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**Specialist Classroom Teacher Mentoring
and Knowledge Generativity:**

*Exploring trust, support, challenge,
risk-taking, and confidence.*

A thesis

submitted in partial fulfilment
of the requirements for the degree

of

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at

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by

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Abstract

The Specialist Classroom Teacher (SCT) position involves a mentoring function that is an integral part of mentoring and induction programmes for teacher-mentees in secondary and area schools in New Zealand. SCT-mentor and teacher-mentee relationships should be confidential and high trust relationships and should involve professional growth for each teacher-mentee as an increase in capacity.

This small scale qualitative study involves three purposefully selected cases each of which comprises a SCT-mentor working collaboratively with a teacher-mentee. Challenge, for professional growth as generativity of new practice and/or knowledge for the mentee, should be evident within the mentoring relationship.

This study begins by examining documentation on the SCT position and how the position relates to mentoring for generativity. A conceptual model provides a focus for the review of the literature because it identifies some of the key concepts initially considered to be central to mentor-mentee interactions. These concepts include trust, support, risk-taking, and challenge and to these is added confidence because this concept emerged in the data.

Primary data is collected from two naturally occurring mentoring meetings involving each SCT-mentor and teacher-mentee only. This data is analysed and used to formulate questions for one semi-structured interview involving the researcher and each participant pair for each case. Participant perceptions of the concepts and concept interactions within each relationship are sought from interpretive and phenomenological approaches within the interviews.

Whereas there is a major focus on support as a mentoring function in the literature, this study found that trust is the basis of each mentoring relationship and that trust underpins the generative process. Discussion centres on the relationship between trust and support, and significantly confidence emerged as a concept that leads to risk-taking behaviour. This emergence of confidence

necessitated a revision of the conceptual model presented in the conclusion. Some key points in the discussion and conclusion are: appropriate challenge, static and futuristic support, fields of support, reflective dialogue using tools such as parallel conversations , and realisations pertaining to the ‘conscious competence learning model’.

This study suggests a shift in focus in the literature from support functions of SCT-mentors to trust building functions because trust-based mentoring relationships are more likely to endure, and are more likely to underpin greater risk-taking behaviours. This study questions the notion that ‘deepest trust’ through value congruence is the deepest form of trust, suggesting that ‘acceptance of different values’ represents a ‘highest form of trust’.

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To my children Bernadette, Christopher, Rebecca and Stephanie, and my grandchildren, Ella, Jacob, Alyssa, Hayley, Harlynn, Shay and Zoe, when I see confidence in your eyes it is magic. There lies trust, acceptance and love.

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Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 Study focus: knowledge generation

This study focuses on knowledge generation for a mentee in a two person mentoring relationship involving a Specialist Classroom Teacher (SCT) as the mentor, and a teacher-mentee. Participant teacher-mentees are either Provisionally Registered Teachers (PRTs) or teachers who have recently gained full registration status having served two years as PRTs. There are unique features of the SCT role, outlined in section 1.2 that position it favourably to facilitate the teacher-mentee in the generation of knowledge. An SCT and teacher-mentee relationship therefore potentially represents a fertile field of discovery to inform this research inquiry which seeks,

understanding of individual perceptions (of the SCT-mentor and teacher-mentee) of trust, support, challenge, and risk-taking in knowledge generation in an interpersonal mentoring relationship.

The literature surrounding these four human inter-relational concepts of trust, support, challenge and risk-taking is reviewed in Chapter Two. These concepts form the key interactional concepts that are the basis of a proposed 3-D model of the mentoring generative effect introduced in section 1.5 of this introduction. A fifth concept, that of realisations, is also briefly examined (see section 2.7) in relation to the ‘conscious competence learning model’ and in particular, the place of mentoring in this model, which it is suggested may need to be reconsidered.

This introduction outlines the SCT and PRT positions through an analysis of online documentation available from websites representing the three stakeholders in the SCT position, plus additional online documentation. The three stakeholders are the New Zealand Ministry of Education (MOE), the Post Primary Teachers Association (PPTA) and the New Zealand School Trustees Association (NZSTA). Additional sources include the New Zealand Teachers Council (NZTC), and Ward (2007) who completed a review of the SCT position, prepared for the MOE. In referring to four documents from these websites used extensively in this report, the following abbreviations are used:

Guidelines for the appointment of Specialist Classroom Teachers (SCT) in Secondary Schools (MOE, PPTA, & NZSTA, 2007). Abbreviation ‘SCT Guidelines’.

Draft guidelines for induction and mentoring programmes and for mentor teacher development in Aotearoa New Zealand (NZTC, 2009). Abbreviation - ‘Induction and Mentoring Draft’.

Review of the Specialist Classroom Teacher Pilot full report (2006): Executive summary and introduction to the report (Ward, 2007). Abbreviation - the ‘Review’.

Specialist Classroom Teacher Specialist Teacher Allowance (MOE, 2011). Abbreviation - ‘SCT Allowance’.

1.2 Background to the SCT and PRT positions

Important dimensions of the SCT and PRT positions contribute to the context of SCT mentoring which is the type of mentoring examined in the case studies within this research. An example of one of these dimensions is the non-hierarchical nature of the SCT position, and understanding this helps with an understanding of the collaborative nature of SCT-PRT relationships. Each position is now treated in turn.

1.2.1 SCT

The SCT position was established in secondary and area schools in New Zealand in 2006 as a one year pilot scheme but continues under agreement of the MOE, the PPTA and the NZSTA. Mentoring is a specific function of the SCT role as outlined in the SCT Guidelines, contributing to teacher development as explained: “The aim of the SCT role is to contribute to the enhancement of such quality teaching practices in all schools by providing support for professional growth of other teachers in the school” (MOE et al., 2007, p. 2).

