p.89) and may also be occurring in other 'international contexts' (Hobson, 2016a, p. 94).

Research on the PCE sector in England also draws on the terms 'judgemental' and 'developmental' to depict contrasting versions of mentoring for student teachers. For instance, Tedder and Lawy (2009) identified that in government policy documents there had been a movement away from a 'developmental' model of mentoring towards one that is 'more judgemental and oriented to summative assessment' (p. 22). Research literature from this sector maintains that an overemphasis on assessment may be constraining the effectiveness of mentoring by restricting dialogue between mentors and student teachers (Duckworth and Maxwell, 2015, p.17), impeding the development of reflective practice (Ingleby, 2014, p.27) and diminishing its transformative potential (Tedder and Lawy, 2009, p.427). A literature review of research on mentoring for student teachers in PCE in the UK, found existing research articles were 'dominated by accounts of how ITE policy has imposed a judgemental approach to mentoring' (Duckworth and Maxwell, 2015, p.8); an approach, these authors considered to be aligned with Hobson and Malderez's term *"judgementoring"* (ibid. p. 5). However, a recently published case study by Manning and Hobson (2017) identified 'significant variation' in mentoring practices in PCE ITE and found evidence of both judgemental and developmental approaches (p. 574). Currently, there is limited evidence to indicate the extent of these approaches in the context of PCE ITE in England or how mentors are enacting them in practice.

Hobson and Malderez (2013) and Hobson (2016a) offer the most comprehensive accounts of the nature, causes, and consequences of *'judgementoring'* to date. This study builds on the existing research by undertaking an in-depth exploration of judgemental and developmental approaches to mentoring in the context of PCE ITE. This study aims to contribute to existing discussions by investigating the nature of these mentoring approaches, factors which may contribute towards their use, and the consequences of them. This research explores judgemental and developmental approaches by comparing PCE ITE mentoring in two countries: England and Norway. The reasons for this research focus are presented in the section below.

Whilst undertaking a review of literature on mentoring in ITE and wider contexts, a third approach was identified as potentially distinct from both judgemental and developmental mentoring, namely transformational mentoring. The notion of transformational mentoring is explored further in Chapter 3 and Chapter 4. In addition, as will be shown in the Findings, one characteristic associated with this potential approach was identified in this study. However, due to limited evidence in existing literature and this study of transformational mentoring being enacted in practice, it was decided not to include it as a focus of the research questions, which are presented in section 1.3 below. Nonetheless, the notion of transformational mentoring is returned to in the Discussion and Conclusion chapters of the thesis.

1.2.3 England and Norway

During the design stages of this study, the option to make this research a comparative study was discussed. I examined countries with comparable PCE ITE programmes and researched opportunities for funding such a project. After spending some time investigating different options, Norway was selected as an appropriate point of comparison with England for three main reasons. Firstly, PCE ITE programmes and mentoring arrangements in England and Norway were considered broadly comparable (further details of these are presented in Chapters 2 and 5). Secondly, it was identified that whilst the terms judgemental and developmental were not widely employed in research from Norway, one study investigating mentoring for beginning teachers had drawn on Hobson and Malderez's (2013) concept of "*judgementoring*". These researchers suggested it may be appropriate to investigate this approach in this context as mentors here (as in England) are tasked with formally assessing the mentees. Thirdly, differences in the two settings were identified which it was considered would make for an interesting comparison. For instance, the wider political systems in each country are often typified as contrasting, with English neo-liberalism on the one hand (Loo, 2014) and Norwegian egalitarianism on the other (Wiborg, 2008). In addition, these characteristics appear evident in both the wider education systems and PCE sectors in particular, which in England are characterised by marketization and competition between institutions, but in Norway, are on the whole unified and state run (Lloyd and Payne 2012). However, it has been noted that 'neo-liberal winds have been blowing over Scandinavia in recent years' (Wiboug, 2008) which means that despite distinct political traditions there could be increasing similarities forming between the two countries.

Hence, it was decided that conducting a comparative study, would provide a useful opportunity to explore the relationship between broader national contexts and the nature of mentoring enactments in each country.

1.2.4 PCE sector

There were three key reasons for conducting research on mentoring for student teachers in the PCE sector in particular. Firstly, I had worked in the sector for over 10 years and had completed a master's dissertation on judgemental and developmental mentoring in this context, which was subsequently published as a research article in a peer-reviewed journal (Manning and Hobson, 2017). These experiences meant I had a particular interest and existing insights into PCE ITE mentoring, in England at least, which could be drawn upon. Secondly, research on mentoring for student teachers in PCE in England and Norway is limited, especially in comparison to the compulsory sector. Hence this study could make a relatively significant contribution to the existing evidence bases in both countries. Thirdly, research in both England and Norway has highlighted the potential for PCE to challenge inequality and to provide a range of social and economic benefits (Duckworth and Smith, 2017; Larsen, et al., 2018). However, this sector faces specific problems which are in many ways distinct from those in compulsory education; these are explored below. In addition, this sector in both England and Norway struggles to either recruit or retain teachers (Education and Training Foundation [ETF], 2015; Woodgate, 2014). Investigating judgemental and developmental mentoring approaches and how these may or may not be supporting student teachers seems a particularly worthwhile research area, especially given the overall shortage of studies in this field. Characteristics of PCE and challenges facing beginning teachers in this sector are introduced below and explored further in the forthcoming chapters.

In England, the PCE sector is also sometimes referred to as Further Education and Skills (FE) or the Lifelong Learning sector (LLS). It is disparate and diverse and includes: further education colleges, sixth form colleges, adult and community learning providers, prisons, work-based learning providers, and training companies. It is reported that a 'disproportionate number of pupils from disadvantaged backgrounds' enter FE provision (Office for Standards in Education [Ofsted], 2013, p.6). In addition, PCE is described in research as uncertain, unstable (Lucas and Crowther, 2016, p. 584), complex, challenging and subject to 'frequent change and government intervention' (Crawley,

2013, p.341). Student teachers' experiences in this sector can be different from their school counterparts in a number of ways. Firstly, unlike the compulsory sector, PCE ITE qualifications are generic and as a result mentoring can be viewed as a particularly critical source of subject-specific support for student teachers (Eilahoo, 2011). Although it is also the case that mentors do not necessarily teach the same subjects as their mentee (ibid.) They may, for instance, teach a similar age of learners or share an interest in a particular pedagogy (ibid.). Secondly, PCE mentors and mentees are not always based in the same location as teaching can take place across different sites or campuses. This means that mentoring pairs do not necessarily see each other on a regular basis. Thirdly, in contrast to the compulsory sector, PCE is now deregulated which means that teaching qualifications are no longer mandatory (Robinson and Rennie, 2014). In addition, there are many routes into PCE teaching (ETF, 2017, p.45). Potentially, this could mean that there may be variation in PCE providers' expectations regarding whether beginning teachers should be qualified (and/or mentored).

In Norway, there is a similar but less diverse PCE sector which is comprised of upper secondary schools for students aged 16 and over and adult education provided by local government and private companies. Overall, this sector seems more stable and coherent than in England, yet it is not without its problems. This study focuses on student teachers undertaking placements in upper secondary schools and there are some particular challenges facing these organisations and beginning teachers who are based there. In Norway, the vast majority of learners progress from compulsory education to upper secondary schools; however nearly a third then leave before the end of their qualifications (Dæhlen, 2015, p. 245). It is argued that in Norway:

> the first crucial transition point … is not the transition from compulsory school to upper secondary school, because 'everybody' makes that transition, but within upper secondary school.

> (Dæhlen, 2015, p. 245)

The dropout rate poses a particular challenge to the 'important aim in Norwegian education policy … to create an inclusive school for all pupils' (Solbue et al., 2017, p. 140); an aim which is described as 'not only a slogan but a statement that can be traced in the Education Act' (ibid.). This is a concern which is discussed by policymakers, researchers and practitioners in Norway and it is recognised that 'drop out from upper secondary school represents a risk for the future health and wellbeing of young people'

(Larsen, et al., 2018, p.1). New teachers in this sector also face some reported challenges. For instance, in some regions it is difficult to secure a job in an upper secondary school and beginning teachers 'who are fortunate enough to find a job start as substitute teachers … must work hard to prove their suitability for permanent employment' (Ulvik and Langørgen, 2012, p.46). In addition, there is reported to be a 'generation gap' between the new 'young' entrants to the sector and existing teachers who have an average age of 55 and are 'close to retirement' (ibid.). Whilst there are some research articles (published in English) which provide insights into student teachers' experiences of mentoring at upper secondary schools, these are relatively few. As such, this study of judgemental and developmental mentoring in PCE ITE offers an opportunity to contribute to existing research in both England and Norway and identify ways to effectively support student teachers in these contexts.

1.3 Research questions

This study seeks to address four main questions in order to advance knowledge of PCE ITE mentoring for student teachers in England and Norway. The research questions (RQs) are:

RQ1. To what extent are mentoring enactments amongst research participants in PCE ITE in England and Norway judgemental or developmental in nature?

RQ2. What are the characteristics of judgemental and developmental mentoring?

RQ3. What factors contribute towards judgemental and developmental mentoring enactments?

RQ4. What are the consequences for mentees and mentors of judgemental and developmental approaches to mentoring?

1.4 Research design

This section provides a brief overview of the design of the study. Each of the details presented here are elaborated upon in the Methodology chapter. This is a qualitative research study which seeks to describe, understand, and to some extent explain the use of judgemental and developmental mentoring in PCE ITE in England and Norway (Flick, 2007, p. ix). The data collection took place over one academic year (2016-2017). In total,

twelve mentoring pairs took part in the study: six from England and six from Norway. The student teachers were all enrolled on full-time ITE courses at universities and their mentors were based at PCE institutions. Two main research methods were employed: individual semi-structured interviews with mentees and their mentors and audio recordings of the interviewees' mentoring meetings. Each participant completed two interviews, one near the start of the teaching placement and the other near the end. During the placement the mentoring pairs each undertook two audio recordings of mentoring meetings for this study; which were discussed, amongst other subjects, in the second interview. One of the recordings took place during the first half of the placement and the other in the second half. The findings in this study draw on data generated by both the interviews and audio recordings.

1.5 Researcher biography

> When we embark on a research journey we take a lot with us. And even if we think we can "pack lightly" and leave a substantial part of ourselves behind … - our biases, social location, hunches, and so on - we cannot. What we can do, however, is know the contents of the baggage we carry and how it is likely to accompany us on the research journey from beginning to end.
>
> (Cole and Knowles, 2001, p. 49)

The purpose of the following account is to share some of 'the baggage' I bring to the research process[1]. I offer my interpretation of three experiences in my life which may have shaped my view of mentoring for student teachers. The first is my experience of being a student teacher and mentee, the second is when I became a mentor, and the third is when I worked as a teacher educator and student teachers told me about their experiences of mentoring. There are undoubtedly other experiences which have influenced my perceptions of mentoring, however, these three have been selected as they are particularly pertinent to the focus of this study.

In 2002, I was aged 21, in my final year of university and there were few jobs I could envisage myself doing in the future. I was very interested in learning and education, but I knew for certain that I did not want to be a school teacher as my parents had been. At

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[1] This thesis is written in the third person with the exception of this 'researcher biography' section and a further section on researcher positionality (see 5.6). The researcher biography was written in the first person, as it was considered the most effective way to convey my previous personal experiences and knowledge of mentoring.

university I was president of the Labour Party society and one afternoon when I was undertaking work experience at my local MP's office, the administrator told me she was leaving her post to start work in a prison education department teaching literacy and numeracy. This for me, was a revelation. I had never considered adult education before; I had not been particularly aware prison education existed. I was captured by the idea of working with adults in an alternative educational environment. Overall my work experience in politics had been disillusioning; whereas adult education struck me as a form of social justice with which I wanted to be involved.

In the preceding year, the Skills for Life strategy for improving adult literacy and numeracy had been launched by the then Prime Minister, Tony Blair (Bathmaker, 2007). This was in response to Moser's (1999) report which found that 20 per cent of adults in the UK lacked functional basic skills. In 2000 the first national standards for adult literacy and numeracy were published. These standards formed the basis for introducing a core curricula and qualifications in adult literacy and numeracy. At the same time the Labour Government identified raising adult basic skills levels as central to improving the country's economic effectiveness (Bathmaker, 2007, p.3). It also announced concerns around teaching standards in FE and subsequent policy reforms in 2001 (and later in 2007) led to a legislative requirement for all teachers working in the sector to hold teaching qualifications. It is within this context that I embarked on a one-year, full time Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) in PCE with the aim of becoming an adult literacy teacher.

On the PGCE, I felt I learned quickly. I enjoyed the practical nature of designing lessons and I could assimilate theoretical discussions more easily than in my previous university studies. When I started teaching on my placement I received positive feedback from my tutor, mentor and other teachers, and my confidence started to grow. My mentor was head of the department. I considered her to be an experienced and effective teacher. She was supportive towards me and the learners, but I also found her at times rather officious and intimidating. Our mentoring relationship mainly revolved around the practicalities of my teaching - ensuring I had enough hours for example. On around three occasions she conducted lesson observations, followed by feedback meetings where we discussed my progress and she signed off the ITE competency statements, which was the main approach to assessing teaching qualifications at this time (Lucas, 2004). The mentoring relationship was supportive, but our contact was fairly limited, and I did not

have the opportunity to regularly discuss my concerns or progress with her. I developed a much closer connection with another staff member who was teaching the same groups and courses as I was. Initially I would talk through my lesson plans with her and then, as the year progressed and I developed more independence, the relationship became increasingly two-way and we would exchange resources and ideas. The positive feedback I received from lesson observations undertaken by my tutor and mentor boosted my confidence, and I felt a sense of achievement when another set of competencies were ticked off, but I also considered the continual voluntary professional and personal support offered by this other 'regular' member of staff as particularly beneficial to my development as a new teacher.

Around four years later, I was teaching computing lessons at an adult education centre that was a satellite site of a larger FE College. My manager asked me to mentor some new members of staff joining the team. I was delighted to be asked to be a mentor and looked forward to the opportunity of discussing teaching with other practitioners. Being a sessional worker in community education involved teaching classes in different locations and venues at various times, including evenings and weekends. I often felt like a lone-worker and I was no longer interacting with colleagues on a regular basis. However, my initial optimism for mentoring was followed by a feeling of disappointment when my mentees, some of whom had been teaching for a while, appeared rather less enthusiastic about discussing and developing their practice. When one of them said "I don't want to do anything differently" I was stumped. This was not what I have envisaged mentoring to be about.

The following year I began to mentor student teachers undertaking their PGCE or Certificate in Education (Cert. Ed.) in PCE. There was no training as such for mentors; we had one meeting but this was mainly to establish what paperwork needed to be completed. These student teachers seemed more enthusiastic than my previous mentees and were keen to experiment with different teaching and learning strategies. However, now I also had the additional responsibilities of observing lessons, giving feedback, and completing formative reports on mentees' progress. I felt awkward about making these assessments, particularly on occasions when the mentee became defensive in response to my comments. I was aware that I was basing my feedback on my own experiences of being observed, and although I realised at the time this may be a rather partial approach, I seemed to have no other sources of information to draw on.

Despite this uneasiness I thoroughly enjoyed mentoring, I had positive relationships with my mentees, I enjoyed watching their lessons and seeing their practice develop.

I later moved into a teacher educator role at the FE college and realised that mentees gave varying accounts of their mentoring experiences. I taught a part-time, in-service PGCE/Cert.Ed. programme which meant my students were already working as teachers and were undertaking this teaching qualification alongside their job. I was very concerned about their wellbeing and whether they were coping with the demands of the course and their employment as teachers, as when I spoke to them, they seemed to be experiencing a lot of stress, if not, distress. Through listening to them I became aware of some problems with regard to the mentoring in particular. Some mentors appeared elusive, as students were struggling even to arrange a first meeting. In addition, I also noticed a complete lack of communication between myself as a course tutor and the mentors. Students often told me mentors did not have the forms they needed or were unsure which paperwork needed completing. On one occasion a student teacher told me she felt she was being bullied by her mentor, who was also her line manager. I was frustrated and troubled by these accounts as they contrasted with my ideals and expectations of mentoring as a supportive and nurturing process.

By this time, I was studying a master's (MA) in education. I undertook a module on mentoring, where for the first time, I started to learn about theories and skills that mentors could draw upon. I then began to question how mentors who had not taken such a course were approaching their role. Whilst in the later stages of my MA, I was introduced to the concept of "*judgementoring*" (Hobson and Malderez, 2013) that emerged as a result of school-based studies and discovered that similar debates were taking place in research studies on mentoring in PCE. I realised that researching this concept and developmental mentoring in the sector where I had worked could form the basis of a PhD proposal and potentially might contribute towards addressing at least some of the problems I had experienced and witnessed.

1.6 Outline of chapters

The final section of this introduction provides an outline of the subsequent chapters of the thesis.

Chapter 2 – The Policy Context in England and Norway

This chapter explores the policy context of mentoring for student teachers in England and Norway. It offers socio-historical accounts of the education systems in each country and reviews existing national policies with regard to ITE and mentoring. More specifically it examines the spread of neo-liberalism in education and considers the potential impact of this on PCE ITE mentoring policies.

Chapter 3 – Literature Review

This chapter contains two related literature reviews. The first examines international research on mentoring for student teachers and explores how judgemental, developmental, and a third potential approach, transformational mentoring, are depicted. The second review then explores research on mentoring for student teachers in PCE ITE in England and Norway and discusses to what extent it is portrayed as a judgemental, developmental or transformational process.

Chapter 4 – Conceptual Framework

This chapter introduces the conceptual framework for the study. The framework has been constructed specifically for this research and draws on wider theoretical literature on mentoring. The framework explores the notions of judgemental mentoring, developmental mentoring, and transformational mentoring in greater depth by proposing six key elements which potentially align with each of these mentoring approaches.

Chapter 5 – Methodology

This chapter sets out the methodological framework for the study. It outlines the underlying ontological, epistemological, and theoretical perspectives and discusses methodological implications of conducting comparative research studies. The chapter also includes a detailed account of the research design and research methods that were employed. The data analysis process is described, and the trustworthiness of the study, the researcher's positionality and ethical considerations are also explored.

Chapter 6 – Characteristics of judgemental and developmental mentoring

This chapter presents thematic findings on the first and second research questions namely the extent to which the mentoring in participating pairs from England and Norway was considered judgemental or developmental and characteristics of these two

approaches. This chapter draws on data generated by all participating pairs and explores both commonalities and variations in the enactments and descriptions of the mentoring. It presents a series of mentoring moves, or techniques, associated with judgemental and developmental approaches, and one move associated with transformational mentoring. A comparison is also presented between moves most commonly adopted by pairs in England and Norway.

Chapter 7 – Portraits of mentoring pairs

This chapter presents three in-depth portraits of mentoring pairs and addresses all four research questions. The three portraits offer accounts of the mentoring as described by the mentor and the mentee and present findings from analysis of audio recordings of mentoring meetings. These accounts explore the characteristics of mentoring presented in the previous chapter. They also introduce factors which appear to have contributed to the approaches adopted by these pairs, and the consequences of the mentoring as described by the participants.

Chapter 8 – Factors contributing to, and consequences of, judgemental and developmental mentoring

The final findings chapter addresses the third and fourth research questions, explored in the previous chapter, in more detail. It presents a thematic analysis of findings on factors contributing to the use of moves associated with judgemental and developmental mentoring, and the consequences of these, by drawing on data generated by all the participating mentoring pairs. This chapter identifies a number of micro, or individual, level factors which were identified as contributing to the use of particular mentoring moves and it also explores participants' descriptions of both positive and negative consequences of the mentoring. A comparison between findings relating to English and Norwegian participants is also presented.

Chapter 9 – Discussion of Findings

This chapter examines the findings from this study in light of existing literature in the field. It outlines to what extent the research questions have been addressed and explores the implications of the findings presented in the preceding chapters. In addition, findings on enactments of mentoring in England and Norway are compared and discussed with regard to the national policy contexts, as outlined in Chapter 2. This

chapter highlights the original contributions made by this study and how it furthers existing debates on judgemental and developmental mentoring in PCE ITE. This chapter also revisits the conceptual framework presented in Chapter 4 and offers a refined version in response to the findings from this study.

Chapter 10 – Conclusion

This chapter recaps the key contributions of this study and then makes a series of recommendations, based on the findings, for policymakers, researchers and practitioners in the field of PCE ITE mentoring, and potentially more widely. It also proposes a new mentoring approach, which I call "personalised mentoring". This approach has been developed in response to the findings from this study and seeks to maximise development opportunities for mentees by tailoring the process to their individual learning and support needs.

Chapter Two: Policy Context

2.1 Introduction

The preceding chapter outlined key reasons for undertaking this study of mentoring in PCE ITE in England and Norway. This chapter now explores the policy contexts of mentoring for student teachers in both countries in more detail. The purposes of this chapter are three-fold. Firstly, it aims to generate further understanding of the nature of policies regarding PCE, ITE and mentoring in England and Norway. As will be explored further in the Methodology chapter, comparative education studies often emphasise the importance of appreciating the context in which the researched phenomenon is taking place (Bray and Gui, 2007, p. 320). Secondly, it has been argued that education systems are 'integrally linked' to the political, economic and social status in 'modern nation states' (Wiseman, 2010, p.1). Mentoring for student teachers then, does not take place in a neutral environment, rather it is being enacted in social, dynamic and politicised spaces. Hence, exploring the policy context of PCE ITE mentoring may help to understand how mentors and mentees in practice are experiencing it. Thirdly, as mentioned in the previous chapter, researchers in schools in England have made connections between the emergence of a judgemental version of mentoring and the government's subscription to a wider global education reform movement (GERM) which involves heightened levels of accountability for practitioners and more visible measurements of performance (Hobson 2016a). This chapter draws on this existing discussion by exploring whether there is evidence of GERM in PCE and ITE policies in England and Norway and how policies in each country depict the mentoring process.

A limitation of this chapter is that it relies on documents published in English. Key Norwegian policy documents were available in English, although overall the following many offer a less detailed and more partial account of policies in Norway compared to England. However, due to these concerns, relevant extracts of this chapter were shared with three education academics from Norway, all of whom stated that the descriptions

of education, ITE and mentoring policies presented here are, from their perspectives, accurate.

This chapter is divided into five main sections. The first section introduces details about the geography, economics, politics and education systems of England and Norway. The second section then outlines key features of the Global Education Reform Movement (GERM) and connections that existing research has made between this and the emergence of judgemental mentoring. The following three sections then examine the nature of each country's PCE sector via an examination of: broader socio-historic accounts of education and current policies; existing ITE policies; and mentoring policies. Towards the end of a chapter is a summary which highlights evidence of GERM in the policy contexts of mentoring in England and Norway.

2.2 An Introduction to England and Norway

In this section the contexts of England and Norway are introduced by outlining some key geographic, economic and political details. This discussion highlights some key similarities and differences in the settings of these two countries. These details contribute towards understanding each country's education system and policies which are examined in the following sections.

2.2.1 Geography

England and Norway are both situated in northern Europe. Despite their relative proximity, there are a number of geographic differences between the two countries. In terms of area, England is approximately one third the size of Norway. Yet the population is approximately ten times as large; there are around 55 million inhabitants in England (Office for National Statistics, 2016) and 5 million in Norway (Statistics Norway, 2017). This means that the population density is much higher in England at around 413 people per square kilometre (Office for National Statistics, 2016) compared to 14 people per square kilometre in Norway (World Bank, 2016). In England, populations are most dense in London, the South East, and other large cities throughout the country (Office for National Statistics, 2016). Norway, by contrast is 'sparsely populated', with 70 per cent of people living in a 'handful of urban communities' (March, 2006, p. 12).

2.2.2 Economics

Currently, England and Norway both have capitalist economies, based upon principles of private ownership, although the role of the welfare state in each country is contrasting. In England, there is a free-market, liberal approach to social welfare which is characterised by 'modest benefits' for 'low-income, usually working-class, state dependents' where 'entitlement rules are strict and often associated with stigma' (Esping-Andersen, 1990, p. 26); whereas Norway, typifies a social democratic policy which aims to promote 'equality of the highest standards' through providing a universal welfare system, and benefits and services corresponding to middle class living. (ibid. p. 27). The underlying values associated with these different approaches are discussed in the subsequent section.

The UK was ranked 27th in a recent list of the world's richest countries (International Monetary Fund, 2017). However, England does not share the same levels of monetary wealth as Norway, which is regularly ranked as being one of the richest countries in the world with one of the highest standards of living (World Bank, 2016; WorldAtlas, 2017; Social Progress Index, 2017). This level of prosperity is partly due to Norway being one of the largest global exporters of oil and gas. Not only is Norway one of the world's wealthiest countries, it is also described as one of the most equal (Garton Ash, 2010). High taxes, high public spending, and a comprehensive social programme (Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development [OECD], 2017), in addition to high levels of employment, strong unions, and a compressed wage structure (Sapir, 2016), means that Norway has a 'relatively narrow gap between its richest and poorest citizens' (Zachrisson and Dearing, 2014). The UK also has fairly high levels of employment but, in contrast, unions are weak, there is a 'comparatively wide and increasing wage dispersion and a relatively high incidence of low-pay employment' (Sapir, 2006, p. 375). Indeed, Oxfam (2016) reported that the UK 'was one of the most unequal countries in the developed world' with the richest one per cent of the population owning nearly 25 per cent of the country's wealth, whilst the poorest 20 per cent share just under one per cent (p. 1-2).

2.2.3 Politics

England and Norway are both democratic countries with constitutional monarchies. General elections are held every 4 - 5 years. Presently, England and Norway both have

minority Conservative Governments. In the UK, although there have been several Labour Governments, the Conservatives have been the dominant political party, since World War 2. Labour has traditionally been the largest Parliamentary party in Norway since its conception in 1927 (Wiborg, 2013, p.414). However, it is also the case in Norway that minority governments have become the 'norm' and that 'right-wing parties have assumed a greater role in politics since the 1980s onwards' (ibid.).

Political ideas from the New Right have been influential in UK politics since the 1970s, in particular the principles of neo-liberalism. These ideas 'had a wider, even worldwide, influence in bringing about a general shift from state- to market-orientated forms of organisation' (Heywood, 2002, p.49). Neo-liberalism can be defined in different ways; however, the 'central pillars are the market and the individual' (ibid.). The main goal is 'to "roll back the frontiers of the state", in the belief that unregulated market capitalism will deliver efficiency, growth and widespread prosperity' (ibid.). It has been argued that underlying these principles is a belief that there are:

> innate differences between individuals: for example, in terms of intelligence, motivation and moral character. People are seen, at root, as self-interested.
>
> (Simmons, 2010, p.369)

Hence, it is argued that neo-liberal politics assume that 'individuals […] function best […] when they are allowed to follow their private interests' (ibid.). Neo-liberalism has been influential in economic and social policies 'across much of the western world'; however, it is reported that 'the UK has adopted many of its precepts with particular vigour' (ibid.).

By contrast, in Norway, there has been a tradition of social democracy. This can be a nebulous term to define, but generally it is considered to:

> stand for a balance between the market and the state, a balance between the individual and the community. At the heart of social democracy there is a compromise between, on the one hand, an acceptance of capitalism as the only reliable mechanism for generating wealth, and, on the other, a desire to distribute wealth in accordance with moral, rather than market, principles.
>
> (Heywood, 2002, p. 57)

Social democracy is committed to promoting equality (Tansey and Jackson, 2008, p. 98) and is based on principles of 'welfarism, redistribution and social justice (Heywood, 2002, p.58).

It should be noted that these contrasting political traditions may not exist in pure forms in either country. There is literature, for example, which warns that accounts of English individualism have been exaggerated (Hulme et al., 2016) and in Norway, Ljunggren (2015) argues that despite their distinctive model of social democracy, there are still significant wealth inequalities. In addition, as highlighted Chapter 1 (section 1.2), recently there has been a reported shift towards neo-liberalism in Scandinavia and although Norway appeared able to resist such reforms, it is reported that there has been a move towards principles of 'freedom and competition within education' (Czerniawski, 2010, p. 16).

2.2.4 Education systems

This section briefly outlines the structure of education provision in England and Norway as outlined in table 1 below. The following highlights some key similarities and differences in both the compulsory and post-compulsory sectors in each country.

England		Norway	
Ages	**School**	**Ages**	**School**
5 – 11	Primary	6 – 13	Primary
11 – 16	Secondary	13 – 16	Lower Secondary
16 – 18	Sixth form/Further Education	16- 19	Upper Secondary

Table 1 - Education structures in England and Norway

In England, pupils usually start school during the academic year in which they turn five years old, whereas in Norway children begin a year later, aged six. In both countries compulsory education finishes at the end of the year in which a pupil turns 16 years old. In England, most pupils start secondary school aged 11, although there are a number of different types of school they could attend, including selective grammar schools, non-selective high schools, and comprehensive schools, which are either state-run schools, free schools or academies. There is not an even distribution of these types of schools however, so the choice available to parents and pupils will depend upon their location, the school's catchment area and the local authority's procedures for the application and allocation of places. In addition, there is a tradition of private education in England and over 7% of school aged pupils attend independent (fee-paying) schools (Independent

Schools Council, 2017). In Norway, there is less diversity of provision in compulsory education. Local municipalities fund and run this sector and have a 'great deal of freedom' in its organisation (UNESCO-UNEVOC, 2010). Due to the geographical dispersal of communities, class and school sizes can vary (OECD, 2008, p.87). Pupils transition from primary to lower secondary school aged 13. All pupils have a legal right to attend their local primary and lower secondary schools (Imsen et al., 2016, p. 7) and this often 'keeps students together' until the age of 16 (OECD, 2011, p.73). Just 3% of pupils in compulsory education attend private schools (Erstad et al., 2016, p. 234).

Having completed compulsory schooling, in England, it is a legislative requirement for young people to engage in education, training or work until they are aged 18 (DfE, 2017). In Norway, however, PCE is not a requirement, but rather a 'legislated social right' (Bäckman et al., 2015, p. 257) and as such is optional. As highlighted in the preceding chapter, the majority of learners transition from lower to upper secondary school aged 16, but it is also reported that in Norway, there are 'almost no jobs available for young adults who leave school after lower secondary … [so] upper secondary is practically unavoidable' (Allphin, 2017). As previously highlighted (in section 1.2) there are also high dropout rates from upper secondary schools, which is an area researchers and policymakers are seeking to address (Falch et al., 2010).

As with compulsory education, PCE in England is characterised by a diversity of provision whereas in Norway there is a more uniform approach. In England, PCE provision for learners aged 16 – 18 is split between school sixth forms, FE colleges, and sixth form colleges. In addition, to this provision are independent schools, which are attended by over 18 per cent of students in this age bracket (Independent Schools Council, 2017). Traditionally, there has been an academic/vocational divide with schools and sixth form colleges offering academic qualifications (A-Levels) and FE colleges providing vocational courses at a range of different levels. Each PCE institution has entry requirements, although these are often lower for FE courses. As such, FE colleges are often seen as a "second chance" for those who have struggled in mainstream schooling (Lloyd and Payne, 2012 p.3). Since 2014, if students have not achieved the minimum of a 'C' grade or equivalent in GCSE English and/or maths, and are accepted onto a full-time course, they are required to continue studying these subjects and to re-sit the exams (Association of Colleges, [AoC] 2017). The majority of FE and sixth form colleges are free-

standing corporations, which are encouraged to compete for students, in quasi-market conditions (Smith, 2007).

In Norway, there is one main type of PCE provider: upper secondary schools. These schools are funded by county authorities and, as with compulsory education, there is a 'high degree of freedom as regards how it is organised' (the Norwegian Agency for Quality Assurance in Education [NOKUT], 2017). Academic and vocational qualifications are usually offered within a single institution (Lloyd and Payne, 2012, p.3) and existing research suggests that in Norway there is 'greater, but not complete parity of esteem' between these two pathways (Stephens et al., 2004, p.112). When students enter upper secondary school this may be the first time they have attended a different school from their childhood peers and there is a greater sense of competition in this sector than in compulsory education. For example, students have 'free school choice (no school catchment area), but they … have to enrol in a school within their county of residence' (Falch et al., 2010, p.2). In addition, when students complete compulsory education, they are given grades by the teachers in 10 subjects on a scale from 1 (low) to 6 (high) and also sit central exit exams in maths, Norwegian or English (ibid.). The grades across the subjects and exams are used by upper secondary schools to rank applicants. When a course becomes over-subscribed only the students with the highest grades will be offered a place at that institution (ibid.). In Norway, around 11 per cent of students attend private upper secondary schools (Erstad, et al., 2016, p. 234). This section has introduced England and Norway through a number of key contextual details. The following section outlines the features of GERM before exploring whether it there is evidence of this movement in policies on PCE and ITE in both countries.

2.3 Global Education Reform Movement

There is some existing literature which suggests that global trends in education are leading to a process of homogenisation taking place across the teaching profession (e.g. Ball, 2017). The term GERM was coined to capture this sense of a growing convergence in education systems, curricula, resources and testing approaches across the world (Sahlberg, 2012). This section examines key characteristics of GERM before discussing its potential connection with the emergence of a judgemental mentoring approach for beginning teachers.

Sahlberg describes GERM as a disease:

It is like an epidemic that spreads and infects education systems through a virus. It travels with pundits, media and politicians. Education systems borrow policies from others and get infected.

(Sahlberg, 2012)

It is reported to have emerged in the 1980s and involves the application of neo-liberal principles in education; in particular a belief that 'market mechanisms are the best vehicles for whole system improvements' (Sahlberg, 2013). Countries considered to be 'infected' by GERM include England, the United States (US), Australia and Sweden (ibid.). These GERM 'infections' have several 'symptoms' (Sahlberg, 2012; 2013) which are summarised below.

1. Increase in competition between educational institutions

The first symptom involves a belief that when educational institutions compete with each other, then the quality of education increases. A culture of competition encourages educational institutions to establish their own, distinctive offer, which differentiates them from their competitors. In order to achieve this however, it is thought that educational institutions need increased levels of autonomy.

2. Increase in accountability

The second symptom stems from a possibly paradoxical belief that if educational organisations are to be autonomous, they must also be held accountable. It follows that if an educational organisation is to be accountable this involves finding ways for stakeholders and outsiders to judge their performance. Hence, this creates a demand for the following symptom.

3. Increase in visible measurements of performance

The third symptom, visible measurements of performance, are then introduced. These include the sharing of: inspection grades, learners' exam results and evaluations of teacher effectiveness. These measurements ostensibly enable stakeholders and outsiders to evaluate the effectiveness of an educational institution.

4. Increase in parental/learner choice

The fourth symptom is an increase in parental and/or learner choice. When competition and visible measurements of performance are present, parents and/or learners are placed in the position of consumers who can make 'informed' choices about educational

institutions. This choice may be increased further when there are different types of educational institutions available (e.g. private/public, faith/secular, and industry specific/generic).

5. Increase in high performance standards

The fifth symptom involves an increased focus on educational outcomes and a heightening of the standards of performance expected. It stems from:

> a generally unquestioned belief among policymakers and education reformers is that setting clear and sufficiently high-performance standards for schools, teachers, and students will necessarily improve the quality of expected outcomes

(Sahlberg, 2012)

6. Increase in focus on Literacy and Numeracy

A sixth symptom is an acceptance of international assessments of students' accomplishments in literacy, numeracy and sometimes science, which succeeds in positioning these as core subjects and key areas for improvement. This focus may be at the expense of other subjects such as art, music and physical education. In addition, curricula tend to be centrally prescribed with an emphasis on the core subjects, which could perhaps constrict the autonomy of educational institutions outlined in symptoms 1 and 2 above.

It could be argued that raising the standards, increasing the quality and enhancing the economic effectiveness of educational provision are not inherently harmful principles. However, it is the potential implications of such a movement for teachers and learners which are problematic. For example, an increase in visible measures of success can create an environment of performativity (Ball, 2017), characterised by an intense pressure to pass 'high stakes' assessments (Hobson, 2016a, p.97). As a consequence, a system of 'terror' can reign (Ball, 2017, p.57). In these circumstances, visible measures of success become increasingly important and focused upon. This can lead policymakers and educational institutions to become overly interested in aspects of teaching and learning which can be measured, thus neglecting other complex, but significant, factors which may influence levels of educational attainment such as learners' backgrounds, current levels of educational attainment, ethnicity and geographical location' (Huddleston and Unwin, 2013, p. 92).

As mentioned in Chapter 1, some researchers in England have argued that there has been an 'increasing intrusion of performative targets and outcomes' in the PCE sector, which has led to an increase in 'bureaucratic and technicist measures' to assess teachers' and learners' performance (Lawy and Tedder, 2012, p.315). Such depictions indicate the presence of GERM in this sector. In addition, researchers have linked this context to the emergence of judgemental mentoring which requires mentors to assess and make judgements about the mentee's competence (Lawy and Tedder, 2012, Cullimore and Simmons, 2008, 2010; Ingleby, 2011). It has also been reported that neo-liberal trends may have reached Norway. Given that mentors in Norway are also required to make assessments of their mentees, potentially, a similar movement to that identified in England could be taking place.

There are different perspectives on theories of global trends in education, such as GERM. On the one hand, some literature emphasises the influence, reach and normative nature of such trends and provides examples of how international institutions (for example the World Bank and the OECD) act as catalysts for convergence in education policy (e.g. Ball, 2017). On the other hand, some literature highlights that individual countries, organisations, and practitioners mediate and interpret wider trends in education differently and that there may be less homogenisation than is sometimes indicated (Czerniawski, 2010). This study aims to contribute to this debate by exploring the relationship between policies around PCE, ITE and mentoring and enactments of mentoring in practice.

2.4 Socio-historical contexts of education

The following discussion identifies broad political movements and developments in the education systems of England and Norway since World War 2. Rudd and Goodson (2016) propose that:

> Undertaking research and exploring education in relation to a historically situated "longer view" is far more likely to provide deeper and contextualised insights into the nature and trajectory of change

> (Rudd and Goodson, 2016, p. 102)

The purpose of including these socio-historical accounts then is to generate further understanding about the context of recent changes in ITE and mentoring policies (discussed in the subsequent sections) with particular regards to the influence of neo

liberalism and GERM. This section begins with an account of education in England, followed by Norway. In both sections recent PCE policies are also discussed in light of these socio-historic contexts.

2.4.1 England

This discussion draws on the work of Ball (2013) and Rudd and Goodson (2016) who both identify particular policy periods that have occurred from 1944 onwards. These periods may not be as clearly defined as the following account indicates, however, they do provide a useful point of comparison for the subsequent discussion of education in Norway. Ball (2017) identifies three policy periods which are presented in table 2 below:

Dates	Policy period
1944 – 1976	Welfare state
1976 – 1997	Neo-liberal state
1997 – 2013	Managerial or competition state

Table 2 - An adaption of Ball's (2013) 'Shifts, ruptures and the state'

Rudd and Goodson (2016) outline four historical periods over a similar timescale and also identify corresponding policy narratives. These are displayed in table 3 below:

Dates	Policy narrative	Policy discourse
1945 – 1979	Progressive narrative on welfare state expansion	Rapid Welfare State expansion
1979 – 1997	Marketisation narrative	The neo-liberal breakthrough
1997- 2007	Narrative of 'third way' politics	'New' third way politics
2007 - ?	The reconstituted neo-liberal period?	Discourse of austerity

Table 3 - Historical periods and key policy discourse in the UK

Tables 2 and 3 illustrate there are some commonalities in the way these authors have categorised and analysed developments in state politics since World War 2, namely a period of the welfare state, followed by neo-liberalism, and its aftermath. The following sections draw on these frameworks to analyse some key changes in education and PCE in England during these times.

During the post-war period the government were committed to establishing a welfare state. Part of this agenda involved implementing the Education Act 1944 which

established free, compulsory education for pupils until the age of 15, and the provision of FE for those post-school leaving age. One of the stated aims of this reform was to 'remove the inequalities which remained in the system' (Parliament.uk, 2017). As a result of this Act, compulsory education consisted of three types of schools: grammar, secondary modern and technical. Some education researchers have suggested that rather than removing inequalities, this approach involved 'different types of schools for different "types" of student with different "types" of mind, [and] was clearly modelled on a class-divided vision of education' (Ball, 2013, p. 74) that would serve to perpetuate rather than redress these divisions.

Between the 1950s and 1970s there were initiatives to move away from this tripartite system and establish comprehensive schools, however, this restructuring was 'local and patchy' and the reform was 'slow … piecemeal and incoherent' (Ball, 2013, p.75). The 1970s marked a time of significant political, economic and social change. There was a period of financial crisis and the 'welfare capitalist consensus which had held sway since the end of the Second World War finally began to recoil' (Forrester and Garrat, 2016, p.112). It was during this period that state-run education was criticised for failing to provide a skilled workforce and links between national economic prosperity and the education system were forged: 'Both formal schooling and contemporary post-compulsory education became a prior condition in the move to serve the needs of the economy and new global order' (ibid.).

The next political phase from the late 1970s – 1990s, marked the beginning of neo-liberal influences on education. The quasi-market conditions introduced during this period paved the way for the 1992 Higher and Further Education Act, which initiated substantial changes to the nature of PCE in England. Up until then, FE colleges and sixth forms were under the control of Local Education Authorities (LEAs), however this Act established them as the corporations they are today. The government's aim for this reform was to stimulate competition, thus increasing efficiency and driving up quality (Hodgson and Spours, 2006). This reform involved a major change to the way PCE was funded. Before the 1992 Act, PCE institutions received an annual grant from LEAs in line with the predicted number of student enrolments. However, this changed to an 'output funding model' predicated on not only enrolment figures, but also time spent teaching/learning and the number of course completions: 'the rationale was simple: the more [course] 'units' a provider could deliver, the higher the funding allocation'

(Panchamia, 2012, p. 1). It also created a dual impetus for PCE institutions to both compete for learners and 'maximise both student retention and achievement' (ibid.). Despite numerous alterations to the funding arrangements in FE, the overall output model and the associated high-performance targets for enrolment and attainment continue today.

The election of New Labour in 1997 marked another new era in politics, described as the period of the managerial or competition state (Ball, 2017) and the new 'third way' (Rudd and Goodson, 2016). During this time the purpose of education continued to be described in economics terms, but it was also prescribed a social justice agenda in rhetoric at least (Avis, 2011). Policymakers identified FE in particular as central to widening participation in education and improving the country's economic effectiveness (Orr and Simmons, 2010). This government aimed to raise standards in education and in PCE specifically. They approached this by increasing regulations in the sector, which included introducing Ofsted inspections (which had already been established in the schools sector) and legislation for mandatory teaching qualifications. In addition, teachers in PCE were required to undertake and a record a minimum number of Continuing Professional Development (CPD) activities and join a professional body: the Institute for Learning (IfL). There was also an expansion (followed by a reduction) in quasi-autonomous non-governmental organizations (quangos) involved in the sector (Hodgson and Spours, 2006). Whilst public spending on education, and PCE in particular, grew during this time (Chowdry and Sibieta, 2011), the sector was also subject to a certain amount of 'policy churn' and it is described as a 'complex and unstable period' (Panchamia, 2012, p. 1).

The most recent policy phase is described by Rudd and Goodson (2016) as a period of 'reconstituted neoliberalism', which consists of 'clear attempts to restore and enhance prior marketisation and privatisation strategies into an intelligible whole' (p.1). In the PCE sector, this period has been characterised by a shift towards greater autonomy, whilst retaining a system of central controls. For example, the Coalition Government revoked legislation requiring PCE teachers to be qualified and the associated regulations regarding CPD and membership of the IfL. As a result individual PCE institutions have greater autonomy regarding the professional development of their workforce (Hobson et al., 2015, p.7). Yet, there are still a number of central regulatory measures for FE including: a new set of National Teaching Standards (ETF, 2014b), graded Ofsted

inspections, government directives on recommended teaching qualifications, and the state's power to intervene earlier if an organisation is deemed to be failing (Business, Innovation and Skills, 2013). In addition, and aligned with a discourse of austerity (Rudd and Goodson, 2016), there have been substantial funding cuts to learning provision in the sector. Also, in 2017, as a result of government 'area reviews' of PCE provision, a record number of college mergers took place (AoC, 2018). Although the decision to merge is undertaken by the institution's governing body, it is reported that:

> there have often been cases where government departments or funding agencies have pushed a particular college to merge – generally in cases where its finances are weak or its quality has been judged poor.
>
> (AoC, 2016, p. 2)

A final characteristic of this period is a renewed commitment to the importance of a distinct 'technical education' route, with a view to enhancing the skills of the country's future workforce (DfE, 2018). This is evident from the Coalition Government's rejection of an integrated diploma (combining academic and vocational subjects) and a proposal for new T-levels (technical qualifications underpinned by occupational standards) (ibid.).

2.4.2 Norway

Telhaug et al. (2006) also identify particular policy periods that have occurred in Norway since World War 2, which are presented in table 4 below. In this section, I draw on these categories to examine developments in education policy in Norway. This discussion reveals some similarities and differences with the account of England presented above, particularly in relation to the influence of neo-liberalism on the education sector.

Dates	Phase
1945- 1970	The First Phase: The golden years of social democracy
1970 – 1980/85	The Intermediate Phase: The radical left of the 1970s
1985 onwards	The Final Phase: The era of globalisation and neo-liberalism

Table 4 - Telhaug et al. (2006) The Development of the Nordic School Model

Similarly to England, and other European countries, the post-war phase in Norway consisted of a commitment to the welfare state; although the public sector in this period is described as having a distinct role in Norwegian society. It was perceived as:

> a tool of pursuing social equality through producing services itself, and thereby freeing citizens from market dependence. This naturally required services provided by the public sector to be

of such high quality that no demand for alternative, market-provided services was created among higher income groups.

(Wiborg, 2013, p.410)

At this time, the Nordic model of education was implemented and a commitment to an inclusive education system was further developed. This consisted of 'a public, comprehensive school for all children with no streaming from the age of seven to sixteen years' (Imsen et al., 2016, p. 1). Schools were also involved in the bid to achieve social goals and the values of this education system were: 'social justice, equity, equal opportunities, inclusion, nation building, and democratic participation for all students, regardless of social and cultural background and abilities' (ibid. p.1). This appears a rather more inclusive approach than the more divisive, tripartite systems established in England at this time.

The next policy phase identified by Telhaug et al. (2006) is the radical left of the 1970s. As more right-wing policies began to dominate in England and links between education and the economy were drawn, in Norway this was a time when 'increasing importance was attached to pupils' individual emancipation' as part of a wider neo-Marxist agenda (Telhaug et al., 2006, p. 245; Imsen et al., 2016, p. 2). Several changes took place including: extending the comprehensive model of un-streamed, mixed ability classes to upper secondary education, and a 'more explicit attempt than ever before to implement progressive, pupil-centred and activity orientated teaching methods (Telhaug et al., 2006, p. 259). In addition, any existing emphasis on grading and examinations were reduced and there were attempts to make the curriculum 'more diffuse' and more 'yielding to a subject...based on ... pupils' experience' thus reducing the role of schools as 'disseminators of the national culture' (Telhaug et al., 2006, p. 259). There was also less state control and 'individual schools were able to operate as their own centres for educational policy and practice (ibid. p. 260). In which case, it seems likely there may have been variance in the degree to which individual schools implemented the trends and initiatives described here.

In the 1990s there were changes in Norway similar to the reforms in England during the 1970s and 1980s. An economic crisis in the late 1980s and early 1990s posed a substantial threat to the role of the welfare state in Norway (Imsen et al., 2016, p. 6). In 1997 reforms were introduced aimed at redressing social difference. These included

lowering the school start age, which up until then had been seven years old, to six years old, and establishing an entitlement for 16 – 19 year olds to access PCE (ibid.). However, alongside these reforms were evolving concerns about the costs involved in education and, similarly to England in the 1970s, there was a focus on the perceived inefficiencies of the public sector (ibid.). This led to the government turning towards 'societal models borrowed from the business sector (ibid.). Key concepts were: deregulation, management by objectives, privatization, and competition' (Imsen et al., 2016, p. 6; Telhaug et al., 2006). Within these reforms was a move from state-driven imperatives towards individual school autonomy and an increasing emphasis on parents and pupils as consumers (Stray and Eikeland Voreland, 2017). Although these principles were established in the education sector during the 1990s, they only had a minor impact until the turn of the millennium (Imsen et al., 2016, p. 6).

Telhaug et al. (2006) identify the final policy period as an era of globalisation and neo-liberalism. Although there were moves in this direction during the 1990s, 'the international influence' on Norwegian education becomes more visible after the year 2000 (Stray and Eikeland Voreland, 2017, p. 95). This can, in part, be attributed to the outcomes of the first Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) tests which took place in 2001. There was surprise and alarm amongst Norwegian policy makers and educators that their country's results were ranked average (Imsen et al., 2016, p. 6). This event is still described in Norway as the 'PISA shock' (Tveit, 2012) and the period that followed, the 'PISA decade' (Stray and Eikeland Voreland, 2017 p. 96). The absence of a national assessment system at this time may have resulted in Norwegian policymakers being more open to, and perhaps more influenced by, what PISA could offer than their counterparts in other countries with a more established tradition of testing and visible comparisons, such as England (Hopfenbeck and Georgen, 2017, p. 201). The disappointing result, and the national media's focus upon it, provided policymakers with legitimacy for subsequent educational reforms (Imsen et al., 2016, p. 6).

There have been a number of policy developments from 2004 onwards with a view to establishing a national quality assurance system and improving the standards of education (Hovdhaugen et al., 2017, p. 95). This includes the introduction of national tests focussed on numeracy, literacy and English skills for pupils aged 10 and 13 (ibid.); the outcomes for the latter age group are published online. Schools have been granted

greater autonomy, but are also subject to a system of enhanced accountability (Imsen, et al., 2016, p. 7). Although there is not an inspectorate body equivalent to Ofsted in Norway, most local authorities monitor the performance of schools through visible measures such as exam results (ibid.). Parents and pupils are now entitled to 'free school choice', although children still have a legal right to attend their local school (ibid). In addition, an Education Act passed in 2003 made it easier for private schools to be established, hence increasing the range of provision available to students further (Erstad et al., 2016, p. 234). Since then the number of pupils in this sector has increased by more than 25 per cent (ibid.).

There appears to have been a shift in the way that the purpose of education, and PCE in particular, has been depicted in policy. In 1997 the purpose of upper secondary schools was described as follows:

> to develop the skills, understanding and responsibility that prepare pupils for life at work and in society, to provide a foundation for further education, and to assist them in their personal development. … Upper secondary education shall promote human equality and equal rights, intellectual freedom and tolerance, ecological understanding and international co-responsibility.
>
> (Norwegian Board of Education, 1997, cited in OCED, 2004, p.37)

Whilst there is mention of preparing for employment, emphasis is also placed on values, heritage and promoting equality. Today, there continues to be a commitment to upholding a curriculum which prioritises 'democracy and citizenship, sustainable development, and public health and wellbeing' (Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research, 2016), but policymakers also identify:

> a gap between needs of the labour market and the educational choices made by young people. Upper secondary education programmes largely reflect the wishes of the pupils rather than any needs for expertise in the labour market.
>
> (Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research, 2017)

As such, in both England and Norway, there appears to have been a shift in emphasis in education policy from the learner to the economy (Czerniawski, 2010, p. 15).

2.5 ITE Policy

This section presents details about ITE policies in England and Norway. In the following section, policies around mentoring for student teachers are then discussed.

2.5.1 England

Similarly to the PCE sector as a whole in England, the landscape of ITE qualifications in the sector is complex and diverse (ETF, 2017, p. 7). There are currently around 25 different teaching qualifications in the PCE sector which range from short introductory courses to subject specialist diplomas (ETF, 2017, p.45). Market forces and competition are present here too as there are a number of types of PCE ITE providers including private companies, adult community learning centres, universities and FE colleges. The two main qualifications are the Cert. Ed. for those who do not hold a degree and the PGCE for those who do. These are usually accredited by a university. In contrast to the schools sector, the majority of new entrants in PCE undertake an ITE course on a part-time, in-service basis alongside paid teaching work and around one third of student teachers enrol on a pre-service, full-time route (ibid.).

Since the deregulation of teaching qualifications, there has been a dip in the ITE market with an overall decline in the number of PCE ITE providers from approximately 829 in 2015 to 664 in 2017 (ETF, 2017, p. 4). However, the number of universities, which accredit at least 100 PCE student teachers a year, remains about the same (there were 12 in 2012 and 13 in 2015) (ibid.). Whilst teaching qualifications are no longer a legal requirement, a system of accountability still exists for PCE institutions and ITE provision chiefly through Ofsted inspections. Recent reports state that universities are offering a 'good' standard of ITE provision. In 2016 all universities that were inspected achieved a grade 1 (outstanding) or grade 2 (good) (ibid. p. 17).[2]

Despite this accountability mechanism, PCE ITE providers have high levels of autonomy. There is no national curriculum for ITE programmes, for example. Instead accrediting universities devise their own syllabus which is likely to be informed by national teaching standards, Ofsted expectations, and existing literature and practices. The first national teaching standards for PCE in England were established during the period of increased regulation under the New Labour Government. These were published by Further Education National Training Organisation (FENTO) in 1999. Since then there have been various iterations of professional standards for PCE teachers, some of which were criticised by researchers and practitioners for being overly lengthy, prescriptive and

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[2] When conducting inspections, Ofsted employ a four point grading system: grade 1- outstanding; grade 2- good; grade 3 – requires improvement; grade 4 – inadequate.

competency-based (Lawy and Tedder, 2012). In 2014, a new set of Teaching Standards for the sector was introduced by the Education Training Foundation, an organisation formed by the government to 'promote excellence and quality' in the sector (ETF, 2014a). The current standards indicate a move away from the prescriptive approach as they are described as a 'set of professional aspirations, not a list of competencies' (ETF, 2014b, p.3). Underpinning the standards is a premise that:

> Teachers and trainers are reflective and enquiring practitioners who think critically about their own educational assumptions, values and practice in the context of a changing contemporary and educational world. They draw on relevant research as part of evidence-based practice.

(ETF, 2014b)

Currently, the government offers some bursaries to PGCE students in PCE, aligned with a similar system for the schools sector. The stated purpose of the bursaries is to 'attract and retain new high quality graduates' to become teachers (Department for Education [DfE], 2016, p. 4). These are only available for student teachers specialising in English and maths. The amount received depends on their undergraduate degree classification. A first class or 2:1 degree in maths yields a bursary of £25000 whereas a student teacher with a 2:1 in English would receive £15000 (FE Advice, 2018). Despite this funding model being adopted in the schools and PCE sectors, there is currently little evidence of the impact of such incentives on student teachers' success on the PGCE (Warburton, 2014) or subsequent lasting employment as a teacher.

2.5.2 Norway

ITE has been a 'major concern' amongst policymakers in Norway for a number of years (Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research, 2017, p. 16). It is reported that no other area in Higher Education has been subject to the same level of debate by Parliament and the media (ibid.). ITE has also been subject to 'frequent reforms' over the past two decades (ibid.). Teacher education in Norway is also highly regulated (Hammerness, 2013, p.405). Unlike the PCE sector in England, legislation requires all teachers in upper secondary schools to hold a teaching qualification.

In Norway there are two main routes for entering upper secondary school teaching, both of which take place through universities. One route consists of a one-year, postgraduate teaching qualification called Praktisk-pedagogisk utdanning (PPU), which is similar to the

PGCE in England. The other route is a five–year integrated master's level course, which consists of a three-year undergraduate degree, followed by a 12-month ITE course, and then in the final year, a master's qualification usually in the subject of their degree. On this programme the teaching practice year is currently separate from the student's main degree and masters course (Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research, 2017, p. 34) and so in this respect it adopts a similar position to PPU and the PGCE course in England. However, unlike PGCE students in England, who can opt to undertake a teaching qualification solely in PCE, in Norway, student teachers undertake teaching placements at both upper and lower secondary schools.

Traditionally in Norway teacher preparation has been theory-based and has been described as concerning with 'the cultivation of public duty, construed as moral and pedagogical stewardship' (Stephens et al., 2004, p.110). This has been contrasted with the English approach of providing 'training' in the 'practical skills' of teaching (ibid.); although these descriptions may be at risk of exaggerating this contrast. Indeed, recent reforms indicate that there has been a shift towards a more practice-based approach to Norwegian ITE, however, it is still described as being distinct from the heavily work-based programmes in England (Smith and Ulvik, 2014, p.262). On the five-year integrated master's programme, 100 days of teaching practice is mandatory over the course, which is equivalent to four months at a full-time placement (Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research, 2017, p. 35); although, 'exactly how many consecutive days and at what intervals [the placements occur] is up to the individual provider' (ibid.). The amount of time to be spent on placement has been a topic of debate amongst policymakers and has provoked criticism from teaching and student unions for being insufficient (ibid).