The SCT Allowance document adds there is “a particular focus on mentoring and supporting beginning teachers” (MOE, 2011, p. 1). Part of the role of an SCT is to mentor PRTs and other teachers, and in so doing provide support for professional

learning, though it is acknowledged mentoring represents but one function amongst others of the SCT role.

Established in response to the recommendation made by the Ministerial Taskforce on Secondary Remuneration (2003) the SCT position is a unique position because of its focus on the development of professional learning particularly as it applies to classroom practice. Whereas other senior positions such as principal, deputy principal, and assistant principal have tended towards managerial functions rather than classroom practice (MOE et al., 2007) the SCT position represents a career pathway to assist in “the retention of experienced teachers who wish to focus on professional teaching practice”(MOE et al., 2007, p. 2). The creation of the SCT position therefore represents a tangible step toward valuing classroom practice as a career choice.

The uniqueness of the SCT position is further emphasised within three broad areas, the first of which is ‘eligibility criteria’. To be appointed as an SCT, an applicant must meet specific eligibility criteria (refer the Secondary Teachers’ Collective Agreement 2011-2013, PPTA, 2011). The focus of these criteria is a high level of classroom experience and expertise. Criteria highlighting this experience and expertise include three successful attestations against the experienced teacher standards or overseas equivalent and a minimum of six years total teaching experience (PPTA, 2011).

‘Terms and conditions’ is a second broad area that emphasises the uniqueness of the SCT position. ‘Terms and conditions’ include a time allowance (up to 0.32 fulltime teacher equivalent in secondary schools with rolls of 1200 students or more, or 0.16 in schools with smaller rolls). A remuneration entitlement equivalent to two management units per annum is available along with reimbursement of up to \$1000 for study fees at post graduate level, all funded by the Ministry of Education. These time and monetary allowances represent a substantial investment in the SCT position underlining the value placed on it. The time allowance is critical to the successful performance of the SCT role. It allows an SCT time within normal teaching hours to observe the practice of teacher-

mentees in the classroom, and observation of practice is an essential part of the mentoring process.

The third broad area is a ‘focus on the SCT role’. Schools are asked to minimise other responsibilities of the SCT¹, and the appointee must relinquish other salary units that carry responsibility² (MOE et al., 2007) so that they focus on the SCT role. This later measure effectively removes the SCT from the school hierarchy drawing the two comments in the Review “there appeared to be little formal recognition of the importance of the role or of its place in the school hierarchy” and further “there were issues surrounding the status - or lack of in many instances – accorded the SCT role” (Ward, 2007, p. 2). This appears a double-edged sword. A lack of hierarchical position can position the mentor alongside the mentee facilitating a more collaborative relationship than may occur within a hierarchical relationship, collaborative mentoring being conducive to establishment and continuation of a successful mentoring relationship (Awaya et al., 2003). Conversely, the Review acknowledges there is “a clear need for both status and recognition of the role” (Ward, 2007, p. 1). This status may give credibility to the SCT in the role if formally recognising the expertise required, and expertise is essential to the development of trust (MOE et al., 2007).

The development of trust is considered in detail in the literature review in Chapter Two. At this point it is sufficient to note that the relationship between an SCT and their colleagues should be one that is “high-trust and confidential” (MOE et al., 2007, p. 3). Confidentiality is facilitated by the relinquishment of management units by the SCT because this separates the SCT from positions concerned with “appraisal, performance management or competency judgements” (MOE et al., 2007, p. 3) as required in the SCT Guidelines. These positions, being concerned with the attestation process, carry elements of external control over the PRT, and external control is a feature of co-operation (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995) rather than trust. Unit relinquishment may also better position the mentoring pair for collaboration and trust development by lessening any power imbalance.

¹ aside from classroom teaching which must be at least twelve hours per week to ensure the SCT continues in their own classroom practice.

² Specific exceptions apply (see MOE et al., 2007).

1.2.2 PRT

A PRT is a newly qualified teacher who is required to apply to the NZTC for a practising certificate to teach, upon which provisional status is granted. Provisional status normally applies for a two year period during which the PRT is required to undergo two years of advice and guidance as part of their induction programme. A PRT has a reduced teaching load with the expectation he/she will participate in a programme of development towards recommendation for full registration. To gain full registration a PRT must meet the Registered Teacher Criteria as specified by the NZTC (2010).

Mentoring is an essential ingredient of the progress of a PRT towards full registration as outlined in the Induction and Mentoring Draft which explains a high quality mentoring programme as “the provision of an experienced colleague who is skilled and resourced with time, recognition and training to guide, support, give feedback to and facilitate evidence informed, reflective learning conversations with the PRT” (NZTC, 2009, p. 1). Such conversations are consistent with the vision statement for induction and mentoring programmes being educative in focus for individuals in the profession, therefore contributing to progressive improvement of the profession as a whole in terms of contributing to equitable learning outcomes for all learners (NZTC, 2009).

Whereas the focus in this study is on mentoring and the SCT-mentor and teacher-mentee relationship, it is acknowledged there are colleagues other than the SCT who may take greater roles in the induction programme of PRTs including the principal, a PRT co-ordinator, and/or a supervising teacher, and some of these roles may include a mentoring function. However it is the focus on mentoring along with the non-hierarchical positioning that sets the SCT role apart from these others.

1.3 The value of SCT mentoring

SCT mentoring is valued firstly because it offers support primarily for the mentee, (and in a reciprocal way, also for the mentor). Support is considered in more detail in the literature review however it is noted here that participant-pairs involved in

this study were selected on the basis that they were working collaboratively, so that support of development of professional practice should be evident. Support in the relationship therefore could be expected to contribute to knowledge generativity surrounding practice and therefore of a change process, rather than for example affirming the status quo. A selection of functions from the 'Aims and Objectives of the SCT Role' (MOE et al., 2007) highlight the importance of support for professional growth through change. Two such aims read "supporting and assisting beginning teachers to develop and demonstrate effective teaching practices" and "supporting and assisting teachers to expand their knowledge, skills and attributes to increase teaching effectiveness" (MOE et al., 2007, p. 2). In performing these support functions, collaborative SCT-mentor and teacher-mentee pairs are well positioned to inform this research inquiry.

Secondly, mentors are valued if they act as change agents. Change may occur through challenge by the mentor which is acknowledged as the second role of a mentor of PRTs (NZTC, 2009) or through encouragement of the mentee to self-challenge. So whereas a role of mentoring is "Facilitating learning conversations with the PRT that challenge and support them" (NZTC, 2009, p. 4) the act of 'facilitating learning conversations' leaves open the possibilities of both mentor-initiated and mentee-initiated challenge of either party. It is noted that "SCTs themselves have benefited hugely in terms of their professional growth" (Ward, 2007, p. 2) which indicates reciprocity occurs in the mentoring relationship surrounding challenge, though it is challenge of the mentee that is a focus of this study.

Additional reasons for valuing the work of mentors also include advocating for teacher-mentees in terms of their entitlements, leading professional learning groups and so on. These are not examined in detail in this study which instead focuses on generativity in relation to professional practice specifically within a mentor-mentee relationship.

The focus on generativity related to professional practice limited the number of possible SCTs available to this study. Many SCTs were working with mentees who were relatively inexperienced and for whom the SCT acted as a supporter of

the status quo or a problem solver, rather than a facilitator of development of professional practice. This limited number of possible SCTs available is commented on in section 4.1.

1.4 Mentoring heutagogy, autonomy and professional teaching identity

Heutagogy, as derived by Hase and Kenyon (2000) is defined as “the study of self-determined learning” (p. 3). In being self-determined it may be a more appropriate term than pedagogy or andragogy because it connotes with autonomy and individual professional teaching identity (PTI) more so than the terms pedagogy and andragogy. The term ‘mentoring pedagogy’ is used in the Induction and Mentoring Draft even though this is generally regarded as referring to the teaching of children and andragogy as the teaching of adults. Hase and Kenyon (2000) note pedagogy and andragogy are viewed as teaching by traditional means assuming the “individual mind is a clean slate...and learning has to be organised by others who make the appropriate associations and generalisations on behalf of the learner” (p. 3). While views of learning and therefore teaching pedagogy and andragogy have moved beyond what Hase and Kenyon (2000) describe to include ideas such as social constructivism, nevertheless in drawing on research including student-centred learning approaches from Rogers (1969), and double-loop learning from Argyris and Schon (1996) there appears merit in the use of their term heutagogy because of the clear focus on self-determination and on the learner rather than the teacher.

In being self-determined by the learner, in this case primarily the mentee, a heutagogical approach to mentoring is consistent with two key principles of the Induction and Mentoring Draft, firstly that programmes should be “based on the aspirations and needs of the teacher” and secondly “should develop teacher agency for their own professional learning” (NZTC, 2009, p. 2). These two principles contain elements of autonomy, and autonomy relates to individual PTI which is described by participants within their study as a process of integration of personal and professional sides to becoming a good teacher (Bayard, Meijer, & Verloop, 2004). In being autonomous an individual sees the locus of control as attributed to oneself rather than an external source and if this is associated with

success it leads to greater effort for success and an increase in self-efficacy (Smith, 2005). Conversely Smith (2005) claims an external locus of control and decreasing autonomy can lead to feelings of powerlessness, reduced effort and less self-efficacy. So self-determination, apparent in a heutagogical approach to learning, combined with collaborative mentoring, represent favourable conditions for the development of an individual PTI. Smith (2005) refers to Maslow's fifth and highest level of self-actualization as the need for continuous mental growth and development and draws on the work of Hollyforde and Whiddett (2002) in relation to achievement theory asserting three conditions are necessary for self-actualization. These are: "1. The activity is one that the individual wishes to undertake. 2. The individual must regard the outcome as likely to be positive. 3. The outcome must have value to that individual" (Smith, 2005, p. 211).

Bayard et al. (2004) recognise the 'professional side' in PTI development, and Smith (2005) notes learning for a mentee is socially situated, referring to the term reciprocal determinism in which both individual and environment affect each other. So whereas from the individual perspective, the social environment is a key ingredient in the individual PTI process, it is the individual that is of prime consideration, particularly in one-on-one mentoring. This focus on the individual resonates well with the vision from the Induction and Mentoring Draft to support "professionally engaged teachers committed to on-going inquiry into their own teaching" (NZTC, 2009, p. 2). Socially situating the mentoring relationship, combined with development of professional practice and PTI for individuals, who are the constituents of the social situation should contribute to progressive improvement of the profession about which the Induction and Mentoring Draft notes "the profession will progressively improve its ability to provide equitable learning outcomes for all learners" (NZTC, 2009, p. 2).

The preceding views expressed in this section resonate well with the Megginson and Clutterbuck (2005) description of mentoring (as distinct from coaching). Their description is "Mentoring relates primarily to the identification and nurturing of potential for the whole person. It can be a long term relationship, where the goals may change but are always set by the learner. The learner owns the goals and the process. Feedback comes from within the mentee – the mentor

helps them to develop insight and understanding through intrinsic observation (i.e. becoming more aware of their own experiences)” (p. 4). It is nevertheless acknowledged the degree of each aspect of this description, as examples the length of relationship, and the amount of mentor intrinsic observation, will vary from relationship to relationship.