The majority of ITE programmes in Norway are nationally regulated. Centrally-devised documents contain models named 'Framework Plans' which ITE providers follow (Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research, 2017, p. 10). In Norway there is not a list of teaching standards equivalent to that in England. Instead there are learning outcomes which form part of these national Framework Plans. The learning outcomes are described as being 'general' and as such 'it is up to the ITE institutions to implement the regulations and, hence, to interpret the learning outcome descriptions and fill them with content for their own students' (ibid). Universities may create their own sets of standards or competences, but there is reported to be variance in whether and how this

is undertaken (ibid). In addition, in Norway, ITE courses are not inspected by a national body (such as Ofsted in England). The latest policy plans include a bid to develop the autonomy of ITE providers further so there is 'less need for government thorough detailed regulations and orders by the Ministry' (ibid. p. 8).

The Norwegian government's commitment to improving the country's standards of education (in Literacy and Numeracy in particular) are also evident in their recent ITE policy initiatives. New entrants to ITE are now required to have a higher grade in maths than previously stipulated and teachers of maths, Norwegian and English must have a minimum number of credits in their respective subjects (Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research, 2016).

2.6 Mentoring Policies

2.6.1 England

Mentoring for student teachers in PCE became more formalised during the first decade after the millennium when there was an increase in regulations in the sector (as described above in section 2.4.1). When Ofsted inspected PCE ITE provision in 2003 they found that it was not providing a satisfactory foundation for student teachers' professional development (p.1). The lack of systematic and effective mentoring arrangements was described as 'a major weakness' (Ofsted, 2003, p. 18). The following year the government set out a number of teaching reforms aimed at addressing the failings identified by Ofsted. These were published in a policy document, *Equipping our teachers for the future* (Department of Education, 2004). The report describes mentoring for student teachers as important in three main ways: offering subject specific support (p.4 and p.8), supporting learning through observing lessons (p.8) and contributing to the assessment of student teachers through written mentor reports (p. 9). Annual Ofsted reports of PCE ITE published between 2004 – 2009 highlight that mentoring became more widespread during this period. By 2009 they reported that nearly all student teachers had mentor support from a specialist in their area (Ofsted, 2009). As mentioned in Chapter 1, Cullimore and Simmons' (2010) analysis of these reports suggest that the role of a mentor, as described by Ofsted, became increasingly centred on them setting targets and making judgements about student teachers' progress (p. 229-30). The reports make particular reference to mentors grading student teachers' lessons and highlight that mentors' skills in this process varied, especially their

understanding of the boundaries between pass and fail (ibid.). As will be discussed further in the following chapter, it is in this context that researchers identified a judgemental mentoring approach emerging, with a focus on mentors assessing the mentee's performance, which they contrasted with an earlier developmental and supportive approach (Tedder and Lawy, 2009; Cullimore and Simmons, 2010; Ingleby and Tummons, 2012; Ingleby, 2014).

Since the election of the Coalition Government in 2010, and the deregulation of teaching in the sector, Ofsted have ceased to publish annual reports. Indeed, other than in the 'Ofsted Inspection Handbook', there are few mentions of PCE ITE or mentoring in government policy documents or directives. The current Inspection Handbook indicates that student teachers should have 'experienced and expert mentors' who respond to their 'specific training needs' (Ofsted, 2015, p. 39). In addition, it states that mentoring should be 'subject and phase specific', 'improve teaching skills' and 'model good practice in teaching' (ibid.). It indicates that mentors should conduct lesson observations and give feedback to student teachers, but in contrast to earlier Ofsted documents, the current Inspection Handbook does not mention whether mentors are expected to grade lessons they observe. Indeed, in another document published for the PCE sector, entitled 'Ofsted inspection myths', it states that inspectors do not 'expect all teachers to be observed and graded by their colleges … [and that] it's entirely up to college leaders what mechanisms they use to improve the quality of teaching' (Ofsted, 2017).

2.6.2 Norway

The Norwegian government are keen to raise the quality of mentoring for both student teachers and newly qualified teachers. Over recent years they have invested in university-based, accredited mentor education programmes and introduced national frameworks for these qualifications (Lejonberg et al., 2015, p.145 and p.147). Mentor education for those supporting student teachers has existed in Norway for a number of years although mainly on a fairly small scale (Smith and Ulvik, 2013). There have been recent attempts to raise the profile of mentoring in schools by establishing 'practice schools' (ibid.). A practice school has been described in literature as providing student teachers with access to 'whole schools as an arena for their training and learning, where teacher teams have taken on the responsibility to serve as mentors…to promote a reflective stance on teaching' (Nilssen, 2016, p.2). One of the criteria, in order to be

accredited as a practice school, is that mentors are qualified by having undertaken an accredited mentor education course (Smith and Ulvik, 2013). Schools are responsible for ensuring they have qualified mentors and enabling teachers to attend the mentor education course (ibid). The increased emphasis on mentor support in schools reflects a shift in ITE approach for student teachers to spend more time at practice placements (ibid.). Although government rhetoric in Norway, 'repeatedly' emphasises the importance of mentoring, researchers suggest that there is insufficient detail on what it means to be a mentor and the roles involved (Smith and Ulvik, 2013).

2.7 Evidence of GERM in England and Norway

This section highlights evidence of GERM symptoms identified in PCE, ITE and mentoring policies in England and Norway. In English PCE policy there appears to be a number of indications of GERM symptoms. For example, the sector is characterised by **competition and learner choice between institutions**, ostensible **autonomy** and **systems of accountability**, **high performance standards**, and a focus on ensuring all learners attain GCSEs in **core subjects**. In addition, in PCE ITE policies in England there is also some evidence of GERM, including potential **competition** between varying providers, **visible measure of performance** through Ofsted inspections and a focus on recruiting teachers of **core subjects** via financial incentives. With regard to PCE ITE mentoring policies in England, there also appeared to be some indications of GERM symptoms in earlier publications. For instance, Ofsted reports suggested mentors needed to be involved in accurately **measuring the performance standards** of mentees' teaching. However, current inspection guidelines do not stipulate that mentors should be involved in the assessment of mentees' practice.

In Norway, whilst some symptoms of GERM such as **accountability** and **visible measures of performance** seem to have emerged in the wider education sector, and perhaps to some degree in the PCE sector, given **learner choice** and an element of **competition** for places, overall these seem less pronounced and pervasive than in England. In addition, there are few suggestions of GERM having infiltrated ITE policies. In Norway, there is an even greater lack of detail in policy on the mentor's role than in England. Policymakers in this country have emphasised the importance of mentoring and mentor education appears more formalised and potentially widespread than in England. However, guidance on the ways mentoring should be enacted are not provided, hence the extent

to which policymakers envisage mentors as being involved in assessing or evaluating mentees' practice is not clear.

2.8 Conclusion

The aim of this chapter was to generate further understanding about the policy context in which mentoring for student teachers in the PCE sector is taking place. It did this by introducing some key details about the geography, economics and politics of each country, before then introducing the concept of GERM – which some researchers have associated with the emergence of a judgemental mentoring approach whereby mentors are involved in formally assessing mentees' practice. The socio-historical contexts of England and Norway were then explored in addition to current policies on PCE, ITE and mentoring. These discussions showed that symptoms of GERM were more prevalent in England than Norway, but that in both countries current policies regarding mentoring, did not specify whether mentors should be involved in the assessment or evaluation of mentees' teaching practice. The following two chapters aim to provide further understanding about the nature of judgemental and developmental mentoring and factors which may lead to these approaches being enacted. Chapter 9 then explores the relationship between the policy context of PCE ITE mentoring in England and Norway and how it was found to be enacted by participants in this study.

Chapter Three: Literature Review

3.1 Introduction

The preceding chapter explored policies on PCE, ITE and mentoring in England and Norway. This chapter aims to build up a more detailed picture of how mentoring may be occurring in these contexts by presenting two separate, but related literature reviews. The first aims to generate further understanding about the notions of judgemental and developmental mentoring by examining international research on mentoring approaches adopted in ITE. It was mentioned in Chapter 1 that this review also highlighted a third potential approach, transformational mentoring, which is also explored. The second review then aims to provide further insights into mentoring approaches in the contexts of PCE ITE in England and Norway more specifically, by examining existing research in this field and considering to what extent mentoring is depicted as a judgemental, developmental or transformational process. A limitation of these two reviews is that, similarly to the previous chapter, they only draw on research literature published in English. As such, there may be an unfavourable bias towards research that has taken place in English speaking countries and insights into mentoring enactments in Norway may be more limited than in England. Before proceeding, an introduction to the emergence of mentoring in ITE is offered which provides contextual information relevant to both literature reviews.

3.2 Emergence of mentoring in ITE

As highlighted in Chapter 1, there has been a proliferation of mentoring across different sectors since the 1980s. Indeed, in the field of ITE the use of mentoring for beginning teachers has grown during this period; yet, the exact reasons for its proliferation in this context remain unclear. Wang and Odell (2002) identify a number of potential reasons for the emergence of mentoring in ITE: to lower attrition rates, to facilitate a new teacher's socialisation into the teaching community, to offer substantial school-based support and to reform teaching practices (p.491). Hobson and Malderez (2013) argue that where policymakers prompted the expansion of mentoring for beginning teachers

(such as in the UK and US), there may have been 'managerial imperatives' behind this policy initiative (p.92). It is argued that policymakers in these contexts, appear to view mentoring for beginning teachers 'as a potential mechanism for quality control' and ensuring that 'new entrants to teaching' met standards for the profession (ibid., p. 93). In the UK for example, mentoring became a common feature of ITE for the compulsory education sector during the late 1980s and early 1990s. As detailed in the previous chapter, this period is associated with the beginning of GERM more widely in this country. Around 10 years later, mentoring for PCE student teachers in England became more formalised. This also occurred at a time of increasing regulation in the sector. It is possible then that the emergence of mentoring in ITE could be associated with the spread of performativity and managerialism in education. The origins and intended roles for mentors of student teachers in Norway is less clear. Hobson and Malderez (2013) highlight that unlike in the UK, mentors in 'most Nordic countries' do not have a 'gatekeeper' role (p.92). However, Lejonberg et al. (2015) stated that mentors in Norway do formally assess beginning teachers. Hence, it is possible, but not certain, that mentoring in this country may also be associated with a mechanism of quality control. If this is the case, it may have implications for how the mentoring is perceived and enacted.

The following two literature reviews explore the issues raised here in further depth. The first review examines research on judgemental, developmental and transformational mentoring in a range of ITE contexts. The second review explores research on the nature of ITE mentoring in England and Norway, with a focus on the PCE sector, and discusses if it appears to be portrayed in predominantly judgemental, developmental or transformational terms.

3.3 Literature review 1

The first literature review sought to address an overall question: what is known about judgemental and developmental mentoring approaches in the context of ITE? In order to address this, three sub-questions were explored, which are broadly aligned with the research questions for the study presented in Chapter 1 (section 1.3): what is the nature of judgemental and developmental mentoring approaches in ITE?; what factors contribute to the use of these approaches?; and what are the consequences of these approaches? The search was conducted by searching the University of Brighton's online

library catalogue and Google Scholar using key terms such as 'mentoring', 'student teachers', and 'trainee teachers'. Articles that depicted particular mentoring approaches identified in ITE and which had been published in English during the last 10 years were included, with the exception of one seminal study by Feiman-Nemser (2001) which predates this time period.[3] In order to maximise insights into mentoring approaches in ITE, this review draws on studies of both student teachers and newly qualified teachers.

3.3.1 Mentoring approaches in ITE

As a result of the literature search described above, 16 specific mentoring approaches for beginning teachers depicted in research articles during the past decade were identified. Each of the identified approaches were considered to broadly align with descriptions of judgemental or developmental mentoring as discussed in Chapter 1 (section 1.2.2) or the notion of transformational mentoring (as discussed further in section 3.3.4 below). In some of these articles, the authors have adapted an existing theory from a related context to depict a specific mentoring approach (e.g. Salm and Mullholland 2015). In other cases, researchers draw upon empirical findings and construct their own depictions of a mentoring approach (e.g. Kemmis et al., 2014; Lejonberg and Tiplic, 2016; Hobson, 2016a). The 16 approaches were categorised into three groups: judgemental, developmental and transformational mentoring. These are presented in table 5 below and are discussed in the sections that follow.

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[3] At the time of writing this chapter, in the year 2017. The reason for this approach was to ensure a focus on relatively recent studies of ITE mentoring that offered insights into contemporary mentoring enactments

Categories	Mentoring approaches depicted in ITE research	Author/date	Context of research study
Judgemental	*'Judgementoring'*	Hobson and Malderez (2013)	Beginning teachers in primary and secondary schools in England
	Mentoring for supervision	Kemmis et al., (2014)	Newly qualified teachers in New South Wales, Australia
	Judgemental mentoring	Tedder and Lawy, (2009)	Analysis of national policy documents for ITE PCE mentoring in England.
Developmental	Adaptive Mentorship	Salm and Mullholland (2015)	Student teachers in Canada
	Mentoring for support	Kemmis et al., (2014)	Newly qualified teachers in Sweden
	Humanistic mentoring	Wang and Odell, (2007)	Theoretical perspective of mentoring for student teachers based on existing literature
	Situated Apprentice	Wang and Odell, (2007)	Theoretical perspective of mentoring for student teachers based on existing literature
	'Clear' mentoring	Lejonberg and Tiplic, (2016)	Newly qualified teachers in Norway
	ONSIDE mentoring	Hobson, (2016a)	A thematic review of international research on mentoring for beginning teachers
	Climbing the Mountain	Tillema, et al., (2015)	Based on a study of 12 mentoring dyads in the Netherlands
	Educative mentoring	Feiman-Nemser, (2001)	A case study of an experienced mentor to newly qualified teachers in the US
	Developmental mentoring	Tedder and Lawy, (2009)	Analysis of national policy documents for ITE PCE mentoring in England.
Transformational	Educative mentoring	Langdon and Ward, (2015)	An extension of Feiman-Nemser's (2001) notion of educative mentoring based on a study of mentoring for new teachers in New Zealand
	A social justice model of mentoring	Duckworth and Maxwell, (2015)	Proposed model based on literature review of PCE ITE mentoring for student teachers in England
	Critical constructivist mentoring	Wang and Odell, (2007)	Theoretical perspective on mentoring for student teachers based on existing literature
	Reform-minded mentoring	Wang and Odell, (2007)	Draws on data from two studies: one of mentoring for student teachers in the UK, US and China; and one of student teachers in the US

Table 5 - Mentoring approaches depicted in ITE research

3.3.2 Judgemental mentoring approaches

Three approaches described in the research are identified as depicting a judgemental mentoring approach which focusses on the mentor evaluating the mentee's progress or performance. These are: Hobson and Malderez's (2013) concept of *'judgementoring'*, which is based on their analyses of two large-scale studies of mentoring for beginning

teachers in schools in England; Kemmis et al.'s (2014) 'archetype' of 'mentoring as supervision', which was identified from a meta-analysis of empirical studies of newly qualified teachers in New South Wales, Australia; and Tedder and Lawy's (2009) model of judgemental mentoring, based on their analysis of national policy documents for PCE ITE mentoring in England. This section draws on these three studies to explore the nature of judgemental mentoring, factors which contribute towards its use, and consequences of this approach.

Each of these three mentoring approaches depict a process which focuses on the mentor judging and assessing the performance of the mentee (Tedder and Lawy, 2009, p. 70; Kemmis et al., 2014, p.159; Hobson and Malderez, 2013, p.90). The mentor's assessments may consist of lesson observations and feedback, formative progress reviews, comments on mentees' portfolios of practice, formal assessment meetings and/or, in the case of NQTs in Australia, 'summative assessments of the mentee's performance … [for] the state registration body' (Kemmis et al., 2014, p.159). Researchers state that in this situation, mentoring pairs may draw on a discourse of professional standards and policies (Tedder and Lawy, 2009, p. 70; Kemmis et al., 2014, p. 159). The process can involve the mentee documenting their progress and achievement of standards by collecting evidence in portfolios which may in turn form the basis of mentoring conversations (Kemmis et al., 2014, p. 159). It is also a process which tends to be led by the mentor and emphasises their evaluative comments and feedback on the mentee's performance and progress (Tedder and Lawy, 2009, p. 70; Hobson and Malderez, 2013, p. 90).

Hobson and Malderez (2013) found that the process of *'judgementoring'* is 'perhaps most visible in the frequent use by mentors of a restrictive "feedback" strategy in post-lesson discussions, typically involving a mentor-led evaluation of the "positive" then "negative" features of a lesson, followed by suggestions for improvement (Hobson and Malderez, 2013, p. 96). When *'judgementoring'* is 'at its worst' mentors focus 'almost exclusively … on negative judgements' (ibid.). This mentoring approach then is characterized by a 'precedence and proliferation' of mentors' evaluations, which may limit the opportunity for mentee-led mentoring interactions (Manning and Hobson, 2017, p. 576). The role of a mentor is depicted as that of 'supervisor', 'agent of the state' (Kemmis et al., 2014, p. 159), or 'judge' (Hobson and Malderez, 2013, p. 90). As such this raises the question of whether this approach can be considered mentoring at all, or

whether it is rather a process of assessment or evaluation (Hobson, 2016b). Each of these three studies draw a contrast between these judgemental approaches which focus on mentor's assessments and more developmental mentoring (which is discussed in the following section).

These authors suggest a number of factors which may contribute to the use of judgemental mentoring. Firstly, all three studies highlight the impact of national policies on approaches to mentoring. In particular, government directives for mentors to assess the performance and progress of beginning teachers is considered to be a key factor in the use of judgemental mentoring (Tedder and Lawy, 2009, p. 417; Hobson and Malderez, 2013, p.95). Each of these studies highlight how such directives can be viewed as characteristics of wider reforms to education, which involve a subscription to cultures, characteristics and discourses of New Public Management or GERM (as outlined in the previous chapter) (Kemmis et al., 2014, p. 159; Hobson, 2016a, p. 97; Tedder and Lawy, 2009, p.427). In England this subscription partly manifests itself in the form of 'high stakes' Ofsted inspections of schools and colleges, which have involved assessing the performance of individual teachers and whole organisations against pre-determined criteria (Hobson, 2016a, p. 97). Secondly, educational organisations' responses to these policies is highlighted as a contributory factor to this mentoring approach. Hobson (2016a) considers that 'a (if not the) major cause' of *'judgementoring'* (p.95) is schools' and colleges' approach of assigning mentors with the role of assessing and supporting the development of beginning teachers. Thirdly, Kemmis et al., (2014) also highlight that formal documents containing 'prescribed standards of performance' are a key feature of the arrangements for mentoring as supervision, which may contribute to the nature of the interaction. Finally, Hobson (2016) identifies a lack of mentor education or training as a possible cause of *'judgementoring'*. He details a number of studies which suggest that, in the absence of adequate preparation for undertaking the role, a mentor may simply draw on "telling" a beginning teacher what (not) to do (Hobson, 2016a, pp. 97-98).

These studies suggest there are a number of consequences of judgemental mentoring, which are mostly negative in nature. Kemmis et al., (2014) highlight that the 'project' for 'mentoring as supervision' consists of enabling the mentee to meet the state regulations and become a registered teacher (p. 159). Whilst this could be considered a positive consequence, Lawy and Tedder (2009) argue that a focus on this type of "hard outcome"

can 'undermine the benefits of "soft" outcomes: greater confidence, improved health, [and] raised aspirations' (p. 426). These researchers also emphasise that the use of judgemental mentoring may mean that mentors do not create an open and trusting relationship and as such mentees do not speak candidly to their mentor about their concerns or development needs for fear of being judged (Lawy and Tedder, 2009, p. 427; Hobson and Malderez, 2013, p.95). It has also been suggested that whilst most mentees appreciated getting ideas and feedback on their teaching from their mentor, some who experienced the enactment of *'judgementoring'* felt that it had a particularly negative impact on their wellbeing and produced feelings of loneliness, isolation and demotivation (Hobson and Malderez, 2013, p.96). Finally, Tedder and Lawy (2009) argue that a judgemental approach could mean that mentoring loses the opportunity to develop 'analytical criticality' and 'diminishes its transformative potential' (p. 427).

3.3.3 Developmental mentoring approaches

This section provides an overview of the nine approaches presented in table 5 above, which were considered to convey mentoring as a developmental process, which focuses on supporting the individual through a transition to enable them to become an autonomous member of the teaching profession. In the context of ITE, mentoring is often depicted in terms of the mentor assisting 'the mentee to adjust into the role and professional practice' and focussing on the mentee's 'wellbeing [and] professional development' (Kemmis et al., 2014, p.160). The approaches in this category describe the mentor helping the beginning teacher in a number of ways: firstly, by enabling them to analyse their own practice (mentoring as support; humanistic mentoring; clear mentoring; ONSIDE mentoring; educative mentoring);[4] secondly by building their confidence (emphasised in adaptive mentorship, humanistic mentoring, clear mentoring, ONSIDE mentoring, and educative mentoring); thirdly, by exploring their subjective experiences and thinking (mentoring for support; humanistic mentoring; situated apprentice; ONSIDE mentoring; educative mentoring); whilst also, fourthly, guiding or directing them towards accepted practices and values of the existing teaching community (mentoring as support; situated apprentice; ONSIDE mentoring, educative mentoring).

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[4] In this section references in brackets refer to the particular mentoring approaches (listed in table 5, section 3.2.2) rather than the author/s and date of the study, because sometimes the authors have written about more than one mentoring approach in the same study.

Some of these mentoring approaches propose that in order to facilitate this process, mentors may adopt a non-hierarchal stance in their relationship with their mentee and/or adopt the role of co-mentor, co-thinker and/or collaborator (adaptive mentorship; ONSIDE; educative mentoring). Other approaches acknowledge that as mentors usually have more teaching experience than mentees, the arrangement may be asymmetrical at the start, but 'also envisages a future time when the mentee will have attained expertise and wisdom in the practices of the profession, and thus be in a position to mentor others' (mentoring as support) (Kemmis et al., 2014, p. 160). In addition, whilst this mentoring approach is sometimes associated with more non-directive, mentee-led interactions (e.g. developmental mentoring), a number of these studies highlight that in order to meet the learning and emotional needs of beginning teachers, it is important for mentors to adapt their approach, and that this may, at times, involve them offering clear direction and advice (adaptive mentoring; mentoring as support; climbing the mountain; ONSIDE mentoring; clear mentoring).

The approaches in this developmental category all depict their own ways of how the mentor may enact the role, but common features include that it involves listening, helping the mentee identify problems they are experiencing, observing lessons, giving clear feedback, supporting and challenging, offering advice when appropriate, fostering an inquiring stance, and facilitating analytical, dialogic exchanges about teaching. There are fewer examples, however, of how mentors can effectively enact these behaviours. One exception is the theory of 'climbing the mountain' (Tillema et al., 2015) which provides details of three types of statements a mentor may draw upon in a mentoring conversation, in order to develop the mentee's teaching practice. These are: prescriptive statements whereby the mentor 'tells the student teacher how to act in a certain situation (e.g. "the best option is sending him to his seat to reflect")'; scaffolding statements whereby 'the mentee is invited to reflect on classroom behaviour in order to reach the desired goal (e.g. "what can you do to prevent this?")'; and exploratory statements whereby 'the mentor explores student teacher performance in a certain classroom setting (for example "were all pupils focused on your instruction")' (Tillema et al., 2015, p.33).

Another example of a set of mentoring techniques or 'moves' a mentor may adopt are detailed in Feiman-Nemser's (2001) case study of what she terms 'educative mentoring'. Eight mentoring moves are identified, which are presented in table 6 below. The first

three moves – finding openings, pinpointing problems and probing novices' thinking – illustrate ways that mentors can facilitate mentees' analyses of their own teaching. The fourth move, 'noticing signs of growth', focuses on offering the mentee reassurance. The final three moves encourage mentees to develop their understanding of teaching further by drawing on existing theories, examples of others' practice and becoming a co-thinker with their mentor about specific issues classroom issues. Whilst these are based upon the practice of just one mentor, these educative moves provide useful examples of how mentors can support beginning teachers' learning, development and wellbeing.

Mentoring move	Description
Finding Openings	The mentor identifies rich topics which are relevant to the beginning teacher and that lead to a discussion of 'basic issues that all teachers need to think about.
Pinpointing Problems	The mentor identifies and constructs problems that enable beginning teachers to 'talk about teaching in precise, analytical ways.
Probing Novices' Thinking	The mentor asks probing questions to encourage beginning teachers to develop their reasoning for choices they make in their practice.
Noticing Signs of Growth	The mentor compliments the beginning teacher on specific areas of their teaching practice in order to offer reassurance.
Focusing on the Kids	The mentor encourages the mentee to notice and discuss feedback and information that learners provide as a basis for thinking about how to develop teaching practice.
Reinforcing an Understanding of Theory	The mentor highlights relevant theories of teaching and learning when discussing teaching to enable beginning teachers to develop principled practice.
Modelling Wondering About Teaching	This involves identifying examples from the mentor's and/or the beginning teacher's classroom experience which provide a platform for mutual learning that involves both parties working together as co-thinkers and co-teachers.
Giving Living Examples of One Person's Ways of Teaching	This technique involves an experienced teacher demonstrating ways of teaching, and also explaining to the beginning teacher why they are adopting that approach and discussing the implications with them.

Table 6 - Feiman-Nemser (2001) Educative mentoring moves

This section presents five key factors which research indicates may contribute towards the use of developmental mentoring approaches. Firstly, all of these mentoring approaches depict a situation where mentors are not responsible for assessing mentees (although in Salm and Mulholland's (2015) study mentors were responsible for assessing student teachers, the 'adaptive mentorship' approach the authors promote does not

explicitly include an assessment role). Hobson (2016a) outlines that a key characteristic of ONSIDE mentoring is that the support occurs outside supervisory or managerial relationships in order to enable trust and openness between the mentor and mentee (p.101). Secondly, Kemmis et al. (2014) highlight that the archetype of 'mentoring as support' typified in Sweden is accompanied by a governmental policy discourse which describes mentoring as '"informal"', where the mentor is an '"advisor"' whose role is the 'facilitation of the mentee's learning and development' (p.160), which appears in contrast with the policies associated with judgemental mentoring outlined in the previous section.

Thirdly, Hobson (2016a) proposes that the enactment of ONSIDE mentoring would be facilitated by the presence of a number of 'ingredients of effective mentoring' more generally, such as the rigorous recruitment and selection of mentors and sufficient time and space for meetings to take place' (p. 103). Fourthly, it has been suggested that mentor education or training is likely to facilitate a more developmental mentoring approach (Hobson 2016a; Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Lejonberg and Tiplic 2016; Kemmis et al., 2014). Finally, Wang and Odell (2007) highlight how 'humanistic mentoring' and 'situated apprentice' mentoring approaches are underpinned by two particular perspectives on learning. The former, is based on the view that emotional and psychological support are key to enabling the student teacher's learning and development, whereas the latter is based on the view that learning takes place via a process of participation in a professional community (p.475-476). This suggests that a commitment to either of these perspectives on learning could result in a more developmental mentoring approach.

These developmental approaches depict a number of positive consequences of this type of mentoring. Primarily, this approach is considered to enable the mentee's personal and professional growth as a teacher. In particular, some of these studies highlight that these mentoring approaches can result in the mentee: feeling more confident in their teaching (clear mentoring, humanistic mentoring); being able to make connections between theory and practice (situated apprenticeship; educative mentoring); becoming empowered (ONSIDE mentoring); being an independent learner (ONSIDE mentoring); and having 'meaningful teacher learning' experiences (educative mentoring). Some of these studies also highlight that developmental mentoring can lead to positive consequences for the mentor, including experiencing a collegial relationship with their

mentee whereby reciprocal learning takes place (adaptive mentorship; ONSIDE mentoring; educative mentoring).

Whilst some of these studies promote the positive outcomes of developmental mentoring, others draw attention to potential problems that can exist with this approach. For instance, Lejonberg and Tiplic (2016) highlight there is some uncertainty regarding the outcomes of developmental mentoring. They report that 'previous studies have provided conflicting evidence related to whether characteristics used to denote developmental mentoring actually promoted professional growth among mentees' (p.2). Indeed, Tillema et al.'s (2015) 'climbing the mountain' case study of 12 mentoring dyads found that conversations characterised by mentors offering either a high number of prescriptive or non-prescriptive statements appeared to make little difference to the end learning outcomes for student teachers in terms of their knowledge and understanding about teaching.

Other studies have identified specific problems that can arise as a result of developmental mentoring approaches. For example, Feiman-Nemser (2001) and Wang and Odell (2007) highlight that a tension can arise between on the one hand exploring the mentee's subjective perceptions and experiences whilst on the other hand 'promoting a shared understanding of good practice' (Feiman Nemser, 2001, p. 18) which may require beginning teachers to adapt to the norms of the existing community. In addition, Lejonberg and Tiplic (2016) in their quantitative study of mentoring found that too little feedback and advice from mentors can be as detrimental to a beginning teacher as too much, and hence propose that if a 'developmental' approach consists of a lack of direction from the mentor, this may be stressful for mentees and lead to them wanting to leave the profession (Lejonberg and Tiplic, 2016, p. 8). It seems then, that whilst the majority of studies promote the benefits of developmental mentoring, there is some research to suggest that it may also be a problematic approach at times.

3.3.4 Transformational mentoring approaches

Whilst the focus of this literature review was originally on judgemental and developmental mentoring, when examining the research articles, a third potential approach of transformational mentoring was identified. The four studies in this category are: educative mentoring as depicted by Langdon and Ward (2015); a social justice model of mentoring (Duckworth and Maxwell, 2015); critical constructivist mentoring

(Wang and Odell, 2007); and reform-minded mentoring (Wang and Odell, 2007). These articles each identify the potential for mentoring to be a process which critiques and challenges existing norms in the profession and as a result has the potential to enable new ways of teaching and/or address existing inequalities in education. Transformational mentoring shares common ground with developmental mentoring as it a process that is built on trust, collaborative working and a non-hierarchical relationship between the mentor and mentee (ibid.). However, rather than simply facilitate the mentee's transition into a community of practice, transformational mentoring reaches further and seeks to reform teaching and learning by introducing new practices and/or addressing existing inequalities in the educational context.

Langdon and Ward (2015) draw on Feiman-Nemser's (2001) term of 'educative mentoring' to depict a process which had the potential to 'transform student learning' (p. 243). They depict educative mentoring as an approach which not only involves reciprocal learning between the mentor and mentee, but one that is characterised by joint inquiry, critiquing theoretical and practical knowledge, and problematising the status quo (p.242-243). In this situation the mentors 'become learners' and also act as advocates for 'their students, mentees, school and the profession' (p.252). The remaining three approaches discussed in this section, take this notion further by explicitly attributing mentoring with the potential not only to bring about changes to teaching practice, but also to pursue a broader social justice agenda.

Transformational mentoring depicts a process whereby mentoring has the potential to critically analyse, resist, and reform the status quo and actively challenge 'inequality in the context of educational practice' (Duckworth and Maxwell, 2015, p.4). Mentors are described as 'agents of change' and mentees are considered to have the potential to become agents of change themselves (Wang and Odell, 2007; Duckworth and Maxwell, 2015). The four approaches identified in this category offer some details about how transformational mentoring could be enacted. It may involve: preparing beginning teachers to meet the needs of diverse learners; creating spaces for critical reflection; supporting beginning teachers to experience different cultures; developing inclusive critical pedagogies; and acting as advocates for social justice (Odell and Wang, 2007, p. 474; Duckworth and Maxwell, 2015, p. 4 and 5). More specifically the mentor may adopt a transformational approach by: posing questions about traditional teaching practices (Wang and Odell, 2007, p. 477); demonstrating commitment to reform-minded teaching

(ibid.); and challenging 'deficit views of learners held by colleagues' (Duckworth and Maxwell, 2015, p. 15). Mentors may also aim to enable beginning teachers to develop 'inclusive language which challenges negative stereotypes' and model critical pedagogies which recognise and value 'learners' histories and biographies', facilitate 'the sharing of learners' experiences and strengths' and 'value learner and community voice' (ibid. p. 16). Although Wang and Odell (2007) and Duckworth and Maxwell (2015) promote the use of these transformational mentoring approaches, they report that there is little evidence of it taking place in the contexts they researched (which included the US, UK, and China). In addition, Langdon and Ward (2015), in their study of beginning teachers in New Zealand, stated that 'many mentors currently lack the skills to provide educative mentoring to new teachers' (p.251). They found that, when undertaking action research with a group of mentors with a view to enabling educative mentoring, at least a year was needed for mentors 'to perceive themselves as learners' (ibid., p.249). They concluded that even then educative mentoring enactments were 'not easy' or 'assured' (ibid., p. 251).

These researchers suggest a number of factors that could contribute to the use of transformational mentoring. For instance, it is suggested that some form of mentor education or training would be needed which has a particular focus on mentors developing an awareness of and becoming advocates of social justice and critical pedagogies (Duckworth and Maxwell, 2015, p. 16). This could also involve them engaging in research to help them identify ways of developing new teaching practices (ibid.; Langdon and Ward, 2015). The mentors themselves would also need to develop a genuine commitment to reform-minded teaching and social justice (Wang and Odell, 2007, p.477). Duckworth and Maxwell (2015) highlight that it is also vital for there to be institutional commitment to enable a transformational mentoring approach to be enacted: to be successful it needs to be 'embedded within the system rather than an add-on' (p.17). It is possible that an absence of such factors may have contributed to the lack of evidence of transformational mentoring identified by these researchers.

Ideally, as outlined above, the aim of transformational mentoring is to enable beginning teachers and mentors collaboratively to challenge the status quo and redress existing inequalities that may exist within educational practices and organisations. It would also facilitate the process of teaching in reform-minded ways, rather than emulating existing practices or operating within existing boundaries. This potentially could lead to

empowerment and transformation for the mentee, the mentor, and their learners. However, as there is little evidence of transformational mentoring taking place in ITE, the consequences of this approach in practice have not been widely explored research. However, it seems likely that mentees and mentors would need support to take on such an agenda, and without this it is possible that they may end up experiencing problems or resistance if other stakeholders do not share their vision to employ this type of mentoring.

3.3.5 Summary

The majority of the studies discussed above depict mentoring as a developmental process which supports the student teacher's transition into the teaching profession, although three studies highlight contrasting judgemental versions of mentoring which focus on the mentor evaluating the mentee's progress. In addition, a further notion of mentoring was identified, transformational mentoring, which focuses on bringing about significant changes to the status quo. On the whole, researchers have raised concerns about the use of judgemental mentoring and have highlighted the potential negative impact it can have on mentees' growth and wellbeing. They have also promoted the benefits of developmental mentoring which supports the mentee, by raising confidence and exploring their perceptions and experiences of their teaching. Research on transformational mentoring advocates it's potential to empower mentees, mentors and learners, but also highlights that there is little evidence of this approach being enacted in practice.

The above discussion also raises wider questions about the underlying purposes of ITE and the nature of professionalism in the PCE sector in particular. Whilst this study focuses specifically on mentoring for student teachers, rather than exploring these broader issues, it is possible that the three approaches discussed above may be viewed as aligned with different understandings of teacher development. For instance, a notion of teacher development as a process concerned with the meeting of prescribed competencies, may align with a judgemental conception of mentoring which involves the mentor evaluating and/or assessing the mentee (Lawy and Tedder, 2011). In addition, a notion of teacher development as a process underpinned by humanist and interactionist perspectives of learning, may align with a developmental conception of mentoring which involves the mentor supporting the individual mentee's transition into

an existing community (Cullimore and Simmons, 2010, p. 237). Finally, a notion of teacher development as a process involving both 'outward-facing and inward-facing action', such as collaboration, 'active debate' and 'critical reflection to evaluate ideas and policies' (Crawley, 2015, p.486) may align with a transformational conception of mentoring which seeks to bring about change to existing practices and/or address inequalities. Whilst this study does not fully explore these relationships, this is an area that could be investigated further.

The above review also highlights some gaps and uncertainties arising from existing literature on mentoring approaches for beginning teachers in particular. For example, whilst most of these studies depict mentoring as a developmental process, concerns have been raised about the expansion of a judgemental approach (Hobson and Malderez, 2013; Hobson 2016a). However, the prevalence of judgemental and developmental approaches in ITE is still unknown. In addition, whilst existing research has indicated that factors such as national policies, organisational cultures and mentor education may influence the mentoring approach, to what extent the mentor and/or mentee is shaping the nature of the mentoring interactions with regard to judgemental and developmental approaches is yet to be fully explored. Hobson and Malderez (2013) highlight that there are micro-level factors which contribute to the failure to create effective mentoring conditions such as mentees lacking openness and mentors not establishing trusting relationships (p. 95). However, the relationship between such micro-level factors and the use of judgemental, developmental, or indeed transformational mentoring approaches, is currently unclear. With regard to developmental mentoring in particular, whilst research tends to promote the potential benefits of this approach, it has also been highlighted that there are currently inconsistencies around to what extent it promotes professional learning for mentees (Lejonberg and Tiplic, 2016, p.2). Finally, as there is little evidence of transformational mentoring taking place, how it impacts on mentees, mentors and learners is still unknown. The following literature review explores some of these issues further by examining research on mentoring for student teachers in England and Norway.

3.4 Literature Review 2

The second literature review sought to address the overall question: what is known about mentoring approaches in the context of PCE ITE in England and Norway? More

specifically, this review aimed to consider to what extent research depicts mentoring in PCE ITE in England and Norway as judgemental, developmental or transformational. The search drew on research literature and reports published since the year 2000.[5] The review mainly focuses on research in PCE, but some school-based studies have also been included where considered relevant or informative. The procedure for undertaking this second literature review was similar to that for the first (outlined in section 3.3 above). In addition, specific articles which had been recommended by education researchers working in England and Norway were also drawn upon. The review is divided into two sections: England and Norway. A conclusion is then presented which compares the findings from these two sections and highlights arising questions and gaps in the research.

3.4.1 England

Existing literature highlights the circumstances around the emergence of mentoring in PCE ITE. As mentioned at the beginning of this chapter (section 3.2), it was considered to emerge at a time when policies were introduced to improve standards in the PCE sector more widely, which in turn led to a wave of reforms and an increase in regulations (Ingleby, 2014, p. 19; Hobson, et al., 2015, p. 7). Researchers have suggested that these reforms made an assumption that 'all would be well' if a mentoring system akin to schools was adopted, yet it is argued that this approach failed to take into consideration the complexities of the PCE sector (Ingleby, 2014, p.19; Duckworth and Maxwell, 2015; p. 10; Hankey, 2004). Nonetheless, during the first decade of this century mentoring for student teachers in PCE became more widespread and formalised (Ofsted, 2009). As stated in Chapter 1, research on mentoring in PCE ITE in England has also addressed the 'judgemental' or 'developmental' nature of mentoring. Studies suggest that there has been an emergence of a judgemental model of mentoring which contrasts with an earlier developmental model (Cullimore and Simmons, 2010; Tedder and Lawy, 2009; Duckworth and Maxwell, p.8). Some research describes this judgemental approach as 'characteristic' of PCE ITE (e.g. Ingleby and Tummons, 2012, p. 164).

The way that judgemental mentoring is depicted in the literature appear closely aligned to the notions explored in the preceding literature. For instance, it is described as an

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[5] This year was chosen as it was at around this time that mentoring in PCE in England began to become more formalised. It also marked the beginning of policy reforms in Norwegian education as described in the preceding chapter.

approach which is concerned with 'measurable accountability in relation to a set of standards' (Lawy and Tedder, 2012, p. 309) and involves mentors assessing mentees, and setting them action plans and targets (Tedder and Lawy, 2009, p. 417). Manning and Hobson (2017), in a case study of PCE ITE mentoring, provided further details of this approach by identifying three specific judgemental mentoring characteristics that were adopted during mentoring meetings, namely: conversations centre around mentors' evaluations; mentors set the agenda for mentoring meetings; and mentors give strong advice. In addition, research on PCE ITE tends to emphasise a contrast between judgemental mentoring and developmental mentoring. For instance, these approaches have been described as 'two separate and distinctive models' (Lawy and Tedder, 2011) which represent 'competing' interpretations of mentoring (Ingleby and Tummons, 2012, p.163). In addition, questions are raised as to whether the purpose of mentoring is to 'be supportive of the professional development of the trainees *as opposed to* judging the quality of their teaching' (Ingleby, 2014, p. 19, italics added).

Developmental mentoring is also described in similar terms to the approaches described in the preceding review. For example, it is depicted as prioritising the relationship between mentor and mentee (Cullimore and Simmons, 2010), facilitating mentees' professional development (Lawy and Tedder, 2011) and enabling them to become reflective practitioners (Ingleby and Tummons, 2012, p. 173), although one study found PCE ITE mentors in England did not necessarily associate mentoring with reflective practice (Ingleby and Tummons, 2012).[6] Manning and Hobson (2017) identified three particular developmental mentoring approaches adopted during mentoring meetings, which were: mentors asking open and probing questions; mentors paraphrasing mentees' responses; and mentors modelling wondering about teaching (a move identified in Feiman-Nemser's (2001) study of educative mentoring). In addition, most of the literature indicates that mentors and mentees (and the researchers themselves) tend to favour a developmental model of mentoring (Ingleby and Tummons, 2012; Cullimore and Simmons, 2010; Tedder and Lawy, 2009; Garbett et al., 2013). However, in Manning and Hobson's (2017) study some mentees stated they preferred the

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[6] Research from England and Norway draws on the term 'reflective practice'; however, this can be a rather ambiguous concept (Calderhead, 1989). Roffey-Barentsen and Malthouse (2013a) present a range of models of, and approaches to, reflective practice that PCE teachers might draw on. The current study does not focus on exploring different meanings of this term but does recognise it can be interpreted and employed in a variety of different ways.

directive nature of the judgemental approach they had considered themselves to be experiencing (p.588).

Whilst existing research suggests that PCE ITE mentoring may have become more judgemental, there is a lack of certainty about how mentoring is being enacted in practice. For instance, there is some evidence to suggest that mentors are focussed on completing paperwork correctly (Ingleby and Tummons, 2014), whilst other studies indicate that mentors do not prioritise this aspect of the role (Lawy and Tedder, 2011). In addition, there is some evidence to suggest that mentors may be trying to 'balance' both 'developmental and evaluative aspects of their role' (Hobson et al., 2015, p.13; Ingleby and Tummons, 2012; Lawy and Tedder, 2011). Manning and Hobson (2017) found that mentors and mentees can describe the same mentoring interactions differently. More specifically, the mentees in this study tended to classify the mentoring they experienced as predominantly judgemental, whilst the corresponding mentors stated the approach was predominantly developmental in nature. Whilst it seems uncertain then to what extent the mentoring may be judgemental or developmental, it seems clearer that in existing research there is little evidence of transformational mentoring (as described in section 3.2.6) taking place within PCE ITE. For example, Duckworth and Maxwell (2015), in their literature review of mentoring for student teachers in PCE, found that there was little evidence of mentoring approaches which promoted social justice.

Existing literature indicates that a rise in judgemental approaches in PCE ITE mentoring in England may be attributable to three key factors, which are aligned with those presented in the preceding review (section 3.3.2). Firstly, national policy reforms are described as having 'imposed a model of mentoring that emphasises subject support and the assessment of teaching competence' (Duckworth and Maxwell, 2015, p. 5). Researchers highlight that under the New Labour Government PCE ITE was subject to a 'a plethora of policy and consultation' (Cullimore and Simmons, 2010, p. 224). In addition, Lawy and Tedder (2009) describe a subsequent 'paradigm shift in teacher education' as part of a wider agenda involving increased surveillance in this field (p. 413). Secondly, Ofsted, in particular, is highlighted as being 'highly influential in determining the nature of mentoring' in this sector (Hobson et al., 2015, p. 12). This influence is evident in two ways. Firstly, in terms of outlining expectations of mentors (as detailed in the previous chapter, section 2.7.1). Secondly, in terms of contributing towards

creating a culture of accountability and performativity more generally within PCE institutions. Indeed, one mentor interviewed for a research study illustrates this point:

> The first thing that comes into my mind when I think about mentoring is Ofsted inspections and the way that performance is measured.

(Ingleby and Tummons, 2012, p.170)

Thirdly, in keeping with research presented in the preceding review (section 3.3.2), there is some evidence in literature on PCE ITE mentoring in England to indicate that mentor education may facilitate a more developmental mentoring approach. Manning and Hobson (2017) found that mentors who have undertaken a postgraduate module on mentoring appeared to be adopting a predominantly developmental approach, whereas those with little or limited mentor education or training were seen to be employing mainly judgemental mentoring. However, another study from the PCE ITE context illustrates how mentor training has the potential to promote aspects of mentoring associated with judgemental mentoring. Ingleby's (2014) research details how mentors attend a one-off, two-hour session training session, which includes watching a video of a student teacher and grading their performance. This raises the question of whether the nature of the mentor preparation may also shape the nature of the mentoring approaches enacted.

Research on PCE ITE mentoring describe a number of consequences of current mentoring practices for both mentors and mentees. Firstly, the presence of 'competing' mentoring approaches appears to result in a sense of confusion around the process for mentors and mentees (Tedder and Lawy, 2009; Ingleby and Tummons, 2012; Ingleby 2014; Duckworth and Maxwell, 2015). Secondly, some studies have found that the requirement to assess mentees appears to result in mentors experiencing tensions, unease, and frustration as they grapple with balancing this with more supportive aspects of the role (Cullimore and Simmons, 2010; Ingleby and Tummons, 2012; Ingleby, 2014; Duckworth and Maxwell, 2015). Thirdly, researchers suggest that the use of judgemental mentoring in PCE ITE results in a more restricted form of dialogue (Duckworth and Maxwell, 2015, p. 17) which undermines the development of reflective practice (Tedder and Lawy, 2009). Finally, some researchers highlight how earlier descriptions of mentoring depicted developmental outcomes for mentors and mentees. For example,

Duckworth and Maxwell (2015) highlight how Hankey (2004) describes a situation whereby mentors and mentees can

> formulate and articulate critical comparisons of personal ideologies in relation to teaching and learning, leading to mutually beneficial growth and new understandings.

(Hankey, 2004, p. 391)

However, it is argued that the presence of judgemental mentoring has diminished the opportunity for such exchanges (Tedder and Lawy, 2009; Lawy and Tedder, 2012; Ingleby, 2014; Duckworth and Maxwell, 2015).

3.4.2 Norway

This section examines research on mentoring for student teachers in Norway with a focus on those undertaking placements in upper secondary schools. In the preceding section on PCE ITE in England it was relatively straightforward to establish that researchers were describing mentoring in similar terms to those approaches outlined in the first literature review, however, this was less clear when reviewing literature from Norway, as these terms are not widely employed. As a result, in what follows, it is highlighted whether descriptions of mentoring for student teachers in research appear to be *aligned with* judgemental, developmental or transformational mentoring.

Research on ITE mentoring in Norway tends to depict it in terms which are in keeping with developmental approaches as described in the preceding sections of this chapter. Researchers Ulvik and Sunde (2011) describe how a key text by Handal and Lauvås (1987) entitled *Promoting reflective teaching* has strongly influenced mentoring in Norway (p. 524). It promotes a model of learning about teaching which is underpinned by action and reflection and is similar to the ideas by Schön (1983) significantly drawn upon in English ITE settings. Sundli (2007) highlights that Handal and Lauvås (1987) advocate a non-judgemental role for mentors and consider that their involvement in the assessment of mentees would be problematic (p. 203). Mentoring as described in Norwegian research appears broadly similar to other depictions of developmental approaches. For instance, mentors are described in terms of facilitating student teachers' reflective practice (Sundli 2007; Ulvik and Sunde, 2013), modelling good teaching and 'articulating choices made during teaching' (Ulvik and Smith, 2011, p. 524), which is aligned with Feiman-Nemser's (2001) educative mentoring move of 'giving living examples of one person's ways of teaching' (p.25). There is also an emphasis on

mentors developing positive relationships with mentees, which enable the student teacher to both feel safe and take risks with their practice (Ulvik and Smith, 2011, p. 522). Mentoring is described as a process which enables mentees to develop their professional, independent judgement and autonomy, and as such it is recommended that mentors inquire into the mentee's reasoning, rather than tell them what to do (Ulvik and Sunde, 2013, p. 755).

A study of mentoring in upper secondary schools by Ottesen (2007) investigated the nature of mentees' reflections during conversations with their mentor. Ottesen (2007) highlights issues around the ambiguity of the term 'reflective practice' (p. 31) (as mentioned above), but nonetheless offers details about three types of mentee's reflections found in the mentoring conversations. The first, and most common type, identified is entitled 'reflection as induction to warranted ways of seeing, thinking and acting' (Ottesen, 2007, p. 37). It is mainly concerned with practicalities of teaching such as how to arrange the learners and which resources to use. The second type, 'reflection as concept development' involved student teachers discussing teaching in a way that 'transcends the present experience' (Ottesen, 2007, p. 38). It draws on theories, whether written, practical or personal, as a way of mentees developing their understanding of the nature of teaching and learning. Ottesen (2007) found only a few examples of this type of reflection. The third type, 'reflection as imagined practice' involved student teachers 'surpassing tradition' in their discussions of teaching (Ottesen, 2007, p, 40). This may include them identifying classroom activities which are outside the norms and conventions they have encountered on their practice placements. Ottesen (2007) identified only occasional instances of this type of reflection. In addition to this study by Ottesen (2007), there is also evidence to suggest that in Norway, as in England, some mentors may not necessarily identify facilitating reflective practice as a key part of their role (Ulvik and Smith, 2011. p. 528; Ingleby and Tummons, 2012). These studies suggest that whilst mentoring may be described in predominantly developmental terms, in practice it may not be fully enhancing mentees' growth in terms of becoming a reflective teacher.

In addition, there is some evidence to suggest that in Norway ITE mentoring may be taking place in more judgemental ways. Firstly, Lejonberg et al. (2015) identified some evidence of mentors holding beliefs the researchers considered to be aligned with judgemental mentoring. Secondly, Smith (2010) highlights that even though university

tutors make a summative assessment decision regarding the student teacher's suitability for the profession, mentors are undertaking formal, formative assessments which inform this final decision and as such are contributing to this gate-keeper role and are, in part, adopting the role of 'judge' (p.87). Thirdly, whilst not explicitly using the term judgemental, Sundli (2007), after studying mentoring for student teachers over a five-year period concluded that:

> Mentoring in the Norwegian instance shows a picture of an activity dominated by mentors' plans and values, and mentors' monologues in mentoring conversations with students.

(Sundli, 2007, p. 213)

This description implies a version of mentoring which is more mentor-centred, rather than the more mentee-centred approaches depicted in the developmental approaches outlined in the first literature review. However, whether such mentoring enactments are widespread in Norway is not clear.

The potential for mentoring to be transformational is highlighted in research literature from Norway, although as with England, there appears to be limited evidence of it taking place in practice. For example, Ulvik and Smith (2011) recommend that beginning teachers should become aware of and question their own beliefs about teaching to avoid building practice based upon unquestioned assumptions and simply reproducing existing norms (p.521). Furthermore, Sundli (2007) proposes that ideally student teachers should mentor each other in order to prevent existing teachers using mentoring as a way to perpetuate the 'traditional values and roles in schools' (p. 213). Finally, Ottesen (2007) highlights the potential of reflection to 'have transformation or empowerment as its purpose', however also notes that this understanding of the term is not always shared (p.32).

Existing studies suggest a number of factors which may contribute to the way that mentoring is enacted in Norway. Firstly, whilst in England, mentors formally assessing mentees has been identified as contributing towards a less desirable judgemental mentoring approach, some researchers in Norway emphasise the potential for assessment to enhance a student teacher's learning and development. For example, the distinction is discussed between formative assessment, which can scaffold and promote learning, and summative assessment, which is associated with establishing the 'attainment of learning objectives and professional standards (Tillema et al., 2011, p.

141). The potential benefits of formative assessment for student teachers in terms of facilitating professional growth are highlighted and is referred to as 'assessment *for* learning' (Smith, 2010; Tillema et al., 2011, emphasis added). These descriptions indicate that whilst assessment is a feature of mentoring in Norway, the formative aspect of it may be being emphasised.

Secondly, in Norway there is some research which explores how the mentee may shape the mentoring process. Studies of student teachers in Norway highlight how their perspectives and actions may contribute towards the nature of the overall mentoring approach. Sundli (2007) observed that some student teachers were seen to 'manage their mentors by cloning' them (p. 213) and indicates that where emulation is present, it may not necessarily be because the mentor has encouraged it, rather some student teachers may actively employ it as a strategy to 'fit in' during their placement. Other studies indicate that student teachers may adopt a passive stance. Ulvik and Smith's (2011) study of student teachers undertaking placements in lower and upper secondary schools found that some mentees 'understand mentoring as something they acquire rather than something in which they participate' (p. 518), which may impact on the role/s they adopt and the overall mentoring approach.

Thirdly, one study highlighted how mentors' views of the placement period might shape their approach to mentoring. Ulvik and Smith (2011) found that some mentors viewed the practice period as:

> training, where students should practice what is learned and be corrected by the expert, namely, a skilled-based approach. Others saw it more as a place for professional development, involving interaction between the student teacher and mentor

> (Ulvik and Smith, 2011, p. 528)

Fourthly, aligned with research on ITE mentoring in PCE in England and more widely, Lejonberg et al.'s (2015) study found that mentors who had undertaken a mentor education course were less likely to express beliefs associated with *judgementoring*. The nature of at least some mentor education courses in Norway, appear to be quite different from the training depicted in Ingleby's (2014) study in England (section 3.4.1). Ulvik and Sunde (2013) describe an accredited mentor course run by a university in Norway which mentors attend for eight days over a one-year period. It consists of lectures, discussions, group work, practical exercises and writing essays which enable

them to make links between theories of mentoring and their own practice (Ulvik and Sunde, 2013). In addition, Thorsen (2016) and Ulvik and Smith (2011) argue that mentors with formal education in mentoring are more likely to see themselves as 'teacher educators' than those who have not undertaken such a course, which potentially could also impact on how they approach the role.

There has been some exploration in existing literature on the consequences of mentoring for student teachers and mentors in Norway. For instance, Sundli (2007) identifies that mentees who 'interpret the culture, see through the rhetoric and do what is expected … fit in well' (Sundli, 2007, p. 213). In these instance, she found that mentors give credit and attention to student teachers who are able to fulfil a teaching role, in keeping with their expectations and pay less notice to those who are less experienced or less confident (p. 208). As such, some mentees who did not 'fit in well' may have experienced less favourable consequences than those who did. In addition, Sundli (2007) in her study of student teachers found that mentees whilst realising reflective practice was required, found that in mentoring conversations, it led them into discussions they considered 'unnecessary and unwanted' (Sundli, 2007, p. 210-11), and it also resulted in them highlighting 'artificial issues' so as to illustrate their 'reasoning'(ibid.).

Despite some research promoting the benefits of formative assessment for student teachers as described other, some problems arising as a consequence of this feature of mentoring have also been identified in Norway. For example, Tillema et al. (2011) describe an earlier study they undertook which found that vagueness around assessment criteria meant that there was at time a lack of shared understanding around the student teachers' developing practice and, as a result mentees, appeared less willing to adopt their mentor's recommendations (p. 141). In addition, the lack of prescriptive teaching standards in Norway, and the reported lack of assessment criteria for mentors to draw on led Smith (2010) to recommend that a common assessment framework be introduced to avoid assessment taking place 'intuitively' by mentors. Similarly to England, this researcher highlights that it can be 'stressful' for mentors to adopt the role of 'supporter and judge at the same time' (ibid. p. 37).

3.4.3 Summary

This second literature review aimed to generate further understanding of how research literature from England and Norway depicted mentoring for student teachers in PCE with regard to judgemental, developmental or transformational approaches. The following conclusion explores the main similarities and differences in the research from these countries. It also identifies some key gaps or areas of uncertainty arising from this literature.

Research from England tends to argue that a judgemental version of mentoring is has emerged in PCE ITE and contrasts this with a more favourable developmental approach. In Norway, it seems that mentoring is generally depicted in developmental terms, although some research findings indicate the possibility for enactments aligned with judgemental mentoring could be taking place. However, in both countries the prevalence of judgemental and developmental mentoring approaches appears uncertain. In addition, research from both England and Norway indicate that mentors may be attempting to balance both evaluative and supportive aspects of the role, yet how they might be enacting this in practice is not explored. Whilst research on PCE ITE in England and Norway highlight that ideally mentors should be supporting mentees to become reflective practitioners, studies from both countries indicate that mentors do not always associate mentoring with this purpose, which raises questions around how they perceive their role. Studies from both countries mention the transformative potential of mentoring but provide little evidence of this approach being adopted in practice.