1.5 Personal interest and experience

I have served in three secondary schools in middle management positions and in my teaching years my primary focus was on classroom practice. I gained pleasure from the successes of my colleagues and of the students with whom we interacted. Much of my attention focused on the learning process, particularly as it related to actively involving students in their own learning in my subject area of expertise, science. In the later years of my practice, particularly as a head of faculty with responsibility for staff within the faculty I became increasingly interested in faculty staff and their development, both personally and professionally. It was this interest in my colleagues that lead me to apply for the SCT position, a position to which I was appointed in 2006 in the pilot year, and to which I was re-appointed for 2007 and 2008. In the pilot year I attended the training conference for SCTs and incorporated aspects of research presented at this conference into my mentoring practice. These aspects included the need to develop rapport at the onset of the mentoring relationship (Megginson & Clutterbuck, 1995) and incorporation of support and challenge in mentoring (Daloz, 1999).

During one mentoring episode in 2008 with a PRT, I remember making a statement similar to the following ‘I noticed your questioning’. I recall seeing the PRTs eyes light up and the exact words spoken. They were “I’ve just had an epiphany”. Those words stayed with me and caused me to ponder over them. I wondered what the conditions were that allowed an epiphany or a realisation to occur. It was this moment that was instrumental in the initiation of this journey of inquiry.

In 2009 I completed a University of Waikato post graduate paper ‘Developing Educational Leadership: Coaching and Mentoring’ and in my literature review I

examined support and challenge in mentoring because they seemed to relate to the epiphany experience. In this review I examined Daloz's (1999) two dimensional model of support and challenge and looked at Tang's (2003) additions to this model as shown in Figure 1.1.

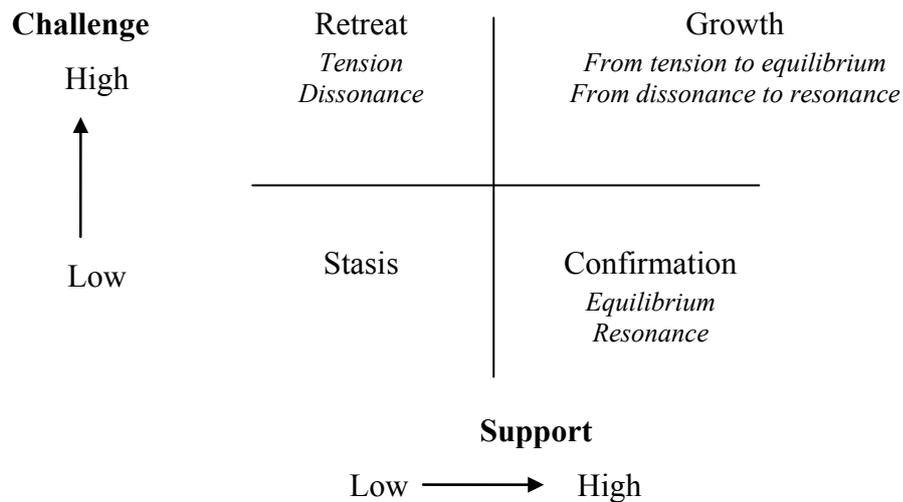


Figure 1.1 Daloz's model (2-D) of support and challenge, italics show additions by Tang 2003)

Daloz's (1999) model posed questions to me. Who is supporting who? Who is the challenger? What is it that allows in one situation, a challenge to be taken up, while in another a challenge is shied away from? How are the mentor and the mentee viewed in this model and why are they viewed like this? These are questions among others that form a significant part of this inquiry.

In trying to establish a framework that may help explain how mentoring may contribute to the generativity of knowledge for mentees I decided to depict a 3-D model as shown in Figure 1.2.

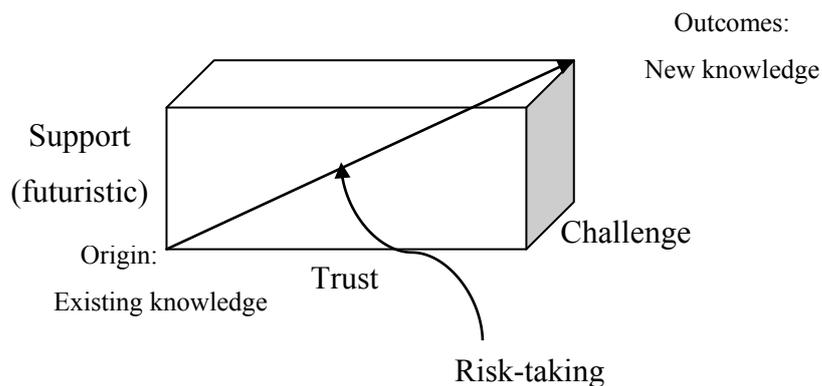


Figure 1.2 Proposed 3-D model of a mentoring generative effect

The model proposes places for each of trust, support, challenge and risk-taking in generativity. The view I adopted is that support (dependent variable) must be built on trust (independent variable) so these form the y and x axes respectively. Without challenge high support in a high trust state will not lead to new knowledge, but will simply leave a mentee as receiving support and trusting the mentor. Challenge provides the stimulus for movement, and movement may occur through risk-taking. Challenge and risk-taking are viewed as separate processes and may involve different parties if the mentor initiates challenge and the mentor engages in risk-taking, or the same party if the mentee self-challenges. Challenge is therefore proposed as the Z axis making the model three dimensional. Risk-taking forms the diagonal on the model and represents the pathway from the current knowledge of the mentee labelled as the origin, to the new knowledge state. This pathway is proposed as the generative pathway.