Research from England and Norway suggests that mentor education may lead to mentors being less likely to adopt a judgemental mentoring approach. However, the nature of mentor education in England and Norway is potentially distinct. Currently, there is a lack of evidence of how widespread mentor education is (although in Norway it is reported to be mandatory for mentors in "practice schools" – see section 2.7.2) and the impact it has on mentoring enactments. In England, researchers attribute the emergence of judgemental mentoring to changes in national policies for education and PCE in particular, which it is argued increased regulation and introduced cultures of managerialism and performativity. Research on mentoring for student teachers in Norway does not appear to make such associations between wider policy changes and

mentoring approaches. Furthermore, in Norway, there is research which emphasises that formative assessments can enable the mentees' professional learning and growth. In addition, research on student teachers in Norway highlight that micro-level factors such as how the mentee behaves in the mentoring situation and how the mentor views the purpose of the placement can shape the approach. Whilst research on judgemental mentoring in schools in England has considered such micro-level factors, this has not been explored as much in PCE ITE literature from this country.

Research from both England and Norway highlight that mentors can experience tensions or stress as a result of mentoring, in particular attempting to judge and support student teachers, although the impact of this dual role on mentees in the PCE sector is less certain. In addition, in Norway, there is research to indicate that problems can also arise as a result of vagueness around the assessments, as there are not set criteria in place, whereas in England the presence of judgemental mentoring is viewed as restricting opportunities for reflective dialogues between mentors and mentees. Overall, how mentors and mentees are approaching their conversations in practice, and the impact of this on mentees' professional learning is an area which appears under-researched.

3.5 Conclusion

This chapter sought to generate further understanding of the terms judgemental, developmental and transformational mentoring and how research in England and Norway depicts mentoring with regard to these three approaches. The summaries at the end of each literature review outline the extent to which these aims have been met and identify remaining gaps or uncertainties in the research. The following chapter introduces the conceptual framework for the study which aims to develop understandings of judgemental, developmental and transformational mentoring further.

Chapter Four – Conceptual Framework

4.1 Introduction

This chapter introduces the conceptual framework for this study. The framework has been constructed specifically for this research and draws on theoretical literature on mentoring in education and a wider range of disciplines including business, social work, and psychotherapy. The mentoring theories and models drawn on in the framework contain concepts which appeared to align with the overall notions of judgemental, developmental and transformational mentoring. By drawing on relevant literature outside the field of ITE, this framework aims to generate further understanding of these three notions of mentoring. It also provides a lens through which the mentoring enactments investigated in this study can be analysed and discussed. This chapter begins with an introduction to the overall framework. The different elements of the framework are then explained in turn.

4.2 Overview of Conceptual Framework

This section provides an overview of the conceptual framework (summarised in table 7 below). The concepts of judgemental, developmental and transformational, as discussed in the previous chapter, are presented in the top row. Underneath these three key concepts are six elements of mentoring which, it is suggested, may be in keeping with the overall approach. These elements are listed in the left-hand column. Each of the elements, how they relate to each other and the overall approach are explained in the sections that follow.

Research on the nature of judgemental, developmental and transformational mentoring was explored in the previous chapter. Based on these explorations the approaches are briefly summarised for this framework as follows:

> **Judgemental mentoring** focuses on the mentor assessing the mentee's progress and performance. The process tends to be mentor-led and evaluative in nature.

> **Developmental mentoring** focuses on supporting the mentee's transition in becoming an autonomous practitioner. The process tends to involve the mentor helping and enabling the mentee to adjust to their role and grow as a teacher.

Transformational mentoring focuses on introducing new practices, and/or addressing existing inequalities. The process tends to involve the mentor and mentee critiquing the status quo and implementing changes with the aim of empowering their learners, and themselves as practitioners.

	Judgemental Mentoring	Developmental Mentoring	Transformational Mentoring
Purpose	Traditional	Transitional	Transformational
Function	Administrative	Educative/supportive	To challenge
Process	Directive	Non-directive	Combination of directive and non-directive
Mentor role	Coach/guide	Coach, guide, networker, counsellor	Co-thinkers and co-enquirers of change
Mentoring moves	Authoritative	Facilitative	Critically reflective dialogue
Outcome	Improvement	Individual growth	Empowerment / collaborative growth/ transformation

Table 7 - Conceptual framework

Before proceeding to outline each of the elements, a number of caveats with regard this framework are highlighted. Firstly, whilst connections between these different elements of mentoring and the overall approach are made, it is also acknowledged that in practice these are not deterministic relationships. This framework provides a basis for exploring these as conceptual relationships and does not assume there is a definitive "cause and effect" between these elements. Indeed, the possibilities for mentoring pairs to draw on elements associated with different mentoring approaches are highlighted in the discussion that follow. Secondly, whilst this framework illustrates six different elements of the mentoring process, there may be others not captured here which could may also align with the overall approaches. Finally, whilst the framework presented in this chapter is potentially transferable to other mentoring situations, there are likely to be other contextual factors which contribute to the nature of the overall approach. Despite these potential limitations, this framework offers an analytical tool for examining mentoring in detail with regard to whether it is judgemental, developmental or transformational, or whether it draws on elements from more than one approach.

4.3 Purposes of mentoring

The first element of this conceptual framework explores three different purposes of mentoring, which are considered to potentially align with judgemental, developmental

and transformational mentoring. It draws on a theory devised by Kochan and Pascarelli (2012) and developed in a subsequent article, Kochan et al. (2015). These publications draw on international research on teachers in primary and secondary schools and universities to identify three 'cultural purposes of mentoring': **traditional**, **transitional** and **transformational** (Kochan et al., 2015, p. 87).

A **traditional** purpose of mentoring involves the transmission of 'the culture, values or beliefs of the organization' (Kochan et al., 2015, p. 87). This notion of mentoring is based on the idea that in 'traditional cultures, people acquire knowledge, primarily from their elders, who are viewed as keepers of the culture' (Kochan and Pascarelli, 2012, p. 189). The overall aim is to transmit their culture 'to the next generation' (ibid.). In this setting, the mentor's role is to teach, and the mentee's role is to learn (ibid., p.90). The traditional purpose of mentoring is considered to mainly align with an overall judgemental approach as it focuses on the mentee learning to adhere to existing norms and conventions.

A **transitional** purpose of mentoring involves fostering 'growth in the mentee and help her or him to operate successfully within the organization while still maintaining her or his own cultural identity' (Kochan et al., 2015, p. 87). It is characterised by 'an emergence of innovation and creativity to solve newly identified problems, and the reshuffling of priorities and directions' (ibid.). It does not involve revolutionising current practices, yet there is potential for the mentoring relationship to explore the specific needs or preferences of the individual mentee. This purpose seems most closely aligned with developmental mentoring as there is an emphasis on supporting the individual's transition into an existing community of practice.

A **transformational** purpose of mentoring involves stimulating 'mutual growth and development' for the mentor and mentee (Kochan et al., 2015, p. 87). A transformational culture 'looks beyond what is to what might be – a more intensified questioning of beliefs, patterns, and habits occurs than in the transitional frame' (Kochan and Pascarelli, 2012, p. 193). It requires 'a commitment to having a fresh mindset, to engage in new, creative, and continual learning, and to begin taking collective action (Daszko and Scheinberg, 2005, quoted in Kochan and Pascarelli, 2012, p. 193). Here there are opportunities for radical change and for both the mentor and the mentee to grow and

develop. It is suggested that this cultural purpose could be associated with an overall transformational mentoring approach as outlined above.

Whilst in some settings it might be possible to identify a common cultural purpose of mentoring, in others, there may be more than one purpose in existence. The first chapter of this thesis, highlighted how in the context of ITE there is sometimes uncertainty around the underlying purpose of mentoring (section 1. 2). This means that in this context, and others, where the purpose of the mentoring is not explicitly discussed it means there may be different interpretations of what the relationship is for. For example, a mentee could perceive the purpose to be **transitional** and expect their mentor to support their innovations, whereas their mentor may view the purpose as **traditional** and want to teach the mentee about established practices and knowledge. In addition, the perceived purpose of mentoring could change over time. For instance, if a mentee is new to an organisation, the mentor may initially view the purpose as **traditional**, but this could potentially change to a **transitional** or **transformative** one, as the relationship develops. It is also possible for different purposes to exist within the same setting. For example, organisations might explain the purpose of mentoring as to support an individual's development, when at the same time there may be institutional performance goals which the mentoring support is primarily designed to serve. As such the mentee's interests or goals may end up being side-lined in favour of centrally imposed objectives. Whilst it is possible to view these three cultural purposes of mentoring as aligned with judgemental, developmental and transformational approaches, it is also possible that in practice the purpose of mentoring may be perceived differently by practitioners and/or stakeholders, especially if it is not explicitly stated or discussed, which may make it difficult to identify a single cultural purpose of mentoring within a particular setting.

4.4 Function of mentoring

The second element of this conceptual framework explores three different potential functions of mentoring, which are considered to align with judgemental, developmental and transformational mentoring. The term function focuses on the question of what mentoring does as opposed to the question discussed above of what the mentoring is for. It draws on a theory by Kadushin (1976) (cited in Davys and Beddoe, 2010, p. 25) from the field of professional supervision in social work and a theory of mentoring and

coaching by Brockbank and McGill (2012) based on their work in the fields of higher education (HE) and learning and development.

An **administrative** function of mentoring as described by Kadushin (1976) (cited in Davys and Beddoe, 2010, p. 25) involves mentors making sure that mentees correctly adhere to an organisation's policies, protocols and ethical standards. This is considered to align with an overall judgemental mentoring approach which focuses on mentors assessing mentees performance against existing standards.

An **educative** function of mentoring as described by Kadushin (1976) (cited in Davys and Beddoe, 2010, p. 25) involves mentors focusing on the professional learning and development of the mentee. In addition, the **supportive** function involves mentors focusing on the personal and wellbeing aspects of the mentee and their work (ibid.). It is considered that both of these functions of mentoring are aligned with an overall developmental mentoring approach which focuses on supporting the mentee's learning and growth as a teacher.

A **challenging** function of mentoring is drawn from the work of Brockbank and McGill (2012). The authors depict that one form of mentoring and coaching (which they term 'developmental') involves challenging 'your client to look beyond their immediate horizon and transform their view of the system in which they live and work' (p.168). This challenging function appears distinct from the administrative, educative or supportive functions detailed above, as it focuses on the mentor enabling the mentee to move beyond the confines of existing systems. As such, this function is considered to align with an overall transformational mentoring approach which seeks to bring about change to the status quo.

It is possible that there may be a relationship between the perceived purpose and the function of mentoring. For example, if the mentor views the purpose to be predominantly **traditional** that is to 'transmit the culture, values or beliefs of the organization' (Kochan et al., 2015, p. 87) then they may perhaps view the function of mentoring primarily in **administrative** ways, involving monitoring of established professional standards. There may be similar connections between a **transitional** purpose of mentoring (as described above) and **educative** and **supportive** functions, and a **transformational** purpose of mentoring (as described above) and a function which focuses on **challenging** existing views and the status quo. However, it is also possible

that in practice there may be variation in the ways that mentors, mentees and stakeholders perceive the function of mentoring. As with the purpose of mentoring, their views on the function may not necessarily align with each other and may change over time. Mentors' and mentees' perception of the function of mentoring may also vary depending on the situation at hand. For example, if a mentee is upset, the mentor may view the function of mentoring as to **support**, whereas if the mentee is breaching a health and safety procedure, the mentor may view the function in **administrative** terms.

4.5 Process

The third element of this conceptual framework explores three different potential processes of mentoring, which are considered to align with judgemental, developmental and transformational mentoring. It draws on a theory of mentoring by Clutterbuck (2004) from the commercial sector, and the work of Brockbank and McGill (2012), and Kochan et al. (2015) as described above.

A **directive** mentoring process is characterised by the mentor taking 'primary responsibility for managing the relationship', this may include: 'deciding the content, timing, and direction of discussion; …pointing the mentee to specific career or personal goals, or … giving strong advice and suggestions' (Clutterbuck, 2004, p.15). A directive mentoring process is considered to be aligned with a judgemental mentoring approach, which as described above, is mentor-led. In addition, there is existing research on judgemental mentoring which draws on the work of Clutterbuck (2004) to depict this approach as being of a directive nature (Hobson, 2016a; Manning and Hobson, 2017).

A **non- directive** mentoring process is described as that which: 'encourages the mentee to set the agenda and initiate meetings, encourages the mentee to come to his or her own conclusions about the way forward and generally stimulates the development of self-reliance' (Clutterbuck, 2004, p.15). This process is considered to align with a developmental mentoring approach which focuses on supporting an individual's transition into their role and enabling them to become an autonomous practitioner. Clutterbuck (2001) advocates a 'developmental and empowering' approach to mentoring where the mentee 'is encouraged to do things for himself or herself' (2004, p.13). Indeed, he highlights that if mentors are overly **directive** and are 'always providing the answer' this is 'not going to help someone grow' (Clutterbuck, 2004, p. 18).

A process which is **both directive and non-directive** involves the mentor and mentee being flexible and adaptable (Brockbank and McGill, 2012, p. 168). Kochan et al. (2015) state that when there is a transformational purpose of mentoring the stance of the mentor and mentee is more 'fluid' and 'is determined by whomever has expertise for the particular issue being addressed' (Kochan et al., 2015, p. 87). As a result, a process which is both directive and non-directive is considered to be aligned with an overall transformational mentoring approach.

It is possible that there may be a relationship between the elements introduced so far in the conceptual framework. For instance, if a mentor viewed the purpose of mentoring in a **traditional** sense which involved transmitting established norms to the next generation, this may mean that they view the function in **administrative** terms of ensuring that the mentee adheres to the correct protocols and procedures. In this situation, the mentor may adopt a **directive** stance in the mentoring by taking responsibility for managing the mentoring relationship and leading the meetings. In another example, a mentor may view the purpose of mentoring in a **transitional** sense which involves the mentor helping the mentee to operate successfully within an established organisation, whilst maintaining their own identity. This may mean they view the function in **educative** and **supportive** terms of facilitating the mentee's professional growth and caring for their wellbeing. In this situation, the mentor may adopt a more **non-directive** stance by encouraging the mentee to set the agenda and decide their own steps forward. Finally, if a mentor viewed the purpose of mentoring in a **transformational** sense, whereby there is a rigorous questioning of beliefs and a move towards collective action and the function as **to challenge** the status quo then this may result in a process where the mentor and mentee **both direct the process** at varying times depending on their expertise and the matter in hand. The above examples focus on the mentor's perspective, however, it is also possible that the *mentee's* perspective on the purpose and function of the mentoring may also shape the nature of the process. Furthermore, whilst mentors and mentees may have a tendency to operate in predominantly directive or non-directive ways, the way the process is enacted could vary depending on their situation or stage of the mentoring relationship.

4.6 Mentor roles

The fourth element of this conceptual framework explores three sets of roles that a mentor may adopt, which are considered to align with judgemental, developmental and transformational mentoring. There are a number of theories and models which depict the varying roles of a mentor. This framework draws on the work of Clutterbuck (2004), discussed above, a further model by Clutterbuck and Klasen (2002), and Brockbank and McGill (2012).

The roles of **coach** and **guide** are depicted by Clutterbuck (2004) and Clutterbuck and Klasen (2002) as characteristic of a directive mentoring process.[7] These roles can involve the mentor advising the mentee, setting goals for the mentee, and demonstrating how to do something the mentee finds difficult. These roles are considered to align with a mentor-led, judgemental approach. It should be noted that, as described in the preceding chapters, in the context of ITE mentors are sometimes responsible for formally assessing mentees (as in England and Norway for instance), whereas this assessor role is not widely depicted in models of mentoring. This indicates that in other contexts, the assessment is perhaps not associated with the potential roles of a mentor.

The roles of **networker** and **counsellor** are depicted by Clutterbuck (2004) and Clutterbuck and Klasen (2002) as characteristic of a non-directive mentoring process. These roles can involve the mentor listening to the mentee, encouraging them to identify useful people and resources, helping the mentee to structure and analyse their decisions, and supporting the mentee to take responsibility for their own development. These roles are considered to align with a more developmental approach which focuses on enabling the mentee's growth and transition as a teacher.

The mentor roles of **co-thinkers** and **co-enquirers of change** are drawn from Kochan et al. (2015)'s conception of a transformational purpose of mentoring. Here the mentor and mentee work together in order to question and challenge the status quo. These roles are considered to align with the overall notion of transformational mentoring. It is suggested that the mentor in this situation may also draw on roles associated with developmental

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[7] It is also recognised that coaching can also be depicted as a non-directive process (e.g. Thompson, 2013). This would involve a coach eliciting solutions from a client, so they are enabled to help themselves.

mentoring, such as listener and empathiser (Brockbank and McGill, 2012, p. 169), but they would reach further than this by adopting the collegial, active stances of co-thinkers and co-enquirers with their mentees in order to bring about changes to the current context.

The roles presented in the conceptual framework all have the potential to be useful for the mentee. However, this brief digression illustrates the potential for mentors to adopt a rather more negative stance. In an early study of mentoring for nurses, Darling (1986) identified four broad types of 'toxic mentors', which are summarised in table 8 below.

Types of toxic mentor	Behaviours
Avoiders	Never or rarely available to a mentee
Dumpers	Puts mentees into difficult situations and/or allocates tasks which are beyond their current ability and do not offer assistance. May 'dump' undesirable tasks on the mentee.
Blockers	Does not respond to requests, withholds information and/or 'over supervises' thus limiting mentee's development.
Destroyers/Criticisers	Has a tendency to criticise and focus on the negative and as a result damage mentees' self-esteem and confidence. These mentors may have 'an over-inflated view of their own level of competence'. Such a 'level of arrogance can be very off-putting' for the mentee.

Table 8 - Darling (1986) Types of toxic mentors

The 'destroyers/criticisers' could be considered as aligned with judgemental mentoring, particularly if mentors focus on the negative aspects of the mentee's teaching – an approach Hobson and Malderez (2013) termed the worst kind of "*judgementoring*" (see section 3.3.2). However, some of these roles appear to be positioned beyond the concepts of judgemental, developmental and transformational mentoring, as outlined above. For instance, even the most directive of mentoring approaches implies an exchange or interaction whereas 'avoiders' are notable for their absence in the relationship. In addition, 'blockers' and 'dumpers' may serve to damage a mentee's chance to succeed.

4.7 Mentoring moves

The fifth element of the conceptual framework explores specific mentoring techniques or moves that a mentor may adopt. This section draws on the work of Heron (2001) from the field of psychotherapy; Alred et al. (2006) from the field of workplace mentoring and Brockbank and McGill (2012) as described above.

Authoritative moves are described by Heron (2001) as 'rather … hierarchical: the practitioner is taking responsibility for and on behalf of the client – guiding his or her behaviour, giving instruction, raising consciousness' (p.6). Three particular authoritative interventions are identified by Heron (2001). The first is a prescriptive intervention. This involves the helping practitioner directing the behaviour of the client. The helper may give direct orders or advice to the client. The second is an informative intervention. This involves the helping practitioner imparting knowledge, information, or meaning to the client. The helper may direct the client to a specific resource for example. The third is a confronting intervention. This involves the helping practitioner raise the client's consciousness about a limiting attitude or behaviour of which they are relatively unaware. The helper may talk to the client about specific issues they have noticed, that the client may not have recognised. Heron (2001) argues that in practice 'traditional education and training have rather overdone authoritative sorts of intervention' (p.6). Indeed, the overuse of such authoritative interventions is considered to potentially align with an overall judgemental mentoring approach which is mentor-led and concerned with monitoring and evaluating the mentee's performance.

Facilitative moves are described by Heron (2001) as 'rather less hierarchical: the practitioner is seeking to enable clients to become more autonomous and take more responsibility for themselves' (p.6). Three particular facilitative interventions are identified by Heron (2001). The first is a cathartic intervention. This involves the helping practitioner enabling the client to release painful or difficult emotions. They may invite the mentee to explore their feelings around a particular incident for example. The second is a catalytic intervention. This involves the helping practitioner eliciting self-discovery, self-directed learning and problem solving in the client. The helper may ask the client a series of questions to explore their thinking and what they have learned. The third is a supportive intervention. This involves the helping practitioner affirming the worth and value of the client's person, qualities, attitudes or actions. They may involve the helper highlighting the client's strengths or positive actions. These facilitative interventions are considered to align with a developmental mentoring approach which focuses on supporting the mentee's professional development and wellbeing as a beginning teacher.

A further model by Alred et al. (2006) offers a suggested structure for mentoring meetings. This '3-stage model' is based on and resembles Egan's (2002) 'Skilled Helper'

process. The three stages are: exploration, new understanding, and action planning (Alred et al., 2006, p. 40). The meeting begins with the mentor asking the mentee questions about what they want to discuss and prompting them to focus on important issues. The second stage involves the mentor asking questions to encourage the mentee to come to new understandings of those issues. The third stage involves the mentor prompting the mentee to decide on an action plan for how to proceed. The authors promote this as a model for structuring a mentoring meeting, but also advocate it as a way to review the mentoring process itself. They state it is a tool which can 'enhance [a] shared understanding of the mentoring process and relationship and develop the mentee's ability to use the model independently' (ibid. p. 41). This is also considered as a potential strategy that could be drawn on in mentoring meetings, which appears in keeping with an overall developmental approach aimed at enhancing the mentee's growth and autonomy as a teacher.

A **reflective dialogue** between the mentor and mentee is described as an exchange which 'engages the person (who is in dialogue) at the edge of their knowledge, sense of self and the world' (Brockbank and McGill, 2012, p. 47). It overlaps with, but reaches further than, the facilitative moves outlined above. It aims to actively perturb and disturb existing assumptions and recognises that exploring the edges of awareness can be painful, but this in turn can lead to 'new learning' (ibid.). Brockbank and McGill (2012) list a number of techniques mentors in this situation may draw on including mentor congruence (being genuine, sharing feelings, opinions and beliefs) and advanced empathy (the mentor shows an awareness of both surface and underlying feelings which may not be explicitly communicated by the mentee) (p.194). A reflective dialogue also involves the mentor and the mentee client reviewing what they learnt and what aspects of the dialogue enabled them to achieve this learning. In other words, they review the learning and also the process of learning (ibid.). These techniques are considered to be aligned with the notion of transformational mentoring which aims to bring about substantive change.

There was little evidence in theoretical literature about the roles and moves a mentee might adopt and how these may influence the nature of the mentoring approach. For example, a mentee who regularly asks direct questions on a topic (which they could potentially research for themselves), may succeed in influencing their mentor to adopt more **authoritative** moves. Whereas a mentee who freely voices their views of a

situation they have encountered and what they might do next time, may enable and encourage the mentor to adopt more **facilitative** moves. However, this dynamic appears to not have been widely explored.

4.8 Outcomes of mentoring

The final element of the conceptual framework explores the outcomes aligned with judgemental, developmental and transformational mentoring. This section draws on two theories: Brockbank and McGill's (2012) 'Situational Framework' and Kochan and Pascarelli's (2012) 'Cultural Purposes of Mentoring' outlined in section 4.3 above. These theories are drawn upon to suggest three different outcomes of mentoring, which have been alluded to in the preceding sections.

The first of these is **improvement**. When improvement occurs the fundamental aspects of an encompassing institution may remain unchanged, current power structures are unaltered and taken-for-granted assumptions are unchallenged (Brockbank and McGill, 2012, p. 11). The desired result is an improved performance by the mentee, an overall continuation of the status quo, with existing power relations remaining intact. The mentee demonstrates their development through their gradual adoption of existing and accepted norms and values. This outcome is considered to be aligned with judgemental mentoring and the other elements in this category including **authoritative** mentoring moves, a **directive** process, the mentor roles of **coach** and **guide**, an **administrative** function, and a **traditional** purpose which is concerned with upholding the status quo.

The second outcome is **individual growth**. Here, the aim is to help the mentee operate successfully within the organisation, but there is also an emphasis on outcomes relating to individual growth, **innovation** and **creativity** (Kochan and Pascarelli 2012). It is considered to potentially align with an overall developmental approach and its associated elements of **facilitative** mentoring moves, a **non-directive** process and the roles of **networker** and **counsellor**, an **educative and supportive** function, and a **transitional** purpose, which is concerned with facilitating the mentee's transition into an existing community.

The third outcome involves **empowerment**, **collaborative growth** and/or **transformation**. Here the individual mentee, the mentor and/or the organisation are changed as a result of the mentoring. Existing assumptions have been identified and

power relations have been analysed (Brockbank and McGill, 2012). Mentors and mentees are aware of the underlying values and priorities of the systems within which they are operating and challenge existing practices (ibid.). In this situation, it is possible for the mentor and the mentee to grow as a result of their collaborative working (Kochan and Pascarelli 2012). This outcome is associated with the other elements of a transformational mentoring approach, namely mentoring moves which enable **reflective dialogue**, a fluid process which may draw on both **directive and non-directive** stances and interchangeable mentor/mentee roles of **co-thinker** and **co-enquirers of change**, a function to **challenge**, and a **transformational** purpose, which is concerned with stimulating growth and change.

Whilst these outcomes are considered to be associated with the overall concepts of judgemental, developmental and transformational mentoring, and the other five underlying elements, in practice, mentees may experience more than one type of outcome. For instance, if elements associated with developmental mentoring were employed, such as a **non-directive** process and **facilitative** mentoring moves, there is no guarantee this will lead to the mentee adopting innovative and creative practices. The outcome, for example, may be of an **improvement** nature, which centres on upholding the status quo. In addition, a mentoring pair who attempt to enact a transformational mentoring approach may not achieve the changes they hope for if there is a lack institutional support, as discussed in the preceding chapter (section 3.3.4).

4.9 Conclusion

The conceptual framework presented in this chapter drew on wider theoretical literature to identify six elements which may potentially be aligned with judgemental, developmental or transformational mentoring. This conceptual framework does have a number of limitations however. Firstly, as illustrated in the discussions above, whilst the various elements are considered to conceptually align with each other, it is possible that mentoring pairs in practice may draw on elements from more than one approach. Secondly, some of the elements may potentially overlap with each other. For instance, the moves adopted by a mentor in a developmental approach may correspond with some of the moves adopted in a transformational approach. As a result, it may at times be difficult to classify whether the element belongs to one overall approach or another. Thirdly, this framework does not explore how the context of mentoring may shape the

approach. (In this study, Chapter 2 aimed to address this issue by introducing details about the wider settings in which mentoring pairs who participated in this study are situated.) Fourthly, this framework is not evidence-informed. It has been constructed on a conceptual basis, in other words, the elements and overall approaches were considered to align, but the suggested relationships are not based on empirical data. Despite these limitations, this framework is considered a potentially useful tool for exploring practitioners' views and enactments of mentoring with regard to judgemental, developmental, and transformational mentoring. It is drawn on in the Findings chapters of this thesis and revisited, in light of the evidence collected, in Chapter 9.

Chapter Five- Methodology

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the methodology for the study is presented. The aim of this chapter is to offer a clear and transparent account of the research process. It begins with an outline of the methodological framework for the study. This is followed by a discussion of the qualitative and comparative research design and an outline of the data collection process. The next section examines the two main research methods that were employed: semi-structured interviews and audio recordings. An outline of the data analysis process follows this. In the final sections of the chapter the positionality of the researcher is explored, followed by a consideration of the trustworthiness of the study and the ethical implications of the research.

The research questions as set out in the Introduction chapter are presented below:

RQ1. To what extent are mentoring enactments amongst research participants in PCE ITE in England and Norway judgemental or developmental in nature?

RQ2. What are the characteristics of judgemental and developmental mentoring?

RQ3. What factors contribute towards judgemental and developmental mentoring enactments?

RQ4. What are the consequences for mentees and mentors of judgemental and developmental approaches to mentoring?

5.2 Methodological framework

This section outlines the methodological framework for the study. It does this by exploring three questions devised by Lincoln and Guba (1994) which address basic beliefs underlying research paradigms (p. 108). The first of these is the ontological question, 'what is the form and nature of reality?' and 'what is there that can be known about it?' (ibid.). The second explores the epistemological concern, 'what is the nature of the relationship between the knower or would-be knower and what can be known?' (ibid.) Finally, the third question addresses the methodological issue of 'how can the

inquirer (would-be knower) go about finding out whatever he or she believes can be known?' (ibid.). An exploration of these questions offers clarity around the philosophical positioning of this study and the nature of the claims to knowledge which are made.

5.2.1 Ontology

This first section outlines beliefs around the nature of reality and existence which underpin this study. Whilst there are a wide variety of ontological positions (Grix, 2010, p. 60), in methodological literature they are often presented as falling into the categories of realism and idealism (Blaikie, 2007). Realism denotes that 'natural and social phenomena' have an existence which is 'independent of the activities of the human observer' (ibid.). From this perspective, the nature of a phenomenon, such as mentoring, exists regardless of an observer watching it. Idealism, on the other hand, conveys the belief that 'what we regard as the external world is just appearances and has no independent existence apart from our thoughts' (ibid., p. 13). From this perspective, mentoring would only exist in the thoughts of an observer. The ontological position of this research does not sit entirely in either of these camps. Rather, this study is underpinned by constructionism, which is a belief that there is an external reality, but it remains meaningless without human thought; a meaningful reality emerges when human consciousness engages with the world and its objects (Crotty, 1998, p. 43). For example, a chair 'may exist as a phenomenal object regardless of whether any consciousness is aware of its existence. It exists as a chair, however only if conscious beings construe it as a chair' (ibid., p.55). From this perspective, the phenomenon of mentoring is considered to exist, however, it only exists as 'mentoring' if we, the human observers, interpret it as such. The terms that we use, which help us to understand the natural and social world do not then have an innate essence, they are rather social products whose meanings have been constructed (Bryman 2012, p.34). As such, from a constructionist perspective, the phenomena of mentoring is real, but is only recognised as 'mentoring' as the result of some degree of a shared understanding of the term.

This study then assumes that there is a relatively common understanding of the notion of mentoring; however the earlier introduction and literature review chapters illustrated that it can, nonetheless, be interpreted in different ways. This points to two branches of thinking: '(social) constructionism' and 'constructivism'. Whilst these two terms are sometimes used interchangeably, the former viewpoint tends to emphasise that the

meanings we construct whether they be about natural or social phenomena 'always arise in and out of interactive human community' (Crotty, 1998, p.5), whereas the latter focuses on the 'meaning-giving activity of the individual mind' (Blaikie, 2007, p. 22). This study aims to consider both these perspectives: how mentoring is enacted and described by individual participants and how mentoring can be understood as a result of interaction with these participants and existing research.

5.2.2 Epistemology

This section examines the epistemological considerations around the relationship between the researcher and what can be known about the phenomenon they are researching. As explained above, this study is underpinned by a constructionist ontological perspective, and it is this perspective that also underpins the epistemology of the research. Existing literature describes a range of epistemological positions which impact upon what researchers accept as evidence for knowing the world (Newby, 2014, p. 36). For instance, objectivism depicts 'the notion that truth and meaning reside in their objects independently of any consciousness' (Crotty, 1998, p. 42). From this viewpoint, the researcher is concerned with discovering a pre-existing truth or meaning which exists separately from them. Subjectivism offers a contrasting view which considers that objects make 'no contribution to their meaning; the observer imposes it. Hence, things may be given quite different meanings by different observers' (Blaikie, 2007, p. 19). Researchers subscribing to this perspective would claim that they can offer their own, individual interpretation which exists in their mind only. Constructionism offers a third epistemological perspective which is that knowledge comes about as a result of people having to make sense of their encounters with the physical world and with other people' (Newby, 2014, p. 22). The knowledge generated is neither intrinsic to an object, nor created independently from it, rather it is the result of a researcher's interactions or encounters with the participants and/or the phenomenon (ibid.).

In this study then, the understandings of mentoring that are presented in the findings and following discussion are informed by a combination of the participants' descriptions of their experiences and perceptions, existing depictions of mentoring published in the field of ITE and more broadly, and the analysis of the data. This study does not claim to offer an absolute truth, or an entirely individual view, of mentoring, but rather an informed understanding of mentoring which has been generated through interaction

with practitioners and literature in the field. As such, the researcher is considered to be neither a passive discoverer, nor a sole creator, but rather a social (interactive) constructor of knowledge.

5.2.3 Methodology

This section explores the methodological question of how the researcher 'can go about finding out whatever he or she believes can be known' (Lincoln and Guba, 1994, p. 108). This study draws on the theoretical perspective of interpretivism as a basis for generating constructed understandings of mentoring. Interpretivism is an approach to research whereby researchers attempt to view the world 'through the perceptions and experiences of the participants' (Thanh and Thanh, 2015, p. 24). It seeks to interpret participants' understanding and experiences to generate further understanding of a phenomenon (ibid.). Interpretivism maintains that such an approach to research requires different methods to those of the natural sciences (Pring, 2015, p. 89). A key difference between people and objects is that the former, but not the latter 'interpret, or attach meaning to, themselves and to others' (ibid. p. 177). In order to understand people, it 'requires understanding the interpretations which they give of what they are doing' (ibid., p.117). In this study the research methods of interviews and audio recordings of mentoring meetings (outlined in section 5.4 below), were selected as ways to explore participants' interpretations of mentoring. It is possible in 'the social world' for the 'same action…[to] be used for different purposes' (ibid. p. 85). Hence, this study aimed to generate understanding about not only the behaviours observed in mentoring meetings, but also participants' intentions and understandings of the phenomenon. Interpretivism 'looks for culturally derived and historically situated interpretations of the social life-world' (Crotty, 1998, p. 67). As such this study aims to examine the contexts of participants (as explored in Chapter 2 and in the subsequent findings) in addition to exploring their interpretations of mentoring.

5.3 Research design

This section builds on the previous by providing details about the design of the study, which is aligned with its philosophical positioning detailed above. The study draws on both qualitative and comparative research designs. The details of these are explained in turn below. Following this the practical details of the design are outlined regarding who the participants were, how they were recruited and the stages of data collection.

5.3.1 Qualitative research design

Qualitative research is generally understood as having a 'naturalistic approach' which seeks to understand phenomenon in their natural settings (Golafshani, 2003, p. 600). It does not involve statistical procedures or other types of quantification (ibid.); rather it seeks to examine phenomena as they occur in the 'real-world' (ibid.). Qualitative researchers are interested in generating greater illumination and understanding (ibid.). As such it seemed that a qualitative design aligned with the underpinning methodology of the study as detailed above and would potentially enable an examination of mentoring enactments in their everyday settings and an exploration of participants' perceptions of mentoring. As will be described below, research methods associated with qualitative research designs were explored and it was decided that a combination of semi-structured interviews and audio recordings of mentoring meetings would enable this greater illumination and understanding of mentoring in PCE ITE in the two settings of England and Norway.

There are a number of advantages of qualitative research designs. Firstly, they enable detailed descriptions of participants' experiences and perspectives to be generated (Rahman, 2017, p. 104). Secondly, qualitative research designs enable an exploration of participants' inner thinking as well as their outward behaviour (ibid.). For instance, in this study, the combination of interviews and observations meant that it was possible to explore how participants described their experiences and perceptions and how they enacted mentoring in practice. The majority of previous studies examined in Chapter 3 relied on mentors' and mentees' accounts of the mentoring experience, with some drawing solely on the perspectives of mentors or mentees. Some of the studies in Norway drew on observation data; however, overall there are few studies on mentoring for student teachers which draw on both interview and recordings of mentoring meetings. Thirdly, qualitative research also 'has flexibility in terms of different research methods that can be drawn upon' (ibid.). As will be explained below, this study drew on a combination of in-person and remote approaches to data collection.

There are also some disadvantages of qualitative research designs. Firstly, as collecting and analysing detailed descriptions of practices and perceptions can be labour intensive and time consuming they tend to have small sample sizes (Rahman, 2017, p. 104). Following on from this, another disadvantage of qualitative research, is that whilst

findings may be transferable to other similar settings, it is not possible to claim generalisability (ibid.). Thirdly, whilst there are advantages to exploring phenomena in their natural settings, there are also limits to the extent that a researcher can become familiar with these contexts (ibid.). Qualitative research designs then, do have potential disadvantages, and the limitations of this particular study are outlined at the start of Chapter 9. Overall, however, it was considered that a qualitative research design would enable insights into perceptions and enactments of mentoring and would enable the research questions to be addressed.

5.3.2 Comparative research design

In addition to drawing on a qualitative research design, this study also adopted a comparative approach as it compared data generated in England and Norway. Comparative studies can generally be defined as research which examines 'specific issues or phenomena in two or more countries, societies or cultures' (Hantrais, 2009, p. 2). Comparative education studies 'can focus on the similarities of provision...as well as on areas of divergence' (Roffey-Barentsen and Malthouse, 2013b, p. 1). Such an approach to research provides an opportunity to explore how education systems relate to the 'historical and cultural developments and values' (ibid.) of the countries in which the study is undertaken. There are a number of potential approaches that comparative education researchers can take. This study draws on the seminal 'Bray and Thomas cube' (Bray and Thomas, 2014) in order to explain the nature of the comparative design of this study. The cube, originally published in 1995, is presented in figure 4 below and depicts 'a set of dimensions and levels for comparison' in education studies (ibid. p.7). The front face of the cube shows seven different levels of geographical comparison from continents at level 1 to individuals at level 7. The top side of the cube presents six non-locational demographic groups that can be examined. The right-hand face of the cube shows seven aspects of education and of society that research may explore. Whilst the cube may not necessarily capture all approaches to comparative education research, it does provide a useful framework for outlining the units of comparison in this study.
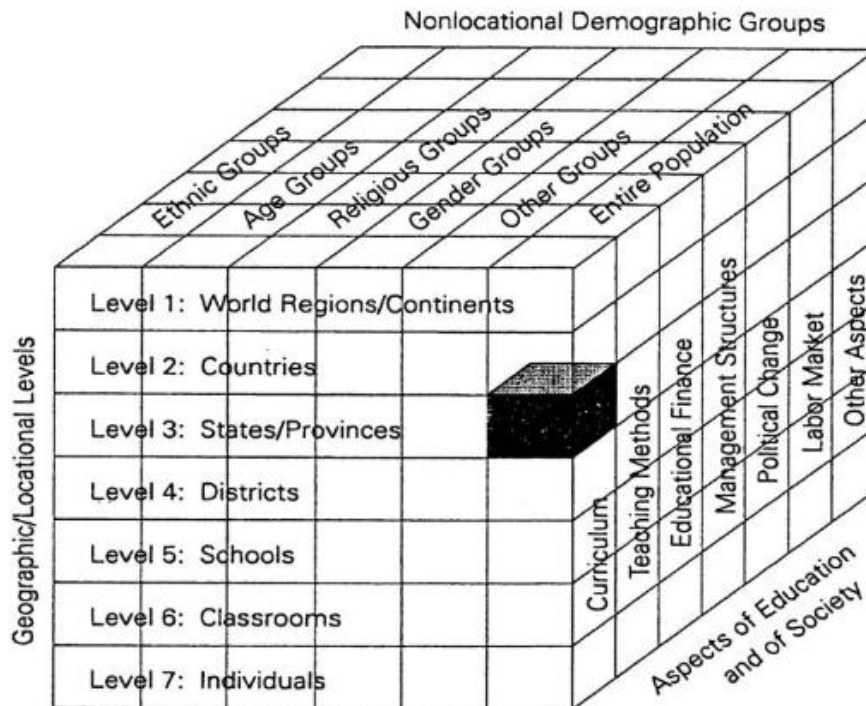
Figure 1 - The Bray and Thomas Cube (2014)

With regard to geographic levels, in this research, comparisons are drawn between mentoring enactments in two countries: England and Norway (level 2). There was also scope to draw comparisons between how individuals in these two countries enact mentoring (level 7). In addition, the mentoring pairs were recruited from two main regions in England and two in Norway, which allowed for some comparisons to potentially be drawn at level 3. With regard to non-locational demographic groups, this study did not aim to recruit participants from a particular demographic, such as ethnic groups or age groups. Instead, on the whole, participants from the entire population of the selected ITE providers were asked to volunteer to take part. Finally, the aspect of education that was investigated was mentoring for student teachers and this would fall into the 'other' category on the right-hand face of the cube.

Bray and Thomas (2014) identify a series of units of comparison that education studies can potentially draw on. These include, amongst others, a comparison of: cultures, times, social classes, policies, values and pedagogical innovations. The main units of comparison drawn on in this study are national education and mentoring policies (as explored in Chapter 2) and practitioners' descriptions and enactments of PCE ITE mentoring. Whilst this study then adopts Bray and Thomas' (2014) recommendation that studies move beyond 'a single level of analysis', it perhaps does not entirely fulfil

their proposal for 'multilevel analyses …[which] achieve multifaceted and holistic analyses of educational phenomena' (p.10). Nonetheless, this study does aim to heed Bray and Thomas' (2014) further suggestion that where such multilevel analyses are not practicable, 'researchers should at least recognise the limits of their foci' (p. 10).

Conducting a comparative study of education has a number of advantages. For instance, further understanding of a phenomenon can be generated when it is examined in two or more contexts (Bryman, 2006, p.65). In addition, this type of study can be particularly 'powerful' as it has the potential to:

> make us aware of taken for granted assumptions, help us to challenge our own perspectives, raise new questions and construct new ways of conceptualising and acting

> (Aspfors and Frannson, 2015, p. 84)

In addition, it should be highlighted that the aim of this study is not to find out whether PCE ITE mentoring is either 'better or more successful' in England or Norway, rather the aim is to explore what can be learned from examining this phenomenon in these two countries (Roffey-Barentsen and Malthouse, 2013b, p. 1).

There are, however, a number of challenges facing researchers undertaking comparative studies. Firstly, there is the challenge of whether the research questions are relevant and appropriate in different contexts (Bray, et al., 2014). Indeed, in Chapter 3 it was highlighted that in in PCE ITE research in England the terms 'judgemental' and 'developmental' mentoring are drawn upon, whereas in Norway, these terms had been addressed in articles authored by researchers at Oslo university (Lejonberg, et al., 2015), but were not widespread. In this study, the research questions were considered as appropriate in both settings however, as existing research indicated that there were mentoring enactments taking place which appeared to align with these overall concepts.

Secondly, there is a challenge around whether ensuring that samples of respondents or organisations are 'equivalent' (Bryman, 2010, p. 65). Arguably, it might not be possible to achieve complete equivalence in samples and organisations when conducting research in two different countries. Hence, in this study the aim was to recruit participants from *comparable* settings. The ITE courses and mentoring arrangements in England and Norway were considered to be comparable for three key reasons. Firstly, the student teachers were all undertaking a full-time, postgraduate teaching qualification accredited by a university. Secondly, the student teachers were all

undertaking teaching placements in post-compulsory education settings. Thirdly, the mentoring on placements was conducted on a one-to-one basis between a more experienced teacher and the student teacher. There were some differences in the structure and length of the placements (as discussed in section 5.3.3 below), but overall it was still considered viable to examine and compare the mentoring enactments taking place in both countries.

A third challenge facing comparative research studies is around the need for translation and whether this may 'undermine genuine comparability' (Bryman, 2010, p. 65). In this study, all the interviews and mentoring meetings were conducted in English. This meant that most of the Norwegian participants were drawing on their second language during data collection. This issue was discussed with intermediary contacts at Norwegian universities at the design stages of the research process. These contacts suggested that whilst most Norwegian teachers and student teachers are accomplished English speakers, those teaching English might feel more comfortable and more willing than other potential participants to conduct interviews and mentoring meetings in their second language. Hence, participants from Norway were all teaching English, although they also taught other subjects too. There is still an issue of whether the terms drawn upon in this study have the same meaning in Norway as they do in England. In order to address this, intermediary contacts at Norwegian universities, who were bilingual, were asked to read the participant information sheet, consent form and interview schedules at the design stages of the research. They recommended some changes in order to increase the chances of participants' understanding the terminology employed. In addition, it was not expected that all participants would understand key concepts in the same way, rather the study would enable an exploration of how mentoring appeared to be understood.

A fourth challenge of undertaking comparative research is 'the potential problem of insensitivity to specific national and cultural contexts' (Bryman, 2010, p. 65). Conducting research for Chapter 2, offered me insights into the national and cultural context of Norway. In addition, before undertaking this study, the researcher had not visited Norway. As a result, reading was undertaken to learn about the country and its culture. This included accessing travel books and blogs about Norway and finding out about the history of the country and recent significant events that had taken place, such as the bomb attack by Breivik in 2011 and the rise in right-wing political groups. Reading was

also undertaken on workplace etiquette in Norway and potentially useful details were noted, such as the importance of punctuality and work/life balance, and that being boastful is considered socially distasteful; when visiting Norway, it was found that such details appeared to be accurate. Having outlined the qualitative and comparative aspects of the research design, the following sections provide details about the participants, how they were recruited and the data collection process.

5.3.3 The participants

The participants were mentors and student teachers in PCE ITE settings in England and Norway. Twelve mentoring pairs were recruited: six from England and six from Norway. There were 23 participants in total as one mentor in Norway was working with two student teachers. The student teachers were all undertaking a one-year, postgraduate ITE qualification which included a teaching placement at a PCE institution.[8] In England, student teachers were enrolled on the full-time Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) in Post-Compulsory Education. In Norway, student teachers were also undertaking a postgraduate one-year ITE programme which was either a discrete course (PPU) or part of a 5-year integrated masters, as described in section 2.6.2. The mentors were all employed at the PCE institutions where the student teachers were undertaking their placements.

The teaching placements varied in length depending on the ITE institution. In England student teachers tended to attend their teaching placement on a part-time basis (usually two or three days a week) over approximately 8 months (from October – May), whereas in Norway student teachers undertook two, full-time placements, one in the autumn term and one in the spring, which were either six or eight weeks in length according to the ITE institution. The stages of data collection outlined in section 5.3.4 below were structured around the single, part-time teaching placement in England and around one of the two, full-time teaching placements in Norway.

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[8] One reason for choosing to focus on full-time student teachers was that data could be collected at the start and end of the mentoring relationship within a single academic year. Researching mentoring for part-time student teachers was also considered; however, as these relationships would usually last over a two-year period, in the end this did not seem practicable, given the funding for this PhD was for three years only.

5.3.4 Stages of data collection

There were four stages of data collection (outlined in table 9 below). The first stage consisted of one-to-one individual interviews with both mentors and mentees. These interviews took place in-person before or around the start of the teaching placement. Once the mentor and the mentee from corresponding pairs had been interviewed, they were asked to complete the second stage of data collection: making an audio recording of a mentoring meeting during the first half of the teaching placement. The third stage of data collection consisted of participants undertaking another audio recording of a mentoring meeting during the second half of their teaching placement. The final stage of data collection was conducted after or around the end of the teaching placement and involved a follow-up individual interview with each of the mentors and mentees either via Skype or in-person.

Stage	Description
Stage 1	Initial individual interview (before or around the start of the teaching placement)
Stage 2	First audio recording of a mentoring meeting (during the first half of the teaching placement)
Stage 3	Second audio recording of a mentoring meeting (during the second half of the teaching placement)
Stage 4	Follow-up individual interview (after or around the end of the teaching placement)

Table 9 - Stages of data collection

5.3.5 Recruitment of participants

During the stages of research design, it was decided that a sample of 12 mentoring pairs would be sought and that this would involve recruiting three pairs from four universities (two in England and two in Norway). The reason for this approach is that it would potentially enable comparisons to be drawn between the ways that mentoring pairs from different institutions in each country enacted the mentoring.

In order to access potential participants for this study, existing intermediary contacts were drawn on at two universities in England and two universities in Norway. These contacts were course leaders or course tutors on PCE ITE programmes. Before the start of the academic year during which data collection took place, the contacts were emailed details about the project and a copy of the participant information sheet and consent form (Appendices 1 and 2). They were asked if they would be able to help with recruiting participants for the project and, after further discussions about the finer details and practicalities involved, all agreed. At the two universities in England in-person visits were

arranged to groups of student teachers to tell them about the project and invite expressions of interest. The mentors of those student teachers who volunteered were then contacted via email by the intermediary university to ask if they would also be willing to take part. In Norway, it was not feasible to undertake visits to the groups in advance of the data collection. In these instances, the ITE tutors sent emails to student teachers or their mentors asking for volunteers, and then contacted the corresponding mentor/mentee.

Whilst the process described above generated potential participants from three of the four universities, none of the mentors from one university in England expressed an interest in taking part in the study. Despite sending follow-up emails, no volunteers were forthcoming. In addition, one student teacher, from an English university where participants had been identified, withdrew from the PGCE course and the study. This meant that four mentoring pairs in England still needed to be recruited. As a result, a number of universities and colleges were contacted across the country. This search resulted in one mentoring pair being recruited from a second university relatively quickly. However, it then took longer to recruit further pairs. In the end an ITE tutor at a FE college offered to help find potential participants. In this instance, a convenience sampling approach was adopted, as the intermediary contact approached mentors and student teachers directly and asked if they would be willing to take part. As these final three pairs were recruited to the project later in the academic year, their initial interviews took place later than the other participants' and they also only undertook one audio recording of a mentoring meeting during the second half of the placement. Whilst, in the end 12 mentoring pairs were recruited to the project, there were limitations to the recruitment methods and samples detailed here, which are discussed in Chapter 9. In addition, the ethical implications of the recruitment process are addressed in section 5.8 below.

5.4 Research Methods

This section outlines details about the two research methods that were employed in this study: semi structured interviews and audio recordings of mentoring meetings. In each section the strengths and limitations of these methods are discussed and an outline of how the method was conducted is presented. This section concludes with a description

of the procedures relating to the recordings of interviews and mentoring meetings, and subsequent transcription.

5.4.1 Semi-structured interviews

Semi-structured interviews were drawn upon in this study for three key reasons. Firstly, this research method was considered a useful way of exploring participants' interpretations of their mentoring experiences. If a structured interview method had been chosen, this would not have allowed the researcher to ask prompting and probing questions, tailored to the individual's responses, in order to gain clarification or further information (Drever, 2003). In addition, if an unstructured approach was taken then participants may not have described aspects of mentoring that this study sought to find out about. Hence, semi-structured interviews appeared an appropriate way to generate data which would enable an exploration of participants' detailed descriptions of their circumstances and of the mentoring process. Secondly, by using semi-structured interviews in combination with audio recordings of mentoring meetings (described in the following section) it meant that a detailed picture could be developed of how the mentoring was described and enacted. Thirdly, the use of follow-up interviews after the audio recordings had been collected, meant that specific incidents or approaches identified in these recordings could be discussed with participants. This enabled further insights into their interpretations, intentions and motivations with regard to the mentoring enactments.

Despite the advantages of using semi-structured interviews, there were also some drawbacks of this research method. Firstly, when conducting interviews, it is possible that participants may not provide credible responses. There can be several reasons for this. For instance, interviewees may be selective in what they tell the interviewer and not necessarily provide all relevant information in their answers. This may occur if participants consider their views to be 'impolite or insensitive' or alternatively they may simply 'not think' to mention details which appears to them as regular and/or unremarkable (Simpson and Tuson, 1995, p. 16). In addition, a sense of "social desirability" may lead to participants presenting themselves in a good light and giving answers they think the researcher wants to hear (Hobson and Townsend, 2010, p. 230). Secondly, when using semi-structured interviews, by devising an interview schedule the researcher is making decisions about what to discuss with participants; however, these

questions may not necessarily reflect the priorities or interests of the practitioners in the field. Thirdly, the use of open questions within semi-structured interview schedules can lead to data being generated which is not relevant to the research questions or is not comparable with responses from other participants. How these potential limitations or drawbacks were addressed is outlined in what follows.

The initial interview schedules were piloted in England with a mentor and a mentee, who were identified through a contact at a local FE college. At the end of the pilot interviews the questions were discussed with the participants and as a result some minor changes to the wording and order of the questions were made. For instance, during the pilot the first question was about the participants' biographies (which is explained in further detail below) and it was highlighted that this might be better placed later in the interview once rapport had been established further. In addition, there was a relatively pronounced change of direction mid-way through the first interview from questions about the participant's background to questions about mentoring. As a result of the pilot, an explanation was added to notify interviewees of this change in focus. The interviews in Norway were not piloted, although as described above (in section 5.3.2) the intermediary contacts who worked in teacher education there were asked to comment on the suitability of the questions in this context.

The following provides an account of how the initial and follow-up interviews were conducted in the study. As stated above the initial interviews took place at around the beginning of the teaching placement. However, for the four pairs who were recruited later to the study, the interviews were undertaken part way through the placement. The initial interviews took place at participants' place of work (for mentors) or place of study (for mentees) at times that were convenient for them in order to try and minimise disruption to their daily routines. This also meant that participants were interviewed in a setting that was familiar to them, which may have helped them to feel more relaxed. Participants were asked to suggest a location within their organisation that would be quiet and private in order for the content of the interview to remain confidential. Upon meeting the interviewee, informal conversations took place about the weather, the setting or the journey in order to start to build rapport and set a friendly tone for the interaction. Interviewees were also thanked for their time and for agreeing to participate to show their contribution was valued. An informal preamble was presented to re-state key information from the participant information sheet, including the details

around confidentiality and anonymity. It was also emphasised that there were no right or wrong answers to the questions and participants were encouraged to speak openly and honestly. Participants were asked if they had any questions about the research and to sign a consent form. All the interviews undertaken in this study were approximately one hour in duration.

The broad purpose of the initial interview was to build rapport with participants and find out about their backgrounds, contexts and experience of mentoring to date. For instance, mentors were asked to describe their role, the organisation where they worked, how they came to be a mentor and whether they had undertaken any training or preparation for the role. Mentees were asked about their ITE course, their reasons for entering teaching and their expectations of the mentoring. The schedules for initial interviews with mentors and mentees are provided in appendices 3 and 4.

The initial interview for both mentors and mentees also contained a question which aimed to explore details of their personal biographies. By drawing on life history and biographical interviewing techniques, and in particular Kelchterman's (1993) study on the biographies of teachers, a question was devised which involved asking the participant to identify five critical moments, phases or people, to plot them on a timeline and describe them. The purpose of this question was to explore details from the participants' backgrounds which they had identified as significant as a way to understanding more about their lives. It also enabled an exploration of how their previous experiences may shape their approaches to mentoring. Participants were emailed this question in advance of the interview and most brought along notes of their answers. An advantage of this approach was that it gave the participants time to think about which incidents had been critical and which they felt comfortable discussing in an interview setting. On the downside, by emailing this question to participants ahead of the interview it may have undermined a common advantage of interviews that respondents answer spontaneously and do not prepare their answers in advance (Drever, 2003, p.41). However, as potentially this question could raise sensitive topics, it was decided that in order to minimise any potential harm to participants, the advantage of giving mentees time to consider their responses outweighed the potential disadvantage of their answers lacking spontaneity.

At the end of the initial interview participants were asked if there was anything else with regard to their circumstances or the mentoring that they would like to add in order to give them the opportunity to raise their own issues. After this the next stage of data collection was discussed: making an audio recording of a mentoring meeting during the first half of the placement. An approximate date by which they would make the recording was agreed and participants were told they would receive a gentle reminder about this via email.

The follow-up interviews took place around the end of the teaching placement. Out of the 23 follow-up interviews, 15 were conducted via Skype. It was decided during the design phase of the research that it was more feasible and affordable to conduct follow-up interviews with the Norwegian participants virtually. English participants were given a choice between Skype (chosen by four participants) or in-person interviews (chosen by eight participants). As rapport had been established via the initial interview which took place in-person and subsequent email exchanges, this served to minimise potential feelings of awkwardness or artificiality generated by using the video-call technology. Using Skype for the follow-up interviews also meant that the researcher and participants could see each other face-to-face, whilst remaining in their respective locations (Svensson et al., 2014, p.1018). This was both cost-effective and convenient as participants chose a time which was suitable for them. Participants conducted Skype calls from either their home or a private office at work, which meant they were in familiar surroundings (Oates, 2015, p.17) and this may have helped them to feel at ease during the interview.

There were also some downsides to using Skype. For example, there was sometimes an echo for a brief period of time and occasional time delays in speech. These problems did not have too much of an impact during the interview itself, but could make transcribing the audio recording afterwards more difficult. In addition, the follow-up interview involved interviewees looking at two models of mentoring that had been emailed to them in advance. When conducting these interviews in-person the participants and researcher could look at the model together and point to different parts whilst talking, whereas when using Skype this became a bit more awkward as the speaker had to explain in more detail which section of the diagram they were referring to. Overall however, the Skype interviews went smoothly and the advantages of using this approach were considered to outweigh the disadvantages.

The main purpose of the follow-up interview was to explore how participants described their approaches to the mentoring enacted over the teaching placement. The schedule for the follow-up interviews is presented in appendix 5. The interview began with a similar preamble to the first interview, which included reminding participants that they should feel able to speak openly and honestly. In most cases the mentoring arrangement had come to an end by the time of the follow-up interview, which may have enabled participants to speak more freely about their experiences.