The concepts in this model are fundamental to mentoring relationships and provide a focus for this research. The model represents some of the knowledge I bring to this study as the researcher. However it is recognised that a 3-D model such as that proposed cannot be proven in a small scale study such as this, and while there is the suggestion of a cause and effect situation, the complex nature of human interactions are at best likely to have a degree of predictive validity. I am also mindful that it is the research participants' perceptions that are sought. Therefore there should be openness to the possibility of other concepts coming to

surface from the participants, and that participant views on all concepts may bring new insights through their different views.

This research, rather than attempting to eliminate any researcher bias through the knowledge I bring, recognises it as ‘experiential knowledge’ (Maxwell, 2005) that forms part of the perspective from which I viewed this study. In recognising participants’ as potential sources of new information, it is necessary to ensure my experiential knowledge is not an impediment to the sharing of insights by the participants or impinges unduly on that which is shared to the extent that its credibility becomes questionable. In safeguarding the credibility of knowledge of participants’ and researcher, both are able to contribute to the richness of this study.

1.6 Research process

The research process followed in this study is to proceed in Chapter Two with a review of the literature related to the concepts that are identified as contributing to generativity in mentoring relationships. Chapter Three presents the research design as a qualitative study involving naturalistic and holistic approaches so that data collected reflects the mentoring as it occurs. An interpretative view of this data is adopted because this view is well suited to understanding individual meanings that contribute to the participants’ perspectives the inquiry seeks to understand.

A purposely sampled, multiple case study methodology is utilised so that selected SCTs are those who are more likely to have a collaborative approach, are working with mentees in development of professional practice, and there is an established relationship between the SCT-mentor and teacher-mentee or the mentee is ‘able’ and therefore capable of self-challenge (McNally & S. Martin, 1998) so that generativity as growth should be evident.

Chapter Four presents the findings beginning with a narrative approach on an individual case basis followed by categorization and interpretive processes. Chapter Five discusses the findings integrating these with the literature. Chapter

Six concludes this study by evaluating the findings and their discussion in relation to my proposed 3-D model, and in relation to both the stated aim for SCT-mentoring to enhance quality practice, and the vision statement for induction and mentoring programmes to be educative in focus and thereby contribute to progressive improvement of the teaching profession.

Chapter Two: Literature review

2.1 Introduction

Integrated within this literature review are three different perspectives of primarily the four human inter-relational concepts of trust, support, challenge and risk-taking that are central to this research inquiry. The concept of confidence as self-confidence is also included because it arose in the data as significant to this study. The first perspective seeks understanding of each individual concept and for trust and support I examine the construct of each.

The second perspective considers the inter-relationships between ‘persons’ who are trusting, supporting challenging and risk-taking, so that context becomes important. For instance, a study by Mayer and colleagues (1995) is particularly relevant because it views trust within the context of a two-person relationship rather than perhaps a person and an organization, so is in keeping with the context of this study which examines one-on-one mentoring relationships. Context therefore acts as a filter when deciding on literature to include, and on the extent of usage of each selected source.

The third perspective relates to my conceptual framework proposed as a ‘3-D model of a mentoring generative effect’ (see Figure 1.2) and so considers the inter-relationships between the concepts themselves. Questions such as ‘does support of a colleague lead to trust, or is trust a pre-requisite for support to be perceived’ arise throughout this review as the concepts and their potential inter-relationships are examined.

Through the integration of these three perspectives, along with treatment of the additional concept of ‘realisation’ as it relates to the ‘conscious competence learning model’ (Figure 2.4) this review provides a foundation of knowledge upon which it is hoped to build.

Three broad questions that derive from the research inquiry provide structure to this review. I have approached the formulation of these questions with my conceptual framework in mind which is a framework that depicts the inter-relationship of the concepts. The three questions are:

1. What is the basis of trust and support, and how do they interact in an effective mentoring relationship?
2. What part if any do challenge and risk-taking play in generativity?
3. What are the individual and collective roles of the mentor and the mentee in generativity towards individual professional teaching identity of the mentee?

Question 1 (examined in sections 2.2-2.5) is addressed by reviewing the literature on trust and support including studies that have potentially placed these as dependent variables that may form x and y axes. Dependent variables are a pre-condition for a 3-D diagram.

Question 2 (examined in section 2.6) involves reviewing the literature on challenge and risk-taking and investigating how these may be involved in knowledge generation for the mentee, set within the context of an interacting collaborative mentoring pair.

Question 3 (examined in section 2.7) is framed from an overview perspective. Key roles of the mentor and mentee that relate to the inter-relational concepts are examined. The discussion of these concepts may also involve their integration within the sections to which they relate. The overview perspective may provide different insights on all concepts and how they are understood in the literature to inter-relate as played out by mentors and mentees, with a specific focus on generativity within one-on-one mentoring relationships. Additionally, concepts not considered prior to commencing this review may be brought to light within this section of this review.

Interwoven in this review is my voice. It is there for two reasons. The first is for my personal growth so that I may better understand the literature prior to gathering data, and in so-doing better explore with the participants, the perceptions they hold. Growth also of the knowledge base to which I hope the different views I interweave may contribute and expand.

The second reason is to acknowledge tangibly the experiential knowledge I bring to this study. Along with exposing my conceptual framework this acknowledgement positions me ‘up front’ allowing the reader to understand the researcher’s context and critically examine the ideas presented as they relate to that context.