The first part of this interview involved asking participants to give a general overview of the mentoring and to describe specific examples of memorable moments that had taken place. The second part of the interview involved asking participants about incidents or approaches identified in the audio recordings. This consisted of asking 'respondent specific' questions (Keltchermans, 1993) and typically involved paraphrasing a question or response from a recording and asking the participant what they had made of it or what their thinking was behind it. Participants' responses to these questions offered valuable insights into their perceptions of the mentoring interactions and their intentions behind particular behaviours or approaches. The third part of the interview involved discussing two particular models of mentoring with regard to the function, and the directive/evaluative nature, of the mentoring. These models were based on literature which features in the Conceptual Framework chapter (in sections 4.4 and 4.5) and are presented in appendix 5 as part of the interview schedule. Participants were asked about their experiences of the mentoring in light of these models. The final part of the follow-up interview consisted of asking participants to explore connections between their biographies as discussed in the initial interview and their approaches to mentoring. Interviewees were then invited to raise any further issues about their experiences of mentoring that we had not discussed. At the end of the interview, participants were thanked for their contributions to the project and reminded that they would receive a copy of their transcripts for their approval and a preliminary summary of thematic findings.

5.4.2 Audio recordings

This section outlines how the audio recordings of mentoring meetings were conducted and then discusses the advantages and disadvantages of this research method. At the end of the initial interview, participants were reminded that the next stage of the project

would involve them making an audio recording of a mentoring meeting and it was confirmed to them that their corresponding mentor/mentee had agreed for this to take place. Some participants asked how long the meeting should last and what they should discuss. In these instances, it was stated that there were no particular expectations regarding these issues and participants were encouraged to meet as they would "normally". Once the recordings were received, they were listened to and an initial written record was created containing the length of the meeting, the topics discussed, any techniques mentors and mentees were using and any surprising or notable features. In the second half of the teaching placement, a polite reminder was sent to the participating pairs, asking them to make a second recording of a mentoring meeting. When these files were received, another written record was created as described above. These records were used as a basis for forming the respondent specific questions in the follow-up interviews and the first stage of data analysis. Most of the recorded mentoring meetings were either approximately 30 minutes (11 recordings) or 60 minutes in length (8 recordings) and two meetings were approximately 45 minutes long.

There were a number of advantages to collecting audio recordings of mentoring meetings for this study. Firstly, it enabled access to the mentoring interaction itself. The recordings provided insights and gathered 'information on what … [was] actually going on' (Simpson and Tuson, 1995, p.1) during mentoring meetings. It also meant that verbatim examples from mentoring meetings could be drawn upon in the Findings chapters to illustrate how the data had been interpreted. Secondly, data from the audio recordings could be drawn on in combination with descriptions of mentoring collected from the interviews and provided an opportunity to consider what participants 'say they do' and 'what they *actually* do' (Gillham, 2008b, p.1). Thirdly, the audio recordings revealed features of the mentoring that participants did not bring up during interviews. This meant that a greater insight into mentoring enactments was gained than would have been possible through interviewees' accounts alone. Fourthly, given the number of participants and their varying locations, undertaking observations in-person at two different stages of the mentoring process would have been time consuming and costly. The audio recordings involved the participants spending some time setting up the recording and sharing the file, but it was not particularly labour intensive. Fourthly, by undertaking the recordings in their usual settings, it meant that participants were in their natural environment with minimal disruption or change to their routines (Creswell, 2014,

p.97). In addition, the absence of a researcher in the room may have reduced a Hawthorne effect where participants, on being observed, may act in a way to desire or please (Newby, 2010, p.122).

Despite the advantages of the audio recordings, there were also some drawbacks to this research method. Firstly, whilst there was not a researcher present in the room, there was still a 'risk of "reactivity" to the recording device or the remote researcher presence, wherein people may act differently, or be less direct and honest' (Cotton, et al., 2010 p. 466). Hence, it may have led to mentoring conversations being less "natural" than usual. This means that the meetings that were recorded potentially could have been different to those that were not recorded. Secondly, by using audio recordings it meant that only verbal interactions were captured. Whilst undertaking an audio recording was perhaps less intrusive and more convenient for participants than making a video recording, it resulted in an absence of further information about the interactions conveyed by facial expressions or body language. In addition, although audio recordings were undertaken at the placement organisations which were visited during initial interviews, by not observing in-person, it was not possible to make field notes to record other information about the location and set up of the meeting. The audio recordings also only captured a small number of the mentoring meetings and interactions that took place during the teaching placement. Participants did not record, for instance, ad hoc conversations. Hence, not all types of mentoring interactions were captured.

Another potential limitation of the audio recordings of mentoring meetings collected for this study, stemmed from the requirement for the Norwegian mentoring pairs to conduct the recorded mentoring meetings in English. It is possible that when a research study asks participants to draw on their second language, this may impact on the data collected. In particular, in this study, asking Norwegian mentoring pairs to record mentoring meetings in English may have resulted in these participants discussing topics or making comments which drew on vocabulary they felt confident using. If, for example, a participant had been considering a pedagogical issue but was not sure how to describe or articulate it in their second language, it is possible they may have avoided discussing it during the recorded mentoring meetings. As such, the data collected from the recordings may not necessarily represent how mentoring meetings were conducted when Norwegian participants were speaking in their first language, and this should be taken into account when considering the findings presented in the following chapters.

However, despite the limitations described in this section, the audio recordings were thought to provide valuable insights into mentoring enactments and it is not a method that previous mentoring research in England or Norway has widely drawn on.

5.4.3 Recordings and transcripts

This section explains the processes of how the recordings of interviews and mentoring meetings were managed and how the subsequent stage of transcription was conducted. The participant information sheet (appendix 1) contained details of what data would be recorded and how it would be stored. At the start of the initial interview participants were asked to confirm that they agreed to the recordings taking place and all consented. Both interviews were recorded using an application on a smart phone. These files were then uploaded to a secure online storage area.

At the end of the initial interview it was discussed with participants how they would make and share the audio recordings of mentoring meetings. It was recommended that one member of the mentoring pair use their phone or other digital device such as an i-pad. Once completed, as the audio files were large, most participants sent me a link to a file-sharing area such as 'Dropbox' or 'OneDrive'. The files were then uploaded to the same online storage area as the interviews.

Once all the data had been collected, then the process of transcription began. In total there were 46 interviews and 21 audio recordings of mentoring meetings to transcribe. The audio recordings were transcribed in full. The recorded meetings ranged in length from 25 – 75 minutes. Whilst transcribing these files was 'a very time consuming process' it also meant that the 'story' of the meeting 'could be looked at as a whole (Matthews and Ross, 2010, p. 387). An example transcript of a mentoring meeting is provided in appendix 6. The interviews were partially transcribed. Due to the open nature of some of the questions asked during interviews this did at times lead to participants sharing information that was not directly relevant to the study (Bryman, 2010, p. 483). As a result, it was decided that by partially transcribing some sections that were not considered pertinent to the study, could be omitted (ibid.). In the transcript the time at which the omitted section occurred in the recording and the notes about the content were recorded, so that it could easily be found and listened to again, if later in the process it was considered relevant. An example of an interview transcription is provided in appendix 7.

5.5 Data analysis

This section outlines the process of data analysis that was undertaken. In this study, the data was analysed via two main procedures: the first involved creating portraits of each of the 12 mentoring pairs and the second involved conducting a cross-case or thematic analysis of all the data that was generated (Kelchterman,1993).

A number of approaches to data analysis were considered during the design phase of the reserach including Miles and Huberman's (1994) Framework for Qualitative Data Analysis which consists of a three-stage process of data reduction, data display and drawing and verifying conclusions. Braun and Clarke's (2006) six phases of thematic analysis was also explored, which involves: familiarising yourself with the data; generating initial codes; searching for themes; reviewing themes; defining and naming themes; and producing the report (ibid. p.87). Whilst such systems helped inform processes of coding and identifying themes in this study, Kelchterman's (1993) two-stage data analysis process appeared particularly appropriate as a way of exploring themes relating to individual mentoring pairs and the whole data set. Kelchterman (1993) produced 'career stories' of teachers in order to better understand their professional development. After undertaking biographical interviews, he then conducted a 'vertical analysis' whereby he analysed all the data generated by each participant in order to create a synthesis text or portrait about each individual. He then conducted a second stage of 'horizontal analysis' whereby he systematically compared the portraits to look for 'commonalities, remarkable differences, recurring patterns, and so on' (Kelchterman, 1993, p. 445). Drawing on this technique, the data analysis process for this study was broken down into eight stages, which are shown in table 10 below and explained in what follows. Whilst this was largely a linear process, it was also iterative. The iterative elements are highlighted in the following explanation.

Stage	Data analysis
1	Preliminary analysis of audio recordings
2	Transcription of all interviews and audio recordings
3	Coding of data for each mentoring pair
4	Initial portraits of each mentoring pair
5	Cross-case analysis across all mentoring pairs
6	Drafting of initial thematic findings
7	A review of initial portraits and initial thematic findings
8	A comparison of findings from England and Norway

Table 10 - Stages of data analysis

The first stage of data analysis was mentioned in the preceding section on research methods and involved listening to and compiling a record for each of the audio recordings of mentoring meetings and also the initial interviews. This was a preliminary stage of data analysis and as such each record was relatively unstructured but they did form the basis for the initial portraits of each pair described below. Some questions in the follow-up interviews were based on these records.

The second stage of data analysis was transcription, and this occurred once the final interviews had been conducted. This stage involved transcribing the data that had been collected (as described in the preceding section). Although the act of transcription may not be considered analysis, invariably when listening to the audio files and typing up the exchanges, commonalities and variations in the data were identified. As a result, memos were created which informally recorded initial thoughts and responses whilst listening and typing. These included notes such as "*all the student teachers seem to do their own thing in the classroom*" and "*how do mentors describe themselves? As a manager? As an achiever (Ofsted)?*". Some, but not all, of these notes formed the basis of themes that were later identified in the data.

Once the interviews and audio recordings had been transcribed, the third stage of data analysis took place. This stage involved coding the data relating to each mentoring pair using qualitative data analysis software (NVivo version 11). Before embarking on the coding process, draft versions of Chapters 1-4 of this thesis were read and a list of themes that emerged from existing literature was made that potentially could be present in the data. These consisted of mentoring moves such as those identified by Feiman-Nemser (2001), factors which may shape mentoring enactments, such as mentor education, and consequences of mentoring such as demotivation. Whilst keeping the list to-hand, it was not used as a pre-defined coding frame. Instead, a coding frame was gradually compiled as the transcripts were analysed. The created framework was informed by the researcher's awareness of existing themes in the literature, but also captured new ideas that were identified in the data. In this sense, the data analysis was a 'hybrid process' that was both inductive and deductive in nature (Swain, 2018). An extract of the coding undertaken in NVivo for one of the mentoring pairs is presented in appendix 8. The audio recordings relating to one mentoring pair were coded first, followed by their interview transcripts. This turned into an iterative process however, as the coding of the audio recordings was often revisited, in light of the interview data. For

instance, if a mentor described a feature of their approach not identified, the transcript of the recording would be re-examined and, if there was evidence of this approach, the instances of what they had described were coded.

After codes had been allocated to the data for a mentoring pair, the fourth stage of data analysis was undertaken which involved writing an initial portrait for that pair. These portraits included the headings: introduction to participants, summary of mentoring meetings, description of mentoring approaches, contributing factors to mentoring approaches and consequences. Underneath each heading were verbatim quotes and written commentaries containing the initial analysis.

Once portraits had been completed for each of the 12 pairs, the next stage was undertaken which was to conduct a cross-case analysis of the portraits. This began by reviewing the allocated codes for each pair and where necessary amended the wording and descriptions of the codes to ensure there was consistency. The data from across all pairs were examined in order to identify commonalities and variations. The matrix query function in NVivo was drawn upon to compare data that had been coded from across the 12 mentoring pairs. An extract from one of these queries is presented in appendix 9. Where a mentoring pair had been allocated codes that were not featured in other pairs, these were noted separately.

The next stage of data analysis involved writing draft thematic analyses. Firstly, codes were grouped together into themes. Then relevant data was examined, and commentaries were drafted on the nature of the theme including verbatim quotes. This involved firstly identifying and writing about the most commonly used mentoring moves evident in the audio recordings of mentoring meetings. Then themes relating to factors which may contribute towards enactments, and the consequences, of mentoring were identified. The initial portraits of mentoring pairs that had been written and the commentaries on the thematic analyses were regularly compared in order to check that the former was accurately capturing the nature of the mentoring for each individual pair and that the latter was accurately capturing the common themes. These documents formed the basis of the following Findings chapters. When writing these chapters, the transcripts were regularly returned to, to find verbatim quotes and to check that findings were congruent with the data. The final stage of data analysis involved comparing the findings generated in England and Norway. The notes made at this stage of the process

formed the basis of the comparative sections presented in the first and third findings chapters.

5.6 Researcher positionality

This section explores my position in the research and how this may have impacted on the process.[9] It has been argued that researchers need to consider how participants view them and how decisions they make when conducting a study can contribute to the nature of these relationships (Milligan, 2015, p. 241). Many discussions around this topic are centred on whether the researcher is an 'insider', whereby they share similar characteristics, roles or experiences as the participants or whether they are an 'outsider' to 'the commonality shared by the participants' (Corbin-Dwyer and Buckle, 2009, p. 55). Some scholars have argued that such a dichotomy is 'overly simplistic' as perhaps researchers are never entirely similar nor entirely different to the individuals or groups that participate in the study (ibid.). Indeed, I consider myself to have occupied both insider and outsider positions in this study. These positions and their advantages and disadvantages are explained in what follows.

I identified myself as being an insider researcher in three main ways. Firstly, I had a shared experience with participants (Berger, 2013) as in the past I had been a mentee when learning to teach and I had been a mentor to student teachers. As such, I had insights into the challenges and rewards of these roles. Secondly, I had over 10 years' experience of teaching in the PCE sector and could relate to some particular situations described by participants. In England, this meant that I recognised mentors' depictions of their workplaces as pressured, uncertain and disparate (see section 6.2.3) and in Norway, I empathised with some of the mentees' concerns about only being slightly older than their learners, as this was a situation I too had experienced whilst on placement. Thirdly, two mentoring pairs were recruited locally which meant that we shared a familiarity with nearby ITE providers and PCE institutions and changes they were facing.

There are a number of potential advantages and disadvantages of this insider position. Firstly, it is possible that participants will consider a researcher to be credible and/or legitimate if they have first-hand experience of the role and/or sector in which they are

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[9] The first person is sometimes drawn on in this section, as this was considered the most appropriate way to explain how I viewed my position in relation to the research undertaken.

based (Corbin-Dwyer and Buckle, 2009). Secondly, this can mean that participants are more open and trustful if they consider the researcher to have an understanding of their situation (ibid.). Thirdly, the researcher can draw on their first-hand experience of the settings, and insights into the cultures and contexts, in which participants are positioned (Berger, 2013, p. 4). In this study, during the preamble of the initial interview I briefly mentioned to participants that I had been a mentor or mentee in the PCE sector. This may have contributed to them viewing me as a credible researcher who would have an understanding of issues they raised. In particular, the PCE sector is distinct from the schools sector in a number of ways (as outlined in the Introduction chapter, section 1.2.4).

There are, however, a number of potential disadvantages of being viewed as an insider. For instance, participants may assume similarity and as such not explain their experiences or perspectives fully, even though their interpretation and insights may be different to those of the researcher (Corbin-Dwyer and Buckle, 2009, p. 58). To address this, during interviews participants were encouraged to offer further details about their perceptions and experiences through the use of prompting questions such as "Tell me more about that…"; "I've not come across that before, can you say more about it?" or "What was the impact of that then?". Furthermore, it is possible that an insider researcher's own experiences may influence the way they interpret and analyse data (ibid.). If researchers do not employ reflexivity by examining their own assumptions and reactions, and perhaps even if they do, they find in the data issues that are relevant or important to them, rather than the participants. In this study, when analysing the data, I kept reflexive memos where I would informally note what impressions the data was making on me and how these related to my own experiences. This helped me to focus on points that participants were raising, rather than seek evidence of my own. Finally, it is possible for researchers to share more similarities with some participants than others and as such the potential advantages of being an insider, may not be fully realised with all individuals who take part. In this study for instance, I potentially had more in common with participants who were recruited locally than those based in Norway, for instance. During interviews with participants who I shared fewer similarities with, more time was spent establishing rapport and finding out about characteristics of their settings that were unfamiliar to me.

In addition to being an insider researcher, I also considered myself to be an outsider in two main ways. Firstly, although I had previous experience of working in the PCE sector, I was now a full-time PhD student at a university and was no longer facing the challenges of teaching or mentoring in that environment. As such the participants may have viewed me as being currently an outsider to their setting. Secondly, there was geographical space between me and most of the participants. The Norwegian mentors and mentees may have been particularly inclined to perceive me as an outsider as I was visiting from another country and when interacting with me, most needed to draw on their second language. In addition, most participants in England were recruited from other areas and when I visited them, I was not familiar with the local context.

As with being an insider researcher, there are a number of advantages and disadvantages of potentially being perceived as an outsider. Firstly, being interviewed by an outsider can be an empowering experience for participants if they are positioned as experts and asked questions along the lines of: "Can you tell me how things happen here?". However, if this positioning is to be a positive experience for the interviewee, it relies on them being willing to open up to someone who is recognisably "different" in some way/s. Secondly, potentially participants may be more open with a researcher from outside their setting. They may be less concerned about issues around confidentiality if the researcher is not based at their institution, for example. Thirdly, whilst being an outsider means the researcher has not shared the same experiences as the participants, this does not necessarily prevent them from being able to provide accurate or insightful findings. Furthermore, their distance may result in fresh and new perspectives of the phenomena being researched. Based on these advantages, in this study, my position as a partial outsider may mean that participants were willing to offer detailed and open accounts of their experiences and this may have resulted in a trustworthy and authentic account of mentoring in England and Norway.

There are some drawbacks to being an outsider, however. Firstly, it means the researcher is less familiar with the context. In this study, for example, I was much less familiar with the context in Norway than in England. In addition, as I was only able to draw on existing research published in English, this meant that it was more difficult to become familiar with the research context in Norway. This may have restricted insights into mentoring in this context. Secondly, whilst it is possible, as stated above, that participants may be more open with an outsider, some may be less trustful and more

concerned about whether assurances around confidentiality will be upheld. As a result, some participants may have been more likely to censor themselves if they viewed me as an outsider. Thirdly, whilst the researcher may deem particular concepts or research questions as appropriate for more than one context, these concepts may not necessarily represent the priorities or interests of those working in different settings. Despite these potential drawbacks of being an outsider, the resultant findings presented in the following chapters are considered to provide insights into mentoring in both England and Norway. In addition, participants from both countries did appear to speak relatively openly about their experiences and findings suggest that the concepts of judgemental and developmental mentoring are relevant to both settings. Further details about the key contributions and limitations of the study are outlined in Chapters 9 and 10.

5.7 Trustworthiness of study

This section outlines the quality criteria that have guided the design and conduct of the research. In the literature there are many debates about what 'quality is, how to recognise it and what strategies to use to accomplish it when carrying out a study' (Savin-Baden and Howell Major, 2013, p. 489). This research draws on principles set out by Lincoln and Guba (1985) which are described by some scholars as the 'gold standard of criteria' in qualitative research (Savin-Baden and Howell Major, 2013, p. 475). These criteria are: credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. Each of these are discussed below.

The term 'credibility' refers to the truth-value of research findings. It indicates the extent to which the research findings 'represent plausible information drawn from the participants' original data and is a correct interpretation of the participants' original views' (Korstjens and Albine Moser, 2018, p. 121). This study drew on three main strategies in order to try and ensure the findings were credible. Firstly, as outlined above, the data collection process took place across the period of the placement and for most participants there were four sources of data on which to draw (two interviews and two audio recordings). The four stages of data collection enabled trust and rapport to be built between the researcher and participants and it also enabled familiarity to be developed with each mentoring pair. Secondly, two types of triangulation took place: method triangulation which involved drawing on two types of methods (interviews and audio recordings) to collect data about the same phenomenon; and data source

triangulation which involved collecting data from different types of people, namely mentors and mentees. These two types of triangulation enabled the mentoring enactment to be described from different perspectives and also to be observed taking place. This resulted in a detailed view of the phenomena. Thirdly, an element of respondent validation was employed as participants were invited to comment on an early summary of thematic findings from the study in order to provide opportunities for feedback from those involved in the data collection process.

The term 'transferability' refers to 'the degree to which the results of qualitative research can be transferred to other contexts or settings with other respondents' (Korstjens and Albine Moser, 2018, p. 121). This study drew on the strategy of providing 'thick description' (Geertz, 1973) so the readers are placed in a position of being able to judge whether the findings are potentially relevant or applicable to their own settings. The first of the three Findings chapters provides an introduction to the participants and presents key contextual details about the placements and mentoring arrangements. In addition, the second Findings chapter provides in-depth descriptions of three mentoring pairs in particular, including details about their settings and backgrounds. The details provided in these chapters, alongside the thematic analyses and the policy context presented in Chapter 2 are intended to facilitate the reader's understanding of the situations in which the mentoring took place and inform their view of whether the findings are transferable to other settings.

The term 'dependability' refers to the 'stability of findings over time' (Korstjens and Albine Moser, 2018, p. 121). It has been highlighted that the nature of social phenomena which are often the focus of qualitative research may be subject to change which can make dependability in this sense a difficult criterion to meet (Shenton, 2004, p. 71). The aim then is to present an account of the study which would enable a 'future researcher to repeat the work, if not necessarily to gain the same results' (ibid.). The final concept, 'confirmability', is concerned with 'establishing that data and interpretations of the findings are not figments of the inquirer's imagination, but clearly derived from the data' (Korstjens and Albine Moser, 2018, p. 121). Both dependability and confirmability have been addressed in this study by offering a clear and transparent account of the research process as presented in this chapter. The account offers details about how the research was planned and how the different stages of data collection were carried out. The documents provided in the appendices provide evidence of how the research was

conducted and the procedures that were undertaken. The description of data analysis and availability of transcripts means that another researcher could potentially undertake the same process. In addition, throughout the Findings chapters frequent verbatim quotations from the transcripts illustrate to the reader how the data has been interpreted.

5.8 Ethics

This section outlines key ethical considerations for this study and how these were addressed. It is important for all education researchers to act with respect towards participants, to uphold the integrity of the research process and to provide insights into ethical decisions that were made (Stutchbury and Fox, 2009, p.489). The following discussion highlights two key ethical situations that arose in this study and then outlines four particularly pertinent ethical principles that were adhered to throughout the research process: informed consent, transparency, right to withdraw, and privacy.

Recruiting pairs of mentors and mentees for this study had a number of ethical implications that needed consideration. Firstly, with regard to the process of recruitment, as stated in section 5.3.5 above, at each ITE provider either mentees were asked to volunteer first, and then their mentors were approached to take part, or vice versa. In either situation the corresponding mentoring partner of the original volunteer may have felt a certain obligation to consent to take part in the project, but perhaps more so when the mentor volunteered first, and the mentee was then contacted. This situation was addressed by contacting the potential participant directly and privately via email to reiterate that taking part in the project was entirely voluntary and there would be no negative repercussions if they decided not to take part. As highlighted in section 5.3.5 above, whilst there were some issues in recruiting a sufficient number of participants, those who reached the stage of receiving an email directly from me then gave their consent unproblematically and most expressed an interest in the project.

Researching pairs of mentors and mentees also had ethical implications for the data collection process and sharing of findings; in particular it raised issues regarding 'internal confidentiality - this is the ability for research subjects involved in the study to identify each other in the final publication of the research' (Tolich, 2004, p.101). In order to maintain internal confidentiality, and to minimise harm, the final thesis has only been shared with supervisors and examiners. A summary of key thematic findings was sent to

participants, but this did not contain references to individuals' descriptions of their experiences or details that may cause discomfort (such as the reported negative consequences of mentoring). In addition, with regards to the research process itself, at the start of each interview it was reiterated to participants that what they said was confidential in the sense that recordings were stored securely, and would not be repeated to anyone else. However, participants were aware that interviews were conducted with their corresponding mentor/mentee and this may have impacted on how open they were in their responses. None of the participants asked directly what their corresponding partner had said, but some mentioned that perhaps their mentor/mentee would give a different answer or view the situation differently. This indicates they were mindful that their mentoring partner would be asked similar questions.

In addition to the measures outlined above, the project adhered to ethical guidelines as set out by the British Education Research Association (BERA, 2011; 2018); the University of Brighton (2014); and the National Norwegian Ethics Committee (2014). For instance, informed consent was gained as potential respondents were provided with a participant information sheet which included an explanation of why their participation was requested, the time involved, what they were being asked to do, how their information would be used, and how it would be shared. In addition, the participant information sheet stated that respondents' data would be kept private by being stored securely in password protected files. Participants were also informed in this document and again via email that they had a right to withdraw from the study at any time. A consent form was also provided for participants to sign a copy was retained. Transparency throughout the research process was enhanced by 'being open and honest with participants' (BERA, 2018, p. 16). For instance, it was emphasised that the research project was exploratory in nature and it was not testing a particular hypothesis about mentoring. Any questions participants had about the project were also addressed. Finally, whilst the research design involved a commitment over a period of time, excessive demands on participants were avoided (BERA, 2018, p. 20) by ensuring that interviews were conducted at a time and place that was convenient for them. In addition, support was offered to participants by checking that they had access and were able to use the technology required (e.g. digital recording devices and Skype). Finally, at each stage of the data collection

participants were thanked individually and it was reiterated that their contributions to the project were valuable and appreciated.

5.9 Conclusion

This chapter aimed to offer a clear account of the research process. It began by outlining the underpinning philosophical position of the study with regard to its constructionist ontology and epistemology and interpretivist methodology. The qualitative and comparative nature of the research design was then explained as ways of finding out about participants' perspectives and experiences of mentoring in England and Norway. This was followed by an explanation of the practicalities of recruiting participants and conducting data collection. The research methods of semi-structured interviews and audio recordings were then examined, and their strengths and limitations were reviewed. The data analysis process was then described. Finally, discussions around the researcher's positionality, the trustworthiness and ethical implications of the study were presented. Having offered a detailed account of the research process, the following three chapters present the main findings of the study.

Chapter Six – The characteristics and extent of judgemental and developmental mentoring in England and Norway

6.1 Introduction

This chapter explores the first two research questions, namely the characteristics of judgemental and developmental mentoring and the extent to which these approaches were drawn on by participants in England and Norway. A thematic analysis is presented which draws on data generated by interviews and audio recordings from all 12 mentoring pairs. The chapter begins with an introduction to the mentoring pairs who took part in this study. This provides contextual information about the mentoring arrangements and participants. Then the main characteristics of judgemental and developmental mentoring are presented. One characteristic associated with the notion of transformational mentoring was also identified and this is explained further in what follows. The next section explores the extent to which these characteristics were drawn on and how they were employed. The final section offers a comparison of the main mentoring approaches adopted by the participating mentoring pairs in England and Norway.

6.2 Introduction to participants

This section outlines key information about the participants. It begins with an introduction to the institutions from which mentoring pairs were recruited and details about the teaching placements. Information about the 12 mentoring pairs is then provided, followed by further details about the mentors, including their preparation for the role. Finally, some additional information about the mentoring arrangements at the participating institutions is presented.

6.2.1 The ITE providers and teaching placements

Table 11 below presents the participating ITE providers and the number of mentoring pairs recruited from each.[10]

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[10] As detailed in section 5.9 of the Methodology chapter, pseudonyms have been used throughout for the names of institutions, participants, and learners that are referred to in the audio recordings.

Country	Name of ITE provider	Number of mentoring pairs who participated
England	Blackfield University	2
	Whitefield University	1
	Redfield College	3
Norway	Vest University	3
	Kyst University	3

Table 11 – Participating institutions

In England, participants were recruited from three ITE providers; two of these were located in the south of England and one was located in the north of the country. Blackfield University and Whitefield University offered a full-time PGCE in Post-Compulsory Education and student teachers undertook a placement at a local PCE provider. The third participating institution in England was Redfield College, a large FE college. It offered the same teaching qualification as the English universities, but here the student teachers undertook teaching placements within the college itself. In Norway, participants were recruited from two universities in different regions of the country. Norwegian student teachers completed their teaching placements on a full-time basis at upper secondary schools. At Vest University students undertook a six-week placement and at Kyst University the placement was for eight weeks.

6.2.2 The mentoring pairs

Table 12 below summarises some key information about the mentoring pairs including their age band and the subjects they taught.[11]

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[11] Age bands have been presented for each participant instead of their specific ages in order to increase the chances of non-traceability.

Country	ITE provider	Mentor's name and gender (male - m, female -f)	Mentor's age band	Mentor's subject/s	Mentee's name and gender (male - m, female-f)	Mentee's age band	Mentee's subject/s	Mentee's ITE Course
England	Blackfield	Tina (f)	41-50	English	Isabel (f)	21-30	English	PGCE
	Blackfield	Sarah (f)	41-50	Business	Hannah (f)	31-40	Business	PGCE
	Whitefield	Alana (f)	51-60	Teacher Education	Peter (m)	51-60	Maths	PGCE
	Redfield	Chloe (f)	21-30	Science	Nicky (f)	31-40	Science	PGCE
	Redfield	Julia (f)	21-30	English	Megan (f)	21-30	English	PGCE
	Redfield	Susan (f)	51-60	Business	Nigel (m)	51-60	Business	PGCE
Norway	Vest	Kari (f)[12]	41-50	English, French	Linda (f)	21-30	English, Religion	Integrated Masters
	Vest	Kari (f)	41-50	English, French	Heidi (f)	21-30	English, Religion	Integrated Masters
	Vest	Tor (m)	41-50	English	Fin (m)	21-30	English, Norwegian	Integrated Masters
	Kyst	Ellen (f)	41-50	English, Social Sciences	Liv (f)	21-30	English and Social Sciences	Integrated Masters
	Kyst	Fredrik (m)	31-40	English, History	Monica (f)	31-40	English and Religion	PPU
	Kyst	Jon (m)	51-60	English, German, History	Henrik (m)	31-40	English and Social Sciences	PPU

Table 12 - Details of participating mentoring pairs

A number of the above details about the mentoring pairs are now discussed. With regard to gender, table 12 shows that approximately two thirds of the participants were female and one third was male. The underlying reasons for this were not explored, but it could reflect the gender divide amongst teachers in this sector and/or it may be that females were more willing to take part in the project than males; however, there may be a range and combination of additional reasons to explain this difference.

The ages of the mentors varied from 26 – 52 years old and all but two mentors were older than the mentee. However, as will be shown in the next section below, age was not directly proportionate to how long the mentor had been mentoring. For instance, both a 26-year-old and a 52-year-old were mentoring for the first time. In England, the

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[12] Kari was mentor to student teachers: Heidi and Linda.

range of mentees' ages was greater (28 – 52 years old) and student teachers tended to be older, than in Norway (23-35 years old).

There was some variation in the subjects that mentors and mentees taught, although English was by far the most common (partly for reasons explained in section 5.4.3). In addition, in this study, all mentees except one (Peter) had at least one subject in common with their mentors. The final column in table 12 shows that the mentees in England were all enrolled on the full-time PGCE (as described in section 2.5.1) and the majority of mentees in Norway were studying the integrated master's programme, with two undertaking the stand-alone PPU course (as described in section 2.5.2).

6.2.3 The placement institutions

Table 13 below shows the types of institutions where mentees undertook their teaching placement. It illustrates the diversity of PCE provision in England described in the Policy Context chapter (section 2.2.4), as mentees in England were placed at a range of institutions including FE colleges, an adult and community learning (ACL) centre, and a sixth form college. It also illustrates the more uniform approach to PCE provision in Norway as all mentees were placed at upper secondary schools (see section 2.2.4). The star symbol (*) denotes that more than one mentee was based at the same placement institution. For instance, in England Nicky, Megan and Nigel were all undertaking their placements at the same FE college. In Norway, Heidi and Linda were based at the same upper secondary school (and had the same mentor) and Monica and Henrik were also based at the same upper secondary school.

	HEI/College	Mentor's name	Mentee's name	Type of placement institution
England	Blackfield	Tina	Isabel	Sixth form college
	Blackfield	Sarah	Hannah	FE college
	Whitefield	Alana	Peter	Adult and community learning centre
	Redfield	Chloe	Nicky	FE college*
	Redfield	Julia	Megan	FE college*
	Redfield	Susan	Nigel	FE college*
Norway	Vest	Kari	Linda	Upper secondary school**
	Vest	Kari	Heidi	Upper secondary school**
	Vest	Tor	Fin	Upper secondary school
	Kyst	Ellen	Liv	Upper secondary school
	Kyst	Fredrik	Monica	Upper secondary school***
	Kyst	Jon	Henrik	Upper secondary school***

Table 13 - Placement institutions

During interviews mentors were asked to describe the institution within which they undertook their mentoring role. In England, the six mentors depicted their organisation in terms of: being diverse with regard to learners' backgrounds and the qualifications offered (four mentors); recent inspection gradings (three mentors); issues with funding and mergers with other institutions (three mentors); and their performance with regard to learners' results (two mentors). They also raised criticisms around a perceived distance between management and teachers (three mentors), disparateness between departments or campuses (two mentors) and the way finances of the institution have been managed (one mentor).

When asked to describe their place of work, four of the five mentors from Norway highlighted the modern design or infrastructure of the school, for instance, describing it as "*state of the art*" (Jon, 2) or "*built on pedagogical principles*" (Ellen, 2). Mentors in Norway also drew attention to the diversity of learners who attended their organisations (three mentors). In addition, two mentors described having autonomy in their roles as teachers, whilst one other stated he felt this had recently been compromised. Two mentors highlighted there were problems with the layout or proposed expansion of their schools and one mentor drew attention to the ways in which learners who have English as a second language were not fully integrated into the wider organisation (1 mentor).

6.2.4 The mentors

Table 14 below shows information regarding: how mentors were recruited; how many years they had been mentoring for; and any mentor education or training they have attended. Each of these details are discussed further below.

	ITE provider	Mentor's name	Method of recruitment to be a mentor	Previous experience of mentoring to date	Mentor education/training attended
England	Blackfield	Tina	Asked by manager	5 years	Mentoring module at master's level
	Blackfield	Sarah	Asked by mentee	None	None
	Whitefield	Alana	Asked by manager	None	None
	Redfield	Chloe	Asked by ITE tutor	1 year	Information giving meeting
	Redfield	Julia	Asked by ITE tutor	None	Information giving meeting
	Redfield	Susan	Asked by manager	5 years	Information giving meeting
Norway	Vest	Kari	Volunteered	6 years	Accredited mentoring qualification
	Vest	Tor	Asked by colleague	2 years	None
	Kyst	Ellen	Volunteered	None	None
	Kyst	Fredrik	Volunteered	4 years	Information giving meeting
	Kyst	Jon	Volunteered	None	None

Table 14 - Details about participating mentors

Table 14 shows that in England most mentors were asked either by their manager or an ITE tutor to be a mentor and one mentor was approached by the mentee directly. In Norway, most of the mentors volunteered for the role as a result of an email being circulated to them from their school's leadership team asking for existing teachers to become mentors for student teachers from the local university. In addition, out of the 11 participating mentors, five were mentoring for the first time and three were relatively experienced having mentored student teachers for five or more years.

Table 14 above shows that there was variation with regard to how much preparation mentors had for the role. Five mentors (two in England and three in Norway) had no formal preparation for the role. These participants described receiving paperwork and/or a handbook on mentoring from the accrediting university but had not attended any face-to-face training or preparation. Another six mentors (three in England and one

in Norway) had only undertaken minimal preparation, consisting of attending a one-off, information giving meeting for mentors at the accrediting university. Finally, two mentors (one in England and one in Norway) had undertaken a more substantial mentoring education course: in England, the mentor had taken a module on mentoring as part of a master's course in education and in Norway the mentor had completed an accredited mentoring programme.

6.2.5 Further details about the mentoring arrangements

This section presents some further contextual details about the mentoring arrangements at participating institutions. Firstly, mentors were paid for undertaking the role at all institutions except Redfield College, although none of the participating mentors stated that they were allocated time to conduct the mentoring role, through for example remission in teaching hours. Secondly, with regard to contact time, all mentoring pairs except one (in England) were based in the same department and had face-to-face communication on most days when the mentee was at placement. Thirdly, all mentors were responsible for formally, formatively assessing their mentees, although there was some variation in the types of assessments mentors undertook. For instance, in England all the mentors completed four formal lesson observations and completed two formative reports on the mentees' progress. At Redfield College the lesson observations undertaken by mentors were graded, whereas at Blackfield and Whitefield they were ungraded. In Norway, mentors had fewer assessments to complete than in England. At both Vest and Kyst universities mentors were required to complete one short formative report at the end of the placement. All of the participating mentors in Norway described undertaking observations of the mentees' teaching and making notes, but the lessons were not formally assessed.

This section has introduced contextual information about the participants and placements. Possible relationships between some of these details and the mentoring approaches adopted are discussed further in chapters 8, 9 and 10.

6.3 Characteristics of judgemental and developmental mentoring

6.3.1 Introduction

This section examines the nature of the main judgemental and developmental characteristics identified as employed by mentoring pairs in this study. The single

transformational mentoring characteristic that was identified is also presented. Table 15 below provides an overview of the characteristics. The characteristics of these mentoring approaches have been explored by identifying particular 'moves' mentors and mentees draw on.[13] In total four moves associated with judgemental mentoring, five moves associated with developmental mentoring and one move associated with transformational mentoring were identified. As mentioned in Chapter 1, as there was only limited evidence of transformational mentoring found in this study, the focus remains on judgemental and developmental mentoring approaches. The moves presented in table 15 below are explained in what follows.

Overall approach	Mentoring move
Judgemental	Mentor evaluates mentee's teaching and/or progress
	Mentor refers to formal assessments
	Mentor dominates the meeting
	Mentors offers strong advice
Developmental	Mentor and mentee collaborate
	Mentee is enabled to develop own teaching practices
	Mentee self-analyses their teaching practice
	Mentor offers positive reinforcement
	Mentor and mentee discuss the mentoring process
Transformational	Mentor and mentee critique the status quo

Table 15 - Mentoring moves

6.3.2 Judgemental mentoring moves

The mentoring moves presented in this section are considered to be aligned with a judgemental approach as discussed in the preceding chapters (in particular, sections 3.3.2 and 4.9) and are evaluative or directive in nature. The four moves are presented in turn below with examples from data generated by the audio recordings from this study.

6.3.2.1 Mentor evaluates mentee's teaching and/or progress

This move involved mentors offering their evaluations of mentees' strengths and areas for development with regard their teaching practice and progress during the placement. In this first example, having undertaken a recent lesson observation, the mentor offered some positive feedback to the mentee about their practice:

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[13] The term 'moves' has been borrowed from Feiman-Nemser's (2001) study (see section 3.3.3) to denote a particular technique that a mentor or mentee employs.

"There was that moment where Emma and Tanya had their phones out, … [there was] *that heartbeat before you said, 'put them away', and I was thinking, is she going to do anything about it, yes she is, that's good."*

(Tina and Isabel, 1)

In this second example, the same mentor highlighted an area for development for the mentee with regard to her overall progress:

"…I think … outside life, had an impact on you, and sometimes you don't come in that early, and I've been flexible, and … it's worked, but to be a teacher, you need to be very very resilient, and I think that's something you need to build on."

(Tina and Isabel, 2)

A key characteristic of this move was that mentors tended to offer their evaluations in an unsolicited way. In other words, they were not usually offered in response to a comment or question by the mentee, rather the mentor *presented* their evaluations *to* the mentee. As such these unsolicited mentor evaluations were considered to be characteristic of a judgemental mentoring approach.

6.3.2.2 Mentor refers to formal assessments

This move consisted of mentors directing the conversation during mentoring meetings towards formal assessment forms they had completed or needed to complete about the mentee's practice. Here are two examples of mentors referring to these documents: "*Let's go through this form, looking at* [your] *attributes, knowledge, understanding and skills."* (Sarah, 2); "*If I just talk through what I've got written for the lesson observation…*" (Tina, 1). The mentors drew on the headings or sections of the forms in a systematic fashion and subsequently (and in relation to the move above) offered evaluative comments on the mentee's progress or performance in these different areas. Here is one example of a mentor referring to the assessment with terminology from the forms emboldened:

*"Regarding **social and cultural diversity and inclusion**, obviously the inclusion side of things with your SEND group was fine, but the social and cultural diversity, …it may not be something that is at the forefront of your mind straightaway, but it is something that we have to remember."*

(Sarah, 2)

This move was considered to be characteristic of a judgemental mentoring approach because the topics of conversation were directed by the formal assessments that mentors were undertaking rather than by the mentee.

6.3.2.3 Mentor dominates the meeting

This move involves the mentor directing the course of a meeting in a particularly dominant way, whereby they would interrupt the mentee's responses or abruptly change the course of the conversation. In the following example, the mentoring pair are discussing a forthcoming lesson the mentee will teach:

> Tina: *do you think you've addressed the pointers I gave you last time in terms of differentiation*?
>
> Isabel: *I'm getting hung up on differentiation always being a different task, sometimes it's also just about the help that you're giving, so by providing a kind of frame for them … and I think that's been why I've come a bit unstuck before...*
>
> Tina: (interrupting) *If they're writing anything, you're get them to write a short essay, aren't you? Then, you will need laptops*.

> (Tina and Isabel, 2)

Here, the mentee offered her emerging understanding of differentiation, but the mentor does not appear to respond to her comment and moves the conversation on to which students will use laptops. As such, in this example the mentor appears to push the meeting in a particular direction and does not explore the mentee's understandings of their emergent practice. This may at times be a helpful move if there is a pressing matter that needs to be addressed, however, if used regularly as was the case in these two mentoring pairs, the mentees are afforded few opportunities to raise and discuss their own issues.

6.3.2.4 Mentor offers strong advice

Mentors offering strong advice was a move that involved the mentor making recommendations or giving instructions to mentees on how to improve areas of their teaching practice, without first eliciting ideas from them. Here are two examples:

> "*to make effective links between speaking and listening, and employability.… you could have spoken about, if you're in an interview, how do you need to present yourself, that kind of thing.*"

> (Tina, 1)

> *"it's part of theory that people will work for a reward so perhaps it is going to cost you a little chocolate or something but it is good to have for some people… when you do the quiz…or revision it does work, I tell you it does work."*

<div align="right">(Alana, 1)</div>

This mentoring move was considered to be particularly directive in nature as it involved the mentor advising, or in some cases instructing, the mentee without exploring their ideas or encouraging them to identify their own strategies for how to address particular elements of their practice.

6.3.3 Developmental mentoring moves

This section presents five moves associated with developmental mentoring that were identified as being employed by the participating pairs. Each move is explained and examples from the audio recordings or participants' descriptions during interviews are presented.

6.3.3.1 Mentor and mentee collaborate

This move consisted of the mentor and the mentee working together with regard to their teaching practices. More specifically it involved them discussing learners they both knew, co-planning and/or co-teaching lessons. Here is an example of one mentee, Monica, discussing with her mentor, Fredrik, a group of learners they both teach:

> Monica: *They're a thankful bunch,* [and] *it seems that they take directions*
>
> Fredrik: *They're musicians so…*
>
> Monica: *They're musicians! Yes, exactly… they seem more disciplined than I'm used to. On the other hand, I've noticed, it's easy for them, if you don't reign them in in the beginning, to just go off in their own directions or conversations.*
>
> Fredrik: *We noticed that yesterday.*

<div align="right">(Fredrik and Monica, 1)</div>

In this second example, a mentee, Isabel, and her mentor, Tina, are co-planning some sessions they are due to teach in the forthcoming week and discuss resources they could use:

> Isabel: *The online quiz that I'm using, did you get a chance to have a quick look through it?*

Tina: *Is that the one you've shared with me before? ... I've already used it with them [the learners]! I changed it a bit … just because determiners is more of a focus in A Level, but not necessarily with GCSE*

…

Isabel: *Some of them might be OK with doing it again, but maybe not all of them*

(Tina and Isabel, 2)

This move was considered to be developmental in nature as it supported mentees' learning and growth by creating opportunities to discuss their lesson planning and analyses of learners with another more experienced practitioner.

6.3.3.2 Mentee is enabled to develop their own teaching practices

This move involved the mentor enabling the mentee to develop their own teaching practices and was seen to take place in three main ways. The first way consisted of **mentors gradually increasing their mentee's teaching responsibilities**.[14] For instance, one mentor described how:

"*at the beginning, I'd give them a starter, and then I'd build it up to, you take an hour of this, and okay we'll build up to half a lesson, okay, you now take the full lesson. Definitely step-by-step stages*"

(Julia, 2)

This approach enables the mentee to gradually become more autonomous in their teaching practice at an appropriate pace. The second way involved **mentors encouraging mentees to develop their own lesson ideas and teaching style**. For example, one mentee illustrates how her mentor urged her to think about her own teaching approach from early on in the placement whilst she was still observing:

"*She always told me to concentrate more on the students than on her when she was teaching. So I guess she was trying to stop that mimicry, because she was like…see how you think the class interact, and think about how you would deal with that, not about how I would deal with it*."

(Megan, 2)

This move means that mentees are supported to think about their own approaches to teaching, rather than simply imitating their mentor. A third way in which mentors were

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[14] Sub-categories of overall moves have been emboldened in this chapter.

seen to enable mentees to develop their own practices was by **highlighting that teaching involves making mistakes**. One mentor described encouraging the mentee to:

> "*try out different things…and* [I] *say that things can fall flat on their faces sometimes, but it doesn't matter as long as you pick yourself up and you think about it and try and do it differently*"

<div align="right">(Jon, 2)</div>

This approach was identified as conveying to mentees that there is not one correct way to teach, and as a result they should develop their own practices. The preceding move, mentors and mentees collaborate, was seen to be developmental in nature as it offered the opportunities to learn from teaching and discussing learners with a more experienced practitioner. This move of enabling the mentee to develop their own teaching practices, is considered to build on the previous move, by supporting mentees to hone their own approaches in the classroom. Hence, this move is also identified as aligning with a developmental approach.

6.3.3.3 Mentee self-analyses their teaching practice

This move consisted of mentees analysing their own teaching practice and progress. It commonly occurred in response to mentors asking the mentee questions. Four main types of questions were identified as being employed. The first type of question involved the mentor asking the mentee to recall and **describe particular situations from their practice**. For example:

> Tor: *All 20 of the learners were present. What did you do?*
>
> Fin: *I opened the door five minutes before. I welcomed the students, which were there. And I told them to put their mobile phones in the hotel, which is what I call it...*

<div align="right">(Tor and Fin, 1)</div>

The second type of question involved mentors prompting mentees to **explore choices that they made in their practice**. In this example, the mentor asks the mentee about an incident that happened in an English class she was teaching:

> Ellen: *…But then suddenly one student asked one question in Norwegian and you answered in Norwegian. What happened to the discussion?*
>
> Liv: *…A couple of other students also raised their hands and asked in Norwegian, and I told them I will answer in Norwegian because to me also it felt more natural to explain that part in Norwegian for them to really be able to understand what I meant.*

The third type of question involved mentors asking mentees to **self-evaluate their practice**. For example:

> Sarah: *So what went well in that lesson and what would you do differently next time?*
>
> Hannah: *I was pleased that they all seemed to remember what we had done last week but I wasn't expecting to each this class so soon…so I had to think on my feet…*

(Sarah and Hannah, 2)

Finally, the fourth type of question involved mentors using **probing or follow up questions** to extend the mentee's analyses further. Here is a brief example:

> Liv: *…when I was thinking yesterday about this session and what I could have done differently to get more students to talk, I could have asked the questions and made them discuss in partners first before they had to answer.*
>
> Ellen: *So, what would be the benefits of doing it that way?*
>
> Liv: *They would be more prepared … they could write down sentences first instead of speaking freely*

(Liv and Ellen, 1)

The mentee self-analysing their practice was considered to be a developmental move as it involved the mentor encouraging the mentee to examine their own teaching and come to their conclusions about what happened, what went well and what could be improved.

6.3.3.4 Mentor offers positive reinforcement

This move involved the mentors offering mentees positive reinforcement with regard their developing practice. They did this by giving the mentee **encouragement**, **reassurance** and/or **praise**. In this first example, Jon offers his mentee **encouragement** to develop an idea he has for a forthcoming lesson by stating:

> *"I think that sounds very interesting, and I think it also shows that you have the courage, and the ideas to … get up and … try it out."*

(Jon and Henrik, 1)

In the following example the mentee, Nicky, outlines an issue that she is facing with a particular learner and her mentor, Chloe, offers her **reassurance** about how she is addressing it:

> Nicky: *I don't know what I'm going to do about Callum, because he just doesn't seem to be grasping plagiarism, I don't think he's doing it on purpose, but I'm battling with him.*

> Chloe: *That that was a massive issue last term, … the tutors that had them said they couldn't get it into their heads.… I think you're doing the right thing by picking him up on it and sending the work back…*

<div align="right">(Chloe and Nicky, 1)</div>

Finally, in response to mentees' self-analysis, some mentors **praised** them by highlighting the positives or strengths in their practice. For example:

> Ellen: *What else were you pleased with in that lesson?*
>
> Liv: *I liked the part also where the students were going to listen to the text because it was such a long text and I tried to let them know that they had to read the text as well as listening…*
>
> Ellen: *I agree, and I think the combination of listening, speaking, reading is a good thing and you were very clear when you gave your instructions.*

<div align="right">(Ellen and Liv, 1)</div>

Offering praise in response to mentees' own analyses is considered to be distinct from the unsolicited type of mentor evaluations (described in section 6.3.2.1 above) characteristic of judgemental mentoring. The move of positive reinforcement is seen as developmental in nature as it focuses on supporting mentees' wellbeing and could potentially boost their confidence.

6.3.3.5 Mentor and mentee discuss the mentoring process

This mentoring move involved the mentor and the mentee discussing the mentoring process itself during meetings. For example, one mentor asks her mentee:

> Sarah: *And, moving forward, what do you think you need from me?*
>
> Hannah: *I don't think I need anything else from you really, other than just what you do already, which is just give me feedback after the sessions that you're in, regardless of whether you're* [officially] *observing it, or not.*

<div align="right">(Sarah and Hannah, 1)</div>

This move was classified as developmental as it potentially enables the mentor and mentee to discuss how the mentoring process is contributing towards the mentee's learning and growth as a teacher. Reviewing the learning process can also be characteristic of transformational mentoring (as described in section 4.7) where mentoring pairs collaborate to enable mutual learning and facilitate change. However, in this transformational situation the mentor and mentee identify aspects of their reflective dialogue which enabled assumptions to be challenged and changes in

perspective to take place. As this type of meta-analysis with regard to enabling change was not identified in this study, the move of mentors and mentees discussing the mentoring process was considered be more aligned with a developmental approach which focuses on supporting the mentees' transition into an existing teaching community.

6.3.4 Transformational mentoring moves

As highlighted above, one move identified in this study was considered to align with a transformational approach and is explained below. There was however no other evidence of transformational moves and as such the findings do not offer further insights into this mentoring approach, beyond this particular move. As previously stated, the focus then of this study is mainly on judgemental and developmental mentoring.

6.4.4.1 Mentor and mentee critique the status quo

This move involves the mentor and mentee critiquing or questioning existing teaching concepts, policies or practices. In this example, one of the mentors raises questions around what the priorities are for education:

> Jon: *Now, if you take all the politicians in Norway… you'll hear different things from them. You'll have some parties…the most important thing is that they* [learners] *know their maths and their English and their Norwegian, others will say, no, no, no, no, those aren't important, the most important thing is having a person who is a whole, who can function in society and what have you, so it depends who you ask … when the politicians don't know what they want, how are we teachers supposed to know?*

> (Jon and Henrik, 2)

In another example, a mentor, Julia, and mentee, Megan, discuss the implications of the national policy in FE which requires students to re-sit their GCSE English qualifications until they pass:

> Julia: *Because I feel that's the difficulty with FE at the moment, because there's so many people that need to re-sit, you're getting classrooms of 25 people, and if it didn't work in the school with 25 people, it's not going to work in college with 25 people.*

> Megan: *No, because you've got to think, you've got all the people who didn't pass… in one room.*

> (Julia and Megan, 1)

This move was seen to be aligned with a more transformational approach as it involved mentoring pairs questioning aspects of the status quo and in particular features of the educational context within which they were based. Hence, the mentors when adopting this move were not evaluating or directing the mentee as with judgemental mentoring and they were not only supporting the mentee to transition into the existing teaching community as with developmental mentoring, but rather they were also promoting a questioning and critique of the systems within which they are both based. As a result, this move was seen to be most closely aligned with a transformational mentoring approach.

6.3.5   A comparison of moves adopted in England and Norway

Having outlined the common mentoring moves that were identified in this study, table 16 below provides a visual summary to show which of these were drawn upon by each of the 12 mentoring pairs. The moves explained above are shown in the top row of the table and the names of each mentoring pair are shown in the left-hand column. The diamond symbol (♦) denotes there was evidence of the move in audio recordings and at least some interviews. The smaller plus symbol (+) means the move was identified either in the analysis of audio recordings *or* interviews with the mentor and/or the mentee.

Table 16 - Mentoring moves adopted in England and Norway

Country	Mentoring pairs (and ITE provider)	Judgemental moves				Developmental moves					Transformational move
		Mentor evaluations	Focus on formal assessments	Mentor directs mentoring	Mentor offers strong advice	Mentor and mentee collaborate	Mentee develops own teaching practices	Mentee self-analyses practice	Mentors offers positive reinforcement	Mentor and mentees discus mentoring process	Mentor and mentee critique status quo
England	Tina and Isabel (Blackfield)	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆		
	Sarah and Hannah (Blackfield)	◆	◆		◆	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆	
	Alana and Peter (Whitefield)	◆	◆	◆	◆		◆	◆	◆		+
	Chloe and Nicky (Redfield)					◆	◆	◆	◆		
	Julia and Megan (Redfield)					◆	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆
	Susan and Nigel (Redfield)					◆	◆	◆	◆		
Norway	Kari and Linda (Vest)					◆	◆	◆	◆		
	Kari and Heidi (Vest)	+				◆	◆	◆	◆		
	Tor and Fin (Vest)					◆	◆	◆	◆		
	Fredrik and Monica (Kyst)					◆	◆	◆	◆		
	Ellen and Liv (Kyst)					◆	◆	◆	◆		
	Jon and Henrik (Kyst)					◆	◆	◆	◆	◆	◆

Table 16 illustrates that there were some similarities in the findings relating to mentoring enactments identified in England and Norway. Firstly, none of the participating mentoring pairs in either country was found to be enacting 'purely' judgemental mentoring as they all, at least in part, drew on moves associated with developmental mentoring. Secondly, three mentoring pairs in England and all six mentoring pairs in Norway were identified as enacting a predominantly developmental approach. Thirdly, there were four particular moves associated with developmental mentoring that were employed by nearly all pairs in England and Norway: mentor and mentee collaborate, mentee develops their own teaching practices, mentee self-analyses practice and mentor offers positive reinforcement. Finally, one mentoring pair from England and one mentoring pair from Norway, who drew on these four moves, were also identified as employing two further moves, not adopted by the majority of participants: mentor and mentee discuss the mentoring process, which is associated with a developmental approach; and mentor and mentee critique the status quo, which is associated with transformational mentoring.

Some differences between the mentoring enactments in the two national contexts were also identified. The main difference was that in England, three mentoring pairs were found to partly draw on moves associated with judgemental mentoring, whereas none of the participating pairs in Norway were found to draw on these moves. Table 16 also illustrates there was more variation in the mentoring enactments in England than in Norway. For instance, three mentoring pairs based at Blackfield and Whitefield universities, were found to be enacting a combination of moves associated with judgemental and developmental mentoring, and at Redfield College, two pairs were found to enact a predominantly developmental approach, consisting of four main moves, and one pair was identified as also drawing on two further moves. However, in Norway, the approach seemed more uniform as five mentoring pairs from two different universities employed a predominately developmental approach consisting of four main moves and one pair were identified as drawing on two further moves.

In addition, Table 16 indicates there was some variation between how individual mentoring pairs were enacting the mentoring. For example, there was some evidence to suggest that one mentoring pair in Norway may have employed a judgemental mentoring move of mentor evaluation and there was some evidence to suggest that one of the pairs in England enacting judgemental and developmental moves may also have

drawn on a transformational mentoring move. Further details about the enactments of and variations in the identified mentoring moves are explored in what follows.

6.4 Further details about the enactment of mentoring moves

6.4.1 Introduction

This section provides further details about the extent to which mentoring pairs in England and Norway drew on the moves described above and how these moves were employed. The aim of the following is to provide a fuller picture of how these moves were enacted and described by the participants. In what follows each of the moves is discussed again in turn. This time the explanations describe how many pairs in England and Norway were identified as drawing on the move and whether there appeared to be differences in how the moves were enacted. This section draws on data generated by audio recordings and interviews.[15]

6.4.2 Judgemental mentoring moves

6.4.2.1 Mentor evaluates mentee's teaching and/or progress

Evidence from audio recordings indicated that all mentors in England and Norway at times offered some evaluative comments to mentees. However, the move of presenting unsolicited evaluations of the mentee's teaching and/or progress (as described in section 6.3.2.1 above) was particularly prominent amongst three mentoring pairs in England. Similarly, during interviews all participants mentioned that the mentoring had involved the mentor giving "*feedback*" or "*ideas*" to the mentee on what was going well and what they could improve on. However, participants from the three pairs in England where mentors presented unsolicited evaluations, described a particularly strong form of appraisal, which is outlined in more detail below.

There was some variation in how the three mentors presenting evaluations of the mentee's teaching and/or progress conducted this move. One mentor read out her written evaluations at some length, whilst the mentee listened. For instance:

> "*it's...tying up all those loose ends that need … fine tuning. But, a lot of improvement, in terms of where you were at the first mentor review in terms of how reflective you are, so there's definitely*

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[15] During data analysis the nature of the moves adopted in the first recording by each pair were compared with the moves they adopted in the second. Overall, it was found that the majority of mentoring pairs employed highly similar moves in each recording.

been progress there…I think sometimes there's…we're all guilty of it sometimes… you've got a really good relationship with the class, and you're having a good time with them, and you don't always get that challenge, and it's just making sure that you're doing both."

<div align="right">(Tina and Isabel, 2)</div>

Another mentor also read out her written evaluations, but in this case, the mentee also volunteered comments during these sections of the meetings:

Sarah: *Okay so the positive relationship with colleagues and learners is fine. And also, the, innovation in setting and adapting strategies to help learners - I think with your Entry 3 Level 1 group, you demonstrated that by coming up with different teaching ideas …different ways to get them to understand what you're trying to teach them, so I think you've done that really well.*

Hannah: *I think that I've learned that me standing there and delivering lectures isn't going to work, so it's looking at the different ways you can deliver stuff, so using videos, using quizzes…*

<div align="right">(Sarah and Hannah, 2)</div>

The third mentor who adopted this move did not read out her comments, but rather offered evaluative statements throughout the conversation. Here is a short example where the mentoring pair are discussing a recent lesson observation:

Alana: *It was very, very good. The practical was very good - that sort of thing helps, guiding the little squares and getting them to try and feed them into...*

Peter: *Definitely, for measuring. …*

Alana: *That is a good thing. No, I am very pleased today…*

<div align="right">(Alana and Peter, 1)</div>

In addition to these different methods of presenting evaluative comments, there was also some variation in the way mentors offered negative evaluations of the mentee's teaching. Whilst the majority of mentors' criticisms in the audio recordings appeared constructive, in other words, well-reasoned, and communicated in a friendly, rather than oppositional, way (as illustrated in the example from Tina and Isabel, 2 above), some seemed of a more 'fault-finding' approach. For instance, in this extract, a mentor is giving feedback to her mentee on a recent lesson:

"one thing I didn't like at the start is that you didn't give them a break. Why didn't you give them a break?"

<div align="right">(Alana and Peter, 1).</div>

This fault-finding approach involves the mentor adopting a corrective stance towards the mentee, which seems particularly characteristic of judgemental mentoring.

The participants from these three mentoring pairs did not explicitly refer to the mentor 'evaluating' the mentee. They did, however, describe the mentoring as involving the mentor delivering negative feedback to the mentee. For instance, the mentors described holding "*honest*" and "*brutal*" conversations with the mentee about their progress (Tina, 2); "*having to explain*" their concerns about a lesson to the mentee and afterwards wondering whether they "*had actually got it*" (Sarah, 2); and "*telling off* [the mentee] – *in a good way*" for not responding to feedback from previous lesson observations (Alana, 2). In addition, one of the corresponding mentees described being "*told off*" by her mentor (Isabel, 2) and another stated that at the start of the process, his mentor adopted a "*this is what you have to do, this is what you're doing wrong*" approach (Peter, 2).

6.4.2.2 Mentor refers to formal assessments

Evidence from audio recordings showed instances of mentors directing the mentoring conversation towards formal assessment paperwork in three pairs in England and one pair in Norway. In addition, during interviews nine participants from England highlighted that the mentoring involved conducting formal assessments of the mentee, compared to one participant in Norway.

The four mentoring pairs who drew on formal assessment paperwork during the audio recordings, approached it in slightly different ways. Two of the mentoring pairs in England went through the forms in a relatively lengthy and systematic way, making regular references to the headings or questions they were required to address (Sarah and Hannah; Tina and Isabel). The other two mentors made only brief references to the mentoring paperwork in order to discuss "*targets*" with the mentee (Alana and Peter, 2) or the comments they had completed on the forms (Fredrik and Monica, 2).

During interviews, three mentors from England who were identified as employing this move during recordings referred to it when describing their overall approach. For instance, one mentor states: "*there were times that I was feedback out that I had written*" (Tina, 2). The three mentees from these pairs also mentioned how during mentoring meetings they would take their files and/or portfolios to "*provide evidence*" of their progress (Hannah, 2) and in order for mentors to "*sign*" and "*tick things off*"

(Isabel, 2; Peter 2). The one mentor from Norway who did draw on the mentoring form during a recording, when asked about that feature of the meeting, stated:

> *"The form, is more like a formality. I don't spend that much time on it…I don't emphasise it… I don't like to put too much time and effort into something that feels kind of worthless."*

(Fredrik, 2)

6.4.2.3 Mentor dominates the meeting

Evidence from audio recordings indicated all mentors in England and Norway tended to shape the mentoring conversation by asking their mentee a series of questions about their teaching, but only two mentors, based in England, were identified as dominating the mentoring meetings by regularly interrupting the mentee and/or by abruptly changing the course of the conversation. During interviews none of the participants explicitly highlighted this as a characteristic of their approach.

In the follow-up interview mentors and mentees were asked to what extent their mentoring meetings had been directive (mentor-led) or non-directive (mentee-led). Six participants (three from England and three from Norway) considered their meetings to have been directive as the mentor tended to "*steer*" the conversation (Fredrik, 2). However, three participants (two from England and one from Norway) considered their meetings to be mentee-led, whilst the remaining 14 participants (seven from England and five from Norway) perceived their mentoring interactions as a mixture of both directive and non-directive. Whilst audio recordings found all mentors directed, and two mentors dominated, the mentoring meetings, interview data suggests that in the majority of mentoring pairs, mentees were at least part of the time directing the course of the conversation.

6.4.2.4 Mentor offers strong advice

Nearly all mentors in England and Norway appeared to offer strong advice to mentees on occasion, without first eliciting the mentee's ideas; however, findings from the recordings of mentoring meetings showed three mentors in England were offering such statements on a more frequent basis. These mentors tended to enact this move in similar ways and it usually occurred in conjunction with mentors presenting their evaluations of mentee's teaching and/or progress.

This move was not explicitly described by participants on the whole as a feature of their mentoring. However, during interviews, the three mentors who were identified as offering this type of advice frequently did describe how their approach to mentoring involved a certain amount of strong direction. For instance, one of these mentors, described how her approach involved "*balancing*" being "*a mentor and actually tell*[ing] *people what they need to do*" (Tina, 2). This was a characteristic of mentoring that was commented on less by mentees in their descriptions of the mentoring process, although one participant from Norway described that at times she felt she was "*back in school [with] my teacher* [who] *told me this is what you need to do, and don't do that, and this is why you shouldn't do this*" (Heidi, 2).

6.4.3 Developmental mentoring moves

6.4.3.1 Mentee and mentor collaborate

Evidence from audio recordings and interviews indicated that all but one of the mentoring pairs in England and Norway collaborated by discussing learners they both knew, co-planning lessons and/or co-teaching. During interviews 13 of the participants (five mentors and eight mentees) referred to each other as being "*like a colleague*" or a "*peer*".

The most common way of collaborating, which was identified in data relating to 11 out of the 12 mentoring pairs (five from England and six from Norway) was mentors and mentees discussing learners that both the mentor and the mentee knew. During interviews five mentees explicitly highlighted this approach but mentors did not describe it as a feature of the mentoring. The next most common way of collaborating was by co-teaching. At least one member of five mentoring pairs (three from England and two from Norway) mentioned that they co-taught lessons at the start of the placement. During interviews, two mentors (one from England and one from Norway) highlighted the importance of introducing their mentee as a co-teacher from the start: "*I like them to be in the room from day one and say* [to the learners] *it's both of us, it's not just me*" (Julia, 2). Finally, three pairs in England demonstrated evidence of co-planning sessions, whereby they shared resources and plans for upcoming lessons that they were both (separately) teaching. However, there were few instances of participants describing this as a feature of their mentoring.

6.4.3.2 Mentee is enabled to develop their own teaching practices

There was evidence from audio recordings of all participating mentoring pairs in England and Norway employing this move. During interviews, the most common technique mentioned by participants (13 in total: seven from England and six from Norway) was that of mentors gradually increasing mentees' teaching responsibilities. In addition, four mentors (two from England and two from Norway) reported that mentees were requesting to take on more teaching hours, as one interviewee explains:

> "*he* [the mentee] *wanted a bigger schedule… more hours, more tasks, … And he wanted to try his own stuff really early on which was cool…*"

(Tor, 2)

However, two mentees (one from England and one from Norway) found there was a limit to their autonomy. For instance, one mentee explains:

> "*Eventually I had all the teaching alone, but I felt like he* [the mentor, Jon] *was not giving it all to me. He would still say, 'I'll take that slot'* [or] *'I will take that lesson on Friday, because I have something really important to tell them.'*"

(Henrik, 2)

The consequences of this are discussed further in section 8.2.1. The next most commonly highlighted technique was mentees being encouraged to develop their own "*ways*", "*style*" or "*identity*" as a teacher (highlighted by 10 participants: five from England and five from Norway). For example, one mentee describes how her mentor urged her to "*be creative and try something new*" (Heidi, 2). Whilst analysis of audio recordings indicated that all mentees were devising their own teaching and learning activities, such as a group discussion or an online quiz, only two mentoring pairs (one from England and one from Norway) explored the mentee's emergent teaching style or identity in a broader sense. For instance, one mentor asks their mentee in both the first and second audio recordings: "*based on what you've learned, what makes a good teacher?*" (Jon and Henrik, 1).

Finally, seven participants (three from England and four from Norway) stated that mentees were encouraged to recognise that it is not possible to teach "*perfectly*" (Heidi, 2), although analysis of audio recordings did not provide examples of this approach being adopted.

6.4.3.3 Mentee self-analyses their teaching practice

This mentoring move was also one of the most common identified in this study, evidence from audio recordings and interviews indicated that all participating mentees in England and Norway self-analysed their teaching practice. Three questions were regularly drawn upon: asking the mentee to recall and **describe particular situations from their practice,** prompting mentees to **explore choices that they made in their practice** and asking mentees to **self-evaluate their practice**.

During interviews some participants drew attention to these types of questions. For instance, one mentor described how he encouraged the mentee to **self-evaluate** their lessons:

> "*I always ask*[s] *them, so, what were you happy with, what were you unhappy with, and is there anything you would have done differently now the class is finished?*"

> (Fredrik, 2)

There was less evidence of mentors asking the fourth type of **probing questions** to extend the mentee's analyses further and this was not a characteristic of the mentoring that many participants highlighted during interviews. Indeed, during audio recordings, it was notable that mentees' self-analyses often touched on a range of different topics, but these were not always explored in-depth.

Analysis of audio recordings also indicated that it was more common for mentees to self-analyse a particular lesson they had taught (evident in 15 audio recordings) than to analyse their overall progress and development as teachers (evident in 8 recordings). This characteristic was not highlighted in interviewees' responses however. In addition, when offering their analyses of a particular lesson there seemed to be a focus on the practicalities of what had worked or not in the classroom. For instance, in this extract a mentoring pair discuss a recent lesson the mentee has taught:

> Kari: *let's hear what your thoughts are about your lesson and also what you had planned and if it was what you wanted.*

> Linda: *I felt that I at least stuck to my time schedule, or at least I think so. And I got through what I wanted to go through. I probably should have talked a bit more about what they thought about the movie in the start. I felt that was a bit short.*

> (Linda, 2)

Whilst these self-analyses provided opportunities for mentees to look back in some detail on a particular lesson, they did not necessarily explore their thoughts on their emerging practice more broadly. It was also notable that whilst the majority of mentees appeared willing and able to analyse a recent lesson, there were few instances of them then identifying (or being prompted to identify) how they could draw on these analyses to inform their future practice. As a result, most of the analyses were retrospective, rather than future orientated.

On a few occasions, mentees in England and Norway made links between their self-analyses and their studies on the ITE programme. For instance, in this example the mentee begins to draw a link between the teacher education sessions and her own practice:

> *"the lecturer at the university was talking about three different ways of using your hands – the open palm where you feel welcoming and that you care about what the students are going to say, or the pointing finger…you're strict … or the palm down way … you are the boss …And I wanted to be aware of it and how I was using it"*

> (Liv, 1)

However, overall there were few instances in mentees' self-analyses (or mentoring conversations more broadly) to the ITE programme or wider theories of teaching and learning.

6.4.3.4 Mentor offers positive reinforcement

All audio recordings from mentoring pairs in both England and Norway contained instances of mentors offering positive reinforcement; however, it was not a mentoring move that was drawn on frequently in these meetings. During interviews positive reinforcement was highlighted by six of the 23 participants (two from England and four from Norway) as a feature of their mentoring. For instance, three mentors described how they focussed on "*encouragement*" and highlighting the "*positives*" in their mentees' practice. One of these mentors explained that he is "*probably really nice and …*[doesn't] *focus on faults or things they did wrong or things they should be doing differently…then introduce a bit more, things they can learn to do better…, but* [I] *try to not be too direct or negative*" (Tor, 2).

In addition, three of the mentees (two of whom were paired with the three mentors mentioned above) described their mentor as focusing on the strengths of their teaching.

For example, one mentee described how her mentor was "*very good at complimenting us for things we did right…and not saying that you did something bad, but perhaps you could do this and this even better*" (Linda, 2).

6.4.3.5 Mentor and mentee discuss the mentoring process

In this study, three of the 12 mentoring pairs (two from England and one from Norway) demonstrated evidence of discussions about the mentoring process itself. In one pair the mentor asked the mentee in the first audio recording what she might need from her (as detailed in section 6.3.3.5 above). However, in the remaining two pairs these discussions were of a more retrospective nature arising as a result of the mentor asking the mentee directly towards the end of the placement about how they had found the mentoring process. During interviews, none of the participants in England and Norway highlighted this as a characteristic of their approach. When the mentors were asked directly about this move, they all stated that they thought it would be helpful for informing their future practice. For example, one mentor said: "*If I want to become a good mentor, I need her feedback*" (Julia, 2). One of the mentors also mentioned that it would be useful "*for her* [the mentee's] *development*" (Sarah 2). When asked about this feature, the three mentees all stated that it showed their mentors took the role "*seriously*" and "*wanted to get even better*" (Hannah, 2) at it in the future, although one mentee stated that she was unsure "*what she [her mentor] would have said to me if I'd said, 'I don't think it's gone very well!'*" (Hannah, 2).

6.4.4 Transformational mentoring moves

6.4.4.1 Mentor and mentee critique existing concepts and practices

In this study, there was evidence of only two out of 12 mentoring pairs (one from England and one from Norway) critiquing existing teaching and learning concepts and practices. In a third pair (from England), there was interview evidence to indicate that the mentee had enacted this move, but it was reported to have not been reciprocated or enacted by the corresponding mentor. In the two mentoring pairs that did demonstrate this move, these discussions which involved critiquing aspects of existing teaching practices or education systems, were entered into by both the mentor and the mentee. However, in one mentoring pair, it was the mentee who raised questions about established norms. This mentee stated during interviews that he engaged in "*trying to find out why you're doing something, rather than just accepting it*" (Peter, 2). On the

146

whole, this move was not highlighted by participants when describing their approach to or experiences of mentoring; although one mentor did state that they considered their role as involving: "*making* [mentees] *think, not just do things robotically*" (Jon, 1).

6.5 A comparison of further details about mentoring enactments in England and Norway

The main difference in the descriptions and enactments of mentoring between England and Norway was, as highlighted above, that three mentoring pairs in the former country were found to draw on moves associated with judgemental mentoring, compared to none of the pairs in the latter. The preceding sections also showed that some variations in how individual pairs were enacting these moves were identified. For example, there were differences found in the ways mentors presented their evaluations, including critiques, of the mentee's teaching.

Overall, there were striking similarities between the ways in which the three remaining pairs in England, who were found not to be drawing on moves associated with judgemental mentoring, and the six mentoring pairs in Norway described and enacted the mentoring. The most commonly drawn on moves by these pairs were: mentor and mentee collaborate, mentee self-analyses their teaching, and mentee is enabled to develop their own practices. There were some minor variations found in the ways these moves were enacted by pairs in England and Norway. For example, three mentoring pairs in England were identified as co-planning lessons, whereas this move was not found amongst participating pairs in Norway. In addition, four mentors in Norway highlighted their approach involved offering positive reinforcement to mentees, whereas only two mentors in England explicitly mentioned this move.

A key difference that was identified amongst these nine pairs, as mentioned above, is that two pairs (one in England and one in Norway) were found to draw on a wider range of moves than the remaining seven. More details about this difference in approach are presented below.

6.6 Three derivatives of judgemental and developmental mentoring

The above sections have outlined the identified moves adopted by participating pairs in this study. This section summarises the nature of three overall mentoring approached identified as being enacted. These three approaches are each considered to be a

derivative of judgemental and developmental mentoring as discussed in Chapters 3 and 4. Firstly, three mentoring pairs in England were found to be drawing on moves associated with both of these approaches; hence it is proposed they were enacting a '**hybrid of judgemental and developmental mentoring approaches**'. The remaining nine pairs (three from England and six from Norway) were all identified as predominantly drawing on developmental moves. However, the ways in which these moves associated with developmental mentoring were employed suggested that they were not necessarily enabling growth and learning to the extent that previous depictions of this approach have indicated is possible (as discussed in the preceding chapters, sections 3.3 and 4.9 in particular). For example, whilst there was a focus on mentees' self-analyses, these were not always in-depth or discussed as a way to inform future practice. In addition, whilst mentors did employ positive reinforcement, this was not found to be employed extensively. Furthermore, whilst mentees were encouraged to develop their own teaching practices, on the whole these appeared in keeping with existing norms and did not indicate that particularly innovative or creative methods were being explored. In addition, as will be explored further in the following two chapters, some mentees from these pairs, when describing the consequences of the mentoring, indicated that the potential for learning and growth was at times not realised. As a result, it is proposed that the seven pairs who were found to be mainly drawing on four key moves associated with developmental mentoring were enacting a '**restricted version of developmental mentoring**' and the two pairs who were drawing on an additional two moves were enacting a '**more extensive version of developmental mentoring**'; however, neither of these are identified as being entirely aligned with earlier notions of developmental mentoring.

Summaries of the three overall mentoring approaches identified in this study are provided below. It should be noted that whilst the following descriptions aim to capture the overall nature of the identified approaches, some mentoring pairs did draw on characteristics from more than one of these categories (as will be illustrated in the next chapter).

A hybrid of judgemental and developmental mentoring

This approach is characterised by mentoring pairs drawing on moves associated with both judgemental and developmental mentoring. It often involves mentors going through their assessments of mentees' teaching or progress during meetings. They are

likely to refer to the formal paperwork and make evaluative comments on the mentee's practice. Mentors enacting this type of mentoring are also prone to offering strong advice to mentees about what they should do in the classroom and/or how they can improve. Mentors may dominate meetings at times by interrupting the mentee or abruptly changing the course of the conversation. In addition, however, these pairs also engage in discussions where the mentee is encouraged to analyse their own practice. The mentor asks the mentee questions in order to prompt these analyses and may offer positive reinforcement towards the mentee. The mentoring pairs may also collaborate by discussing learners they both know or by co-planning lessons. The mentees are encouraged to develop their own teaching styles primarily by designing and implementing their own ideas for classroom activities.

A restricted version of developmental mentoring

This approach involves mentoring pairs mainly drawing on moves associated with developmental mentoring, but these are not necessarily wide ranging in nature. For instance, mentors and mentees may collaborate by discussing learners they both know, co-planning and/or co-teaching lessons. Mentees may also be enabled to develop their own teaching styles by being given gradually increasing amounts of responsibility, being encouraged to devise their own activities for learners and/or by being told there is no such thing as a correct or perfect way to teach. Mentees are encouraged to analyse their own practice by describing their recent lessons and identifying what worked or not in the classroom. Mentors may offer some positive reinforcement in response to these analyses. This approach may only draw on a small number of such moves and hence does not necessarily maximise opportunities to facilitate the mentee's learning and development.

A more extensive version of developmental mentoring

This version of mentoring mainly draws on the same characteristics as the restricted version described above, but also involves some further moves which are associated with developmental and perhaps an element of transformational mentoring. In these mentoring pairs, mentees may be encouraged to share how they view their development as a teacher and their emerging sense of identity as a teacher. Mentees may also be enabled to make connections between their own practice and wider theories of teaching and learning or the content of the ITE programme they are studying. Mentors and mentees might also engage in critiques of existing teaching practices and the education systems in which they work in order to identify challenges facing both teachers and the learners. These mentoring pairs may also have future orientated

discussions regarding the mentee's upcoming lessons and their impending careers as a teacher. Whilst mentoring pairs adopting this approach draw on a wider range of moves than those enacting a restricted version, the approach does not necessarily employ a full range of moves associated with developmental mentoring or meet mentee's learning needs.

6.6.1 Mentoring approaches in England and Norway

Table 17 below recaps how many pairs from each country were found to be enacting the overall approaches described above. In England, three pairs were identified as enacting **a hybrid of judgemental and developmental mentoring**, two pairs were identified as enacting **a restricted version of mentoring**, and one pair, **a more extensive version of developmental mentoring**. In Norway, none of the pairs were found to be enacting **a hybrid of judgemental and developmental mentoring**, five pairs were found to be enacting **a restricted version of developmental mentoring** and one pair was found to be enacting **a more extensive version of mentoring**. This indicates there was a greater presence of moves associated with judgemental mentoring in England than Norway, but that moves associated with developmental mentoring were most common in both countries.

	Hybrid of judgemental and developmental mentoring	Restricted version of developmental mentoring	More extensive version of developmental mentoring
England	3	2	1
Norway	0	5	1

Table 17 - Overall mentoring approaches in England and Norway

6.7 Conclusion

The aim of this chapter was to provide insights into the nature of judgemental and developmental characteristics of mentoring and to show to what extent these approaches were drawn on by participating pairs in England and Norway. The chapter began by outlining contextual details about the mentoring pairs who took part in this study. It was followed by explanations and examples of four moves associated with judgemental mentoring, five moves associated with developmental mentoring, and one move associated with transformational mentoring as being employed. The next section of this chapter provided further details about how these moves were employed. This final section of the chapter identified that none of the mentoring pairs were enacting

entirely judgemental or developmental approaches, rather they were found to be enacting three derivatives of these approaches.

Chapter Seven – Portraits of three mentoring pairs

7.1 Introduction

This chapter presents three in-depth portraits of mentoring pairs from this study. The purpose of these portraits is to offer greater insight into how individual pairs were drawing on mentoring moves and how they experienced and described the mentoring. The portraits enable a greater exploration of the details and nuances of mentoring enactments than could be achieved in the previous chapter. It also means that other mentoring moves pertaining to individual mentoring pairs, that were not commonly drawn on can be highlighted. The portraits offer a further exploration of the first and second research questions regarding the extent that participating pairs enacted judgemental and developmental mentoring and the characteristics of these approaches. They also offer insights into the third and fourth research questions, namely factors which contributed to enactments of judgemental and/or developmental mentoring moves, and the consequences of the mentoring approaches. The following chapter then takes a broader look at contributing factors towards mentoring approaches and the consequences of these approaches by presenting a thematic analysis of data generated by all 12 mentoring pairs.

The following three portraits have been selected for inclusion in this chapter because they illustrate the three main mentoring approaches identified in this study. The first portrait is of an English mentoring pair, Alana and Peter, who were found to enact a hybrid of judgemental and developmental mentoring. The second portrait is of a Norwegian mentoring pair, Kari and Heidi, considered to be enacting a restricted version of developmental mentoring. The third portrait is of another Norwegian pair, Jon and Henrik, who were identified as enacting a more extensive version of developmental mentoring.

Each portrait is divided into three main sections. The first section examines the nature of the mentoring enactments by exploring the mentor's and the mentee's descriptions of the mentoring and analysis of data generated by audio recordings of mentoring meetings. The second section then explores how the mentor and mentee described the consequences of the mentoring. The third section then presents factors which were

identified as contributing to the enactments of the mentoring. At the end of the chapter is a conclusion which summarises the key insights provided by these portraits.

7.2 Portrait One: Alana and Peter

Alana (mentor) and Peter (mentee) were recruited to the study via Whitefield University in England. Alana is in her fifties and works for an ACL provider in the south-east of England. She works as a "*teacher trainer*" and has a quality assurance (QA) role within the ACL organisation. Before this, she taught at a school in the East Midlands. This is the first time Alana has been a mentor. She was asked by her manager to undertake the role.

Peter is also in his fifties and previously worked in the commercial sector. He was looking for work when he saw a job advertised at the ACL provider, mentioned above, for a part-time maths teacher. He decided to apply and at the same time explored the option of undertaking a PGCE. He realised, as a maths specialist, he was eligible for a bursary (as described in section 2.6.1). This meant that during the academic year of this study Peter had a dual status at the ACL provider as both an employee teaching an accountancy course and as a student teacher undertaking his placement for which he taught numeracy classes.

As highlighted above, Alana and Peter were found to be enacting a hybrid of judgemental and developmental mentoring. The following section presents the mentor's and mentee's descriptions of the mentoring and key findings from the audio recordings.

7.2.1 Alana's account

Alana explained how she and Peter were based on different sites of the ACL provider and as a result they did not have regular face-to-face contact. She described how despite this, she tried to make herself accessible: *"I told him, contact me any time, and he did"*. She described how at an early stage of the mentoring she felt positive and was "*very hospitable, very open,* [and] *very helpful*". However, when Alana first observed Peter teach, she was surprised as he seemed "*very lecture-orientated* [and] *set in his ways*". Her reaction was to offer him direction and advice. She stated:

> "… I thought, I'll try to get him off that, and get the session to become a little bit more interactive … I saw a very needy person, so I started advising him on how to differentiate … I explained it to him."

However, she found him to be unresponsive to her feedback. She explained, "*he said yes, yes, yes, I will do this next time, but he never did*". Alana described how during the placement, it emerged that Peter held some strong views on teaching:

> "He thinks we should go back to traditional methods, he doesn't believe in differentiation, he doesn't believe in … anything to do with individualised learning, and to support this, he sent me lots of documents, newspaper articles mainly, which said how failed the system is."

However, Alana deeply disagreed with his opinion. She described how she was "*set in some of the basic ideas*" about teaching: "*for example, everything that I do is on the principle that learning should be individualised and differentiated*". Alana was concerned about Peter's progress on the placement and so arranged joint lesson observations with both his university tutor and the curriculum manager. She said they "*found exactly the same things*" that she had identified as problematic in Peter's teaching. Alana explained that at this point, she started to have more regular mentoring meetings with Peter and also arranged for him "*to shadow another maths teacher".*

During their mentoring meetings, Alana described how Peter "*never asked a question, never had an agenda*" and that she tended to direct the conversation. Alana said she did try to encourage Peter to be self-analytical, but she found this difficult:

> "I didn't want to tell him right, you did this, you did this … I would say to him I noticed that, what do you think? And then I would say, if I were doing it, I would do that … I was trying to bring it out of him but we didn't get very far."

She depicted how her approach to the mentoring became increasingly directive over the course of the placement:

> "I tried to empower him, but … towards the end, it was just a case of you've got to tick these boxes or you won't pass. Do as you are told, or else. Because there was no other way."

7.2.2 Peter's account

Peter explained how his teaching timetable meant he was working across four different sites. He described how there was "*no staff room or desk … you go into a lesson, bring your bag, and then you go off, you're like a travelling salesman*". With regard the mentoring, similarly to Alana, Peter explained that in addition to this:

> *"what's difficult with the way ACL works is that a lot of teachers are part time, including my mentor… so what we did a lot was we emailed."*

In his account of the mentoring, Peter highlighted that throughout the placement, as he was both an employee and a student teacher, he was observed by several people including the curriculum manager, course tutor, his mentor and an Ofsted inspector. He also explained how the mentoring assessment forms, including the observation reports *"would all go on my staff record"*. Peter stated that his *"formal feedback"* conversations with Alana tended to have *"a set format"* which he identified as both directive and evaluative in nature. However, he also described that at other times during meetings he would ask for *"verbal feedback"* and bring along *"the theory that* [he had] *learned in university or the readings* [he had] *done"*. He thought that Alana may have considered him to be *"a bit too argumentative"*, but he said this was not what he intended:

> *"sometimes you're trying to find out why you're doing something, rather than just accepting it … she might have been thinking I was challenging authority a bit. Even though I wasn't."*

Peter described that around half way through his placement:

> *"OFSTED came into my Accounts lesson and they were fine with the way I did it, and then it was two weeks later I had a joint observation* [by the university tutor and mentor] *and I received a cause for concern … and ended up on sort of a warning."*

He stated that nonetheless he *"managed to turn it around"*. Peter described that one factor which helped this transition was that he started to co-teach with another *"experienced maths teacher"*. Peter stated that by the end of the placement, the mentoring conversations with Alana *"became more like a discussion of what happened* [rather than] *this is what you're doing wrong"*, which he considered to have characterised their earlier meetings.

7.2.3 Findings from audio recordings

Alana was found to offer a high number of evaluative statements throughout the dialogue with Peter in both audio recordings of mentoring meetings. Some of these were positive in their nature, for instance: *"I liked it because you worked around them* [the learners]*, you managed them well"*; however, some comments were of a more fault-finding approach, for example:

> *"We could have done a lot better if we had been a bit closer, but I think to start with, you weren't very assertive, you were very, closed up … I suggested things, and they were not done."*

Alana was also identified as dominating the meeting at times by interrupting the mentee to change the course of the conversation. During the recordings, there were a few instances of the mentor referring to formal assessments in order to discuss "*targets*" for Peter's practice. In addition, in both recordings there was evidence of the mentor offering strong advice. For example, when discussing one of his classes, rather than elicit ideas from Peter, Alana tells him:

> *"you have got to find some practical trick again, some practical method to get them to grasp statistics and percentages…"*

There were also attempts by the mentor throughout both recordings to elicit the mentee's self-analyses of their teaching. Whilst this mentoring pair were the only mentor and mentee in this study who did not collaborate, Alana asked Peter a series of questions about his experiences of co-teaching and what he has learned. For example:

> *"So what did you see when you were observing Ray? What things did you see that you want to add to your own repertoire?"*

This enabled Peter to then describe what he saw and begin to identify how he could incorporate these ideas in his own practice. Throughout both recordings Alana frequently asked Peter questions which prompt him to analyse his teaching. For example: *"Tell me more about motivation…do you think their* [the learners'] *motivation is getting better?".* By asking such questions she also succeeded in enabling Peter to describe his understanding of the learners and their progress. For instance, Peter said:

> *"When they achieve it is great you see that their attitude changes and they don't go 'oh I couldn't care less' and they actually start saying 'okay I will give it a go."*

Alana also encouraged Peter to develop his own teaching practices. She did this by asking Peter how he will apply ideas they have been discussing, as mentioned above. She also explicitly stated that he will foster his own approach to teaching. For example, she said to Peter: "*you will pick bits from other people, and then create your own model… of teaching…that's how it works*".

This mentoring pair also demonstrated two other moves not commonly drawn on by other pairs. Firstly, Alana and Peter drew on theories of teaching and learning in their discussions. For example, in the first recording Alana asks Peter if he is familiar with "*Skinner*" and "*behaviourism*". In the second recording, they also touched on the topic of theory more broadly in relation to teaching practice. For instance:

Peter: *… we're doing theories all the time, you might not formalise it*.

Alana: *Exactly…this is what theory is… something they have found in their experience and somebody formalised.*

Secondly, Alana and Peter also had future-orientated discussions regarding his developing practice. For instance, they discuss how he might approach planning forthcoming lessons and also his future development as a teacher. During the second recording, Alana asked Peter about his "*development targets*". Whilst the mentor, at this point of the meeting, was drawing on the formal assessment forms (a move associated with judgemental mentoring), the discussion that follows appeared to be of a more developmental nature as Peter identified for himself areas of learning and growth that he wanted to address. For example, he identified that "*one* [target] *will be the initial assessment…I have got to be able to assess the people, which course they should go on to, and assess their level*".

7.2.4 Summary

Evidence from the mentor's and the mentee's descriptions of the mentoring and analysis of audio recordings indicated that the four moves associated with judgemental mentoring identified in the previous chapter were taking place: the mentor evaluates mentee's teaching and/or progress, the mentor refers to formal assessments, the mentor dominates the mentoring meeting, and the mentor offers strong advice. There was also evidence of moves associated with developmental mentoring, including: the mentee self-analyses their practice, the mentee is enabled to develop their own teaching practice, and the mentor offers positive reinforcement. This mentoring pair were also found to enact moves not widely drawn on by other pairs, associated with developmental mentoring including discussing wider theories of learning and the mentee undertaking future-orientated self-analyses. In addition, interview data indicated Peter at times may have enacted the move associated with transformational mentoring, critiquing the status quo, but this move did not appear to be reciprocated by his mentor. As a result of the evidence summarised above, Alana and Peter were considered to be enacting a hybrid of judgemental and developmental mentoring.

7.2.5 Consequences of the mentoring

This section explores the consequences of the mentoring as described by Peter and Alana. When asked how he had found the mentoring overall, Peter was fairly brief in his

response and stated that it had "*given him ideas for where to improve*". He proceeded to indicate that he had experienced **both positive and negative consequences** of the mentoring[16]. The problems he encountered appeared to be a result of the more judgemental characteristics of the process. For instance, he identified that was a "***conflict***" as a result of the completed mentoring assessment forms being kept on his staff file. He thought that they "*should have stayed separately…because you're doing more of the development things* [with mentoring]". Secondly, as a result of a joint observation between his mentor and his tutor he was put on "*a cause for concern*" and this resulted in him feeling "*I've had enough*". However, Peter stated that a key factor in "*turning things round*" was his mentor arranging for him to **co-teach** with another teacher. He stated that "*I think if you're just thrown in at the deep end, you're a bit lost*", whereas he described that when he started to co-teach:

> "*That really helped me because you could learn, see an experienced teacher when you were teaching the same students, so you could compare, and that worked really well.*"

Peter also explained that one of the most useful aspects of the mentoring was the lesson **observations** undertaken by his mentor. He explained that this gave him ideas for how to increase levels of interaction in the classroom, in particular:

> "*the group activity… where we started discussing, so rather than get them to solve the problems on their own, we solved it as a class.*"

Whilst Peter offered a mixed view of the consequences of the mentoring, Alana was more categorical. For her, the mentoring had been a **negative** and "*disappointing*" experience. She stated that she "*didn't even know what will happen*" with regards to whether Peter would pass his overall PGCE qualification. When I asked Alana what she hoped Peter would take away from the mentoring process, she replied: "*that he will go … and rethink the whole process, and his place in teaching and decide whether he should be doing it, or not*". Alana stated that she did not want to mentor another student teacher in the future and was also reconsidering whether to continue with her QA role (which involves working with existing teachers on a one-to-one basis):

> "*now I'm thinking to myself, oh my God, do I really want to do that again? Which is a shame, because I liked working with them.*"

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[16] The emboldened words and phrases in the following sections denote themes which are explored further in the following chapter.

7.2.6 Contributing factors

This section examines factors which may have contributed to the participants' approaches to mentoring. Four key factors were identified from Peter's responses. Firstly, with regard his critiquing of existing concepts and practices, Peter stated that he has a **personality trait** whereby he "*likes t*o *question things and find out why things are happening, … I was just trying to find out*"; in particular he expressed concerns about how to differentiate and whether teachers should be doing this:

> "*It's very easy to say you should differentiate, but, if you've got a class of 20, how do you differentiate and keep everyone occupied.*"

Secondly, Peter also explained that as an "*older student*" he considered himself to have **valuable previous experiences** which could have been drawn upon. He stated: "*I might not know about teaching, but there are other things that are dually relevant that I can bring in*". However, in his view this did not appear to happen. Thirdly, he identified that his mentor's view of herself as the more experienced practitioner, may have led to a **lack of equality** in the mentoring and contributed to an overly directive approach:

> "*I think I was looking at it as more of an equal, like a supportive role, and I think she was looking at me as a trainee, and her as the experienced person, you do as I say, because I've been doing it for 30 years.*"

Finally, Peter stated that he considered Alana's approach to mentoring may have been shaped by her other **QA role** in the organisation. He explains:

> "*I think because of her background of doing assessing, she was looking at the outcome of assessment point of view, so you're going in as if you're a fully qualified teacher saying, right, this is your area of weakness, which I can see.*"

Another four contributing factors were identified in Alana's responses. Firstly, she indicated that her directive approach to the mentoring stemmed from her **perception of the mentee** as lacking understanding and proactiveness. This is illustrated in the following statement:

> "*I just couldn't leave him to his initiative for his own sake …* [I would say] *Next time I come I want to see this and this.*"

Secondly, Alana demonstrated that she began to draw on the **assessment forms as a tool** in the mentoring process in order to try and persuade Peter to adapt his practices to meet the requirements for the course:

> *"In the end, I started saying to him, you know, come on Peter, because you won't be ticking the boxes … I am not going to tick any boxes if I don't see the evidence … Let me help you help yourself to pass it."*

Thirdly, Alana identified that her **previous experience** which included changing her profession and moving to another country informed the way she viewed mentoring and her expectations of Peter. She described how she lived in Cyprus and worked as a lawyer, before moving to the UK and becoming a teacher. She explains how she had to learn and adapt to a new culture and that she expects other people to be willing to do the same:

> *"I changed profession, … so that to me shows some degree of tolerance* [and] *some determination … we have to respect each other's professions if I see you bow, I bow.*"

She considers each profession to have its "*own epistemology"* and described how she wanted to introduce Peter to the "*ways of teaching*" but found him to be "*unwilling*".

Finally, Alana described how Peter appeared to lack a commitment to entering teaching and she thought this might be related to him receiving a bursary in order to undertake the PGCE. She explains:

> *"He didn't have the passion and enthusiasm…his tutor said you are not going to pass it carrying on like that, he said, it doesn't matter, I won't have to return the bursary".*

7.3 Portrait Two: Kari and Heidi

This is a portrait of Kari (mentor) and Heidi (mentee) who were recruited to the research project via Vest University in Norway. Kari is in her forties and works at Vlaander Upper Secondary School. She teaches English, French and Norwegian. She has been mentoring for around six years and was one of the most experienced mentors who took part in the study. She mentors both student teachers and newly qualified teachers. She has undertaken a mentoring qualification run by the local university (as described in section 2.7.2). She first became a mentor after receiving an email from the university stating they were looking for mentors and she and some colleagues decided to volunteer.

Heidi is learning to teach Religious Studies and English and she is in her twenties. She attended her placement on a full-time basis at Vlaander Upper Secondary School. Heidi is undertaking a five-year integrated master's programme (as described in section 2.6.2). Before university she attended a private, boarding school between the ages of 16-18. For Heidi, her upper secondary education was a particularly positive experience. She

stated that here she "*found her kind of people*" and described having "*close relationships*" with her peers and teachers as they were all "*living in the same community*".

As stated above, Kari and Heidi were found to be enacting a restricted version of developmental mentoring. The following section presents the mentor's and mentee's descriptions of the mentoring and key findings from the analysis of audio recordings.

7.3.1 Kari's account

During interviews Kari explained her approach to mentoring in some detail. She described herself as being a "*strict*" mentor:

> "*Some mentors … go for the soft side, let them* [mentees] *find out on their own that this is no good, just be positive and move them in to that positive direction. But I'm a bit more hands on.*"

Despite identifying herself as "*strict"* the majority of Kari's descriptions of her mentoring approach were of a supportive, developmental nature. For instance, she advocated creating a "*safe environment*" which puts her mentee "*at ease*", although she also found this "*extremely difficult*" when mentoring Heidi because of time. She explained: "*I wish I had more time to do that because we needed more one to one*[s]".

When describing her approach to mentoring, Kari emphasised the importance of exploring mentees' subjective understanding of their practice. She stated that: "*the most important thing of it all is not what happens in the classroom, it's the talk afterwards*". Her approach to these talks involved encouraging the mentee to share their analyses first:

> "*Before I tell them what I see or saw, I make them tell me what did you see, what worked, what did not work.*"

Kari also described her approach to mentoring in terms of encouraging the mentee to recognise there is no one correct way to teach. She stated that "*it is very important, that they know that there is never just one solution, and that actually, to evolve, we work together*". She maintained that such an approach enables her to:

> "*Have a better perception of how they* [mentees] *think, and what kind of teachers, or how they would like to teach, because everyone has a different style.*"

Before giving feedback to mentees, Kari considers it "*important*" that the mentee has time "*to talk it* [the lesson] *out of his or her system before they are able to be 'ah, okay'*"

in response to a mentor's comments. However, in reality, Kari described how when mentoring Heidi:

> "*Because of lack of time, I did ask her about the plan, and I would just ask very fast, okay, what did you see, what did you think, and this is what I saw...*"

Kari described Heidi as "*very open to comments and eager to learn*" and able to explain "*why she did what she did*" in the classroom. A particularly memorable moment for Kari from the mentoring process was when Heidi taught a lesson on the United States. Kari recalled:

> "*I would be more old school, and teach them about checks and balances etc and Heidi went for a news article and worked with the language…a new method, fresh blood as they say.*"

7.3.2 Heidi's account

Heidi stated that she was pleased with her teaching placement because she "*got* [teaching] *work to do, gradually*" and "*it was easy to talk to the teachers, and to Kari*". Heidi described how at the beginning of the process Kari watched her teach and "*started off really positive – 'OK, you've got it. Now we can start doing work on the details'*". She explains that Kari was thorough when they discussed her teaching practice:

> "*She was concerned, quite a lot, about the details of my performance in the classrooms, we talked a lot about that. It was 'nit-picking' as she called it, quite in detail.*"

Heidi described how during their meetings, Kari would lead by asking her questions:

> "*She set the agenda, and then I started to self-evaluate for a period and she asked a lot of questions, she wouldn't answer mine. And then, in the end, she would respond to my reflections.*"

Heidi explained how during these conversations there was often an emphasis on choices that she made in her practice. For instance, Heidi described how they "*focused a lot on why we should or shouldn't do things in the classroom*".

Heidi also described Kari as being "*quite strict*" and "*painfully direct sometimes*" when giving feedback comments. Heidi recalled that Kari would say "*'this and this was good, but…'*" and Heidi felt that "*the sentence behind that 'but…' was quite long, and could go on and could take over the entire meeting, sometimes*". At the same time, Heidi described how she thought it was "*a positive thing that she noticed things I didn't*" and

that she *"kind of trusted her to notice, and to talk to me about the most important things".*

Heidi stated that Kari appeared to be an effective teacher as she was *"quite creative, and … did some fun things with her class".* However, Heidi explained that when on placement, she only observed Kari once or twice in the classroom. This meant that Kari would usually tell Heidi about the activities she had done in class, but Heidi *"didn't get to see them"* in practice. She explained *"I would have liked to observe Kari more, actually"*.

7.3.3 Findings from audio recordings

Both audio recordings involved the mentor and mentee discussing a lesson that Heidi had recently taught, which Kari had observed. During the meetings there was an emphasis on the mentee self-analysing their practice. Kari asked Heidi a series of questions to prompt these analyses. For example: *"So you have just taught 45 minutes, yes? … so tell me about your session"*. In each meeting Heidi proceeded to offer her thoughts about the lesson she had recently taught. These accounts consisted of descriptions of what she did or what the students did in the class. For example:

> *"We had a vocabulary exercise. … they had try to pronounce it, also try to correct* [the] *writing of the word on their own small whiteboards."*

Heidi also volunteered self-evaluations of what she considered to have gone well and not so well during the lesson. For instance:

> *"it didn't go quite as planned. I was a bit, I don't know, taken aback at the start of class … I had something I wanted to say and then I just forgot to say it."*

Kari then responded to Heidi's self-analyses by asking her further questions about sections of the lesson: *"Yes, but if we go to the very beginning, how you started the lesson. What did you do?"*. These questions directed Heidi towards particular actions she took, or learners' responses, which the mentor and mentee discuss in further detail. The audio recordings also contained instances of the mentor offering positive reinforcement in response to some of Heidi's analyses. For example, Kari makes encouraging comments such as *"excellent idea"* and *"that was fun!"*. There is also evidence of Heidi developing her own teaching style as the mentoring pair discuss

various activities she has designed: including a formative test using "*mini-white boards*" and a team "*quiz*" to review learning.

Audio recordings demonstrated that Kari and Heidi discussed learners they both knew. For instance, in this example Heidi raises uncertainty around whether she should have addressed some low-level disruption in the class:

> Heidi: *I feel like, some people are right there with me all the time, and some are not, and the ones that are not, for example Marc with his head on his desk … I don't want to ignore it…*
>
> Kari: *I mean, they're not bad. Symini, even though she's noisy, you've got her attention all the time, and Marc, I think he's doing his best…*

In this example, Kari also offers some positive reinforcement towards Heidi by reassuring her that the learners are responding well to her.

Although there were no examples of Kari presenting her evaluations of Heidi's teaching and/or progress during the audio recordings, some of the questions she asked, appeared to contain an implied evaluation on the success or not of certain events in the lesson. For instance:

> *"Don't you think that twenty minutes…for a PowerPoint* [presentation]… *should there be something in between*?"

By using such questions, the mentor succeeds in avoiding directly telling the mentee what they thought, but there does appear to be an indirect evaluation taking place.

7.3.4 Summary

Evidence from the mentor's and the mentee's descriptions of the mentoring and analysis of audio recordings indicated that Kari and Heidi drew on four main moves associated with developmental mentoring. These were: the mentor and mentee collaborate by discussing learners they both knew; the mentee self-analyses their practice; the mentee is enabled to develop their own teaching practice; and the mentor offers positive reinforcement. There was a suggestion in Heidi's description that Kari may sometimes engage in giving lengthy feedback. This, and Kari's employment of implied evaluations found in the audio recordings, indicated there may be a more judgemental move taking place, but overall this mentoring pair were found to mainly operate in developmental ways. Despite this, it also seemed that opportunities for learning and growth were not always maximised. For instance, there was little evidence

of the mentoring pair co-planning or co-teaching and the mentee mentioned she had few chances to observe her mentor teach. In addition, whilst the mentoring conversations did appear to have an emphasis on the mentee's self-analyses these appeared to be predominantly focussed on what had occurred in a previous lesson and did not explicitly refer to wider theories of learning and teaching or how the mentee's self- analyses might inform Heidi's future lesson planning or practice. There was also little evidence of this mentoring pair drawing on wider moves associated with developmental or transformational mentoring. As such, Kari and Heidi were considered to be enacting a restricted form of developmental mentoring.

7.3.5 Consequences of the mentoring

This section explores the consequences of the mentoring as described by Kari and Heidi. When asked how she had found the mentoring overall, the mentee stated it was a "*good experience*". Whilst Heidi identified some **positive outcomes** of the mentoring, she also highlighted there were some more **negative consequences** too.

Heidi explained that after a mentoring meeting she would be "*over-analysing*" everything and trying to work out whether Kari thought certain elements of her teaching practice were good or not. This was sometimes unclear to Heidi, because when discussing her self-analyses, Kari would draw attention to particular areas of Heidi's practice, but not comment on them herself. Heidi found this "***confusing***" as she "*didn't understand*" what Kari had thought about them.

Heidi also explained that at times she found it "*frustrating*" when Kari did not directly answer her questions: "*when she asked me what I thought … I don't know, that's why I'm asking".* However, Heidi also described how this approach led her to realise that she is developing her own style of teaching and this impacted on her overall **professional learning and development**:

> *"I think I became more aware of the need to be even more independent, as a teacher, and it's up to me, I have good enough judgement to decide what I can do next … also that will be something I have to work on, the rest of my life."*

Heidi also described how at some points during the mentoring she would have benefited from hearing **more positive reinforcement** from Kari. She explains that:

> "*Sometimes I needed some compliments just to feel like, okay, it's good … sometimes I needed to be a bit more encouraged than maybe Kari thought about in that moment, because I know that when we talked outside the classroom, … then, she's a really caring person.*"

Whilst Heidi explained the consequences in **a mixture of positive and negative** terms, Kari described the consequences for her as **predominantly positive**. For instance, Kari explained that she enjoys mentoring because she *"always learns a lot"* from the beginning teachers "*because learning goes both ways*". She stated in particular that she felt "*inspired*" by Heidi's creative approach in the classroom. When I asked Kari what she hoped Heidi took away from the mentoring process, she stated that she hoped Heidi would remember to incorporate "*variation*" in her lessons. She explained that they had "*talked a lot*" about this: "*you cannot do one thing, you cannot speak for 45 minutes and then not expect pupils to be bored*".

7.3.6 Contributing factors

This section outlines factors which appeared to have contributed to the participants' approaches to mentoring. Three key contributory factors were identified in Heidi's responses. Firstly, Heidi stated that one of the reasons why she might have preferred more positive reinforcement from Kari on occasions was because of the **types of relationships** she has experienced in the past. She highlighted the "*close*" and "*caring*" relationships she had or has with her family, friends and former teachers and explains that:

> "*I think sometimes I have to adapt my relationship with other adults that are not my family, or these people, and maybe I sought that out with Kari more than I should. I wasn't needy or anything, but … sometimes I needed more support, sometimes she needed to express her positive takes of my lessons more than she did.*"

Secondly, Heidi also acknowledged that her perceptions about how the teaching and mentoring were progressing partly depended on her mood and how she was feeling in herself:

> "*My feelings were like a rollercoaster, when I was tired, and unsure, and … insecure, then I needed for example, Kari, to say, okay, there are actually some positives there. But when I was more rested … everything was better, and then I knew of course Kari thinks I'm good enough, and this is just nit-picking, and I'm lucky we are only nit-picking.*"

Thirdly, when discussing how Kari tended to direct the mentoring process, Heidi stated that in her view it was "*natural*" for her to "*lead*" it. As such Heidi **did not consider it appropriate for her as a mentee to direct the process**:

> "*Of course she is my mentor and I am learning this, so it's good to know that a more experienced person can … I think if she didn't do that, I would wonder if I caught the things I would like …that I should reflect upon … I'm not yet in a position to…*"

There were also a number of factors described in Kari's responses that were identified as contributing to her approach and perceptions of the mentoring. For instance, Kari attributes the "*strict*" approach she takes when mentoring to two factors. Firstly, her view of the current context with regard ITE. She explains that one of the reasons she "*enjoys helping student teachers*" is because she thinks "*there are too many teachers out there who are too bad, they shouldn't be teaching*". She explains:

> "*I see other mentors who would never, for instance, say to their student, "This is unacceptable". But I think … there is a lot of love in a no. So also to say that, "No, this is no good" How else would you know? That's a part of the learning process.*"

Secondly, she also states that her approach to mentoring is partly informed by her **experiences of studying abroad**. When she was aged 18 Kari studied in France and she explains that this impacted on her approach to mentoring as:

> "*…the fact that I experienced a stricter school system. I'm not afraid of being strict. I see that sometimes strict is good…because I had never been pushed, it did me good, it did me good. I learnt to test the limits, and that I could be better.*"

Kari also highlighted that the reason she encourages mentees to self-analyse their teaching practice stems from a commitment to exploring mentees' subjectivity. She explains:

> "*I see we all have different ways of interpreting reality, and different ways of handling situations etc … I never know, what we will focus on … until the mentee starts talking.*"

Kari also explains that in her experience, the approach that she adopts in her mentoring "*depends on the lesson, it depends on the mentee, it depends on how much time we have*". She explains that:

> "*sometimes you can give very clear feedback but that still doesn't help…you have to find out who the person you have in front of you is and what is the best technique that I can use to talk to that person to make that person realise don't do this, do this.*"

7.4 Portrait Three: Jon and Henrik

This is a portrait of Jon (mentor) and Henrik (mentee) who were recruited to the study through Kyst University in Norway. Jon is in his fifties. He grew up in Scotland but has been living in Norway for 30 years. Jon teaches English and French. He has previously been the head of an ACL centre, but he now has "*a basic teaching job*". He works in a relatively new upper secondary school which was built in 2012 and specialises in performing arts. He describes the school as "*state of the art … everywhere you go, there's all kinds of connections to computer networks and wireless networks … all the students have got Macs*". This is the first time Jon has mentored a student teacher. He volunteered for the role when he received an email from a member of the school leadership team stating they were looking for new mentors. His school is a 'practice school' which is linked to the local university (as described in section 2.7.2).

Henrik is studying on a one-year PPU course at Kyst university in Norway. He is aged in his thirties. Ten years ago, he completed a master's in English, followed by a postgraduate drama course. Since then he has run drama workshops for primary and lower secondary pupils. He is from a "*family of teachers*" who were all telling him "*you will become a teacher*". He decided to undertake the PPU course in order to teach on a "*more regular basis*" and "*to learn more about the theories behind teaching*". On his placement he was teaching English and drama.

As highlighted above, Jon and Henrik were found to be enacting a more extensive version of developmental mentoring. The following section presents the mentor's and mentee's descriptions of the mentoring and key findings from the analysis of audio recordings.

7.4.1 Jon's account

Despite this being the first time Jon had mentored a student teacher he expressed clear views on mentoring and how he would approach it. He explained that he considers the purpose of mentoring is to "*make them* [the mentee*] think, not just do things robotically*". He also highlighted that his approach would involve encouraging the mentee to "*use their imagination*", "*experiment*", "*do things their own way*" and not be afraid to "*make mistakes*". When describing his approach to discussing the mentee's practice, Jon stated that he:

> "*…would like him* [the mentee] *actually to think himself and reflect himself … so therefore he has to have the freedom with which to discuss the things that he wants to discuss … I'll make a few notes, then … of course it's good to see if they can see the same thing as me, or if they see something that I haven't noticed.*"

He proceeded to explain further about his approach to feedback, which consisted of highlighting the mentee's strengths: *"I would point out what was good and encourage him to keep doing that."*

When describing his experience of mentoring Henrik, Jon emphasised that a key part of his approach was to create a sense of inclusion and equality:

> "*In every single way possible,* [I] *tried to treat him exactly the same way as I would a colleague … with the same respect. We went to all of the meetings together … there was a social event … a lunch … I took him to that*"

Jon described a couple of incidents where some learners were either "*a bit cheeky*" in the mentee's lessons and how he encouraged Henrik to make his own choices about how to deal with it:

> "*My point is to get him to reflect over what happened, and what would you do the next time, what other options do you have? … but I kept on saying to him as well, that I don't have the key, I'd maybe solve a problem this way, or that way, but that doesn't have to be right for you.*"

Jon stated that when he is teaching he is "*a bit strict on the discipline side of it*" but he explained:

> "*…that's me, and I feel that he's got to find his own way, and I don't want to sort of push my ideas onto him, I think he's got to find his own.*"

He described how he viewed Henrik as a competent teacher: "*he was a good candidate for a teacher without any doubt. There are some people who are not really cut out for teaching, Henrik wasn't one of them.*"

7.4.2 Henrik's account

Henrik described how at the start of the teaching placement he and Jon co-taught lessons together. He recalled how Jon did not refer to him as being a student teacher but rather, "*when he presented me, I was the teacher … he showed the learners he treated me as a teacher*". However, Henrik during this period experienced some uncertainty about his role in the classroom:

"*I don't think he* [Jon] *noticed, but it was very unclear for me what my role should be, so I just walked around the classroom and helped out and tried to be a teacher, and learn all the names.*"

In addition, Henrik was also surprised and uneasy about the way Jon interacted with the learners. For instance, he described that:

"*He didn't care about knowing their names, he makes fun of them sometimes if they answer wrongly … he was kind of a very strong teacher figure.*"

He also found, however, that there was a contrast between the way Jon behaved with the learners and with him: "*he was … sometimes a bit hard* [with them]*, but he was very soft with me*".

When discussing his teaching practice with Jon, Henrik described how he self-analysed "*a lot*". He deescribed their approach to meetings as:

"*He* [Jon] *started off by asking questions about how I experienced the teaching, and if I had any thoughts, and that's where I'd start talking. And then he gave me his feedback in the end … he would say all the good things that happened…his role became more of a supporter and pointing to the positive things I did.*"

In particular, Henrik recalled a conversation they had after a lesson where one of the learners had been reluctant to participate in an activity he had devised. He described how after the lesson he and Jon discussed the incident, but Jon let him decide how best to approach it:

"* [Jon] encouraged me to talk with him* [the learner] *if I wanted to, but he didn't push me to do anything, he just listened, … it was really nice, because … I was not sure if I wanted to confront this learner that much because I had only one week left. And I'm glad I didn't because we had a nice relationship after that.*"

Henrik had hoped he would be able to observe and collaborate with a range of teachers whilst on his placement; however, he described how this "*never happened*" because Jon "*worked alone*". Henrik stated: "*I don't think he collaborated with them at all*".