2.2 Views of trust

The views of trust examined in this research refer to ‘particularised’ and ‘interpersonal’ trust. Particularised means an intimate trust in people close to the trustor as distinct from generalised trust which is an abstract trust of people in general (Mayer et al., 1995). Interpersonal refers to trust people have towards others rather than towards an organisation such as an institution or a political party (Freitag & Traunmüller, 2009). Though the context of SCT mentoring is within an institution, the relationship is between two interacting individuals rather than an individual and the organisation, so that the trust referred to is particularised interpersonal trust.

2.2.1 Trust as a social exchange relationship

Pratt and Dirks (2007) refer to many earlier conceptualizations of trust as viewed from a ‘social exchange’ perspective. They explain a social exchange perspective as representing “the expectation that one’s contributions to another will be equitably paid back” (p. 119). Two definitions of trust they argue as consistent with this social exchange view are as follows: “the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party” (Mayer et al., 1995, p. 712) and “a

psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behavior of another” (Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, & Camerer, 1998, p. 395). Pratt and Dirks (2007) explain vulnerability with the possibility of hurt as a negative element, and the anticipation of positive intentions or outcomes on behalf of the other person as positive elements, so that in the social exchange perspective there are positive and negative competing elements.

Both social exchange definitions quoted above include the notion of vulnerability which is distinguished from trust in that trust is a willingness to take a risk, but is not the action of actually taking the risk (Mayer et al., 1995). Vulnerability therefore implies something of importance is potentially lost if the risk is taken, and is claimed to be one of the few characteristics common to all trust situations (Johnson-George & Swap, as cited in Mayer et al., 1995) thereby giving some credence to these definitions. Support for a social exchange perspective for trust also comes from various researchers who have used similar definitions of trust in quantitative studies measuring this trust and its effects (Bouquillon, Sosik, & Lee, 2005; Brockner, Siegel, Daly, Tyler, & C. Martin, 1997). These quantitative studies shall be examined in more detail later in section 2.4. However the Mayer and colleagues (1995) proposed model of trust (Figure 2.1) puts forward an explanation for the basis of trust and its development. The model clarifies the role of interpersonal trust and risk taking and provides a “manageable number of factors [that] should provide a solid foundation for the empirical study of trust” (Mayer et al., 1995, p. 711).

This model of trust is based on an organizational setting involving two parties, one party doing the trusting (the trustor, usually a superior) and the other party being trusted (the trustee, usually a sub-ordinate). The trustor is therefore vulnerable to the actions of the trustee and takes a risk in the relationship (RTR) when they engage in a trusting action such as the empowerment of the sub-ordinate as opposed to monitoring another’s actions, which involves little risk and is therefore indicative of low or little trust. The ‘outcomes’ of RTR (trusting behaviours on the part of the trustee) will lead to updating of prior perceptions of a trustees perceived trustworthiness as viewed from the trustor’s perspective. If an

outcome has a positive outcome this leads to enhancement of this perspective, while a negative outcome would detract from this perspective (Mayer et al., 1995). The model shows this as a feedback loop from ‘outcomes’ to ‘Factors of Trustees Perceived Trustworthiness’ so that a mechanism exists through which vulnerability and benefits can interact to alter trust in the relationship.

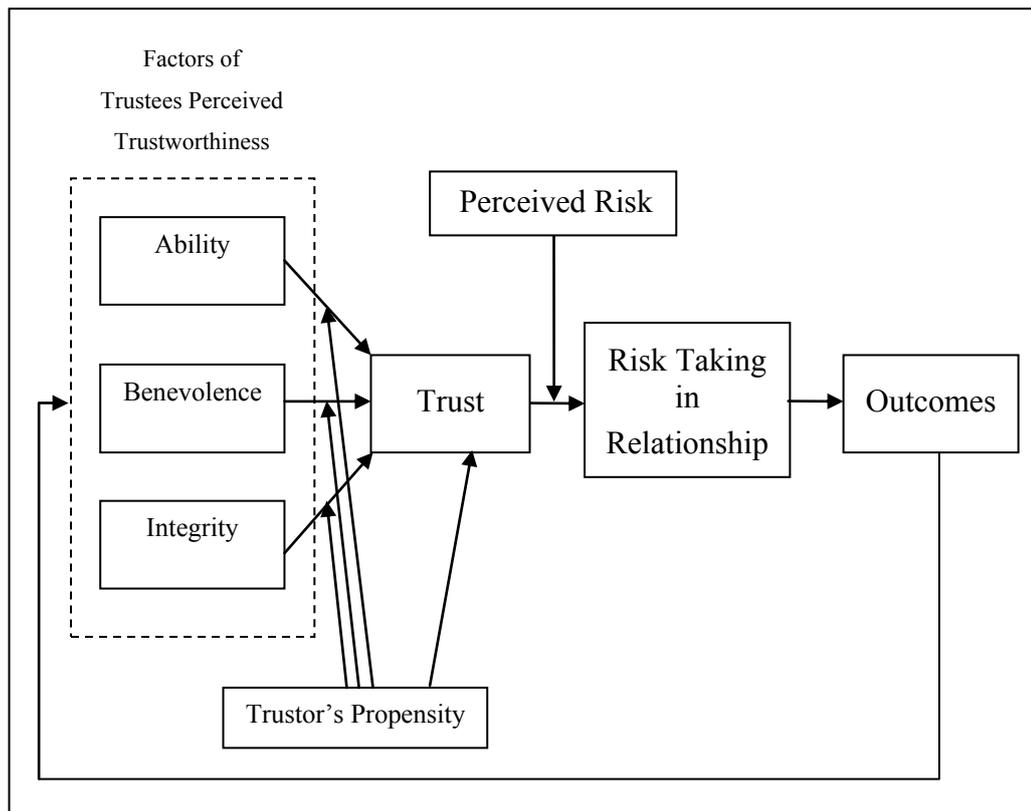


Figure 2.1 Proposed model of trust (Mayer, Davis & Schoorman, 1995)