7.4.3 Findings from audio recordings

In the first audio recording, there was evidence of Jon and Henrik collaborating as they discussed a class they have been co-teaching and there was evidence of them co-planning an upcoming lesson. For example:

Henrik: *… it could be very effective …to also watch, for instance a YouTube video... some of them might benefit from that*.

170

> Jon: *could I maybe ask you then to … see if you can find something interesting, that will be visual … and maybe you could show that in class…?*

There was further evidence of Jon encouraging Henrik to develop his own teaching style in both audio recordings. For instance, in the first recording, the mentoring discuss an activity Henrik had designed where learners will perform and analyse a short drama script. Then in the second recording the pair discuss a film that Henrik has designed a series of lessons around.

In addition, whilst this mentoring pair explored Henrik's self-evaluations what has gone well and not so well in the classroom, Jon also asked wider questions which enabled the mentee to self-analyse his ongoing development regarding his emerging sense of teacher identity. For instance, during the first recording Jon asks: "*have you kind of got the feel for what would be a good teacher? Have you got an idea about that?".* In the recordings, Jon also offered Henrik positive reinforcement regarding his teaching by encouraging him and confirming Henrik's strengths in response to his analyses of his practice.

> *"I think that sounds very interesting, and I think it also shows that you have the courage, and the ideas to … get up and … try it out, I think it sounds really good for the future… I really do."*

This mentoring pair were also identified as employing three further developmental moves, one of which was not widely used in the other pairs. Firstly, during the mentoring meetings the they discuss the mentee's experiences prior to the ITE course. For instance, in the first recording Jon asked Henrik about his reasons for entering teaching and his previous experiences of working with children. Then in the second recording Jon asked: "*what do you think is the main difference then, between working with a primary school and working with a school like this one?".* Here he appears to draw on Henrik's previous experiences in order to prompt him to analyse his current teaching practice further.

Secondly, the mentor and mentee discuss the ITE course that Henrik is undertaking theories of teaching and learning he has been studying. For instance, Henrik explains:

> *"There has been a lot of talk about communicative learning strategies… The teacher becomes less visible … not so much presenting stuff … but the goal in itself is communication."*

This discussion offered the mentee the opportunity to share their emergent understanding of teaching and learning processes and their role as a teacher.

Thirdly, Jon and Henrik engaged in critiquing elements of education policy, practice and wider contextual issues. For example, Jon questions existing policies "*where the most important thing is that they* [learners] *know their maths and their English and their Norwegian*". He also critiques the placement organisation's recent policy that "*all classes should be taught the same things, read the same texts, do the same exercises…and everybody should march in line together*". In addition, Henrik when explaining his recent decision to show a film to learners in class he described how he wanted to explore "*stereotypes*" particularly, he stated, "*how we stereotype people here in Norway*". Whilst Jon and Henrik do critique aspects of the status quo, they do not indicate that they have a transformational agenda whereby they are attempting to bring about substantial change to existing practices or address inequalities in the education system.

7.4.4 Summary

Evidence from the mentor's and the mentee's descriptions of the mentoring and analysis of audio recordings indicated Jon and Henrik were enacting moves mainly associated with developmental mentoring and one move associated with transformational mentoring. They also drew on some moves that were identified as developmental in nature not widely drawn on by other pairs (including mentor draws on mentee's previous experience, mentor and mentee discuss the ITE course, and mentee analyses sense of identity as a teacher). As such, Jon and Henrik were considered to be enacting a more extensive version of developmental mentoring. The overall mentoring approach was also identified however, as having limitations with regard to enhancing the mentee's learning and growth, as explained further below.

7.4.5 Consequences of mentoring

This section explores the consequences of mentoring for the mentee Henrik, and the mentor, Jon. Henrik describes both **positive and negative consequences** he experienced as a result of the mentoring. On the positive side, he explained that as a result of the positive reinforcement Jon offered he felt more **confident** as a teacher: "*I feel more secure in the things that I feel are my strengths. He was … very detailed about them.*" However, Henrik also identified a number of negative consequences that he experienced. For example, as a result of observing Jon's teaching, Henrik explained that he:

> *"kind of came to a **conflict** within myself … from really disagreeing with some of the ways that he would be with his students, and that was a kind of a conflict going on, that I had during the whole period."*

He also described feeling "*a bit worried*" that Jon would "*meet me the same way*", although Henrik explained this never happened. In addition, Henrik described feeling "*disappointed*" that in addition to disagreeing with the way Jon interacted with learners, he was not inspired by his teaching methods:

> *"I would have hoped that I could look more to him* [Jon] *as a role model … that he would* [demonstrate] *innovative and creative teaching practice for me, … I* [hoped I] *would be given the opportunity to just observe someone that I could learn a lot from."*

Henrik also explained that he felt that he had "*missed out*" by not having the opportunity to collaborate with other teachers in the department.

For Jon, the consequences of mentoring were **positive**. He explained "*I was happy, because I enjoyed it, it was really good, it was the first time, it was a new experience for me* [and] *… I was well-paid for it*". He also described how he benefited from the mentoring by **gaining ideas for his own teaching**:

> *"When you work for 20 years in teaching, … you kind of get into a rut … so to have a young person come along with some new ideas and a different way of thinking was actually quite educational for me, so I really enjoyed that."*

Jon hoped that as a result of the mentoring Henrik had become **more confident** in the classroom. He explained that he hoped Henrik:

> *"Has gone away with feeling comfortable … wearing the researcher's hat… trying things out, in a classroom, and not being afraid to make a mess of things…"*

7.4.6 Contributing factors

This section outlines factors which were identified as contributing to the participants' approaches to mentoring. Firstly, Henrik attributes his willingness to self-analyse his own teaching practice to an underlying tendency to think in this way: "*I think it's because I'm analysing myself so much all the time, and in this setting that is a very good thing.*" He also considered himself to be a **motivated student teacher** who wanted to experiment in the classroom: "*I had so much experience that was outside of the school life, that I could bring … which I really enjoyed trying out".* Henrik also considered that his previous experiences also meant he was **open to receiving feedback from his**

mentor. On his postgraduate acting course, Henrik received regular feedback from peers and tutors and as a result of these experiences he stated that "I *know that I view myself differently from others all the time"* and this meant that on the teaching placement he *"would like the* [mentor] *feedback"*.

Jon's responses during interviews indicated four factors which may have contributed to his approach to mentoring. Firstly, with regard his aim to treat Henrik as a colleague and give him confidence, Jon stated that he has **certain beliefs** which inform his approach: *"I've got this thing about fairness and everybody should have the same chance".*

He attributed his commitment to fairness to his own upbringing. Jon described how when he was 10 years old when his mother died and as the eldest of four siblings he helped to take care of his younger brothers and sisters: "*in the mornings, I had to get up and I had to help, I had to take my youngest sister to nursery and so on*". Jon described how as a child he:

> *"…used to watch these T.V. commercials … and you'd see this beautiful, middle-class family with a basket full of strawberries, and French cheeses … and the two lovely children would get into a nice car, and they'd drive out to the countryside …And I used to look at that, and I used to look, well, we lived in this really horrible, run down council estate … and I used to think, well how do they have that kind of life, and we have this?"*

Secondly, Jon explained that one of the reasons why he encouraged Henrik to develop his own teaching practices was because he values his professional independence as a teacher. He explained:

> *"I would like to have my personal autonomy, my personal freedom to find my own style of doing, and I believe in myself enough to know that if it doesn't work, I'll quickly change it. … that's* [what I'm] *trying to say to them* [mentees], *they have to find their own way."*

Thirdly, there appeared to be a similarity between Jon's emphasis on encouraging Henrik to experiment with his teaching and what he was told when he was a student teacher. For instance, Jon stated that when he was at university "*they said that one of the most important things for a teacher is to not be afraid to try out new things*" and when asked to describe his approach to mentoring he used a similar phrase: "*I like to think …that I get the student* [teacher] *to try out things*". This indicates that Jon may be drawing on his **experiences of being a student teacher** to inform his approach to mentoring Henrik.

Finally, Jon described how he saw the main **function of mentoring as primarily about learning and development**, in particular enabling the mentee to "*reflect on their own practice…*".

7.5 Conclusion

This chapter set out to offer further insights into the three versions of mentoring identified in the preceding chapter: a hybrid of judgemental and developmental mentoring, a restricted version of developmental mentoring and a more extensive version of developmental mentoring. The portraits have provided further details about how each mentoring pair were enacting these overall approaches and moves associated with judgemental and developmental mentoring. In addition, the portraits illustrated some of the nuances and complexities which arise when analysing and categorising mentoring enactments. For instance, in the first portrait, Alana and Peter demonstrated that sometimes within a mentoring pair, one person might draw on a move that is not reciprocated by the other. This, and the second portrait of Kari and Heidi, illustrated that sometimes there can be a blurring between moves associated with judgemental and developmental mentoring. For instance, in the former, the mentor at times discussed the formal assessment forms in a developmental way by asking Peter to identify what areas he wanted to progress; and in the latter the mentor at times asked questions to prompt the mentee's self-analyses which had an implied evaluation. These considerations are discussed further in Chapter 9.

With regard to the consequences of the mentoring, in the first portrait both participants described finding elements of the mentoring problematic, however, in the second and third portraits the mentees described a mixture of positive and negative consequences of the mentoring, whereas the mentors described the consequences for them in wholly positive terms. In addition, some factors contributing to the enactments of mentoring were explored. Participants identified a wide range of factors which shaped their approach including: their upbringing, other family and personal relationships, their previous work experience, their own experiences of being a learner and student teacher. The following chapter examines the consequences of and factors contributing to enactments of mentoring in more detail.

Chapter Eight: The consequences of, and factors contributing to, judgemental and developmental mentoring

8.1 Introduction

The first half of this chapter presents findings on the consequences of mentoring for the mentees and mentors and the second half examines factors contributing to the use of moves associated with judgemental and developmental mentoring. This chapter presents thematic findings based on interview data from all 12 mentoring pairs in order to explore these two topics, which are the subject of the third and fourth research questions in further depth.

8.2 Consequences of mentoring

In this section, the mentees' accounts of the consequences of the mentoring are explored first, followed by those of the mentors. A final section then compares data generated by mentoring pairs in England and Norway.

8.2.1 Mentees' accounts

Table 18 below provides an overview of how the 12 mentees in this study described the consequences of the mentoring they had experienced. It shows that in total, seven mentees described the consequences in mainly positive terms and five mentees described them in a mixture of positive and negative terms. It also shows that there in general terms there did not appear to be a correspondence between the overall mentoring approach identified and whether the mentees described the consequences in mainly positive terms or not. For instance, out of the three pairs enacting a hybrid of judgemental and developmental mentoring, two mentees described the consequences in a mixture of positive and negative terms, and one mentee described them in mainly positive terms. In addition, out of the seven mentoring pairs who enacted a restricted version of developmental mentoring, five mentees described the consequences in mainly positive terms, and two described them as a mixture of positive and negative. Finally, it shows that from the two mentoring pairs who enacted a more extensive

version of developmental mentoring, one mentee described the consequences as mainly positive and one described it in a mixture of positive and negative terms.

	Mentee's name	Mentor's name	Overall approach	Consequences described by mentee
England	Isabel	Tina	Hybrid of j/d	Mixture of positive and negative
	Hannah	Sarah	Hybrid of j/d	Mainly positive
	Peter	Alana	Hybrid of j/d	Mixture of positive and negative
	Nicky	Chloe	Restricted	Mainly positive
	Megan	Julia	More extensive	Mainly positive
	Nigel	Susan	Restricted	Mainly positive
Norway	Linda	Kari	Restricted	Mainly positive
	Heidi	Kari	Restricted	Mixture of positive and negative
	Fin	Tor	Restricted	Mixture of positive and negative
	Monica	Fredrik	Restricted	Mainly positive
	Liv	Ellen	Restricted	Mainly positive
	Henrik	Jon	More extensive	Mixture of positive and negative

Table 18 - Summary of consequences of mentoring as described by mentees

Table 19 below presents a more detailed breakdown of the consequences described by participating mentees. In the left-hand column, the main consequences of mentoring are shown followed by specific moves or aspects of the mentoring that mentees highlighted as being particularly helpful or unhelpful to their development. Across the top, the three overall mentoring approaches adopted by pairs in this study are shown. If a consequence was highlighted by a mentee experiencing that overall approach, then a tick is displayed. For instance, the first row shows that mentees from all pairs described professional learning and development as a consequence of the mentoring, whereas in the second row, an increase in confidence as a teacher was explicitly highlighted by mentees experiencing versions of developmental mentoring.

	Consequence or (un) helpful aspect of mentoring as described by mentees	Highlighted by mentees experiencing …		
		Hybrid of judgemental and developmental mentoring	Restricted version of developmental mentoring	More extensive version of developmental mentoring
Positive	Professional learning and development	✓	✓	✓
	Increased confidence as a teacher		✓	✓
	Ongoing relationship with mentor	✓	✓	✓
	Collaboration	✓	✓	✓
	Observations	✓	✓	
	Working alongside and/or helping mentor and other teachers	✓	✓	✓
Negative	Conflict	✓		✓
	Lack of equality	✓		
	Insecurity		✓	
	Forms restrict conversation or cause a conflict of interest	✓		
	A limit on autonomy	✓		✓

Table 19 - Overall mentoring approach and mentees' descriptions of the mentoring consequences

Table 19 shows that each of the overall mentoring approaches provoked both positive and negative consequences for mentees in this study. However, versions of developmental mentoring were identified as leading to fewer negative consequences, than the hybrid version of judgemental and developmental mentoring. The nature of the overall positive and negative consequences and the helpful and unhelpful moves or aspects of the mentoring are explored further in what follows. Details of the overall mentoring approach mentees were experiencing are provided in brackets.

8.2.1.1 Positive consequences of mentoring

This section begins by outlining the overall positive consequences of the mentoring that mentees described, followed by aspects of the mentoring they highlighted as particularly helpful for their development and/or wellbeing. All of the mentees highlighted that the mentoring had enabled aspects of their **professional learning and**

178

development. In particular, mentees described how as a result of the mentoring they had: developed their own teaching style (e.g. "*To be yourself, so to teach with your personality*" - Megan, 2); learned specific classroom techniques (e.g. developing a classroom presence - Linda, 2; Liv, 2; Hannah 2); or changed their ways of thinking about teaching (e.g. "*I had to reflect in an entirely different way*" - Linda, 2).

Another positive consequence of mentoring identified by six mentees (experiencing versions of developmental mentoring) was having increased **confidence as a teacher**. For instance, one mentee describes how her mentor:

> " *gave me a lot of compliments that I didn't think that I deserved in the beginning, but she was sincere, and she told me that she wouldn't tell me these things if they weren't true, so I gained more confidence after mentoring.*"

<div align="right">(Liv, 2)</div>

Finally, three mentees (one experiencing a hybrid of judgemental and developmental and two experiencing versions of developmental mentoring) stated that a key overall positive outcome of the mentoring was an **ongoing relationship with their mentor**. Two mentees had by the time of the follow-up interview, secured future teaching work at the placement organisation. Both of these mentees highlighted that they would keep in touch with their mentor. A third mentee, who was not due to be working at her placement organisation had nonetheless kept in contact with her mentor "*via text*" and described how they had been sending each other "*useful resources*" (Megan, 2).

In addition to the overall consequences of mentoring, mentees also drew attention to particular moves or aspects of the mentoring that had a positive impact on their wellbeing or development as teachers. For instance, five mentees (from each overall approach) emphasised they had found **collaborating with their mentor** beneficial in terms of preventing loneliness (Megan 2); seeing the mentor interacting with learners (Nigel 2); and gaining ideas for teaching and learning activities (Peter, 2; Monica 2; Megan 2). Another aspect of the mentoring that five mentees (from each overall approach) stated they found helpful was **observations** (both observing other teachers and being observed). One mentee highlighted the usefulness of observing other teachers, throughout the placement, not just at the start:

"afterwards, when I have tried to be a teacher, now I can observe him … now we know actually what to look for, and my notes are more useful for me, and I know what I would do, and what I wouldn't do, or why he does that, and we can ask [him] *better questions, and so on."*

(Heidi, 2)

Another four mentees (from each overall approach) described how **working alongside their mentor and other teachers** meant that as a result they felt included whilst on placement. For instance, these mentees stated they felt "*part of the team*" (Isabel, 2; Hannah 2), "*supported*" (Liv, 2)*,* and "*helped*" (Nicky, 2) by not only their mentor, but other teachers they worked with in the department.

8.2.1.2 Negative consequences

Table 19 above showed that five mentees (from each overall approach) highlighted particular problems they had experienced as a result of the mentoring and that mentees experiencing a hybrid of judgemental and developmental mentoring identified a wide range of negative consequences than those experiencing developmental versions of mentoring. Three mentees (two experiencing a hybrid of judgemental and developmental mentoring and one an extensive version of developmental mentoring) described how they had felt **a sense of conflict**. For one mentee, this sense of conflict arose internally as a result of disagreeing with his mentor's classroom practices (see section 7.4). Another mentee described "*occasional conflict*[s]" arising between herself and her mentor as at times she felt "*told off*" and "*criticised*" (Isabel, 2). A third mentee, explained how his mentor's perception of their difference in experience may have caused some conflict between them (see section 7.2).

In addition, two of these mentees (experiencing a hybrid of judgemental and developmental mentoring) described how they considered there to sometimes be **a lack of equality** in the mentoring relationship. For example, one mentee explained how her mentor would "*sometimes …slip into a more kind of, 'I am your teacher and you are the student' and er, no!*" (Isabel, 2). Similarly, Peter stated that he initially viewed the mentor "*as more of an equal, like a supportive role*", but he did not think this was reciprocated and as a result the mentoring was not as "*collaborativ*e" as he had hoped (Peter, 2).

Three mentees (experiencing a restricted version of developmental mentoring) stated that they felt **insecurity** with regard their teaching practice and would have benefited from receiving more praise from their mentor. For instance, one mentee explained:

> *"you need some positives as well,… I am aware that if people are seemingly doing okay, then you might think that they don't need it…… But it's such a vulnerable position to be in… it makes … the feedback easier to take, if you know that there are things that actually worked."*

<div align="right">(Monica, 2)</div>

However, whilst these three mentees described not receiving enough praise, another mentee (experiencing a restricted version of developmental mentoring) considered his mentor to focus too much on the positives. This participant described his mentor as:

> *"more like, 'yes, that's good, you'll be a good teacher, keep it up'. And I was more, okay, what can I do to improve?"*

<div align="right">(Finn, 2)</div>

As such, it seems that potentially mentors were using positive reinforcement to different extents and this was provoking different reactions in the mentees – some would have liked to experience more of this move, whilst another mentee wanted less of this and more discussion around areas for development.

Another example of mentees' varying responses to the mentoring is illustrated in data generated by two mentees mentored by the same person (who was found to be enacting a restricted version of developmental mentoring). One of the mentees, described the mentor's use of questioning during mentoring meetings as "*really helpful*" for developing her own thinking around her teaching (Linda, 2) whereas, the other mentee (see section 7.3) stated that at times she found this approach "*confusing*" as she was not sure what her mentor thought about these aspects of her teaching practice (Heidi 2). She explained that at times she "*didn't understand - is this positive, or is it just a comment, or … should I understand it another way?*" (Heidi, 2). In this situation, it appears that these mentees were responding to the same move in different ways.

Three mentees (experiencing a hybrid of judgemental and developmental mentoring) highlighted that the official paperwork completed by mentors could be problematic. Two of these participants stated that the **forms could have a restrictive impact on mentoring conversations**. For instance, one mentee described that the forms sometimes guided the mentoring conversation to particular subjects:

> *"I think if you have a formal meeting, and the form says, for instance … how do you feel you're developing your embedding Maths and English, well okay, but that's not what I've got major concerns about right now."*

Finally, another problem described by two mentees in this study (one experiencing a hybrid of judgemental and developmental mentoring and one a more extensive version of developmental mentoring) was with regard to there being **a limit on their autonomy**. For instance, one of these mentees described a situation whereby the classes she had been teaching were then handed back to the existing teachers before the end of her placement in preparation for the learners' exam period. This mentee described this situation as *"incredibly frustrating"* (Isabel, 2).

This section has outlined how mentees described the consequences of the mentoring they experienced. As illustrated above, the participants described the consequences in a range of both positive and negative ways. Whilst none of the three overall mentoring enactments were found to be problem-free, the developmental versions of mentoring were identified as provoking fewer negative consequences than the hybrid of judgemental and developmental mentoring. The next section examines how mentors described the consequences of mentoring for them.

8.2.3 Mentors' accounts

Mentors' responses indicated there was a relationship between the nature of the overall mentoring approach and how they found the process as a whole. For instance, the three mentors who were enacting a hybrid of judgemental and developmental mentoring, all described experiencing some problems. Two of these mentors highlighted that they felt a sense of "*frustration*" (Tina, 2) or "*struggle*" (Sarah, 2) as a result of their mentees at times not responding to feedback. For instance, during interviews they stated: "*we'd gone over this, this was a target before, and I'm still going to have to say it again*" (Tina, interview 2); and "*she just couldn't see what the difficulties were*" (Sarah, 2). The third mentor, Alana, found the mentoring to be a particularly negative experience. She also expressed reservations about continuing with her QA role, where she worked with existing teachers on a one-to-one basis to develop their practice (as described in section 7.2.5).

However, two of the mentors who were enacting a hybrid of judgemental and developmental mentoring and all of those who were enacting versions of developmental mentoring all commented on positive outcomes of the mentoring. They described it in terms of being "*rewarding*" and "*enjoyable*" for example. In addition, four

mentors also stated that they had learned from their mentee. For instance, Kari states "*It gave me inspiration… because learning goes both ways*" (interview 2). An additional three mentors described this reciprocity in terms of the mentee offering them support with teaching or the mentoring process itself. For example:

> "*Nicky will be like, I've brought a lesson plan for you. And … she'll have done all this research and she's got all this brilliant stuff.*"

<div align="right">(Chloe, 2)</div>

> "*it almost feels like she's mentoring me…she is so organised, she comes up to me, 'we need to do this'… So I'm not planning it, she's planning it.*"

<div align="right">(Sarah, 2)</div>

8.2.4 A comparison of the consequences of mentoring in England and Norway

There were some similarities in the ways in which mentees in England and Norway described the consequences of mentoring. Firstly, a similar number of mentees from each country depicted the mentoring as either positive (four from England and three from Norway) or a mixture of positive and negative (two from England and three from Norway). Secondly, mentees experiencing developmental versions of mentoring from both England and Norway highlighted that it had enhanced their professional development and their confidence as a teacher. Mentees from both countries also highlighted some similar moves or aspects of the mentoring as being particularly helpful; for example, collaboration with mentors and observations of teaching. Thirdly, there were also some similarities in the negative consequences described by mentees in England and Norway, namely experiencing a sense of conflict, feeling insecure about their teaching practice, and there being limits on their autonomy as a teacher.

There were also some differences between the responses from mentees in England and Norway regarding the consequences of mentoring. Firstly, in Norway three mentees experiencing developmental versions of mentoring highlighted some of the negative consequences of these approaches, whereas in England, mentees experiencing these versions of mentoring described it in mainly positive terms. Secondly, in addition to there being some similarities in the nature of the consequences described by mentees in each country, there were also differences. For instance, in England two mentees mentioned that another positive consequence was an ongoing relationship with their

mentor, whereas this was not highlighted by any of the Norwegian participants.[17] In addition, mentees experiencing a hybrid of judgemental and developmental mentoring in England described their mentor sometimes not speaking to them as an equal and the restrictive impact of assessment forms on mentoring conversations, whereas the six mentees in Norway (plus the remaining three mentees in England) who were identified as experiencing developmental versions of mentoring did not highlight such issues.

The findings presented above indicated that the three *mentors* in England described the consequences of mentoring for them in a mixture of positive and negative terms, whereas the remaining three mentors in England and five in Norway described the experience in predominantly positive terms. Hence, it was found that amongst the participating pairs, mentors in England who were enacting a hybrid of judgemental and developmental mentoring were more likely to report negative consequences than mentors in both England and Norway who were enacting versions of developmental mentoring.

8.3 Factors contributing to judgemental and developmental mentoring moves

The remaining sections of this chapter examine factors that were identified as contributing towards the use of moves associated with judgemental and developmental approaches. The portraits in the preceding chapter introduced some contributing factors. The following section enables a broader exploration that draws on themes identified in the data generated by all 12 mentoring pairs who took part in this study. Whether each factor was highlighted by the participants themselves as shaping their enactment of mentoring or whether it was identified by the researcher as potentially influencing the approach is detailed in what follows. Eight factors emerged in total and these are presented in turn below. The first six factors are considered to contribute, or potentially contribute, to the use of moves associated with judgemental mentoring or developmental mentoring. A further factor was identified as contributing towards moves associated with developmental mentoring in particular, or a broader mentoring stance that is nurturing and supportive in nature. The final factor is considered to potentially contribute to whether the mentoring process is directive or non-directive, and this is discussed further in what follows. After this, there is a comparison of data

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[17] This may be because the English mentees were entering employment as teachers, whereas their Norwegian counterparts had not yet reached the end of their ITE course

generated by mentoring pairs in England and Norway with regard to factors contributing towards moves associated with judgemental and developmental moves.

8.3.1 Mentors' perceptions of mentees' competence as a teacher

Findings from this study indicated that how mentors perceived mentees' competence or potential as a teacher may impact on their approach. More specifically, there was evidence to suggest that if mentors viewed the mentee as competent practitioners, they tended to employ more developmental moves, and if the mentor had concerns about the mentee's progress, then they employed more judgemental moves. For instance, each of the mentors who were adopting versions of developmental mentoring stated that, whilst there may still be areas for growth, they thought their mentees would make effective future teachers. For example, one of these mentors tells her mentee Linda: "*I think you will be a great, great teacher*" (Kari and Linda, 2) and another mentor described his mentee as having a "*natural talent*" in the classroom (Tor, 2); whereas, two of the three mentors who were enacting a hybrid of judgemental and developmental mentoring described how the mentees may not be suitable for teaching in the placement setting. For instance, one mentor stated she felt her mentee was "*not doing a good job with them* [the learners] *and they deserved a better teacher*" (Alana, 2). In addition, one mentor indicated that the mentee may not be suited to the work environment she experienced on placement. The mentor described how her mentee:

> "*is very much veering away from…sixth form teaching. Possibly the pressures and knowing that she might not be physically resilient enough to have the career in the way that we do here.*"

(Tina, 2)

How mentors' perceptions of mentees' competency may shape their approach to mentoring is illustrated in the following two examples. One mentor who was considered to be enacting a restricted version of developmental mentoring, described her reaction to watching her mentee teach a class early on in the placement: "*then I was like… you know what, you've got this, you can do this, yeah, do whatever you like*" (Chloe, 2). In contrast, when another mentor, who drew partly on moves associated with judgemental mentoring, observed her mentee teaching, she stated, "*I saw a very needy person, so I started advising him on how to differentiate*" (Alana, 2). Indeed, during interviews one mentee from a pair who were enacting a restricted version of developmental mentoring

highlighted this connection between the mentee's capabilities and the mentoring approach taken:

> *"it depends on level of competence...let's take the extreme, I'm not cut out to be a teacher, then when eventually the mentor's got to give that feedback...that all of a sudden becomes much more prescriptive about how the meeting was set up, what the questions are...it starts to look a little bit like performance management. Whereas, this* [the audio recording] *was a very informal discussion with a mentor that thinks the mentee is clearly suitable for the job, and able to do it."*

(Nigel, 2)

8.3.2 Mentors' perceptions of mentees' qualities

There was evidence to suggest that mentees from pairs enacting versions of developmental mentoring were described by their mentors as proactive and/or willing to identify both strengths and areas for growth in their practice. In addition, mentees from pairs enacting a hybrid version of judgemental and developmental mentoring were described by their mentors as on occasions not listening or needing extra help. This appears aligned with the previous finding that mentors who perceived their mentee as competent, tended to enact moves associated with developmental mentoring, and those who had reservations about the mentee's abilities as a teacher, enacted some moves associated with judgemental mentoring.

The eight mentors who were enacting versions of developmental mentoring all described their mentees in encouraging terms. For instance, three mentors described their mentees as being "*very positive*" in their attitude and "*interested in learning*". Four of the mentors described their mentees as "*proactive*" and five stated their mentees were "*open-minded*", "*responsive*" to feedback and "*not defensive*" when discussing their teaching. In one example, a mentor described how after a formal lesson observation, the mentee was highly insightful, which meant the mentor did not need to raise the points she had identified:

> *"she listed every single point that I had … but I couldn't even respond after that, I was like, ah, you've mentioned every single thing I've got down, and that's great."*

(Julia, 2)

However, the three mentors who were enacting a hybrid version of judgemental and developmental mentoring appeared to perceive their mentees in more mixed terms. Each of these three mentors described their mentee as at times being "*categorical*"

(Sarah, 2) in their opinions about teaching or having the appearance of "*not listening to the advice that's being given*" (Tina, 2). They also described their mentees as needing "*additional*" (Tina, 2) or "*extra*" (Alana, 2) support with subject knowledge, implementing a variety of teaching methods, and/or coping with their work-load. In addition, two of the mentors described a perceived discrepancy between what their mentees were outwardly presenting and what they were thinking or feeling inside. They described how their mentees gave an impression of either being "*confident*" (Tina, 2) or open to change (Alana, 2), but these participants considered this to be "*masking a lot of insecurity*" in the former and an underlying "*unwillingness*" to adapt in the latter. It is possible that these perceptions may have contributed towards mentors adopting moves associated with judgemental mentoring, however, additional evidence is required to explore this potential connection further.

8.3.3 Approaches to assessment

Analysis of data generated in this study indicated that the way mentors approached the formal assessments of mentees appeared to shape the mentoring approach. In particular, it was found that mentors who explicitly referred to the formal assessments and drew on them as a tool in their mentoring tended to partly draw on moves associated with judgemental mentoring, whereas those mentors who did not emphasise formal assessments, and who in some cases expressed criticisms of the assessment process, tended to enact versions of developmental mentoring.

During interviews, the three mentors who drew on both judgemental and developmental mentoring moves each depicted using the paperwork as a tool in the mentoring process. For instance, one of these mentors stated, that she used the forms as a way to deliver a clear message to the mentee. She explained:

> "*You probably noticed there were times that I was reading stuff out that I had written because I needed her to know that that's what it says, and if you're not happy about something, then we need to discuss it … But, that actually, this is how it is.*"

> (Tina, 2)

Another mentor described how she used the paperwork as a tool to incentivise her mentee to "*meet the criteria … in the end, I started saying to him, come on Peter, because you won't be ticking the boxes*" (Alana, interview 2). The third mentor drew on the paperwork as an organisational device during mentoring meetings to ensure that

she and her mentee "*were up to date*" with "*what observations and things needed completing*" (Sarah, 2)*.*

The remaining mentors in who were enacting versions of developmental mentoring did not draw on the paperwork in the same ways, despite still being responsible for formally assessing their mentees. They did not mention the paperwork or forms as a feature of their approach nor, with the exception of one mentor, did they draw on these during the audio recordings of mentoring meetings. During interviews, when prompted to describe their approach to assessment the mentors who enacted versions of developmental mentoring mentioned "*emailing*" feedback forms to their mentees outside of mentoring meetings. In addition, six of the eight mentors enacting versions of developmental mentoring volunteered criticisms of the assessment process they needed to undertake. For instance, one mentor, when asked if anything in the mentoring process had caused her discomfort or uncertainty, stated:

> "*having to get the observations done within a period of time. That, for me, is discomfort because it might not fit, they might not be ready, it might be putting them in a situation where this isn't right, but I've got to tick this box.*"

(Susan, 2).

8.3.4 Mentors' role in the organisation

In this study, there was some evidence to indicate that there may be a relationship between the mentor's role in the placement organisation and their approach to mentoring. Namely, the three mentors who were enacting a hybrid of judgemental and developmental mentoring all had a managerial and/or QA role, and the eight mentors who were enacting versions of developmental mentoring were 'regular' teachers without line management responsibilities. Two of the three mentors enacting a hybrid of judgemental and developmental mentoring made regular references to their position "*as a manager*" during interviews (Sarah, 1 and 2; Tina 1 and 2). They also described their working environments in terms of being "*pressured*", and how their roles involve contributing to learner "*recruitment*", "*retention*" and "*results*" and inspections. One mentor in particular, made numerous references to Ofsted in her interviews and mentioned them a few times in the audio recordings. Furthermore, her mentee, during an interview stated that her mentor:

> "*talked about OFSTED all the time… Because the college's focus is OFSTED, OFSTED, OFSTED, I*

think because she's part of the higher management team, it's in their vocabulary, just to think about OFSTED all of the time."

During interviews these two mentors did make connections between their position as a manager and their role as a mentor, however on the whole they highlighted how the former contributed to supportive aspects of the latter, such as having availability for meetings and being experienced at accommodating different people and personalities. However, there was one comment from one of these mentors which did indicate that her managerial role may have contributed towards the more judgemental aspects of the mentoring process. When describing her approach of reading out the feedback forms to her mentee, she stated:

> *"I'm very aware, as a manager, that you don't want to give people a wrong message, … … So it was very much, I am going to read a few of these things out to you because I need you to know that that's what it says."*

The mentors who were considered to be predominantly developmental in the mentoring process made fewer references to their job titles or positions within their department. In addition, during interviews four of these eight mentors were particularly critical of the management and leadership in their institutions and/or education policy more widely. For example, one mentor stated:

> *"There's a culture … in the team of looking after each other. Yes, the government doesn't care, and yes, higher management probably doesn't care, but if we look after each other, then we're more likely to survive it together"*.

Data analysis indicated there is potentially a relationship between a mentor's role in the organisation and the use of judgemental and/or developmental moves however, overall, there was lack of evidence from the interviews on whether the participants themselves considered there to be such a connection.

8.3.5 Views on the purpose and function of mentoring

Analysis of data in this study indicated there may be a relationship between participants' perceptions of the purpose of mentoring, its function and the mentoring approach adopted. More specifically, findings from this study suggest that mentors enacting

versions of developmental mentoring considered the purpose to be about helping the mentee's transition into teaching and the function as education and support. Whereas mentors who were enacting a hybrid of judgemental and developmental mentoring partly described the purpose of mentoring in terms of maintaining existing norms and the function as education and ensuring the mentee meets teaching standards.

During interviews mentors were asked what they considered to be the underlying purpose of mentoring for student teachers. All of the respondents, at least in part, described it in terms of support and education. For instance, eight mentors described the purpose of mentoring as enabling the mentees to learn about teaching, including helping them "*to reflect*", providing "*context*" around "*good practice*", and to encourage them to develop their own teaching ideas. However, the three mentors who were enacting a hybrid version of judgemental and developmental mentoring, also described the purpose of mentoring in a more instrumental way. For instance, they described it as involving "*training them to do the job"* (Tina, 1)*, "inducting them into the ways of teaching*" (Alana, 1) and saying "*we've looked at this and you've met that standard*" (Sarah, 1).

Mentors and mentees were also asked about the function of mentoring based on their experiences of the teaching placement (see appendix 5). Out of the 17 participants who were considered to be enacting versions of developmental mentoring, the most common response was that the function of mentoring was 'support' (14 responses) followed by 'learning and development' (12 responses). However, out of the six participants who were identified as enacting a hybrid version of judgemental and developmental mentoring, the most common response was that the function of mentoring was 'learning and development' (4 responses) followed by 'teaching standards' (3 responses). One mentor stated the mentoring drew on all three functions, but none of the five other participants identified 'support' as a function of mentoring. Hence, evidence from this study indicates that participants who were enacting versions of developmental mentoring were more likely to view the function in terms of support and learning and development, whereas those enacting a hybrid of judgemental and developmental mentoring were more likely to view it as about learning and development and teaching standards. Whilst these findings indicate a possible relationship between how mentors and mentees view the purpose and function of

mentoring and how they enacted it, this finding was identified as a result of data analysis and was not commented on by the participants themselves.

8.3.6 Mentors' experiences of being mentored

In this study, analysis of data showed that eight out of 11 mentors indicated their previous experiences of being a mentee whilst undertaking their ITE course has shaped their current approach to mentoring. These experiences appeared to prompt them to enact specific moves associated with developmental mentoring, such as encouraging the mentee to develop their own teaching practices, and a broader supportive and nurturing stance.

Four mentors made explicit links between their experiences as a mentee and their current mentoring approach. For example, two of these participants described how their previous experiences as a student teacher means they now encourage their mentees to be active in the classroom from the start of the placement, and gradually increase their teaching responsibilities. One mentor explained:

> "At first he [the mentor] *just had his classes with me being present and watching. But I became really passive … suddenly that transition from being just a person sitting in that chair for two or three weeks, you're supposed to lead the class, and that's actually not a good idea …So that's what I try to do with my students. The transition becomes easier if I involve them from the first moment."*
>
> (Tor, 2)

Another mentor described how her previous experiences shaped the way she communicated with her mentee:

> "*I had such a great relationship with my mentor, and the way that she … interacted with me, is exactly the same way I am with Megan... open and relaxed."*
>
> (Julia, 2)

The remaining four mentors did not explicitly draw such links; however, there appeared to be striking similarities or contrasts between their descriptions of their previous experiences and of their current approach. For instance, one mentor described how she was "*literally thrown in the deep end*" when she was a student teacher and conversely depicts her current mentoring approach as gradually increasing the mentee's workload from initially "*shadowing*" to eventually "*getting their freedom - this is the outcome, off you go*" (Susan, 1). These findings indicate that at least in part, mentors may be basing

their approach to mentoring on their own experiences as a student teacher and what was beneficial or not for them.

8.3.7 Participants' biographies

During initial interviews mentors and mentees were asked to identify and describe five significant moments, people or phases in their lives (as outlined in section 5.5.1). Then, in the follow-up interview, they were asked if these, or other, biographical details might have shaped the way they viewed or approached the mentoring process. Participants' responses to this question in the follow-up interview were wide-ranging. This indicates that potentially that mentors' and mentees' enactments of mentoring may be shaped by a variety of biographical experiences they bring with them.

Participants identified a range of biographical details that may have shaped their perceptions of or approaches to mentoring including: **Prior educational experiences** such as studying abroad, inspirational or confidence-knocking teachers, and experiences of ITE (four mentors and three mentees); **previous personal experiences** such as childhood, relationship break ups and bereavements (four mentors and three mentees); **experiences at work** such as dealing with difficult colleagues, experiencing, job dissatisfaction or previous paid teaching jobs (one mentor and five mentees); **existing or previous personal relationships** with spouses or family members (two mentors and one mentee); having developed a certain **mindset or set of values** such as resilience, equality, and helping others (three mentors); and having developed particular **personality traits** such as determination or being reluctant to ask for help (three mentees). In what follows, the mentors', followed by the mentees', responses are explored further.

Four mentors stated that their previous experiences had led them to take a **caring or nurturing approach** to the mentoring role. For instance, one mentor describes how in the past she struggled with certain subjects when she was a pupil at school and stated:

> "*I think I always valued the people that took the time and patience with me, that didn't put me down for not understanding something, and I think that's the driving force behind how I mentor people.*"

<div align="right">(Tina, 2)</div>

In addition, three mentors describe how their previous experiences of being a beginning teacher has enhanced their **sense of empathy with their mentees**. For example, one mentor recalls her own experiences of learning to teach:

> "*it was like the littlest of tasks… I remember going for my lunch and I did not have a clue what to do or where to go …I feel like that, being a newly-qualified teacher I remember the anxieties and that was really helpful*".

(Julia, 2)

Two mentors explain that personal relationships they experienced meant that they focussed on **enhancing the mentee's sense of autonomy**. For example, one mentor explains:

> "*my mum works as a probation officer, so she's very much, guides people down the right direction, but you can't give them all the answers, and people have to make their own mistakes…My parents* [with me] *were very much… well if you do that, what will the consequences of that action go on to be, which is sort of like how I try to do it with my mentees. Alright, we could do it that way, what do you think the consequences of that are going to be? And I think you have to let people make mistakes.*"

(Chloe 2)

Other aspects of mentoring which mentors stated their biographical experiences had influenced were their expectations of the student teacher (Alana, 2), encouraging dialogue (Fredrik, 2), collaboration (Jon, 2), and being "*strict*" (Kari, 2) or "*open*" (Sarah, 2) with their mentees.

There were also some commonalities in responses from mentees. For instance, seven mentees stated that their biographical backgrounds shaped the **way they responded to feedback** in the mentoring process. For example, one mentee described how her previous experiences of working as an unqualified teacher meant that she valued the prospect of receiving feedback from a mentor:

> "*I was in desperate need of someone giving me feedback, someone really telling me what I did wrong, or what I did right because I have been working for so long with doubts, so I think that mentoring was more important to me, than to many other people.*"

(Monica, 2)

Four other mentees similarly described how their previous experiences meant they were receptive to feedback. In contrast, one mentee, highlighted how her experiences of

relationships meant that she found hearing her mentor's feedback difficult at times. She described how she had "*caring*" relationships with her family, friends and teachers at school (Heidi, 1 and 2) and considers this may have shaped her perceptions of the mentoring as she felt she sometimes "*needed a little bit more support*" from her mentor (Heidi, 2).

Three mentees highlighted that their biographical details meant they were **highly motivated**. For one mentee, a preceding period of job dissatisfaction meant that she knew "*what it's like when you're doing something that you don't want to do*" and when it came to mentoring this made her "*really proactive because I really wanted it*" (Megan, 2). Another mentee described how as a result of early life experiences she is "*determined*" and "*self-reliant*" and this meant she approached the mentoring process with a "*throw it at me*" attitude (Nicky, 2).

Three mentees highlighted that their previous experiences shaped their **approach to and perception of the mentoring relationship**. For instance, one mentee, described how her previous experience of working with "*difficult*" colleagues and managers in the past means that she considers herself:

> "*quite good at knowing how to manage people in terms of what I have to do to integrate myself well… I'm quite good at sussing people out and thinking, I've got to hold back a bit here, or I can say what I think here...knowing that at certain points I needed to praise Sarah* [her mentor], *because she might have been feeling down, or thanking her for her time, when actually that's just her job.*"

(Hannah, 2)

8.3.8 Views on who should lead the mentoring process

In Chapter 6, it was highlighted that whilst two mentors were identified as dominating the mentoring meeting, analysis of audio recordings indicated that all mentors tended to lead the mentoring conversation, although interview data suggested that at times mentees may also direct the mentoring process. Analysis of data suggested that participants' views of who should lead the mentoring process may contribute to the nature of the mentoring enactments that take place. More specifically, in this study most participants considered that mentoring should at least in part be mentor-led.

During interviews participants were shown the 'four approaches to mentoring' diagram (presented in appendix 5) and asked which approach they thought would be most

beneficial for student teachers. The most common response offered by eleven participants was that **a combination of directive and non-directive approaches** to mentoring would be most suitable for student teachers. As one mentee explains:

> "*I think, if the mentor controls everything, then it stops that development of the mentee seeing themselves as a teacher. I think if the mentee controls everything, then they're not really learning from experience, because, they need the element of being taught and to learn.*"

(Megan, 2)

Six of the 23 participants (three mentors and three mentees) considered **non-directive mentoring** led by the mentee to be most beneficial or "*the ideal*", but each offered a number of caveats regarding its use. For instance, one mentor stated this approach is only suitable when mentees are "*proactive*" and "*consciously aware of their incompetence*" (Susan, 2). Another mentor stated that non-directive mentoring requires "*time*" – she explained:

> "*very often with a mentee … they just want answers straight away. I don't have time to discuss and find my own way.*"

(Kari, 2)

In contrast, an additional four of the participants in this study (two mentors and two mentees) did not favour a non-directive approach and considered it as "*inappropriate*" or potentially "*lazy*" on the part of the mentor, as one participant illustrates:

> "*they could be like I'll rock up to this meeting and just sit back with my cup of coffee, and nod, and say, yeah, you've got a point there, and not give very much.*"

(Megan, 2)

Finally, four participants (two mentors and two mentees) considered a **predominantly mentor-led approach** to be best. For example, one mentor states:

> "*I feel like that's my role, I'm being paid to be a mentor, I'm not just supposed to show up in a meeting and listen to their perception… I'm supposed to… give either my insight, or knowledge or…perspective…I need to make sure that we talk about things that I feel are important. Whilst still allowing the student to give their perspective.*"

(Fredrik, 2)

8.4 A comparison of factors contributing to mentoring moves in England and Norway

As highlighted in the previous chapter, nine mentoring pairs (three in England and six in Norway) were identified as enacting versions of developmental mentoring. When examining factors which may contribute to the employment of such mentoring moves it was found that the eight mentors involved shared a number of similarities which appeared to contribute to them enacting developmental versions of mentoring. Firstly, that they did not have managerial or quality assurance roles. Secondly, on the whole they did not draw on formal assessments of mentees as tools in the mentoring process. Thirdly, they thought their mentees were, or would make, effective teachers and considered them to be proactive, listening and responsive to feedback. Finally, these mentors also tended to view the function and purpose of mentoring in terms of learning and support.

In contrast, the three mentors in England who were enacting a hybrid of judgemental and developmental mentoring, differed from the mentors described above in a number of ways, which were identified as potentially contributing to their mentoring approach. Firstly, these three mentors were undertaking managerial or QA roles. Secondly, they drew on formal assessments as a tool in the assessment process. Thirdly, they had reservations about their mentees' competence as a teacher and their qualities as a student teacher with regard to not listening or responding to feedback for example. They also tended to view the purpose and function of mentoring in terms of both enabling the mentee's learning and focussing on teaching standards. While these factors were identified as contributing to the adoption of judgemental moves, these mentors' own experiences of being mentored and other biographical details, such as being of a caring nature, were found to contribute to their approach of also drawing on moves associated with developmental mentoring.

8.5 Conclusion

This chapter aimed to explore the consequences of mentoring as described by mentors and mentees and factors which contributed to the use of moves associated with judgemental and developmental mentoring. It identified that each of three mentoring approaches provoked some positive and negative consequences, but that mentees from pairs enacting versions of developmental mentoring described fewer negative

consequences than those from pairs enacting a hybrid of judgemental and developmental mentoring. In addition, mentors from the latter pairs were also more likely to highlight that they experienced negative consequences than those from the former. This chapter also identified a range of factors, explored above, that may contribute to the use of moves associated with judgemental and developmental mentoring such as mentors' perception of the mentees' competence and the way that formal assessments of mentees are drawn on in the mentoring process. The following chapter discusses the implications of key the findings in light of existing literature and highlights the main contributions made by this study.

Chapter Nine: Discussion of Findings

9.1 Introduction

The main aim of this study was to generate further understanding about judgemental and developmental mentoring for student teachers in the PCE sector in England and Norway. In this chapter the extent to which this aim has been met and how this research contributes to existing knowledge about mentoring in ITE is explored. The chapter is divided into three main sections. The first section reviews the limitations of this study and considers to what extent the original research questions were addressed. The second section then discusses the key findings and highlights the main contributions made by this study. Finally, the conceptual framework as set out in Chapter 4 is revisited and refined in light of the findings.

9.2 Limitations

This section presents six main limitations of this research. Firstly, this study drew on a relatively small sample of mentors and mentees in both England and Norway. As a result, the findings can not be claimed to be representative. Secondly, it is possible those who took part may not be typical mentors and mentees as they volunteered for the project and as such may have had a particular interest or confidence in mentoring. Thirdly, the audio recordings were of 'sit-down, face-to-face' meetings and did not necessarily capture other types of mentoring interactions, such as ad-hoc conversations or email exchanges. This means mentoring moves taking place outside of formalised meetings were not fully explored in this study. Fourthly, the findings are based on the researcher's interpretation of the data. It is possible that another researcher may have interpreted the data differently and hence have presented a different view of participants' descriptions and enactments of mentoring. Fifthly, the follow-up interviews took place at the end of the teaching placement and as a result the longer-term consequences of the mentoring for mentees, and their mentors, were not captured in this study. Finally, whilst this study does consider the relationship between the policy contexts and enactments of mentoring in England and Norway (as discussed in section 9.4.2 below) it did not explore the relationship with other potential units of analysis in comparative studies such as wider values and cultures. As a result, this study perhaps does not offer

multifaceted and holistic analyses' of mentoring in these contexts (Bray and Thomas, 2014, p.10). Despite these limitations, the qualitative and comparative design of this study, involving two research methods (semi-structured interviews and audio recordings) and two types of triangulation (methods and data) did enable an in-depth exploration of participants' perspectives and experiences of mentoring in two countries and resulted in new insights, which are discussed further in what follows.

9.3 Research questions

This section outlines to what extent the original research questions have been addressed by this study.

RQ1. To what extent are mentoring enactments amongst research participants in PCE ITE in England and Norway judgemental or developmental in nature?

In this study, none of the mentoring approaches in England and Norway were found to be 'purely' judgemental or developmental. Rather it was identified that three mentoring pairs in England were combining moves associated with both of these approaches and hence, it was suggested that they enacted a 'hybrid of judgemental and developmental mentoring'. In addition, three mentoring pairs in England and four pairs in Norway were found to be enacting a 'restricted version of developmental mentoring' whereby pairs mainly drew on four key moves associated with developmental mentoring but did not necessarily maximise opportunities for enhancing the mentee's learning. Finally, one mentoring pair in England and one mentoring pair in Norway, were found to be enacting a 'more extensive version of developmental mentoring' which drew on a wider range of moves; however, this version was also identified as not necessarily fulfil its potential to enable learning and growth for the mentee. This finding impacted on how the remaining research questions were addressed, as outlined below.

RQ2. What are the characteristics of judgemental and developmental mentoring?

This study identified four characteristics or 'moves' associated with judgemental mentoring which were: mentor evaluates mentee's teaching and/or progress, mentor refers to formal assessments, mentor dominates the mentoring meeting, and mentor offers strong advice. It also found five characteristics associated with developmental mentoring: mentor and mentee collaborate, mentee is encouraged to develop their own teaching style, mentee self-analyses their teaching practice, mentor offers positive

reinforcement, and mentor and mentee discuss the mentoring process. This study also identified that two mentoring pairs, and one mentee from a third pair, were drawing on a characteristic associated with transformational mentoring: mentor and mentee critique the status quo.

RQ3. What factors contribute towards judgemental and developmental mentoring enactments?

This study identified a number of factors found to contribute towards moves associated with judgemental and developmental mentoring, rather than overall approaches of this nature. These factors occurred mainly at a micro, or individual, level. For instance, factors that this study found as contributing towards moves associated with judgemental mentoring included mentors harbouring concerns about the mentee's competence, mentors perceiving the mentee as unresponsive to feedback, and mentors using formal assessments as a tool to manage or incentivise the mentee. Factors which were identified as contributing towards moves associated with developmental mentoring included: the mentee being proactive and responsive to feedback, mentors not focussing on assessment forms and mentors' previous experience of being a student teacher. Mentors and mentees also offered a range of examples of biographical details, such as their previous experiences at work or their relationships in their personal lives, which had contributed towards them enacting the mentoring in developmental ways.

RQ4. What are the consequences for mentees and mentors of judgemental and developmental approaches to mentoring?

For the reasons stated above, this study identified consequences of the versions of mentoring identified above rather than the consequences of 'purely' judgemental or developmental approaches. Out of the three mentoring pairs enacting a hybrid approach, two mentees described the consequences in a combination of positive and negative terms, and one mentee described the consequences as mainly positive. Out of the seven pairs enacting a restricted version of developmental mentoring, five described the consequences in mainly positive terms and two described them as being a mixture of positive and negative. Finally, out of the two mentoring pairs enacting a more extensive version of developmental mentoring, one described the consequences in positive terms and the other described it as a mixture of positive and negative. Whilst the versions of developmental mentoring were found to generate fewer negative

consequences than the hybrid of judgemental and developmental mentoring, all three approaches were described by some mentees as problematic.

The main positive consequences of mentoring described by mentees included growth in their professional learning and development, increased confidence as teachers and establishing an ongoing relationship with their mentor. Negative consequences included mentees experiencing a sense of conflict, feeling that they were not being spoken to as an equal and feeling insecure about their teaching. Finally, the mentors enacting a hybrid of judgemental and developmental mentoring identified that they had experienced both positive and negative consequences of the mentoring, such as finding the process both rewarding and challenging and mentors enacting developmental versions of mentoring described how they mainly experienced positive consequences.

9.4 Discussion of key findings in light of existing literature

This section discusses the key findings in light of previous literature and highlights key contributions made by this study to current knowledge of judgemental and developmental mentoring in PCE ITE. This section is divided into four main parts. The first part discusses the overall mentoring approaches found in the research and the relationship between these and the policy context of mentoring in PCE ITE in England and Norway. The second part then discusses the nature of the moves associated with judgemental and developmental mentoring in further detail. The third and fourth parts discuss findings on the consequences of, and factors contributing to the use of, moves associated with judgemental and developmental mentoring. In each part, key similarities and differences between the findings from this study and previous literature are highlighted.

9.4.1 Nature of mentoring amongst participating pairs

There has been a tendency in some research from England and Norway on ITE mentoring to depict mentoring as being *either* judgemental *or* developmental in nature (e.g. Manning and Hobson, 2017; Lejonberg and Tiplic 2016; Tedder and Lawy, 2011). However, this study illustrates that mentoring enactments in practice can be difficult to categorise as wholly embodying one approach or another. Kemmis et al. (2014) in their study of mentoring for beginning teachers in Australia, Sweden and Finland identified

three mentoring archetypes in these contexts; however, the authors of this study also highlighted that:

> "in reality, mentoring practices adopted in an education system may be composed of elements of more than one of the archetypes…and within countries…different versions of mentoring coexist."

<div align="right">(Kemmis et al., 2014, p. 163)</div>

The present study confirms this earlier finding by Kemmis et al. (2014). In particular, this study illustrates that mentoring in PCE ITE in England and Norway can draw on more than one approach (as seen in the hybrid version of judgemental and developmental mentoring) or variations of a particular approach (as seen in the restricted and more extensive versions of developmental mentoring). As such a key contribution, and recommendation, of this study is to suggest that whilst not ruling out the possible existence of relatively pure forms of judgemental and developmental mentoring, in the context of PCE, and perhaps more widely, the terms judgemental and developmental mentoring could be viewed as heuristic devices or 'archetypes' which offer a tool or framework for analysis. As a result, it is also suggested that it is recognised that in practice, mentoring enactments may be nuanced and multifaceted and, as such, consist of more than one overall archetype or be derivatives of these overall archetypes.

This study also illustrated that analysing and categorising the nature of mentoring enactments is not always a clear-cut process. For instance, in addition to the derivative versions of mentoring that were identified, as described above, the portraits of mentoring pairs showed that sometimes mentors may employ a move associated with judgemental mentoring (for example, referring to the formal assessment forms), but enact it in a more developmental way (for example, by asking the mentee to identify their own targets) (see section 7.2.3) and vice versa (see section 7.3.3). There is also scope for blurring to occur between overall mentoring approaches. For example, in Chapter 4 it was identified that the notion of transformational mentoring, may involve the employment of some moves associated with developmental mentoring (see section 4.7). The notion of transformational mentoring is considered to potentially be distinct from developmental mentoring, if it involves 'outward-facing' action (Crawley, 2015, p.486) to bring about change to existing practices, policies, or procedures in the education setting; however, such an approach may also involve 'inward-facing' action (ibid.) if it also focuses on facilitating the individual mentee's transition into teaching,

and as such overlap with developmental notions of mentoring. This illustrates that categorising mentoring moves and overall approaches is not necessarily a straightforward process.

This study also contributes to existing debates on mentoring in the context of PCE by providing insights into how mentoring is being enacted in this sector in England and Norway. For instance, in England, it was not clear from existing studies how mentoring was being enacted in PCE ITE. Previous research had identified a judgemental version of mentoring in government policy documents (Cullimore and Simmons, 2010; Tedder and Lawy, 2009). In addition, some research suggested that mentors may be trying to 'balance' both 'developmental and evaluative aspects of their role' (Hobson et al., 2015, p. 13; Lawy and Tedder, 2011; Ingleby, 2010; Ingleby and Tummons, 2012). Indeed, this study found that in England three mentoring pairs were drawing on moves associated with both judgemental and developmental approaches; however, it also found that three pairs were enacting versions of developmental mentoring, which did not focus on the assessment or evaluation of mentees. In Norway, some research tended to depict mentoring in predominantly developmental terms (e.g. Ulvik and Sunde, 2011) whilst, some studies suggested that mentors may hold views associated with a judgemental version of mentoring (Lejonberg et al., 2015) and some findings indicated that mentors may be enacting approaches associated with this approach (e.g. Sundli, 2007). In this study, all the participating pairs in Norway enacted versions of developmental mentoring. However, this study also found, as will be discussed further below, that the potential benefits of developmental mentoring as highlighted in previous literature (e.g. Ulvik and Smith, 2011; Lawy and Tedder, 2011; Ingleby and Tummons, 2012) were not necessarily being fully realised.

9.4.2 A comparison of national policy contexts and mentoring enactments in England and Norway

This section discusses the relationship between national policy contexts in England and Norway and the mentoring enactments identified in this study. Previously, researchers in England have made connections between GERM or cultures of performativity in PCE and the emergence of a judgemental version of mentoring which involves the mentor assessing the mentee's teaching practice (Hobson 2016a; Lawy and Tedder, 2012; Cullimore and Simmons, 2008, 2010; Ingleby, 2011). Chapter 2 explored policies with

regard to education, PCE and mentoring in both countries, and identified where symptoms of GERM (Sahlberg 2012; 2013) appeared to occur. It was suggested that in England, there were indications of GERM in the PCE sector, ITE provision and mentoring policies published in the 2000s, although more recent directives from Ofsted did not specify whether or not mentors should be involved in the assessment of mentee's practice. In this study, mentors based in England tended to highlight the performative characteristics of the PCE organisations where they worked. For instance, they described them partly in terms of recent Ofsted gradings, resulting mergers, and learners' results (see section 6.2.3). In addition, all the mentors in England were responsible for conducting a number of formal, formative assessments of mentees, including lesson observations (at Redfield college, these were graded observations) and progress reports (see section 6.2.5). Indeed, the majority of participants from England did mention that the mentoring involved an element of formal assessment (see section 6.4.2.2). However, this study found that amongst participating pairs in England, none were enacting an entirely judgemental approach and that the nature of the identified approaches varied. Namely, three mentoring pairs were found to be enacting a hybrid of judgemental and developmental mentoring, two pairs were found to be enacting a restricted version of developmental mentoring and one pair were found to be enacting a more extensive version of developmental mentoring. Hence, whilst the prevailing GERM culture and focus on assessment may have contributed to judgemental mentoring strategies, the evidence of this study suggests that they do not necessarily bring about an overall judgemental mentoring approach.

Chapter 2 also addressed how in Norway there have been reports of neo-liberal trends infiltrating the education system. It was identified that whilst some symptoms of GERM, such as accountability and visible measures of performance, seem to have emerged in the wider education sector, there was little evidence of GERM symptoms in policies regarding PCE, ITE and mentoring compared to England (section 2.7). In this study, mentors in Norway tended to describe the upper secondary schools where they were based in terms of their pedagogical or cultural features drawing attention to issues such as autonomy and inclusion (see section 6.2.3). Similarly to England, all the Norwegian mentors were responsible for formally assessing the mentees. However, these assessments consisted of completing a formative report at the end of the placement and as such were less frequent and appeared briefer than those described by English

participants. In addition, in Norway, only one interviewee highlighted that mentoring involved assessment. Hence, the assessment element of mentoring in Norway appeared less prominent than in England. A previous research study suggested that given mentors were responsible for assessing mentees, Norway was an appropriate context for investigating judgemental mentoring approaches (Lejonberg et al., 2015). However, this study found little evidence of Norwegian mentors employing moves associated with judgemental mentoring. Furthermore, participants' mentoring enactments in Norway were identified as less varying than in England, as five pairs were identified as enacting a restricted version of developmental mentoring and one pair was identified as enacting a more extensive version of developmental mentoring.

With regard to the relationship between the national policy contexts and mentoring enactments, this study contributes to existing debates by indicating that on the one hand, there may be a connection between these two units of comparison. For instance, in England, where there is greater evidence of GERM and cultures of performativity, three mentoring pairs were found to draw on moves associated with judgemental mentoring. In addition, in Norway where GERM is less visible in the policy context, all the participating pairs enacted versions of developmental mentoring. However, on the other hand, this study also illustrated that there may be exceptions to this relationship. For instance, in England, all mentoring pairs were found to at least in part draw on moves associated with developmental mentoring and three pairs were found to mainly employ moves associated with this approach. This indicates that whilst the policy context may have an influence on mentoring enactments, individual practitioners may be mediating wider trends differently (Czerniawski, 2010) and as such, there may be other factors which also shape how mentoring is taking place (some such potential factors were identified in Chapter 8 of this thesis and are discussed further below). Hence, it seems that the relationship between policy contexts and mentoring enactments is not necessarily a straightforward one.

9.4.3 Moves associated with judgemental and developmental mentoring

This study makes a significant contribution to the field of PCE ITE, and perhaps ITE more broadly, by identifying a series of specific moves associated with judgemental and developmental mentoring. Earlier studies have identified examples of mentoring moves. For example, a study by Manning and Hobson (2017) identified three judgemental and

developmental approaches (outlined in sections 3.2.4 and 3.2.5) and Feiman-Nemser's (2001) case study of a mentor in the US detailed a series of educative mentoring moves (presented in section 3.2.5). However, this study presents a more detailed set of moves with regard to judgemental and developmental mentoring approaches than has previously been offered. In addition, these moves were identified as a result of analysing data generated from a larger sample than these earlier studies and from a wider range of settings (namely five ITE providers from two countries).

9.4.3.1 Moves associated with judgemental mentoring

This study identified four moves as being associated with judgemental mentoring (as presented in section 9.3 above). The nature of these four moves were largely in keeping with previous depictions of this mentoring approach as they involved the mentor being evaluative, directive, and/or concerned with formal assessments of the mentee (Hobson and Malderez, 2013, Hobson, 2016; Tedder and Lawy, 2009). In some cases, there was also a discourse of teaching standards when mentoring forms were being discussed and instances of mentees providing portfolios of evidence (Tedder and Lawy, 2009, p. 70; Kemmis et al., 2014, p. 159). However, unlike in some settings (Kemmis et al., 2014), in this study mentors were not undertaking summative assessments of mentees' teaching or progress. In addition, findings showed that whilst some sections of mentoring meetings were identified as being focussed on mentors' evaluations and formal assessments, there was no evidence of a 'precedence and proliferation' of mentors' evaluations throughout mentoring interactions (Manning and Hobson, 2017, p. 576). There was also no evidence of 'the worst kind' of judgemental mentoring where mentors focus 'almost exclusively in their interactions with mentees on negative judgements' (Hobson and Malderez, 2013, p.96).

Judgemental mentoring has been depicted as an approach which emphasises mentors' comments, evaluations and feedback (Hobson and Malderez, 2013). This study illustrates, however, that in some cases, moves which appear in keeping with a judgemental mentoring approach, can sometimes be drawn upon *sparingly* and *in combination* with moves associated with developmental mentoring. A question can then be raised around whether the context in which a move is used may contribute to whether it is considered to be judgemental or not. For instance, if during a mentoring meeting, a high number of evaluative and directive moves are employed, and the

mentee, who in their own time has been researching and trying out a number of classroom management techniques, is told by their mentor about a particular strategy they should try, without having a chance to discuss their own ideas and is frustrated by that, this move might be considered to be aligned with a judgemental mentoring approach. However, if during a mentoring meeting, a high number of moves associated with developmental mentoring are employed in order to discuss the mentee's practice and at one point in the meeting, the mentor offers strong advice in the form of explaining and recommending a particular classroom management technique, and the mentee considers this a useful piece of information, this may arguably not be considered a judgemental move.

Given that the context in which a mentoring move is used might contribute to whether it is viewed as judgemental or not, it might be helpful to draw a distinction between the nature of the individual move and the nature of an overall approach. In particular, it might be more appropriate to categorise some individual moves as being **authoritative** or **mentor-centred** in nature. In other words, they involve the mentor assessing, evaluating, directing and/or instructing the mentee. An individual move of this nature, which may or may not characterise the nature of the overall approach, can then be distinguished from an **archetype of judgemental mentoring** which, it is suggested, **consists of a precedence and proliferation of authoritative mentoring moves.**

9.4.3.2 Moves associated with developmental mentoring

This study identified five moves associated with developmental mentoring (as presented in section 9.3 above). These moves are broadly, but not entirely in keeping with earlier depictions of this mentoring approach. For instance, the moves do focus on supporting the mentee's professional development and wellbeing (Kemmis et al., 2014). Two of the most common moves in this study involved mentors and mentees collaborating and mentees analysing their own practice and these are aligned with earlier depictions of developmental approaches (e.g. Wang and Odell, 2007; Lejonberg and Tiplic, 2016; Hobson, 2016). Previous studies of developmental mentoring approaches have highlighted that it focuses on building mentees' confidence with teaching (e.g. Salm and Mullholland, 2015; Hobson, 2016; and Feiman-Nemser, 2001) and in this study there were some, but not many, instances of mentors offering positive reinforcement towards mentees. In addition, some researchers have emphasised that developmental

approaches might consist of offering the mentee clear direction and advice (e.g. Kemmis et al., 2014; Tillema et al., 2015; Lejonberg and Tiplic, 2016) and in this study there was evidence of mentors directing the meeting by asking mentees questions about their practice and giving occasional advice.

Despite all mentoring pairs in this study drawing on moves associated with developmental mentoring, the techniques drawn upon were not particularly wide ranging. For instance, some previous studies have depicted developmental mentoring approaches as involving exploring mentee's wider subjective experiences and thinking about teaching. Whilst in this study mentees were encouraged to self-analyse their own practice, examples of wider discussions about their subjective experiences and understanding of their practice were limited. In addition, some examples of specific moves associated with developmental mentoring identified in previous studies such as 'giving living examples of one person's ways of teaching' (Feiman-Nemser, 2001), 'modelling wondering about teaching' (ibid.) and paraphrasing the mentee's accounts of their teaching (Manning and Hobson, 2017) were not identified in this study. In addition, this research confirms findings from Ottesen's (2007) study of mentoring in Norway, that showed the most common types of reflection concerned the practicalities of teaching in the classroom, in particular what did or did not 'work', and overall there was a lack of evidence of mentors and mentees discussing theories of teaching and learning or exploring practices outside existing norms and conventions.

This study also illustrated that sometimes moves associated with developmental mentoring did not respond to the individual's learning and support needs, and as such did not serve to facilitate their learning as student teachers. This raises a similar question featured in the preceding section, around whether the context in which the move is employed may shape whether it is considered facilitative or developmental in nature. For example, if a mentee wants to or needs to develop a more confident classroom presence then the mentor offering positive reinforcement may be an enabling move, if it helps the mentee to achieve this goal. However, if (as described by one of the participants in this study) the mentee is already confident standing in front of a class and is keen to identify areas for development, but the mentor focuses on offering positive reinforcement with regard to their classroom presence, then this may not be a facilitative move. Indeed, this may rather be a move which impedes their development

as a teacher. This raises the possibility, then, that these moves may not be inherently developmental or facilitative, if inappropriately employed.

Similarly to the scenarios outlined above, given that the context in which a move is used might contribute to whether it is viewed as facilitative or not, it might be helpful to draw a distinction between the nature of the individual move and the nature of an overall approach. In particular, it might be more appropriate to describe the individual moves discussed in this section as **non-authoritative** or **mentee-centred**. In other words, they are moves which focus on **the mentee's self-analyses, strengths and explorations of their emergent practice**. It has been illustrated above, that whilst such moves are intended to be facilitative, they may not achieve this if inappropriately employed. In addition, if only a limited range of such moves are drawn on, then this may not fully enable the mentee's learning and growth. Hence, it is suggested that these non-authoritative or mentee-centred moves are distinguished from the archetype of **developmental mentoring** which, it is suggested, could be defined as **an approach that maximises opportunities for mentees' learning and growth by responding to their individual learning and support needs and, in doing so, employs a range of authoritative and/or mentee-centred moves as appropriate**. This definition of developmental mentoring acknowledges a finding highlighted in previous research that mentees may at times benefit from clear advice and direction (Salm and Mullholland 2015; Kemmis et al., 2014; Lejonberg and Tiplic, 2016; Hobson, 2016a), and highlights the need for a range of moves to be employed in response to the individual mentee's needs, if the mentoring is to enable learning and growth.

9.4.4 Consequences of judgemental and developmental mentoring

This study contributes to existing debates on ITE mentoring by highlighting that a hybrid approach consisting of moves associated with judgemental and developmental mentoring can lead to mentees experiencing both positive and negative consequences. Previous research has emphasised the potentially negative consequences that judgemental mentoring can have on student teachers' development and wellbeing. For example, researchers have identified that this approach to mentoring can lead to mentees experiencing isolation, demotivation and being less likely to have open discussions with their mentors about their learning and development needs (Lawy and Tedder, 2009, p. 427; Hobson and Malderez, 2013, p.95). This study found that two

mentees experiencing a partly judgemental mentoring approach did report a wider range of negative consequences, which appeared to stem from these moves, than other participants. In contrast, one mentee in this study who was identified as experiencing a hybrid approach described the consequences of mentoring in predominantly positive terms. This finding indicates that the presence of judgemental moves may be problematic for mentees, but does not necessarily preclude positive consequences also being experienced if moves associated with developmental mentoring are also employed.

Secondly, this study provides new insights into negative consequences described by mentees who were identified as experiencing developmental versions of mentoring. The majority of previous studies which depict mentoring as a developmental process have emphasised the potential benefits of this approach such as: creating meaningful learning experiences, enhancing mentees' confidence and enabling connections between theory and practice (e.g. Wang and Odell, 2007; Tedder and Lawy, 2009; Hobson, 2016a). Some researchers however, have highlighted that developmental mentoring approaches are not necessarily problem-free. For instance, Lejonberg and Tiplic (2016) found that mentoring which is 'too non-directive' can be stressful for mentees (p.8) and Wang and Odell (2007) and Feiman-Nemser (2001) highlight that tensions can arise when mentors try to balance exploring mentees' subjective perceptions whilst promoting a shared understanding of what constitutes good practice. This study contributes to this existing evidence base as it found that some of the negative consequences appeared to arise from: a lack of a particular move associated with developmental mentoring (for instance, three mentees described not receiving enough positive reinforcement from their mentor); the inappropriate employment of particular moves associated with developmental mentoring (for instance, the mentor offering too much positive reinforcement and not enough constructive feedback); or wider aspects of the mentoring which inhibited their opportunities for learning and growth (for instance, the mentor not role modelling effective classroom practice or the mentee not being encouraged to observe other teachers). Whilst some previous research has emphasised the negative consequences of judgemental mentoring and the benefits of developmental mentoring, this study highlights that in practice mentoring enactments which predominantly drew on moves associated with developmental mentoring were not necessarily meeting the learning and support needs of the mentee.

Thirdly, this study highlights that mentees can respond to moves associated with judgemental and developmental mentoring in different ways. For instance, the majority of mentees found collaborating with their mentor useful, but their explanations of how it had helped them varied: one mentee stated it prevented them from feeling isolated, another stated it had given them ideas for their own teaching and another stated it had shown them ways to interact positively with learners. In addition to finding similar mentoring moves positive or negative for different reasons, this study also illustrated that sometimes mentees can respond to the same move differently. For instance, one mentee described the benefits she gained from the emphasis her mentor placed on self-analysis, whereas another mentee, who was paired with the same mentor, found this move, at times, confusing. This indicates that even though there has been a tendency in some previous literature to critique judgemental mentoring and promote developmental mentoring, in practice, moves associated with both approaches may impact on mentees in different positive and negative ways.

Fourthly, this study found that the three mentors in England who were enacting a hybrid of judgemental and developmental mentoring described the consequences of mentoring for them, in a combination of positive and negative terms. This appears in keeping with some earlier research which found that mentors in PCE in this country, when trying to balance assessment and supportive aspects of the role, can experience tensions (Cullimore and Simmons, 2010; Ingleby and Tummons, 2012; Ingleby, 2014; Duckworth and Maxwell, 2015). The remaining eight mentors in this study, who enacted developmental versions of mentoring, reported that they had found the experience a predominantly positive one. Whilst five of the mentees from these pairs also described the consequences of mentoring in mainly positive terms, three described them as being a combination of positive and negative. This indicates that although mentors enacting versions of developmental mentoring may be more likely than those enacting a partly judgemental approach to consider it a positive experience, it is possible that corresponding mentees may not entirely share this perspective. This is in keeping with findings from a previous study by Manning and Hobson (2017) which highlighted that mentors and mentees can sometimes interpret the same mentoring interaction differently.

9.4.5 Factors contributing towards mentoring moves associated with judgemental and developmental mentoring moves

This study furthers existing discussions about what factors may contribute to the use of moves associated with judgemental and developmental mentoring in a number of ways. Firstly, it raises the possibility that the requirement for mentors to formally assess mentees does not necessarily lead to the enactment of judgemental mentoring. As described above (section 9.4.1.2) all mentors in this study were required to complete formal, formative assessments of the mentees. Previously, the requirement by colleges and ITE providers for mentors to assess mentees has been described as a key cause of judgemental mentoring (Hobson, 2016a). This study indicated however, that it was not necessarily the requirement for mentors to assess mentees that contributed to the use of moves associated with judgemental mentoring, but rather how the assessment forms were drawn upon in the process. It was found that the three mentors who were enacting a hybrid of judgemental and developmental moves at times used the assessment forms as a tool in the mentoring whereas the remaining pairs did not focus on or emphasise this aspect of the process. This study did not fully explore the wider impact that mentors assessing mentees may have on the mentoring relationship; however, it does contribute to existing debates on judgemental and developmental mentoring approaches by indicating that the ways in which the assessment forms are drawn upon in the mentoring process may contribute to the use of moves associated with these two approaches.

Secondly, unlike some previous studies, this research did not identify a relationship between mentor education and the use of moves associated with judgemental or developmental mentoring. There are a small number of studies from England and Norway which indicate that mentor education may be a precursor to more developmental practices and that the lack of mentor education may lead to judgemental approaches (e.g. Lejonberg et al., 2015; Manning and Hobson, 2017); however, this study did not produce evidence to support this claim. In this research, none of the mentors who adopted developmental versions of mentoring, except one, had undertaken mentor training or education. In addition, out of the three mentors who enacted a partly judgemental approach, one had undertaken a module on mentoring as part of a master's qualification. The impact of mentor education on the nature of mentoring enactments is currently under-researched; however, findings from this study

indicated it is not necessarily a factor which leads to the use of moves associated with developmental, rather than judgemental, mentoring.

Thirdly, this study contributes to existing debates on judgemental and developmental mentoring by suggesting that there are a range of micro, or individual level, factors which can contribute to the use of moves associated with these approaches. One such contributing factor identified in this study, was the mentee's perceived qualities and teaching competencies. It has been suggested in previous research that mentees' attitude and mind set may shape the mentoring process (e.g. Searby, 2014); in particular, the extent to which they are open-minded and receptive to the process (Hobson and Malderez, 2013). Findings from this study, confirm and extend this idea, to illustrate that mentors' perceptions of and reactions to the mentees' qualities, may contribute to which moves were adopted. More specifically, this study found that when mentees were perceived as proactive, responsive to feedback, and as competent in the classrooms, mentors were identified as being more likely to adopt moves associated with developmental mentoring. Conversely, when mentors had significant concerns about mentees' teaching and/or perceived them not to be listening or responding to feedback, then more moves associated with judgemental mentoring were found to be adopted. This indicates that when mentors have concerns about the mentee's progress, they may resort to "telling" them what is wrong and what to (not) do and this may lead to an approach which is, at least in part, judgemental.

This study also identified a range of biographical details that appeared to shape how mentors and mentees perceive and enact the mentoring process. The biographical details were wide ranging and included: childhood, relationships with others including parents and teachers, dealing with difficult colleagues and previous employments more broadly. Participants mainly described how these experiences led them to adopt behaviours that were identified as in keeping with developmental conceptions of mentoring such as mentors being caring and empathetic, and mentees' being open to feedback. Whilst previous studies have acknowledged that mentors' and mentees' values (Lejonberg and Tiplic, 2016) may influence the way that mentoring is experienced, the findings from this study provide specific examples of mentors' and mentees' views and previous experiences which appear to shape the way their use of developmental moves. It might be possible through further research to establish patterns, in terms of how these biographical details influence the use of particular

mentoring moves and overall approaches. It might, however, also be possible that each individual brings with them a unique combination of experiences and perceptions which potentially shape the mentoring in a range of different ways.

Fourthly, with regard to micro-level contributing factors, in keeping with a point made in earlier literature (Hobson, 2016, p, 97; Tomlinson, 1995), this study showed that some mentors indicated their approach to mentoring had been informed by their own experiences of being mentored. In this study mentors appeared to either adopt similar or contrasting moves depending on whether they had found their mentoring to be effective or not. The moves they described as having been informed by these experiences were mainly associated with developmental mentoring, for example: gradually building mentee's teaching responsibilities, offering positive reinforcement, and encouraging mentees to experiment in the classroom. Whilst the adoption of these moves appears potentially beneficial for the mentees, this finding also raises the possibility that mentors may, at least in part, enact mentoring moves which they consider to be effective based on their own experiences; however, this does not necessarily take into account the needs or preferences of the individual mentee they are working with at that time. In addition, this study found that although some mentoring pairs briefly discussed the mentoring process itself, there was overall a lack of evidence of mentors exploring with mentees their individual learning and support needs and how the mentoring might meet these needs. As such, it is possible that mentors may be enacting mentoring moves they perceive to be beneficial, without explicitly discussing with the mentee what they want or need from the mentoring process.

Fifthly, whilst a number of the contributing factors towards mentoring enactments were identified at an individual or micro level in this study, there was one factor which seemed to occur at a more meso or organisational level. There was some evidence in this study that the mentor's position in the organisation may shape their approach to mentoring. Previous research has argued that mentoring should ideally be a non-hierarchical arrangement, and that, as such, managers are not well placed to mentor beginning teachers (Hobson, 2016a). This study indicates that those mentors who were in managerial or QA roles enacted a partly judgemental approach and those who were in teaching roles enacted developmental versions of mentoring. The mentors enacting a partly judgemental approach highlighted the performative pressures placed upon them

214

or the organisation when describing their places of work. It is possible that mentors in such roles and experiencing such pressures may be more likely to adopt authoritative or mentor-centred moves which are corrective, instructional or assessment focused, rather than mentee-centred moves which focus on exploring the mentees' developing understandings of their practice; however, further evidence is needed to explore this potential connection further.

9.4.6 Summary

Whilst it is recognised, as outlined above, that mentoring enactments may not be 'purely' judgemental or developmental, this study confirms earlier findings that moves associated with the former approach can lead to negative consequences for mentees, whilst moves associated with the latter, although not problem-free, are associated with more positive consequences for both mentors and mentees. This study also illustrates that whilst there may be a relationship between the policy context and mentoring enactments there may also be a range of other micro- and meso-level factors which shape the nature of the moves adopted by mentoring pairs. Whilst the potential benefits of developmental mentoring (as defined in section 9.4.3.2 above) are recognised, this study serves to demonstrate that such an approach might be difficult to achieve in practice. The 'personalised' mentoring approach proposed in the subsequent chapter has been designed with a view to enabling a process which is aligned with the archetype of developmental mentoring and hence seeks to enhance the mentee's growth as a teacher.

9.5 Conceptual Framework Revisited

This section revisits the conceptual framework presented in Chapter 4. In table 20 below, the original conceptual framework is presented. This is followed by table 21, which shows a refined version, with changes to the original table highlighted in italics. The following discussion recaps the elements in the original conceptual framework and explores how these can now be understood in response to the findings and discussion presented above. The purpose of the refined conceptual framework is two-fold. Firstly, it shows how the elements are now understood as a result of this study. Secondly, it offers a tool for analysing mentoring interactions in the contexts of ITE in PCE and potentially more widely. As with the original framework, the connections between the various elements are not presented as deterministic, but rather as a set of related ideas.

It is recognised that in practice, as findings from this study show, mentoring enactments may draw on elements associated with different overall approaches.

As outlined in the Findings chapters, in this study there was a lack of evidence of transformational mentoring. As a result, most of the transformational mentoring elements have not been altered in the refined version of the conceptual framework and the focus of the sections below is on judgemental and developmental mentoring.

	Judgemental Mentoring	Developmental Mentoring	Transformational Mentoring
Purpose	Traditional	Transitional	Transformational
Function	Administrative	Educative/supportive	To challenge
Process	Directive	Non-directive	Combination of directive and non-directive
Mentor role	Coach/guide	Coach, guide, networker, counsellor	Co-thinker, co-enquirer of change
Mentoring moves	Authoritative	Facilitative	Critically reflective dialogue
Outcome	Improvement	Individual growth	Empowerment / collaborative growth/ transformation

Table 20 - Original conceptual framework

	Judgemental mentoring	Developmental Mentoring	Transformational Mentoring
Purpose	Traditional	Transitional	Transformational
Function	Administrative	Educative/Supportive	To challenge
Process	Directive	*Combination of directive and non-directive*	Combination of directive and non-directive
Mentor role	*Assessor, evaluator, director, instructor*	*Facilitator, collaborator, encourager, critical thinker*	*Critical thinker,* co-thinker, co-enquirer of change
Mentee role	*Listener, recipient*	*Self-analyser, collaborator, self-directed learner, critical thinker*	Critically reflective dialogue
Mentoring moves	Authoritative	*Combination of authoritative and mentee-centred as appropriate*	Empowerment / collaborative growth/ transformation
Outcome	Improvement	Individual growth	Transformational

Table 21 - Refined conceptual framework

9.5.1 Overall mentoring categories

The overall categories of judgemental, developmental and transformational mentoring presented in the original conceptual framework have been retained in the refined

version; however, as discussed above, it is suggested these be considered as archetypes of mentoring and defined as follows:

Judgemental mentoring consists of an approach characterised by a precedence and proliferation of authoritative mentoring moves, such as mentors evaluate mentees' performance, mentors refer to their formal assessments of mentees, and mentors strongly advise mentees.

Developmental mentoring consists of an approach that maximises opportunities for mentees' learning and growth by responding to their individual learning and support needs and, in doing so, employs a range of authoritative and/or mentee-centred mentoring moves as appropriate.

Transformational mentoring consists of an approach that seeks to bring about change to existing practices and systems. Mentoring pairs engage in a reflective dialogue in order to critique the status quo, identify and challenge taken for granted assumptions and initiate change.

Underneath the three archetypes of mentoring in the refined framework are seven elements, which include an additional element, mentee roles, which did not feature in the original. In addition, the columns are now divided by a dotted line which signifies a permeable boundary to illustrate that, in practice, mentoring may consist of elements from more than one archetype resulting in a hybrid or derivative approach. Each of the seven elements are outlined below in turn.

9.5.2 Purpose of mentoring

The purpose of mentoring depicted in the original conceptual framework drew on Kochan and Pascarelli's (2012) and Kochan et al.'s (2015) three cultural purposes of mentoring: traditional, which focuses on transmitting existing cultures, values and beliefs; transitional, which focuses on helping the individual mentee to operate successfully within the organisation; and transformational, which focuses on stimulating mutual growth for mentors and mentees and questioning the status quo (Kochan et al., 2015, p. 87; Kochan and Pascarelli, 2012, p. 193). This study found that mentors who were identified as enacting a hybrid of judgemental and developmental mentoring described the purpose of mentoring in a combination of traditional and transitional terms. It also found that mentors who were considered to be enacting developmental

versions of mentoring described the purpose in mainly transitional terms. Hence, findings from this study indicate that there may be an alignment between mentors' perceptions of the purpose of mentoring and the overall enactments; although more research is needed to explore this connection further. As a result, the updated conceptual framework has kept the traditional, transitional, and transformational purposes of mentoring aligned with the overall archetypes of judgemental, developmental and transformational mentoring.

9.5.3 Function of mentoring

The second element of the original conceptual framework drew on the work of Kadushin (1976) (cited in Davys and Beddoe, 2010, p. 25) who outlined three functions of mentoring, administrative (which ensures that mentees meet the organisational/professional policies and protocols), educative (which focuses on the mentee's learning and development) and supportive (which focuses on the mentee's wellbeing). Findings from this study suggested that mentors and mentees enacting developmental versions of mentoring were more likely to describe the function of mentoring in terms of support and learning, whereas those from pairs which enacted a hybrid of judgemental and developmental mentoring were more likely to describe the function in terms of teaching standards and learning; however, as with the purpose of mentoring described above, more evidence is needed to explore this potential connection further. Nonetheless, the refined conceptual framework has incorporated these findings to show that an administrative function is aligned with an overall judgemental approach, and educative and supportive functions are aligned with developmental mentoring.

9.5.4 Process of mentoring

The third element of the framework referred to the process of mentoring in terms of whether it is directive, non-directive or both. The original framework depicted a directive process as underlying a judgemental mentoring approach, a non-directive process underlying a developmental approach and transformational mentoring as involving both directive and non-directive processes. Findings from this study suggested that when mentors were overly directive or dominated the mentoring meeting this was characteristic of a more judgemental approach. Findings also suggested that mentors who were operating in predominantly developmental ways did shape at least some of

the mentoring meetings, but they tended to do this by asking the mentees questions about their practice. Indeed, the majority of participants in this study favoured a process that was partly directive and partly non-directive. This appeared to align with previous research findings that mentees may benefit from clear direction and advice at times (Salm and Mullholland 2015; Kemmis et al., 2014; Lejonberg and Tiplic, 2016; Hobson, 2016a). As such, in the refined conceptual framework developmental mentoring is shown as being underpinned by a directive and non-directive process.

9.5.5 Mentor roles

The mentor roles that were presented in the original conceptual framework have been updated as a result of the findings from this study. Initially, this fourth element drew on the work of Clutterbuck (2004) and Clutterbuck and Klasen (2002) and suggested that a judgemental approach may involve the mentor adopting the roles of coach and guide and a developmental approach would be multifaceted and draw on these two roles, plus the roles of counsellor and networker. However, based on the findings and discussion in this study, the refined conceptual framework suggests different roles, based on the specific moves that mentors in this study were identified as drawing upon. The mentor roles associated with a judgemental archetype of mentoring are listed in table 22 below and are based on the specific authoritative moves identified in this study.

Authoritative move	Mentor Role
Mentor completes formal assessments of mentee	Assessor
Mentor evaluates mentee's practice and/or progress	Evaluator
Mentor offers strong advice	Instructor
Mentor dominates the mentoring interactions	Director

Table 22 - Mentor roles associated with judgemental mentoring

It is suggested that when mentors adopt authoritative moves they are adopting a range of corresponding authoritative roles. For instance, when mentors complete formal assessments of mentees they are adopting the role of assessor and when mentors evaluate the mentee's practice and/or progress they adopt the role of an evaluator. These evaluations may be with regard to formal assessments they are undertaking or could be a more general evaluation of the mentees' practice or progress. When mentors offer strong advice, they adopt the role of instructor by telling the mentee what to do and when mentors dominate the mentoring meeting, by deciding the agenda and leading the conversation, it is suggested they adopt the role of director.

The mentor roles associated with a developmental archetype of mentoring are listed in table 23 below and are based on the specific mentee-centred moves identified in this study.

Mentee-centred moves	Mentor role
Mentee is encouraged to self-analyse	Facilitator of self-directed learning
Mentee is encouraged to develop own practices	
Mentor and mentee discuss the mentoring process	
Mentee and mentor collaborate	Collaborator
Mentor offers positive reinforcement	Encourager
Mentor and mentee critique the status quo	Critical thinker

Table 23 - Mentor roles associated with developmental mentoring

Each of these roles are considered to potentially support the mentee's learning and development. When mentors encourage the mentee to self-analyse their teaching, develop their own practices and/or discuss the mentoring process, they are adopting the role of facilitator. In particular, they are facilitating the mentee's process of becoming a self-directed learner. This role does not assume that the mentor knows best, rather it credits the mentee with the ability to take responsibility for their own development, with the support of a mentor. When mentors and mentees collaborate the mentor adopts the role of collaborator and in doing so is willing to treat the mentee as a co-worker. In comparison to the authoritative roles above, this is a more non-hierarchical arrangement. When mentors offer positive reinforcement, they are adopting the role of encourager towards the mentee and as such acknowledge that mentees may at times feel vulnerable, unsure and/or may feel reassured from a recognition of their strengths and progress. Finally, whilst the final move of mentor and mentee critique the status quo was initially associated with transformational mentoring, findings showed that where both the mentor and mentee employed this move, the pairs were found to be enacting an a more extensive version of developmental mentoring. These pairs did not appear to be actively seeking change to the status quo and/or and addressing existing inequalities and were not found to be enacting other characteristics of transformational mentoring. As a result, this move and its associated role of critical thinker has, in the refined framework, been aligned with developmental mentoring. By adopting the role of critical thinker, mentors may support mentees to identify challenges facing teachers and learners and help them to recognise that problems they encounter are not necessarily specific to them, but symptomatic of wider issues taking place. This may not necessarily be employed as a way to bring about substantial change (as with

transformational mentoring), but rather as a means of supporting the mentee with their transition into the existing teaching community.

9.5.6 Mentee roles

The refined conceptual framework introduces a seventh element that was not present in the original: mentee roles. It was noted in Chapter 4 that in previous literature on mentoring, in ITE and more widely, there was a focus on mentor roles and few examples or explorations of the roles a mentee might adopt (see section 4.7). In this study, there was some evidence to indicate that types of roles that a mentee might enact with regard to the three main mentoring approaches. A judgemental mentoring approach may in part be characterised by the mentee adopting more passive roles, such as listener or recipient, whilst the mentor is more active. When the approach is developmental, the mentee is more likely to adopt active roles which align with the roles of a mentor detailed above such as self-analyser, collaborator, self-directed learner and critical thinker. However, when analysing the data in this study, it often seemed that the mentor was the initiator of particular moves, to which the mentee responded. As such, in the findings there is more of an emphasis on the moves and roles of the mentors, rather than the mentees; however, further research could seek to redress this imbalance by examining the roles that a mentee adopts during interactions and how these relate to the nature of the mentor's roles and the overall mentoring approach.

The judgemental and developmental mentor and mentee roles depicted in this updated conceptual framework make an assumption that each member of the dyad is willing and able to adopt corresponding and complementary roles; however, in practice, it is possible for one member of the dyad to adopt a role, which is not necessarily complemented by the other. For instance, in this study, a mentee wanted to critique existing practices, but his mentor did not. When this occurs, it can result in problems and tensions in the mentoring relationship and it may mean the mentoring embodies more than one of these archetypal approaches.

9.5.7 Mentoring moves

The mentoring moves presented in the refined conceptual framework reflect the points raised in the preceding discussion section. Namely, authoritative moves such as: mentor evaluates mentee, mentor refers to formal assessments, mentor offers strong advice and mentor dominates mentoring interactions, are associated with judgemental

mentoring. As proposed above, it is suggested that developmental mentoring would involve drawing on moves in response to the individual learning and support needs of the mentee and as such this approach could employ both authoritative and mentee-centred moves.

9.5.8 Outcomes

The original conceptual framework drew on two theories with regard to the outcomes of mentoring: Brockbank and McGill's (2012) 'Situational Framework' and Kochan and Pascarelli's (2012) 'Cultural Purposes of Mentoring'. The original framework associated an outcome of improvement (consisting of an improved performance by the mentee and an overall continuation of the status quo) with judgemental mentoring. In addition, it associated an outcome of individual growth (consisting of the mentee operating successfully within the organisation, with an emphasis on their individual growth, innovation and creativity) with developmental mentoring. In this study, evidence indicated that overall mentors and mentees tended to describe the outcomes of mentoring for mentees in terms of both improvement (whereby mentees learnt to implement established norms in their practice) and individual growth (whereby mentees demonstrated developing their own ideas for teaching and learning activities). In addition, there was some limited evidence of mentees devising innovative and creative strategies which reached beyond usual conventions. The refined conceptual framework has retained the original outcomes associated with judgemental and developmental mentoring, but it is suggested that future research could explore this element further; in particular, whether mentors and mentees consider the outcomes of the mentoring to be improvement, individual growth, or of a more transformational nature, and how this relates to the overall mentoring approach identified.

9.5.9 Summary

The refined conceptual framework presented here offers a tool for analysing mentoring enactments. Practitioners and researchers might potentially draw on the three archetypes and the seven elements as a way to examine perceptions and experiences of mentoring. The framework does not claim to be complete as further research is needed to verify, refine and investigate the relationships between different elements; however, it does serve as a starting point for future analyses of mentoring enactments.

9.6 Conclusion

This chapter aimed to highlight how the findings from this study contribute to existing debates and knowledge of mentoring in PCE ITE. It began by outlining the main limitations of the research and proceeded to outline how the original research questions had been addressed. It then discussed key findings from the study in light of existing literature. The conceptual framework presented earlier in the thesis was then revisited and refined in light of the findings. The following final chapter of the thesis makes a series of recommendations based on the findings from this research and proposes a new 'personalised' mentoring approach.

Chapter 10 - Conclusion

10.1 Introduction

The aims of this final chapter are to recap the key contributions made by this study to existing knowledge and debates on judgemental and developmental mentoring in PCE ITE and to make recommendations based on the discussion presented in the preceding chapter. This chapter is divided into three main sections. The first section recaps the original contributions made by this study. The second section makes recommendations for policymakers, researchers and practitioners in the field of PCE ITE mentoring. The third section then draws on some of these recommendations to outline a proposed 'personalised' mentoring approach which seeks to maximise opportunities for enabling the mentee's learning and development.

10.2 Key Contributions

This section summarises seven key contributions made by this study to existing understandings of mentoring for student teachers in PCE ITE in England and Norway. Some of these contributions may also be relevant to wider (ITE) settings. The first contribution made by this study is the suggestion that judgemental and developmental mentoring might be viewed as archetypes of mentoring. Whilst existing literature in the field of PCE ITE has tended to emphasise the contrasting nature of judgemental and developmental mentoring, this study illustrates that in practice, mentoring may consist of different forms of these approaches. These forms of mentoring may draw on more than one approach or be a derivative of these approaches. This study found that in practice, the participating mentoring pairs in England and Norway, were enacting three derivative forms of mentoring. These were coined: a hybrid of judgemental and developmental mentoring, a restricted version of developmental mentoring and a more extensive version of developmental mentoring.

A second contribution made by this study is a series of mentoring moves associated with judgemental and developmental mentoring were presented. These were identified as a result of analysing both interviews with mentors and mentees, and audio recordings of mentoring meetings. In the future this series of moves could be drawn on, and developed, by practitioners and/or researchers in order to analyse the nature of

mentoring enactments. It was also suggested that a distinction might be drawn between authoritative moves, which can be drawn on sparingly, and a judgemental archetype of mentoring, which is characterised by a precedence and proliferation of authoritative moves. It was also suggested that a similar distinction could be drawn between mentee-centred moves, which focus on exploring mentee's strengths and perceptions of their practice, and a developmental archetype of mentoring, which seeks to maximise opportunities for enhancing the mentee's learning and growth by drawing on a combination and range of authoritative and mentee-centred moves as appropriate.

Thirdly, this study offers further insights into the nature of mentoring enactments in PCE ITE in England and Norway. Whilst the sample size for this study was relatively small, evidence suggested that moves associated with developmental mentoring were identified as being employed by all participating pairs in both countries, although three pairs in England were also found to be drawing on moves associated with judgemental mentoring.

Fourthly, this study contributes to understandings of the consequences of mentoring for student teachers and mentors. It confirms earlier findings that judgemental mentoring strategies can lead to negative consequences for mentees and tensions for mentors. Whilst the majority of earlier research advocates the benefits of developmental approaches to mentoring, this study offers further insights into how moves associated with this approach, and wider aspects of the mentoring, can be problematic for mentees.

Fifthly, this study contributes to existing debates about the relationship between policy contexts and mentoring. In particular, this study suggests that whilst the presence of GERM and a focus on assessment may have contributed to the employment of moves associated with judgemental mentoring, they do not necessarily result in an overall judgemental mentoring approach. Furthermore, this study identifies a range of micro-level factors which appeared to contribute towards the enactment of moves associated with judgemental and developmental mentoring.

Sixthly, this study offers a refined conceptual framework of judgemental, developmental, and a third mentoring approach, transformational mentoring. This framework takes into account the findings from this study. In the future researchers and

practitioners could draw on, and develop, the framework further (as recommended below).

Finally, this study presents a 'personalised' mentoring approach. This approach is aligned with the archetype of developmental mentoring and seeks to maximise growth for the mentee by tailoring the mentoring process to their individual learning and support needs. This is described in further detail below.

10.3 Recommendations

This section offers recommendations to policymakers, researchers and practitioners in the context of PCE ITE in England and Norway, based on the findings and discussions presented in this study. Potentially, some of these recommendations may also be applicable to mentoring in other ITE settings. These recommendations are suggested with a view to enabling a broadly developmental approach (as defined in section 9.4.3.2) which consists of mentoring pairs maximising learning and growth opportunities for mentees.

10.3.1 Policy

This section outlines four key recommendations for policymakers in England and Norway with regard to ITE mentoring in PCE, some of which may also be relevant to wider ITE contexts. Firstly, it is recommended that mentoring is depicted in national policy documents and guidelines as a facilitative process with a focus on meeting the learning and support needs of individual student teachers. More specifically, in England it is recommended that Ofsted depict mentoring as a process which responds to student teachers' *broader learning and support*, rather than, as currently stated, their 'specific training', needs (Ofsted, 2018, p. 39). In Norway, there are few details about the role of a mentor in national policy, so here it is recommended that policymakers could offer more information by providing a similar depiction of mentoring as above. Secondly, it is recommended that policymakers in England and Norway advocate mentoring as a process of learning and support by detailing examples of activities mentoring pairs could draw on: such as collaborating through co-teaching and co-planning lessons, arranging for mentees to observe a range of teachers throughout their placement, encouraging mentees to develop creative and innovative teaching practices, and reviewing the

mentoring process itself (more details of such activities are provided in section 10.4 below).

Thirdly it is recommended that policymakers in England and Norway seek ways to ensure that mentors are enabled to follow directives stating that they should undertake mentor education and/or professional development in mentoring. In England, Ofsted guidelines indicate that there should be 'high quality professional development for all mentors and trainers involved in the ITE partnership' (Ofsted, 2018, p. 44; Ofsted, 2015). However, this study found that out of the six participating mentors, only one had undertaken mentor education as part of a master's course she had opted to complete. Three of the mentors had undertaken an information-giving session offered by the ITE provider where they were told what paperwork needed completing, but this did not seem to constitute 'high quality professional development' (ibid.) and a further two mentors had had no preparation for the role. In Norway, whilst one of the few policies in place for IT mentoring stipulates that mentors at practice schools must hold a qualification in mentoring, only one of the five participating mentors had undertaken a mentor education course. As a result, it is recommended that policymakers in both countries consider ways to further enable mentors' participation in mentor education and/or professional development.

A final recommendation for policymakers is with regard to the notion of Norwegian 'practice schools'. A practice school has been described in literature as providing student teachers with access to 'whole schools as an arena for their training and learning' (Nilssen, 2016, p.2). This idea appears aligned with the concept of an expansive learning environment (Fuller and Unwin, 2003, 2004; Hodkinson and Hodkinson, 2005). The concept of expansive learning environments has not been drawn on in this study, but is potentially pertinent to research on mentoring for beginning teachers. Characteristics of an expansive learning environment include: colleagues being mutually supportive in enhancing teacher learning; an explicit focus on teacher learning, as a dimension of normal working practices; and supported opportunities for personal development that goes beyond school/college or government priorities (Hodkinson and Hodkinson, 2005, p. 124). Whilst mentees from Norway were placed at practice schools, none of the mentees indicated that the whole school was 'an arena for their training and learning' (Nilssen, 2016, p.2). Indeed, the majority indicated that they did not collaborate with teachers other than their mentor. It is recommended that policymakers in Norway

investigate whether practice schools are offering expansive learning environments. It is also recommended that policymakers in England consider the benefits of such an approach and explore the potential for PCE organisations to become 'practice colleges' or 'practice organisations' featuring qualified mentors and an institutional commitment to enhancing learning and growth opportunities for both student and existing teachers.

10.3.2 Research

A number of recommendations are made for future research on PCE ITE mentoring. The first set of recommendations have been developed as a result of the key findings from this study. The second set of recommendations highlight potentially fruitful topics for future investigation that were touched on but not fully explored in the findings generated by this research. The third set of recommendations are with regard to methods that future studies could draw on to explore these suggested topics further.

Firstly, with regard to the main findings from this study, it is recommended that future research could explore the suggestion that judgemental, developmental, and transformational approaches could be viewed as archetypes of mentoring and investigate whether this position can be verified further. In particular, as there is currently a lack of evidence with regard to the enactment of transformational mentoring, it is recommended that future studies could explore settings where such an approach, or forms of this approach, may be taking place. In addition, future studies on mentoring could draw on and develop the refined conceptual framework presented in the preceding chapter. More specifically, the roles and moves adopted by mentees could be investigated further in order to explore how these shape, and are shaped, by the overall mentoring approach. This study considered the policy contexts of mentoring in England and Norway and the relationship between these and mentoring enactments. Future studies could perhaps generate further understandings of these relationships by exploring mentoring in a wider range of contexts. In addition, future research could also investigate the longer-term consequences of mentoring for mentees' development as teachers and explore the impact of different mentoring approaches on student teachers' practice.

Secondly, it is recommended that future research could explore a range of other related areas in the field of PCE ITE mentoring not fully explored in this study. For instance, future studies could explore the mentoring experiences of student teachers undertaking

part-time teaching qualifications in PCE and examine similarities and differences with those undertaking full-time ITE programmes. Comparisons between mentoring experiences in PCE and school-based ITE settings could also be explored in order to further investigate the particular learning and support needs of mentees in these respective contexts. The discussion of findings in this study also highlighted other areas that could potentially be further explored in order to develop understandings of ITE mentoring approaches including: the nature of mentoring moves adopted outside formalised meetings, and how these shape the overall approach; the role of mentor education; the impact of assessment on the mentoring relationship; and how other contextual factors such as the amount of contact between mentors and mentees, and how a restrictive or expansive learning environment (Fuller and Unwin, 2003, 2004; Hodkinson and Hodkinson, 2005) might contribute towards the mentoring approaches adopted. It is also recommended that future research on mentoring for student teachers in PCE, and wider ITE settings in England and Norway, and perhaps elsewhere, explore the extent to which features of the proposed 'personalised' mentoring approach detailed below are present and the impact these have on mentees' learning and development.

Thirdly, recommendations are made regarding the research design and methods that future studies could draw on. As this study involved a relatively small sample size, it is recommended that future studies could recruit a larger number of participants in England and Norway in order to explore whether the findings presented here are representative of PCE ITE mentoring populations in these settings. By drawing on data generated by more than one research method, this study was able to gain greater insights into the mentoring than would have been possible through only one method. Future studies might also benefit from combining interviews and audio recordings. They could also consider employing other research methods such as: analysis of mentoring documentation; interviews with ITE coordinators or tutors; and (participatory) action research in order to develop further understandings about how mentoring is perceived and enacted.

10.3.3 Practice

Four main recommendations are proposed for PCE ITE practitioners in England and Norway as a result of this study. Some of these recommendations may also be relevant

to ITE mentoring in wider settings. Aligned with the recommendations for policymakers above, it is firstly recommended that ITE providers describe and promote mentoring primarily as a developmental process which involves mentors striving to meet the learning and support needs of the individual mentee. In addition, it is recommended that ITE providers encourage mentors and mentees not to centre the process around the formal assessment of mentees and provide mentoring pairs with examples of learning and development strategies they could draw on (as detailed below). Furthermore, in some settings ITE providers may wish to explore the potential for mentoring to be a transformational process; however, it is recommended that careful consideration is given to whether the infrastructure is in place to support such a mentoring approach (e.g. institutional support and mentor education underpinned by a reform and/or social justice agenda, as outlined in section 3.3.4). Secondly, it is recommended that in order to maximise the learning opportunities for mentees, mentors are recruited, based in part on their ability to be role models in the classroom. In addition, it is recommended that ITE providers and mentors encourage mentees to observe experienced practitioners throughout their placement as their understandings of teaching evolve.

Thirdly, it is recommended that PCE ITE providers seek to ensure that mentees who may be based on a different site, and/or who may have a different teaching timetable, to their mentor are still afforded regular mentoring meetings. In addition, mentees in England and Norway indicated that they found collaborating with and/or observing their mentor beneficial, although some mentioned that opportunities for this were limited. It is recommended then that PCE ITE providers might explore ways to enable mentees to work with their mentors, peers, and/or other existing teachers in order to facilitate their professional development.

Fourthly, it is recommended that ITE providers, mentors and mentees explore and enact the 'personalised' mentoring approach as outlined in the subsequent section. More specifically, it is firstly recommended that they practise enacting a range of learning and support strategies as set out below, and secondly, that they adopt the steps for personalising the mentoring process as detailed in what follows.

10.4 Personalised mentoring approach

This section outlines a proposed personalised mentoring approach. This approach has been devised in response to findings from this study and is also informed by existing research and theories of mentoring presented in the earlier chapters of this thesis. The aim of the approach is to enable mentoring to achieve its potential to facilitate learning and development by adapting the process to meet the individual needs of the mentee. As such it is envisaged as a potential way to enact an approach which is aligned with the archetype of developmental mentoring as defined in section (9.4.3.2). The idea of personalised and adaptable mentoring has been highlighted in ITE and mentoring literature previously. For example, in Hobson's (2016a) proposed ONSIDE mentoring approach, the 'I' of this mnemonic stands for 'individualised' and refers to an approach which is 'tailored to the specific and changing needs (emotional as well as developmental) of the mentee' (p. 101). In addition, Heron's (2001) theory of helping interventions states that 'by the very nature of their particular [helping] role [the practitioner] need[s] flexibility' and the most appropriate approach 'depends on … the particular needs of the client' (p.45 and p.6). Whilst the idea of personalised mentoring has been suggested before, the following proposed approach contains new insights into the range of learning and development strategies mentoring pairs in ITE could draw on and offers specific techniques for customising the mentoring process. Whilst this approach has been developed in response to an exploration of mentoring for student teachers in PCE, potentially it may be considered relevant to other ITE settings.

10.4.1 Learning and development strategies

This section outlines a proposed range of learning and development strategies and associated moves that mentoring pairs in ITE could adopt, shown in table 24 below. This range of strategies and moves has been informed by existing literature and findings from this study. The list of strategies shown below is not exhaustive and as such does not include all the moves a mentoring pair might employ; however, the following table does provide an overview of a range of potential strategies for enhancing learning and development in ITE mentoring arrangements and includes both authoritative and mentee-centred moves. The left-hand column presents overall strategies, for example mentor and mentee collaborate, and the right-hand column then presents specific moves mentoring pairs can adopt such as co-planning lessons or co-teaching lessons.

Learning and development strategies	Specific mentoring moves
Mentor advises mentee	• Mentee asks for advice about a specific aspect of their teaching practice • Mentor offers advice about a specific aspect of the mentee's teaching practice
Mentor raises mentee's awareness	• Mentor asks mentee questions to raise awareness of particular pedagogical issues • Mentor tells their mentee about issues they have noticed in the mentee's teaching in order to raise mentee's awareness of them
Mentor evaluates the mentee's practice	• Mentee asks mentor for feedback on a particular aspect of their practice • Mentor offers feedback on a particular aspect of the mentee's practice
Mentor and mentee collaborate	• Mentor and mentee co-plan and/or co-teach lessons • Mentor and mentee discuss learners they both know • Mentor and mentee share useful teaching resources
Teaching observations	• Mentor and mentee observe each other's teaching and discuss before and after • Mentee observes other teachers/peers and discuss what they learned with mentor
Mentor and mentee explore links between own experiences, theories of teaching and learning, and practice	• Mentor and mentee discuss how their previous experiences might shape their perceptions of and approaches to teaching/mentoring. • Mentee outlines their understanding of key ideas/theories/concepts from the ITE course/wider reading and how they are applying these in their teaching • Mentor asks questions to prompt mentee to share and develop their understanding of key teaching ideas/theories/concepts and how to apply these
Mentee is enabled to develop their own teaching practices	• Mentor and mentee negotiate mentee's teaching responsibilities and gradually increase them as appropriate • Mentor emphasises there is no one correct way to teach • Mentee is encouraged to devise their own ideas for learning activities • Mentee is encouraged to research and employ creative and innovative teaching practices
Mentee self-analyses their teaching practice	• Mentee self-analyses a recent lesson and describes how these analyses will inform future planning and teaching • Mentee analyses their overall progress and sense of teaching identity • Mentee identifies what further experiences, knowledge and skills they would like to develop • Mentor asks a range of questions to prompt such analyses as described above
Mentor offers emotional support to mentee	• Mentor offers positive reinforcement to raise mentee's confidence • Mentor encourages mentee to collaborate and discuss teaching with others to increase mentee's sense of connection and belonging • Mentor adopts strengths-based approach to feedback to reassure mentee and raise confidence • Mentor challenges mentee to increase motivation and help mentee to achieve their potential
Mentor and mentee break the boundaries	• Mentor and mentee critique existing systems, practices and concepts • Mentor and mentee discuss imagined practice that moves beyond existing conventions and then implement and review feasible ideas
Mentor and mentee review mentoring process	• Mentor and mentee review the mentoring process to date and identify what additional learning and development activities could be drawn on to further enhance mentee's growth

Table 24 - Proposed learning and development activities for mentoring pairs

Some of the listed learning and development strategies and associated moves may be more appropriate and/or more feasible than others depending on the context of the placement, the mentee's learning needs and preferences, and the mentee's stage of development. Procedures for selecting appropriate learning strategies and moves which meet the needs of the individual mentee are discussed in more detail below.

10.4.2 Personalising the mentoring approach

This section outlines five key steps to enable a personalised mentoring approach which maximises learning and development by meeting the individual needs of the mentee. The first step involves **mentors and mentees having a theoretical understanding of different mentoring approaches and when these different approaches might be appropriate**. Underlying this step is the idea that by raising mentors' and mentees' awareness of different approaches that can be taken, they can make informed and conscious decisions about how they will enact the mentoring. It is suggested that mentoring pairs could be introduced to the refined conceptual framework presented in the preceding chapter and invited to discuss scenarios when each of the archetypes, and specific mentoring moves associated with them, might be appropriately employed. Such a discussion also enables an opportunity to clarify that mentoring for student teachers is (usually) aligned with a developmental archetype of mentoring and that the purpose and function is to provide learning and support to enable the mentee to successfully transition into existing teaching communities.

The second step follows on from the first and involves **mentors and mentees being able to enact a range of mentoring moves** such as those presented above in table 24 and being able to draw on them appropriately. In particular, it is recommended that mentors and mentees are supported to explore a range of questions which prompt mentees' self-analyses (e.g. Malthouse et al., 2015) which enable links to be drawn between past lessons and future planning and teaching (Roffey-Barentsen and Malthouse, 2013a, p. 11). In preparation for mentoring, mentors and mentees could be presented with different scenarios and asked to discuss which of the learning and development strategies and moves might be most appropriate and be given the opportunity to practise using these moves through simulation exercises.

The third step involves **mentors and mentees developing their reflexivity with regard to mentoring.** This study showed that mentors' and mentees' perceptions and

approaches to mentoring can be shaped by a wide range of previous experiences. For example, the majority of mentors in this study indicated that their approaches were informed by their own experiences of being a student teacher. As such, it is suggested that mentors and mentees are supported by ITE providers or other providers of mentor education to develop a heightened self-awareness around how their individual views and experiences shape how they see and enact the mentoring process, and how the mentoring process itself might impact upon them. Reflexive mentors and mentees would identify and question assumptions they hold about mentoring. For example, the assumption that "I found this helpful when I was being mentored, so it will be useful for my mentees" or "my mentor is the expert, so they should lead our meetings". By identifying and questioning such assumptions it may enable mentors and mentees to move beyond their existing views and approaches to mentoring and explore ways which are genuinely responsive to the mentee's learning and support needs.

The fourth step involves **undertaking a detailed exploration of mentees' learning and support needs and employing moves which respond to those needs**. This step consists of the mentee discussing with their mentor their perceptions of their strengths and areas for development and what they consider their learning and support needs to be. It would also involve the mentor building up a picture of the mentee's needs by exploring their emergent understandings of key concepts and practices. The mentoring pair would then enact combinations of moves which respond to the identified needs. Explorations of mentees' learning and support needs could take place at regular intervals throughout the process. At these points the mentoring pair could review the mentoring itself to check it is responding to the mentee's emergent priorities.