The three ‘factors of perceived trustworthiness’ in the model pertain to the trustee and were derived from a review of the literature that included a review of trust antecedents. Mayer and colleagues (1995) argue their three factors explain a major part of trustworthiness often repeated in the literature. For instance benevolence, defined as “the extent to which a trustee is believed to want to do good to the trustor, aside from an egocentric profit motive” (p. 718) was proposed by various authors including Larzelere and Huston (1980), Solomon (1960), and Strickland (1958) (as cited in Mayer et al., 1995, p. 718). The three factors represent areas of experience in which trust is tested. This testing of trust allows

an evaluation of trust through the social interactions so that trust “is grounded in concrete experiences of trustworthiness” (Freitag & Traummüller, 2009).

The model also considers the propensity to trust of the trustor which is described as “the general willingness to trust others” (Mayer et al., 1995, p. 715) and exists prior to data on the particular trustee being available. Freitag and Traummüller (2009) agree referring to propensity to trust as a ‘moral predisposition’ and note it as a “stable personality trait that does not change over time” (p. 788). Propensity will affect the likelihood that the party will trust, and in combination with the three factors of perceived trustworthiness, trust may result (Mayer et al., 1995).

Alternative relationships to trust also exist that contain vulnerability and or potential for benefits. Mayer and colleagues (1995) distinguished three such relationships, the first being co-operation. A person can co-operate with someone they don’t really trust because of external control mechanisms, the effect of which is the minimising of the willingness to be vulnerable so the relationship becomes more one of co-operation than trust. Co-operation may also result due to a lack of alternative actions the trustee has available.

The second is confidence and whereas earlier definitions of trust referred to the ascription of good intentions and to “have confidence in the words and actions of other people” (Cook & Wall, as cited in Mayer et al., 1995, p. 713) confidence may contain little if any risk whereas in trust, risk must be recognised and assumed (Mayer et al., 1995). Put simply, if a trustor ‘makes a choice’ to trust a trustee to perform a task, then it is a trust situation if there are potential risks. If the trustor asks the trustee to do something out of habit, without considering they have a choice to ask or not, then it is confidence because they have not considered the risk (Luhmann as cited in Mayer et al., 1995).

The third type, predictability, refers to an expectation of an “other’s behaviour in terms of what is ‘normally’ expected of a person acting in good faith” (Gabarro, as cited in Mayer et al., 1995, p. 713). Predictability may ensue from external controls, without which a person may be unwilling to be vulnerable to another, so that the person may be predictable but not trusting (Mayer et al., 1995).

2.2.2 An initial trust-building model

The McKnight, Cummings and Chervany (1998) model of initial trust-building (Figure 2.2) attempts to explain what they report as the paradox of high initial trust. High initial trust contradicts the notion that trust builds over time which could be expected through net positives in a social exchange relationship. By initial trust they mean when parties first meet or first interact, so that a prior interaction history based on first-hand experience is not available. This study is included in this literature review even though the relationships examined herein tend towards first-hand experience from interactions within the relationship, because some explanations for initial trust may endure beyond this initial phase. In addition, the model bears similarity to the Mayer and colleagues (1995) model, and therefore adds credence to this model. It also extends the thinking on this model and as such may be applied within the context of an established relationship.

McKnight and colleagues (1998) cite the four construct typologies of Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) and base their model on two of these, beliefs and intentions, excluding attitudes and behaviours. Thus the model sits within cognitive processes and does not examine for instance behaviours, which include 'outcomes'. Nevertheless, in drawing on features of the Mayer et al. (1995) model, the initial trust-building model provides insights that may inform this research. McKnight et al. (1998) use a similar definition of trust to Mayer et al. (1995) stating it means that "one believes in, and is willing to depend on, another party" (McKnight et al., 1998, p. 474) and maintain trust comprises two aspects, trusting intention which is a willingness to depend, and trusting beliefs similar to those used by Mayer and colleagues (1995) which they report as "the most commonly used trusting beliefs in literature" (McKnight et al., 1998, p. 477) thus adding credence to this aspect of the Mayer and colleagues (1995) model.