The fifth step involves **encouraging the mentee to take responsibility for directing their own learning**. This personalised mentoring approach suggests that mentees not only share their learning and support needs with their mentor, but also take charge of their own learning process. One way to facilitate this is for mentors to encourage mentees to identify which learning and development strategies outlined in table 24 they consider would be most useful and to review these regularly. Another way to facilitate mentees taking responsibility for their own learning is for mentors to encourage mentees to raise topics they want to address during ad hoc and formalised mentoring meetings. To do this mentoring pairs could draw on Alred et al. (2006) '3-stage mentoring model' previously presented in section 4.7 as a way for structuring meetings, which involves the

mentor asking the mentee questions to explore areas they wish to address. The advantage of this approach is that it enables the mentee to discuss a few issues that are important to them in depth and to decide for themselves what actions they will take. In addition, this structure for meetings does not preclude the mentor from then raising any outstanding issues that they want to address. By enabling the mentee to set the agenda for mentoring meetings it may help them to communicate their learning and support needs to mentors on a regular basis.

10.4.3 Caveats associated with personalised mentoring

Whilst personalised mentoring, as outlined above, has potential to positively impact on mentees' learning and development, there are a number of caveats to this approach which this section highlights.

Firstly, in order to successfully implement a personalised mentoring approach, it is suggested that mentors and mentees are enabled to undertake the five steps described above. Secondly, even with appropriate preparation for the process, it is possible that some mentors and mentees may still struggle to enact a range of learning and development strategies or to adapt their approach according to the mentee's needs. It is hence recommended that ITE providers, or other organisations responsible for mentoring education, offer ongoing professional development sessions for groups of mentors and mentees to address this and other issues that arise. Thirdly, mentors and mentees may have different perspectives on the nature of the mentee's learning and support needs and which moves might be most appropriate to draw on. One way to address this situation, would be for mentors and mentees explain their perspectives, explore each other's opinions and aim to negotiate an agreed way forward. Fourthly, the enactment of personalised mentoring more widely may benefit from mentors and mentees establishing an open and trusting relationship (Hobson, 2016). Whilst the steps outlined above have been designed to help foster this type of relationship, there may be other strategies mentoring pairs could employ, not fully explored here, that may help to facilitate this further.

Fifthly, a limitation of ITE programmes more widely is that student teachers are required to demonstrate a certain level of teaching expertise within a pre-defined time period. Whilst a personalised mentoring approach aims to maximise student teachers' learning and development during the placement, it is still possible that some mentees may not

develop the expertise required within the time-frame or may decide that teaching is not for them. A personalised mentoring approach does not claim to be a panacea for such wider issues, nor does it claim to result in a problem-free mentoring experience. It does, however, offer suggested ways to increase the chance of mentoring fulfilling its potential by maximising development opportunities for mentees and by tailoring the process to their learning and support needs.

10.5 Concluding comments

The aim of this study was to generate further understanding of judgemental and developmental mentoring approaches for student teachers in PCE in England and Norway. The existing evidence base on mentoring in this context in both countries is small and the intention was to offer new insights into how mentoring was being enacted with regard to these two approaches. Qualitative and comparative research designs were drawn on in order to explore participants' perceptions and enactments of the mentoring in these two settings. By undertaking audio recordings of mentoring meetings and individual interviews with mentors and mentees it meant that an in-depth picture could be developed of how the mentoring was taking place amongst the participating pairs. Whilst this study had its limitations (as outlined in section 9.2) it successfully identified a series of moves or techniques associated with judgemental and developmental mentoring. It also offered further insights into how mentors and mentees described the consequences of these moves. A range of factors which contributed to the adoption of moves associated with judgemental and developmental mentoring were also found. In addition, the in-depth portraits of three mentoring pairs provided further insights into how mentoring pairs in England and Norway described and enacted the mentoring. As a result, a number of new contributions were made to existing understandings of judgemental and developmental mentoring which could be drawn on in future research and practice. These include: a suggestion that judgemental and developmental mentoring may be viewed as archetypes of mentoring; a conceptual framework for analysing mentoring enactments containing a third potential approach of transformational mentoring; and details of a personalised mentoring approach which seeks to maximise learning and development opportunities for mentees. It is hoped that this study will contribute towards enabling effective mentoring for student teachers by generating further understanding and discussion about ways to facilitate the learning and growth of future teachers in the PCE sector, and potentially other ITE settings.

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Appendix 1 – Participant information sheet and consent form (England)

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

Overview

This research project focuses on mentoring for student teachers placed in Upper Secondary Schools in Norway and Further Education (FE) in England. Mentoring is a common feature of Teacher Education courses in England, Norway, and other countries across the world. The aim of this project is to enhance our understanding of mentoring for student teachers in the Post-Compulsory Education sector in two different countries.

Who are the participants?

In England, the participants are student teachers undertaking a teaching placement in FE commencing September 2016, and their corresponding mentors. Mentoring pairs will be recruited from at least two different universities.

Who is leading the project?

The project is led by Catherine Manning, a full-time, funded, PhD student at the University of Brighton, England. The lead supervisor for this project is Professor Andy Hobson, Head of the Education Research Centre at University of Brighton. Contact details are provided below.

What are the research methods and when will they take place?

Participants will be asked to take part in the following research methods:

1. An initial individual interview – lasting approximately 1 hour
2. One or two audio recordings of mentoring meetings
3. A follow up individual interview – lasting approximately 1 hour after the end of the teaching placement

What will be recorded?

Participants will be asked to agree for the researcher to make audio recordings of interviews. In addition, mentoring pairs will be asked to audio record two mentoring meetings using a digital device (for e.g. iPad, mobile phone). Transcripts of interviews and mentoring meetings will be made by the researcher. Recordings will be listened to by the researcher only and used for the sole purpose of the research project.

Participants will be sent transcripts of their interviews/observations for approval. Initial findings will also be shared with individual participants for their comments on the researcher's interpretations.

Can participants withdraw from the research project?

Yes, participants can withdraw from the project. Participants will be asked to read and sign a consent form, which will be revisited part way through the research process. They will be asked to agree that any data collected up to the point of withdrawal can still be used in the project.

How will the data be stored?

The project leader, Catherine Manning will be responsible for keeping the data securely. Recordings and transcripts will be kept in a password-protected, electronic storage area.

Confidentiality and anonymity

All participants' responses and data will be treated confidentially; they will not be discussed with other participants, colleagues or peers and will only be used for the purposes of the research project.

Pseudonyms will be used to protect the identity of participants and their institutions. Other identifying features may also be changed or removed to increase levels of anonymity.

How will the findings be made use of?

The findings will be used primarily for the doctoral thesis but may also be used for other research outputs such as conference papers or journal articles. This is with the aim of furthering knowledge and understanding of mentoring in Teacher Education. In all cases, the commitment to anonymity and non-traceability will apply.

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CONSENT FORM

I agree to take part in this research on mentoring for student teachers in Post-Compulsory Education. I have read the information sheet and I understand the principles and procedures. I have discussed these and any possible risks involved with the researcher.

I am aware that I will be required to participate in the following research methods:
- An initial interview
- One or two audio recordings of mentoring meetings
- A follow-up interview

I understand how the data collected will be used, and that any confidential information will normally be seen only by the researchers and will not be revealed to anyone else.

I understand that I am free to withdraw from the study at any time without giving a reason and without incurring consequences from doing so.

I agree that should I withdraw from the study, the data collected up to that point may be used by the researcher for the purposes described in the information sheet.

I agree that data collected may subsequently be archived and used by other bona fide researchers.

If you are willing to participate in the research please signal your consent by signing below.

    Name: …………………………………………………………………………………
    Signed: ………………………………………………………………………………..
    Date: …………………………………………………………………………………...

Please retain a copy of this sheet for your records.

Appendix 2 - Participant information sheet and consent form (Norway)

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

Overview

This research project focuses on mentoring (skole-basert veiledning) for student teachers placed in Upper Secondary Schools (videregående skoler) in Norway and Further Education Colleges in England. The aim of this project is to enhance our understanding of mentoring for student teachers in the Post-Compulsory Education sector.

Who are the participants?

In Norway, the participants are student teachers undertaking a teaching placement at an Upper Secondary School commencing September 2016, and their corresponding mentors. Both mentors and student teachers will be teaching English. Mentoring pairs will be recruited from two different universities.

Who is leading the project?

The project is led by Catherine Manning, a full-time, funded, PhD student at the University of Brighton, England. The lead supervisor for this project is Professor Doctor Andy Hobson, Head of the Education Research Centre at University of Brighton. Contact details are provided below.

What are the research methods and when will they take place?

Participants will be asked to take part in the following research methods:

1. An individual interview – lasting approximately 1 hour – at your place of study or work during week 35 (commencing 5th September)
2. An audio recording of a mentoring meeting (spoken in English) near the start of the teaching placement
3. An audio recording of a mentoring meeting (spoken in English) near the end of the teaching placement
4. An individual Skype interview – lasting approximately 1 hour after the end of the teaching placement

What will be recorded?

Participants will be asked to agree for the researcher to make an audio recording of interviews. In addition, mentoring pairs will be asked to conduct two of their mentoring meetings in English and audio record them using a digital device (for e.g. iPad, mobile phone). Transcripts of interviews and mentoring meetings will be made by the researcher. Recordings will be listened to by the researcher only and used for the sole purpose of the research project. Participants will be sent transcripts of their interviews/observations for approval. Initial findings will also be shared with individual participants for their comments on the researcher's interpretations.

Can participants withdraw from the research project?

Yes, participants can withdraw from the project. Participants will be asked to read and sign a consent form, which will be revisited part way through the research process. They will be asked to agree that any data collected up to the point of withdrawal can still be used in the project.

How will the data be stored?
The project leader, Catherine Manning will be responsible for keeping the data securely. Recordings and transcripts will be kept in a password-protected, electronic storage area.

Confidentiality and anonymity
All participants' responses and data will be treated confidentially; they will not be discussed with other participants, colleagues or peers and will only be used for the purposes of the research project. Pseudonyms will be used to protect the identity of participants and their institutions. Other identifying features may also be changed or removed to increase levels of anonymity.

How will the findings be made use of?
The findings will be used primarily for the doctoral thesis but may also be used for other research outputs such as conference papers or journal articles. This is with the aim of furthering knowledge and understanding of mentoring in Teacher Education. In all cases, the commitment to anonymity and non-traceability will apply.

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CONSENT FORM

I agree to take part in this research on mentoring for student teachers in Post-Compulsory Education. I have read the information sheet and I understand the principles and procedures. I have discussed these and any possible risks involved with the researcher.

I am aware that I will be required to participate in the following research methods:
- A face to face interview
- Two audio recordings of mentoring meetings (one near the start of placement, the other near the end)
- A follow-up Skype interview

I understand how the data collected will be used, and that any confidential information will normally be seen only by the researchers and will not be revealed to anyone else.
I understand that I am free to withdraw from the study at any time without giving a reason and without incurring consequences from doing so.

I agree that should I withdraw from the study, the data collected up to that point may be used by the researcher for the purposes described in the information sheet.

I agree that data collected may subsequently be archived and used by other researchers.

If you are willing to participate in the research please signal your consent by signing below.

    Name: …………………………………………………………………………………
    Signed: ………………………………………………………………………………..
    Date: …………………………………………………………………………………..

Please retain a copy of this sheet for your records.

Appendix 3 – Initial interview schedule (mentors)

1. Can you start by telling me a bit about your current job and the school/college you work in?
2. Can you tell me about why you decided to become a teacher? Why this sector?
3. Can you tell me about your own experiences of education [school/university]?
4. What was your experience of being a student teacher [including the mentoring you received]?
5. Can we discuss your timeline? Can you tell me about why each of these has been significant to you?

   [Introduce next section: now some questions specifically about mentoring]
6. How did you come to be a mentor?
7. Did you have any preparation for the role? [Have you had any support or training since starting mentoring?]
8. What do you think is the official purpose of mentoring? [Where did those ideas come from?]
9. What do *you* think is the purpose of mentoring? [Where did those ideas about mentoring come from, do you think?]
10. How do you seek to bring about the official purpose and/or your personal purpose of mentoring in practice when working with student teachers? [if not covered, what do you hope the outcome is of the mentoring you provide?]
11. Is there anything else you would like to add, that we have not discussed?

Appendix 4 – Initial interview schedule (mentees)

1. Can you tell me about why you decided to take teacher education? How have you found the course so far?
2. Can you tell me a bit about your own experiences of education (school and university)?
3. Can you tell me about any other jobs or courses you've taken between finishing school and now?
4. Can we discuss your timeline? Can you tell me about why each of these has been significant to you?

[Introduce transition: the following questions are specifically about mentoring]

5. I understand on [school] placement you will have a mentor – a more experienced teacher. What do you hope to get out from the mentoring you will receive? (where do those ideas/expectations come from?
6. Has the role of a mentor been described to you by the university/placement school/mentor themselves?
   If yes – how did they describe it?
7. Is there anything else, you've not yet mentioned, you'd hope to get from your mentor whether or not it's in line with the role as it's been described?
8. Have you been a mentor/ or been mentored by anyone in the past.
9. Is there anything else you would like to add, that we have not discussed?

Appendix 5 – Follow up interview schedule (mentors and mentees)

1. Can you start by telling me a bit about your experience of mentoring [mentee's name]?

2. Can you tell me about any memorable or significant moments you had during the mentoring process on your teaching placement? Why was that memorable for *you*, do you think?

3. Can you tell me about any moments of discomfort or uncertainty you experienced during the mentoring process? Why do you think that caused you discomfort/uncertainty?

4. You sent me recordings of two mentoring meetings. I'd like to turn to those now and ask you about a couple of moments from those meetings.
   Introduce the section, describe who said what. Then ask questions such as:
   There is a section where you asks/state… can you tell me about your thinking behind …?
   There is another section where your mentor/mentee [name] says…what did you make of that?
5. Now I'd like to talk about the functions of mentoring. [Briefly run through the purposes of mentoring diagram – see below)

From your experience, where do you think mentoring for student teachers currently sits in terms of these three functions?
   Prompts: Why do you think this?
   Where do you think it *should* sit? Why?
   Are there any functions of mentoring, you can identify, which aren't captured here?
6. Here are four approaches to mentoring, taken from existing theories and literature on mentoring. (Briefly run through four approaches to mentoring diagram- see below).

   Which description, do you think best captures your approach to mentoring?
   Prompt: Why didn't you adopt approach x then?
   Which approach, or approaches do you think would be best and why?
   What would be the impact of that approach?

7. Last time we spoke I asked you about five significant moments or people and you identified (recap each of the 5 the moments/people they spoke about). In what ways do you think these events or people, or other details from your background have influenced the way you approached the teaching placement and the mentoring process in particular?

8. Is there anything else about the mentoring that we haven't touched on that you would like to raise?

Purposes of mentoring (see question 5 above)

Teaching standards

Check and assess standards of teaching.

Ensure organisational policies, procedures and protocols are followed.

Uphold ethical teaching practices.

Learning and development

Provide opportunities for professional development and learning.

Enable links between theory and practice to be drawn.

Foster innovative and creative teaching practice.

Facilitate reflective practice.

Support

To encourage and support the student teacher.

To empower the student teacher.

Provide a safe space to discuss problems and/or emotional responses to teaching.

An adaptation of Kadushin's (1976) Functions of Supervision

Four approaches to mentoring (see question 6 above)

Directive

Mentor sets the agenda for the meeting and provides feedback on mentee's practice and progress

Mentor sets the agenda for the meeting and asks mentee questions about their practice and progress

Evaluative

Non-evaluative

Mentee sets the agenda for the meeting and asks mentor for feedback on particular areas of their practice and progress

Mentee sets the agenda for the meeting and discusses their self-analyses of their practice and progress.

Non-directive

Adapted from Clutterbuck's (2001) Four Styles of Helping

Appendix 6 – Example transcript of a mentoring meeting

Sarah (mentor) and Hannah (mentee) meeting 2

SARAH: Which way shall we do this? Shall we go through this form, looking through attributes, knowledge, understanding and skills, and then, you can then reflect on what you have found from your teaching, that links to these. some of them, you might find that they're, you don't have a lot of experience yet, because it's something that, as you get further into this term you will get more of, but we can have a look and see what we thought about them. So first of all, I think we should just do an overview, seeing as it's our last chat. What has changed since then for you? Since then, you've had an observation undertaken, a dual observation undertaken, you've finished with a group of students that you really enjoy teaching, you've now been given an opportunity to take your teaching practice into a professional role, because you've been offered, and are now teaching here, in the capacity of a member of staff. So how do you feel about that, what's your views about that?

HANNAH: Well, I'm obviously really pleased that I was offered the job.

SARAH: Good.

HANNAH: Because that was just really good. I feel sad that I've lost my group, that I spent 10 weeks

SARAH: Ah, your little ones.

HANNAH: I was anxious about taking over from the teachers that taught the groups that I now have, because they are so well-established and have got a lot of experience. But also, pleased that I was given that, because it shows that at least I'm trusted to be able to do that,

SARAH: They wouldn't give it to anybody.

HANNAH: No, so that's good. I was also anxious because I felt that the level, the entry 3s were going to be quite challenging in terms of behaviour and what I'd be able to do with them, but actually, that's been a really good experience, and the level 3s today is the first time I've taught them, and again, different challenge, but really good. And I was nervous today, so probably the first 10 minutes, I was probably a little bit, not stiff, but not totally myself, but then I settled into it. And by the end of the lesson, it was really good. Well, I felt it was really good, and there was no awkward moments or silent moments. The students weren't, or certainly didn't indicate that they didn't understand what I was saying.

SARAH: Yeah, so were they engaged?

HANNAH: They were engaged, yeah. They did all the tasks, I had to speak to the, some girls, about the way that they were talking while I was talking, but

SARAH: And how did you feel about that, because that's, that's something challenging students is something that, you know, takes a lot of, you have to have confidence to do that.

HANNAH: Well, I just felt it was quite rude because they weren't just talking over me, they were talking over groups feedback, and ultimately, they have to do an assignment that is based on every group's feedback, not just their own feedback. So I just stopped the lesson, and said that I didn't feel that at Level 3, I would have to establish classroom rules, taking over the lesson, but that I was happy to, if they'd like me to. But just that I felt that the girl in question was being very rude, in talking while other people were talking, and I said, if someone did that to you, you would also think it was rude.

SARAH: Yeah.

HANNAH: And I said, you know, I will move you. I said, I don't want to have to move you, I said, you're all adults in this room. You're working towards a professional qualification and I'd like to view you all as professionals. I said, if I have to move you because you're disrupting the lesson then I will move you, but I don't want to do that. And I said, also with regards to phones, a lot of you have had it out today, and I said, I'll let it go today. I said, but next week, I will take them away, I said because unless I say to you, please go on your phone, there is no need, during my lesson to be on a phone and I think,

SARAH: And you were quite happy?

HANNAH: I was quite happy to do that. Because I just think that actually, if you don't establish rules straight off, then they think they can walk all over you. Not walk all over you, I don't mean that, but

SARAH: But it's gaining their respect

HANNAH: Yeah, and I think it's a thing, you're a new teacher, you're a new face, what can they get away with, and now they know they can't.

SARAH: But the thing is also, they don't know what your background is. They don't know whether you've been teaching for 10 years somewhere else, they don't know that. So you have to use their lack of knowledge of you, to your advantage.

HANNAH: Yeah, and they were fine. And you know, the girl stopped, and I think she realised, and I think it sent a message to the rest of the group that, you know, that's what I'm about. But we spoke as well during the lesson about the fact that we watched the green eyes, blue eyes, not green eyes, brown eyes blue eyes. And it's a bit off-kilter, but anyway, we were talking about how the children who had been told they were worthless because they had blue eyes or brown eyes then behaved in that way. And we were, and I was saying that actually, relating that to them as learners, I said, you know, as teachers we want you to do the best you possibly can, so our job is to raise your aspirations, but it'll be you that stops yourself, because you'll think you're not good enough to get an A. Whereas, we know you can get an A.

SARAH: Yeah.

HANNAH: And I, you know, it was kind of, I was saying it's my job to get you that A, so I want to work with you. So it was, I tried to get them to know that was what I was there to do, by linking it back to what we watched, because I do genuinely want them all to do well, because they're going into their second year and I'm going to be looking after them while Lauren's off, so they need to know that I've got their back, in as much as I want them to do well.

SARAH: Cool, good. Good. Okay, anything else? Before we go onto this bit here?

HANNAH: No.

SARAH: Okay, so what we're going to do now is have a look at professional attributes and values, yeah?

HANNAH: Yeah.

SARAH: And these purpose on here, reflect on what you do, and what works best in your own teaching, to evaluate and challenge your own practice, to inspire, motivate and raise aspirations of learners, to create, to be creative and innovative in selecting and adapting strategies to help learners to value and promote social and cultural diversity and inclusion to build positive relationships with colleagues and learners. So, are there any of those that we haven't spoken about already, especially what progress you think you've made from review 1. For me, the positive relationships with learners and colleagues, you've really, you've gone from being somebody who's coming in to learn, as a PGCE student, to being part of the team.

HANNAH: Yeah.

SARAH: And you might have only been part of the team for a couple of weeks, but it's the way you are, your mannerisms, your asking for support, you're feeding off them, you've slotted in very easily. And Rachel said that as well.

HANNAH: I just feel that

SARAH: And the girls have said that as well.

HANNAH: They've really accepted me, and I think that you know, I'm, I think my strength there is that I've been very honest and said, look, I'm brand new, as much as I'm not stupid and I can hold my own, and I'm confident in my ability to teach, I'm not going to know everything. I'm confident in my ability as in, I know that I can stand in front of people and I'm not going to make a total fool of myself, but, I'm going to need help as in, I'm not quite sure how I'm going to teach this, what would you do? Or, I don't know where to look for this, where do I find it? And I said to them, you will get cross with me, I said, for asking questions, and they were like, no, that's the total opposite, we won't get cross with you, we want you to ask questions, and I have asked lots of questions and I've been really honest about what I'm unsure of,

SARAH: Yeah.

HANNAH: And they've just been brilliant at giving me support, and today was Lauren's lesson, she wrote it, she's written the plan for it, and she's trusted me to deliver it. And I did add my own, I added my own case studies today for indirect and direct discrimination, but I felt that that needed to be done so they understood exactly what direct and indirect discrimination meant, rather than just talking about it, but I felt really happy that she's handed that over to me, because actually, that's a big thing.

SARAH: Yeah.

HANNAH: Because she is, this is her's, and they're her group and that is a big thing for her, to hand that over to me, so I'm very respectful of the fact that she has a lot more knowledge, and I'm happy for her to know that I know that, and to acknowledge that. So yeah, I feel that that's definitely something, and I definitely feel part of it now, whereas before, I was coming into the office and doing bits and bobs, it's nice to have a day, because there wasn't a desk in there for me, at that time, but it was nice, so you know.

SARAH: I think having your own desk, and having your own area, really does make such a difference.

HANNAH: Yeah.

SARAH: When I used to come in, there used, there wasn't a desk, we used to have to hotdesk. There were so many people in that office, there was no desk free. And, it always made you feel like you were an inconvenience, the fact then that once you get your own desk and your own space, you can put your own books in it and stuff, and you can make it more personal, I think that makes you naturally feel part of, more part of a group, which is cool. Okay so the positive relationship with colleagues and learners is fine. And also, the, innovation in setting and adapting strategies to help learners. I think with your Entry 3 Level 1 group, you demonstrated that by coming up with different ideas, especially with the baby baths and stuff like that, different ways to get them to understand what you're trying to teach them, so I think you've done that really well. And as you spoke just now about the aspirations and the motivations of the learners, that's something that we do all the time, so yeah,

HANNAH: And also, I think that I've learned that me standing there and delivering lectures isn't going to work, so it's looking at the different ways you can deliver stuff, so using videos, using Cahoot quizzes, you know, using group work and then teaching from their answers, rather than standing there and teaching at them, feedback from my new group was that they didn't like the fact that the previous teacher had just stood there and talked at them, and they didn't feel that they were involved in any way, so I've done a lot of factsheets, group work, poster work, peer to peer, you know, paired people up, the stronger students with the weaker students. To make sure that they stay engaged that way, really.

SARAH: Good.

HANNAH: So yeah.

SARAH: So you feel like that's coming on?

HANNAH: Yeah, and just looking at the different strategies and doing more research, I think now, not that I wasn't doing it before, but I think that teaching a different variety of learners, has really made me look at the different ways of which you need to teach, not, obviously you know all learners don't learn the same, but it's just made me look at it a bit more as a, like you would learn any part of a job, but looking at different ways of doing things

SARAH: But also

HANNAH: And observing different people.

SARAH: Also the fact, let's be honest, when you were probably learning or doing your own degree, you were probably, you had a lot of sitting down, listening, being lectured, because it was a degree, possibly similar sort of style of teaching that you have now on your PGCE, because that's the style of teaching it is. Whereas, this, it doesn't work, you're right, it doesn't work with some of these Level 3 students, so we have to be slightly different, to engage them, to keep their attention. You've got to do different things all the time, so yeah, it's absolutely true, and that's cool. What about you challenge your own practice quite a lot.

HANNAH: Yeah, because I keep, I don't, I keep a reflective diary if you want to call it that, but I write notes a lot on what's gone well, what hasn't gone so well, and why I think it's not gone so …

and it was about a child that was a Sikh, that wore a, I can't remember the name of it on his head,

SARAH: A turban?

HANNAH: No, I can't remember, how annoying, it was something like a taquet or something. On his head. And I didn't know what that was, and I went away and Googled it, and Googled a bit more about the Sikh religion, because I knew I was going to be teaching it, and I knew it was going to come up, because I thought, if I don't know what that is, are other people? And actually, it did. So I'm pleased I did that, because otherwise I would have looked like a wally.

SARAH: Yeah.

HANNAH: And I didn't want to do that, I wanted to, you know, so it's things like that, I'm not going to know all the intricacies, and also because it's Lauren's, she knows all the answers off the top of her head, whereas I had to go and investigate some of the answers, and best practice, and all things like that, so it's that sort of thing that I still need to do.

SARAH: But it's not uncommon, for people when they are teaching, to have to go, right, I need to go and revisit that. If we teach a module a year, and say for instance, we're teaching, I don't know, health and wellbeing of young children, in the degree, I have to go then back and work, research what has changed in the last year, of health and wellbeing of children, looking at journal articles and all of that, so that when I present to the students, it's as up to date as possible. I'm not going to know it all, but I'll know some of it. So, I absolutely think it's good.

HANNAH: And then it's keeping up to date with just like general things, like on Twitter, following certain things and bits and bobs like that, just reading stuff, I think. And again, it's just not being complacent and accepting, oh yeah, I know about discrimination I'll be fine. Because actually I think you're always going to get that question when you go, ooh.

SARAH: But also don't be afraid, as you say, I mean, there are times when you can say, oh, actually, good point. Not something that actually is part of this, but let's go and, I'll go and find out about it, you go and find out about it, or say, yes, I'm going to make a note of that, and I'll find out something later for you. And then putting up a link on blackboard for them, for instance, you know, girls, remember we spoke about this. Found this really interesting information for you, have a read around and we'll have a discussion about it when we start back next week. So, they know that you are on top of it, but you are actually, there are times when you won't know it all, and it's fine not to know it all.

HANNAH: Yeah.

SARAH: So it's then having strategies to put in place as to how you don't come across as a complete wally, but you come across as somebody who's, you know, we've all done it, when we go, do you know what, good thing. Not quite sure, let's go and investigate and see, so that's why, it's absolutely fine. So evaluating your own practice with others, as well, hello we've done a lot of that. We've done a lot of it.

HANNAH: We've done a lot of it, I've done a lot of it with Lauren and Kirsty, I think you do it all the time. Well, I think, if you're good and you care about it,

SARAH: Yeah.

HANNAH: I think that you always, you want that feedback don't you, and the thing for me, out of this whole thing, has been

SARAH: Me. Oh no, sorry.

HANNAH: For the record.

SARAH: You were saying...

HANNAH: But what the best thing has been, is the observations and getting the feedback from the observations, that has been the best learning out of the whole course. Because I think you can learn theory, and you can learn about behaviour, and you can learn this, and you can learn that, until you're there, and you're doing it, and you're experiencing, and you've had someone watch you, and it's silly, not silly, because nothing's silly, but it's the tiny things, like oh yeah, I should have done that. Why didn't I do that? And actually, that's been the best thing for me. Is

the observations, being observed and having that feedback. Whereas a lot of people on the course worry about it, that was the best bit for me. I would just think, I am not going to know everything, you've got to learn from people that know more than you.

SARAH: And what I love is, when people come and observe, they can see things from a different side. And it sounds silly, but even them sitting at the back of the room and you teaching at the front of the room, they can see a different dimension, they can see when people are not necessarily engaged, or they can see when there is somebody talking, which, when you are so in depth of teaching, you don't see those things, you know, there are things I won't see.

HANNAH: Yeah.

SARAH: Both the good and the bad, so I know, I absolutely agree, and certainly at college, we do a lot of observations, there are always observation windows coming up, but as part of your appraisal, you know, the reflection on how you're doing, and peer observations, I mean, you know, Lauren and Kirsty were always, they would come in and do a peer observation, if you go, look, I'm not sure about this, I'm not getting this quite right, or you know, I've got a concern, can you come and watch? They're more than happy to do that, that's the way you get better. And that's a lovely thing that you do have those people to do it. In my department, I don't have anybody.

HANNAH: No.

SARAH: So it's good that you've got a team behind you, that's excellent. Positive learner behaviour, I think we've spoken about that already. And understand your teaching role and your responsibilities, well you do, you do know that, right from the word go, it's almost like, you know what you have to do, and what you have to give to the students and what you need to get out of them. So, yeah, it's fine. Is there anything you want to add from that?

HANNAH: I don't think so.

SARAH: Is there anything that you want to put down as development areas, that you might want to consider further, or something just as a reminder to keep doing?

HANNAH: No, I just think it's keeping on top of developments on the course, just learning more about, I know I'm going to have to read each week, about what I'm teaching. So I think it's just, you know, keeping up to date with that.

SARAH: And also stuff like, for instance, the early years foundation stage. You know when that has the little tweaks, things like being on, and I think you are anyway, being on the OFSTED database, on what's it called? Foundation stage database. And part of those forums on facebook, for instance, where the information comes in and you're listening to and reading from professionals and researchers as well as those actual people on the floor as well.

HANNAH: Yeah.

SARAH: So that's cool. Yeah, anything else?

HANNAH: I don't think so.

SARAH: The evaluation of your own practice, is just going to carry on, so I don't think we need to put it as a developmental area, it's just something that will continue. Right, your professional skills, so this is the last bit on this form. Motivating and inspiring learners, planning and developing effective learning programmes for diverse groups, well, let's be honest, you did that with your Entry 3 Level 1 group, didn't you?

HANNAH: Yeah.

SARAH: So I think that's something we can tick and say yes, you've done that. Stuff like promoting the benefits of technology, how do you feel about that, at the moment, in your teaching career?

HANNAH: I feel fine with it, I think that you've got to use technology when it's appropriate, but, I mean, I think, especially with the, well, with both groups I'm teaching, they both use technology every lesson, more or less, because I'll get them to do something on the computers, and we use things like Cahoot quizzes, so they're using their mobiles for something other than texting. Some of the Level 3s, I will get them to use their phones to research topics if we're not in a computer room. Same as the, you know, the entrys as well, I would do the same, but obviously monitor that. The use of videos is really important.

SARAH: TED Talks.

HANNAH: Yeah.

SARAH: I'm going to put that down as something for you to look at.

HANNAH: Yeah.

SARAH: Because TED Talks, I always thought it was on one thing, but the range of TED Talks, really challenge people, and I know it's something that you did on your foundation degree, and something that I teach about, safeguarding, and perpetrators of abuse, and there was a very interesting link but up by Nicole, who teaches at Fareham, she does the foundation degree at Fareham, that TED Talk about two, it was from two people who had been raped, but it was what their views of the perpetrator, and it was compelling, and it made a very, very good group discussion, but I would never have looked on TED Talks for something like safeguarding and perpetrators of abuse, even though I need to teach it.

HANNAH: Yeah.

SARAH: So it's a good thing to think about, maybe not all the time, that we realised it, so TED Talks are something else, to add in, and technology, yes you do use computer stuff. English and Maths, needs of learners,

HANNAH: Yeah.

SARAH: Now, you know, some of them are doing, well, the Level 2s will be doing English and Maths, are they? Level 3s have already got it.

HANNAH: Yeah, the entrys are doing, the skills, Maths and English?

SARAH: Functional skills.

HANNAH: Functional skills. Thank you. My brain is not functioning. Yeah, functional skills and actually I spoke to Kirsty about that today, because I wanted to know what we do, well, I've got an essay to write about it, but actually genuinely wanted to know what we do, and it is just about liaising with the Maths and English tutors, making sure you do bring it in, charts, and graphs, and if you're talking about percentages

SARAH: Ratios, all that.

HANNAH: Bringing it in, like in poverty, looking at the percentage in Tumfield of poverty, and things like that. And I think it can be done, you just have to do it subtly, and just reiterate the importance of English and Maths.

SARAH: The thing is, provided it's on your scheme of work, that you are aware that it's got something that you can delve into when you need to, I know everybody's very worried when they're doing observations when you've got to show English and Maths when they're being observed, but you might be observed for 10 minutes, it's very difficult to shoehorn it in, but if you've got it on your scheme of work as having an awareness of it, then that's a good thing.

HANNAH: Yeah.

SARAH: You, enable learners to take responsibility for their own learning, well I think we've talked about that already today.

HANNAH: Yeah.

SARAH: Methods of assessment and constructive feedback, that's something that will come.

HANNAH: Yeah.

SARAH: Because that's something that's given to you, as part of the cash. But as you then move forward and then start marking and feedback. Saying that, you give feedback to students when you are going out to visit them on placements at university, you give feedback when you've done second marking, so it's all good. Organisations, development of quality improvement, well I think you're working here, you'll be linked in with that very heavily. And collaboration, you do, a bit of collaboration with other students with that as well.

HANNAH: Yeah.

SARAH: Is there anything you want to add? What would be your key highlight? What highlight for you?

HANNAH: I haven't got a key one, really. I think the best thing has been being embraced into the college. So like, everybody's embraced me, rather than, oh she's the student. I've been accepted into the team, and even now, no-one has even mentioned the fact that I'm on the PGCE, they have just accepted me as part of the teaching team, and nobody has even

questioned my ability at all to do anything. They've asked me if I'm okay, they've asked me if I've got any questions, but nobody at any time has said, oh well, she might not be able to do that, because of the PGCE, it's not even been something that's come into their heads, I don't think, which I'm really chuffed about, because even though I might feel that myself, I might feel, oh well, actually I'm still learning and all the rest of it, it gives me confidence to think that they've got confidence in me.

SARAH: When I started doing the foundation degree, I didn't have a PGCE.

HANNAH: No.

SARAH: It's the knowledge that you have, and it's the way you come across as well, and if you are, you know, you can learn to teach. And that's the thing, and that's what you're doing, you can learn what you have to teach them, if you see what I mean?

HANNAH: Yeah.

SARAH: So, we're prepared to take people who are holistically able, and that's what you are.

HANNAH: Yeah, and I think I've worked really hard on like my interpersonal skills over the years, but I think that comes with age as well, doesn't it?

SARAH: Yeah.

HANNAH: But I know, I'm able to have a conversation with somebody, and not upset anybody, or, but, you know, I'm able to integrate myself into teams, I'm able to do all that, and you know, I think that's a strength really. But yeah, I think that the highlight is being given all the opportunities I've been given here, to teach on the variety of courses that I've been able to teach on has been amazing, you know, to get Level 4, 5, as well as Entry 3, as well as special educational needs students.

SARAH: Yeah.

HANNAH: I'm really lucky, and I don't think, well, I know that nobody else on my course has had that breadth and depth of experience. So to me, that's been the best thing, I think. And obviously you. For the record.

SARAH: I'm not writing that down.

HANNAH: But you know, I think it's been brilliant.

SARAH: We've loved it.

HANNAH: So yeah.

SARAH: And yes, it's, and it's a journey, you know, it's a journey that continues, because it doesn't matter, you'll finish your PGCE, but you'll still be referring to professional standards, you'll still be referring to teacher standards, you'll still be, you know, liaising, reflecting, planning, all of those sorts of things, that's now the rest of your life.

HANNAH: Yeah.

SARAH: And grey hair.

HANNAH: Yeah, I've got that already.

SARAH: Okay, good. Anything else you want to say?

HANNAH: I don't think so.

SARAH: Coolio

HANNAH: All right.

SARAH: Well done. Is that okay? So do you want me to write this up?

HANNAH: Yeah.

Appendix 7 – Example transcript of an interview

Ellen – Interview 1

INTERVIEWER   And so my first question is, can you tell me a bit about your role here at the school and what you do?

ELLEN   Yes, practical bits of… I teach English and Social Science and I also… what's it called. In Norwegian it's called subject coordinator for English but, I mean, it's like head of the English department. And I'm also head of… what's it called? Class tutor. When you're responsible for… [break 00:00:39]. The sports programme.

INTERVIEWER   Oh, okay.

ELLEN   Yes, so that's my role basically.

INTERVIEWER   And how long have you been working here?

ELLEN   Since the school opened, that's almost ten years ago. But I've been a teacher for 26 years.

INTERVIEWER   Okay. And what's the school here like? Can you tell me a bit about it?

ELLEN   It's a vocational school which also offers general studies. We offer both. It's new. It's built according to some pedagogical principals. Like, that's why we have glass walls in a few classrooms. The idea was learner autonomy, you know… so, basically, we have classrooms that we can share and that we can use for like 30 minutes and then you put your students outside doing practical work or work with assignments and then… yes. It doesn't really work that well but that's beside the point. So that's… yes.

ELLEN   A thousand students.

ELLEN   Yes, age 16 to 19.

INTERVIEWER   And, yes, I was interested to hear about what your thoughts on those kind of pedagogical concepts and how they sort of actually happen in reality because it's quite different here to what I'm used to in England. So tell me a bit more about it.

ELLEN   Yes, I would imagine. No, I think the idea is that… Well, good in theory but doesn't perhaps work that well in practical terms because sometimes, you know, you need your class within a confined space. You need to have this class identity for once. But there are things that I think are brilliant about the school. The glass walls mean no teacher can close the door behind him or her and, you know, become this kind of private teacher doing whatever he or she wants. We are very transparent and that also helps students because we are always around them. We don't have a staff room. We eat together with our students. The door to the office is always open. No student is left alone. So there's quite a close relationship between teachers and students, which I think is really good.

[break 00:04:11 – mentions previous school]

ELLEN   Content and language integrated learning. So, I won't be teaching them electo… subject but I will join them as they work with their vocational things. When they build things or whatever. And, you know, try to transfer that into English. So, we discuss it in English and they know the names and they can talk about their occupation or what they're doing, in English.

And there's a good thing because very often in this type of school, students will have experiences that they'll bring with them that aren't always positive, you know, regarding these general subjects like English, Norwegian, Mathematics and things. So when I join their vocational teachers and we work together as a team and I show interest in and work with English in their… in the workshop. And it's a safe environment for them and I think it enhances learning. And motivation at least.

INTERVIEWER   So they're kind of getting on with their sort of… their vocational course and tasks and you're kind of going round and talking to them in English about what they're doing.

ELLEN   Yes, and they talk back to me and we, of course, we practice this then. We work with texts that are about their occupational or their… things they do.

INTERVIEWER   That's interesting because I think one of the challenges we face in further education and in colleges in England is lesson… it's compulsory for students to have lessons in English and Maths alongside their vocational classes. Usually what happens is that you'll have certain lessons timetabled per week so, you know, you'll go to a classroom and have your English lesson

ELLEN   It has been a great focus on that in Norway as well. So they've implemented a programme called which in English I think is Common Core Subjects Vocationalisation and Relevance. So there's been a great focus on these kind of things as well because we have larger… a rather large drop out percentage from our vocational education programmes.

So, yes, but I also teach the education programme for sports and physical education. I teach English there and that's completely different again, you know, I have five lessons a week in a normal classroom with glass walls. And that is when Maria will be joining me so she won't be doing her English up here.

INTERVIEWER   I see. So that's… so they're separate sessions and their focus… does it still have a kind of emphasis on the subject, the vocational subject?

ELLEN   Yes, it does, but not as much.

INTERVIEWER   I see, okay, great. Thanks. So you've been working at this school since it opened and how does it compare to other schools that you've worked at in the past?

ELLEN   I love this school. It's… well, first of all, it's new. It has… it's light. We don't have any kind of tagging or students doing, you know, bad things to the school. And I think that shows they appreciate it as well. Everything works here [laughs]. The door closes, the lights work, it has ice tea equipment. So that is good, yes.

INTERVIEWER   Yes, so, practically the infrastructure is really good. And what about the culture of the school? Do the staff interact and…?

ELLEN   I don't know, we are quite like little islands kind of because we have different departments. Like, this is the electoral department and there is a department for building and construction, one for health. And we don't really get to mingle much because, you know, it's a busy day. So that is… I find that a bit frustrating because being a teacher of English I move between these places.
So that's… and probably, we don't have a lot of time to discuss our subjects, you know, being in a community of English teachers because we're always in different places. But it's a place where people feel safe. We have good leadership. They expect things but they make it clear what they expect, they don't meddle too much in what we do, which I like .

INTERVIEWER   That's a plus, yes.

ELLEN   So, yes, it's a good place to work.

INTERVIEWER   And how many staff are there approximately?

ELLEN   There's 260, I think.

INTERVIEWER   Okay great, thanks. And tell me about how you first came to be a teacher. Why did you decide…

ELLEN   It was a coincidence. I never decided it, I just kind of slipped into it. I finished my studies. I studied at the university in
[break 00:09:50 – further details about her studies].

And basically studied things I was interested in and then found out they didn't give me an occupation or a job.

INTERVIEWER   What were those things?

ELLEN   I studied English, French and Social Science but with a focus on third-world… on the third world, yes. For five years, six years. And so, you know, what can I do? I applied for a teaching course and found out I loved it so I stayed ever since.

INTERVIEWER   So did you, in terms of teacher training then, did you get a teaching post and then do some kind of teacher training afterwards?

ELLEN   Yes. So I think I did that in my second year… yes. So I had some experience as teacher before I did my PPU which was half a year of teacher training programme. But I continued studying and I've just finished a Master's in]. So the English education.

INTERVIEWER   Okay, great. And what was your first teaching job that you got?

ELLEN   It was a school in … which is kind of similar to this one. And I've been teaching full time ever since.

INTERVIEWER   And you were teaching English?

ELLEN   Yes. English.

INTERVIEWER   And what was your experience like of the PPU course?

ELLEN   Honestly? Best forgotten .

INTERVIEWER   Okay, why's that?

ELLEN   But again that was in 1991, 92. So it's probably changed a lot. But I was really looking forward to doing my PPU because I thought, okay, now I will have theoretical foundations for what I do. I will learn something new, I will become a better teacher. I had all these hopes and aspirations for that. And I also thought I would have lecturers that would be good at, you know, communicating. And that didn't happen. But that was at the university.
Then of course I had a teacher practice at… for six weeks at a different school where I like to think I was a student teacher and I had a mentor. And she was very good. So what I learned, I learned from her. And not at the school.

INTERVIEWER   Yes, I see. And what was, because I was going to ask you about that anyway, what was your mentor like and why do you think that she was good?

ELLEN   I think she was… first of all, she was very competent in her subject, she was knowledgeable. She had worked for a long time so she had experience handling these practical matters that we think about. And she left me… she was very clear in her aims and ambitions and what she expected from me and from herself. We didn't have a lot… we didn't have a lot of these mentoring talks, not really. But, you know, we discussed sometimes and I think what she did was, she gave me a lot of responsibility.
And then she discussed my choices afterwards and challenged me on my choices which I thought was brilliant because she made me think and helped me connect what I did to the purpose. Like, what is the purpose of this learning. How does learning happen when you do it like this. She made me think. So she was rather strict.

INTERVIEWER   Was she?

ELLEN   Yes, . But that was good. I mean, yes.

INTERVIEWER   Yes, that's interesting. Okay, great. And can we talk about the five or however many you came up with? So these are kind of either turning points or significant moments or phases or people or critical instance, that sort of thing. So, yes, you can perhaps just start talking me through what you came up with.

ELLEN   Okay, that was a sort of difficult question you know. I thought, what's this and then I thought can I even identify five turning points or… yes, things that have influenced me. So just to focus on what has shaped me or what I believe to have shaped me as a teacher. So I picked out five things.

INTERVIEWER   Okay, brilliant.

ELLEN   I'll take you through them rather quickly. So, first one, it's chronological, you know, running chronologically. So first one I think was my grandfather. He was a Jewish doctor and he was 74 when I was born and he couldn't play with his grand-daughter. He was basically too old. So what he did was, every Sunday, he brought me picture books and I can remember this from when I was probably

273

just a couple of years old. And he would give me these picture books and say, go read Christine.

And I sat there reading and he wouldn't interfere until I'd finished and then he would sit down and he would ask me, "What do you think?". So he started already when I was that young, as sort of already… forcing me to reflect, forcing me to voice my thoughts. And then he would engage in discussion with me, you know…

INTERVIEWER   Giving you autonomy.

ELLEN   Yes. Exactly

INTERVIEWER   From the beginning.

ELLEN   So I think what it's told me was the importance of, yes, like you said, autonomy but also experiencing these images and… yes. The importance of respect for each other's experiences of literature through images. And it was transactional and in a sense, you know. So aesthetic reading. And that has taught me that there are many ways of learning, many ways of reading, many ways of experiencing things.

And I think it also taught me the importance of reflection which I try to communicate to my students. And the importance of dialogue which I also try to transfer in my teaching. And it's not always successful you know, but it's part of my ambition as a teacher.

INTERVIEWER   Just to pause on that because it interests me, it's a challenge isn't it, I think, to set up those dialogues sometimes. And can you think of anything that facilitates it or hinders the process?

ELLEN   I think it needs to connect to… whatever you do needs to connect to the students' sense of relevance. It needs to be relevant to them. You can't just say, you need to do this because it's important because you might get it in an exam or something. You need… and if it doesn't, you need to kind of make them fake it until they make it, kind of thing. Kind of trick them into it.

And I think relevance and motivation isn't just connected to their vocational classes, in the example of the students here in this department. It has to do with what touches them in their life as well, where they are now. So, yes, that was one thing.

INTERVIEWER   Yes, that's great.

ELLEN   And then I'll just jump 20 years ahead. No, no ten years ahead perhaps. I started writing. So I've been a show jumper at the [break 00:16:13].

I'm still proud, you know. It's a long time ago but that taught me to be goal-orientated, very individualistic and very competitive. I'm probably not so good at sharing but I do that in my classes.

I'm ambitious and because I don't write anymore, this sense of ambition and competitiveness, I transfer to my students. My hopes and ambitions for them. And I try to communicate that. And that's not about grades, it's not about all of them getting sixes. It's about trying your best and, you know, yes. So that… that was. So we're from the seventies up to the nineties now.

[break 00:18:03 – mentions personal issues]

One of the guys said, I really… I was really… what did he say. It surprised him that one of his classmates that he had always thought to be a bit stupid because he was dyslexic and he couldn't really read and therefore he couldn't read literature. And suddenly they were discussing at the same level.

They were discussing quite advanced concepts and ideas in these graphic novels. So he gained respect for his fellow student and vice-versa. So that was interesting.

INTERVIEWER   That sounds amazing, yes.

ELLEN   And of course we didn't read Donald Duck… I mean, serious graphic novels .

INTERVIEWER   Yes, that's really interesting. And that's so great that it's the kind of thing you can take forward and keep working with. Okay, great. Well thank you so much for sharing those notes, it's really great. I have a couple of questions now specifically about mentoring. So it's changing direction but can you tell me about how you came to be a mentor for the student teacher that's about to start? Were you asked to do it?

ELLEN   No, I wasn't. Well, I was, but not personally. The school is… collaborates with the university so we take on PPU students. And I've never done it before. I don't really know why, I think I'm a bit like… I had this notion that you had to be an expert teacher to become a mentor. And I don't think I am because I very often leave my classroom thinking, this was a shitty lesson or this didn't work and oh my god what am I doing.

But then I realised that perhaps that is what could make me into a good mentor, that I never stop reflecting on it, that I never stop trying to become better. Analysing what I do. And then I spoke to a former colleague of mine who is now working at the university and she said, great demand because there are so many students who need mentors in schools now.

And since I had finished this Master's in didactics, I thought, okay, of course I need to do this. So I was quite… I'm looking forward to it. It's something new for me. What I find difficult now is that I don't really know anything about it and I haven't tried it and I don't have any kind of theoretical foundation for what I'm saying. I'm lacking the words. I don't have the proper terms to really think about it and discuss it so, yes.

INTERVIEWER   Well, that kind of relates to my next question which is have you had any preparation for the role? So, have there been any meetings or have you been given any information about being a mentor?

ELLEN   No. Only practical pieces of information. And no-one has really checked if I'm suitable either .

ELLEN   I don't know if they do that.

INTERVIEWER   So, you had this discussion and… with your…

ELLEN   With my former colleague.

INTERVIEWER   With your former colleague and…

ELLEN   And then I thought, yes, I should do this.

INTERVIEWER	Yes, and then what happened?

ELLEN	And then there is a co-ordinator here at school. Her name is Magda Olsen. And she is, you know, the liaison between our school and the university and she sent out a mail, anyone interested, please sign up. We signed up. We said what kind of subjects we had and she sent that to Martha at the university. And then they just kind of give you a student.

| ELLEN | So that's how it goes. And we had one kind of informational meeting a couple of weeks ago and I was hoping, because it was my first time, that I would get some kind of… I mean, not a course but at least give me some pointers as to… Is there any literature I can read up on.
But there was nothing, it was just practical. They are starting a formal education, a course, and they are starting it I think in January. But that has not been the tradition at [break 00:30:42]. So a course which gives you, I think it was, fifteen study points or credits. Yes. |
| --- | --- |

INTERVIEWER	So it's a course in how to…

ELLEN	Mentoring, yes.

INTERVIEWER	Mentoring. So that starts in January?

ELLEN	Yes, but that is only if you would like to attend. It's not like something you have to do. So I'm guessing most of the mentors are just teachers doing it as best they can.

INTERVIEWER	And will you do the course?

ELLEN	Yes, I'm considering it. And I don't like the idea of an exam at the end because, again, I'm kind of like, no, please, I don't want to.

INTERVIEWER	Right, okay. So there's an exam you have to take?

ELLEN	Yes. So we'll see.

INTERVIEWER	Yes, sure. And what's your sort of perception of what the role of a mentor consists of?

ELLEN	I think it's very complex. I'm thinking a mentor will have to be many things. You will have to, in some ways, be an expert in the sense that you… she will follow me around for a week. And I'm thinking, okay, we will discuss this experience afterwards and she what she thinks . But, you know, the… Do you call them mentees?

INTERVIEWER	Yes, we do.

ELLEN	Okay, the mentee, she is young. She's 23 years old. She's only been studying for two years I think so she doesn't have this kind of experience in handling things. So I need to use my experience and make that transparent to her, I'm thinking, in a practical sense. You know, what goes on in the classroom, all the organisational things, all that stuff. And that is just one part of it. I think a mentor

needs to be someone who asks the questions and doesn't necessarily give the answers.

So I'm hoping that I could help… I can be a critical friend and also be someone that encourages her to reflect on the choices she makes and what's going on, rather than saying, this went wrong, this is how you should do it. But I have, of course, I've been working as a teacher for 26 years. I have a tool box and I would like to share it with her, my pedagogical tool box.

But… yes. And, what else? A sparring partner. Emotional support, of course, will also be a part of this mentoring role, I'm thinking. Someone who shows or helps you through the daily routine itself of being at school. All those things. So it's a complex role to have. There is also this kind of… there is an element of assessment in there because half way through this period we need to give feedback to the university of how is she doing.

And then at the end, we need to write a comment and saying… and we need to assess if she's suitable or not. And that does something, you know with the power relationship. And I want that to be some kind of formative assessment throughout. Not like a judgemental assessment, you know I'm saying, you're not suited or this is not good or you should do this.

It has to be assessment for learning like we do with our students. Formative assessment. So try to give our feed-up and not feedback… feed forward. Yes. I can't come up with anything else.

ELLEN   I came up with some because I thought you might ask me that.

INTERVIEWER   Right, yes. That's a pretty full answer and I wonder where those ideas that you have about mentoring and the complex role of mentoring… where have those ideas come from?

ELLEN   I think it's not that different from being a teacher, you know? It's what I would think of with my role as a teacher. I mean, this is more a chief… she's more my peer, of course. But… yes.

ELLEN   And also, I've been discussing with my colleagues who have been mentors before. So I've asked them what this involves. How should I go about this? What is important? And they all give me different answers.

ELLEN   It's really interesting. I could almost anticipate it, which one would be focused on teaching them things. You know, you teach her this, you should tell her that. You need to make sure that… and some are very focused on the sense of… the notion of class leadership. That you must… you know, how she organises, how she approaches the class. But, yes, put together those ideas are very good .

So I kept running around, taking notes, talking to them. I also asked a new colleague who has just done this herself, you know, been a student… been a mentee. And I said, what was the best thing your mentor did for you. And she answered me very honestly, she said… oh, I've forgotten it. Never mind. But that was interesting because I got the other perspective from her.

INTERVIEWER   Yes, that's a great question to ask someone. I'll remember that. I might use… I might start using that question . And I'll start speaking to a few people. Okay, great. Well those are all of my questions that I have. Do you think… is there

anything else that you think is important that we haven't touched on? About your background or mentoring?

Obviously we'll have our follow-up interview after the teaching placement so we can talk more. But at this stage do you think there's anything that's important that we haven't touched on?

ELLEN   No. No, I don't think so.

INTERVIEWER   Okay, great. Well, thank you very much.

ELLEN   You're welcome.

Appendix 8 – Screenshot of NVivo coding for a mentoring portrait

Nodes — Search Project

Name	Files	References
Kari and Heidi	0	0
Different teaching styles	1	1
Ideas around teaching	1	3
Mentee analyses learners' behaviour	2	5
Mentee asks question	1	2
Mentee describes incident from class	2	26
Mentee highlights gaps in knowledge	1	1
Mentee identifies strengths or areas to de	2	37
Mentee offers reasoning	2	27
Mentee reconginses growth	1	2
Mentor asks leading question	1	7
Mentor asks question to provoke analysis	2	35
Mentor confirms mentee's analysis	1	3
Mentor gives advice	1	16
Mentor highlights priorities for mentee	1	1
Mentor listening skills	2	5
Mentor offers evaualtive comment	2	31
Mentor offers reassurance	1	6
Mentor offers their observation of what ha	2	43
Mentor provides further information on le	2	5
Mentor raises uncertainty	2	11
Mentor sets the agenda	2	3

Mentee describes incident from ✕

<Files\\Kari and Heidi meeting 1> - § 11 references coded [5.02% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 1.07% Coverage

Also, Marcus came and asked me if he could go to the toilet and I said yes, because I also thought he said he wanted to get a book. When he came back he didn't have the book so he had the book at his desk. And I said no to [Svane 00:02:2?, ?? ???? didn't get to go to the toilet, but Marcus did two minutes before.

Reference 2 - 0.93% Coverage

Yes, so he answered in Norwegian and then I wanted him to answer in English, so come up with a synonym, or to explain it in English and then they said, someone said 'effective'. So that is okay but it is a bit ambiguous, kind of. I wanted them to use able or skilful but…

Reference 3 - 0.25% Coverage

HEIDI: Yes, I said something like and try to write it down or I just…

Reference 4 - 0.28% Coverage

I tried to listen to each couple I think they did what they were supposed to do.

Appendix 9 – Screenshot of an NVivo matrix query

Matrix Criteria | Run Query ▾ | Save Results...

Search in | Files & Externals | Selected Items... | Selected Folders... | Coding at rows | And ▾ | columns

Rows

Nodes\\Developmental mentoring moves
Nodes\\Developmental mentoring moves\Active listening demonstrated by mentor
Nodes\\Developmental mentoring moves\Emotional responses to teaching

Columns

Files\\Chloe and Nicky meeting 1
Files\\Ellen and Liv meeting 1
Files\\Jon and Henrik meeting 1

	A : Chloe and Nicky me...	B : Ellen and Liv meetin...	C : Jon and Henrik meet...	D : Tor and F
20 : Mentee sets the agenda	1	0	0	
21 : Mentee shares emotional response to teaching	0	0	0	
22 : Mentee suggests own solutions	2	0	0	
23 : Mentor asks conceptual question or offers th...	2	12	7	
24 : Mentor asks mentee about forthcoming lesson	0	0	5	
25 : Mentor asks mentee about teaching placement	0	0	3	
26 : Mentor asks mentee what they need	1	0	0	
27 : Mentor asks probing question	5	10	0	
28 : Mentor asks questions about ITE course	0	0	12	
29 : Mentor asks questions about mentee's backg...	0	0	4	
30 : Mentor asks what mentte has learn	0	0	0	
31 : Mentor asks what went well or not well	1	4	0	
22 : Mentor offers encouragement	4	0	2	