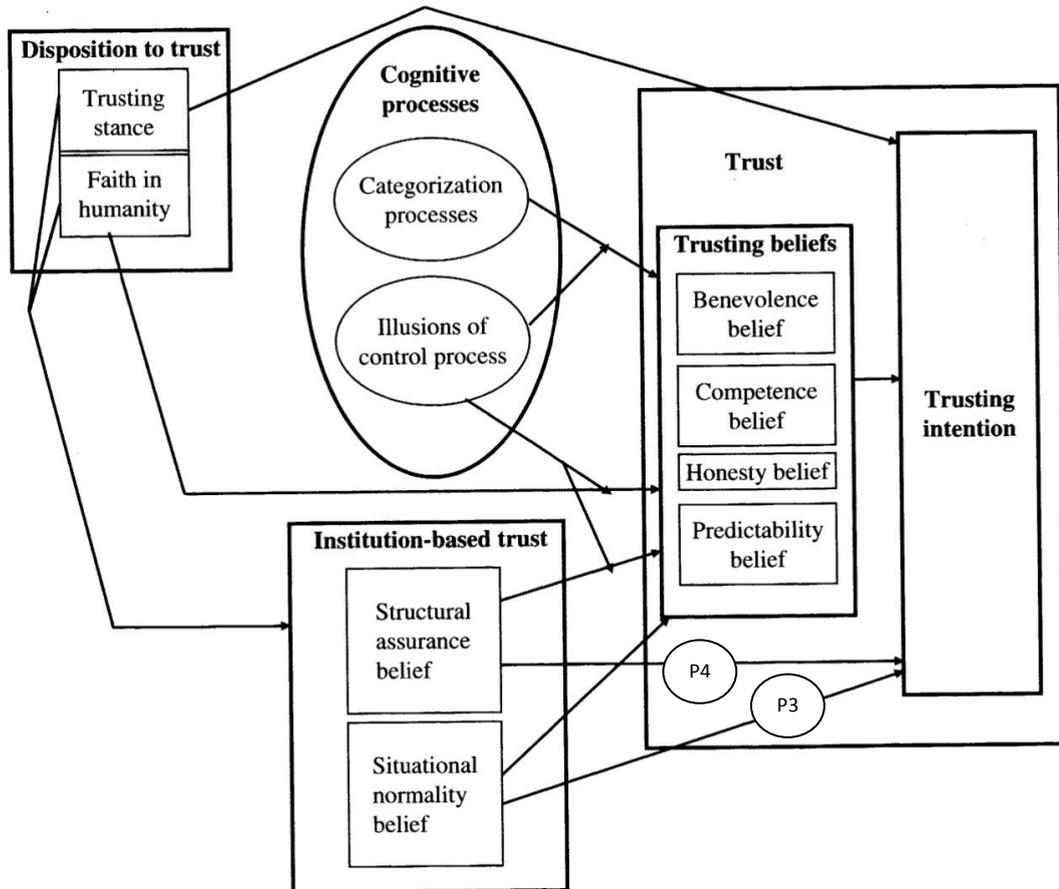


Figure 2.2 Initial trust-building model (McKnight et al., 1998)

Note: Pathways labelled P3 and P4 show 2 of the 9 possible pathways for trust development

An example of an extension to the Mayer and colleagues (1995) model that may be applicable to this study is the introduction and view of the institution-based trust factor. The model depicts the institution-based trust factor as having two components, a structural assurance belief and a situational normality belief. A structural assurance belief relates to safety nets in the institutional structures and in the context of this study the confidentiality inherent in the Specialist Classroom Teacher (SCT³) mentoring may provide such an assurance belief that provides a pathway labelled as P4 to trusting intentions. Situational normality beliefs are based on the notion that things as they occur are normal so that if a SCT mentors a Provisionally Registered Teacher (PRT) trusting intentions may result (pathway P3) because such mentoring is viewed as a normal part of the PRTs induction process. Aspects of the initial trust-building model may therefore be useful in

³ See section 1.2 for descriptions of SCT and PRT positions

identifying trust within the interpersonal mentoring relationships studied because it provides possible pathways for initial trust that may endure in a more established relationship that is based on first-hand interactional experiences.

2.2.3 Trust: a relationship-based commitment view

Building on the social exchange view of trust, Pratt and Dirks (2007) proposed the relationship-based commitment view which they explain as involving “a volitional acceptance of the simultaneous existence of both the vulnerability and the benefits associated with being in a relationship with another individual” (p. 123). In support of this view Pratt and Dirks (2007) note social exchange views seem to imply a ‘hedonistic calculus’ of outcomes resulting in either a net negative or a net positive assessment of the relationship. The commitment-based view does not cancel out positives and negatives but rather, simultaneously recognises both. Negatives and positives interact, and result in ambivalence that becomes the fuel for trust. Resolution of ambivalence transforms it to commitment through volition and justification. Resolving this ambivalence explains how trust is rebuilt and adds ‘resiliency and strength’ to the relationship (Pratt & Dirks, 2007) so that it is more likely to be sustained through adversity than social exchange trust which may be at high risk of dissolution if faced with a series of negative outcomes (Pratt & Dirks, 2007).

Willingness is a key component of trust definitions such as that of Mayer and colleagues (1995) and this definition gains credibility through its use in further quantitative studies such as Bouquillon et al. (2005) and Brockner et al. (1997). Pratt and Dirks (2007) acknowledge a willingness or acceptance of vulnerability when they use the term ‘volitional acceptance’ for without such volition the pursuit of an action at the request of another may be an act of blind obedience similar to co-operation of Mayer and colleagues (1995) rather than trust, particularly if the requester is a superior in a hierarchical relationship.

The relationship-based commitment view of trust addresses shortcomings of the social exchange perspective that Pratt and Dirks (2007) note, such as the difficulty

in verifying it empirically (this may not be the case as discussed in section 2.4), that vulnerability “is not exchanged in the traditional sense” (p. 119) and that other archetypes associated with positive trusting relationships exist such as communal sharing (Pratt & Dirks, 2007).

The relationship-based commitment view of trust with a focus on the trustor acknowledges that in taking a RTR a trustor is simultaneously exposing oneself to potential benefits such as feelings of support from the trustee, and risk which may result in negative outcomes. It is the binding together of these beneficial and negative elements that is the basis of the relationship-based commitment view of trust (Pratt & Dirks, 2007). This view of trust involves both attitudes and behaviours, and exists in the interpersonal relationship (rather than for instance the organizational relationship) or pattern of committed behaviour which may include escalation of such committed behaviour (Pratt & Dirks, 2007). This escalation is indicative of evolution to a more trusting state. Emphasis on the committed behaviour serves to stress its importance in moving from ambivalence (between perceived vulnerability and possible benefits) towards taking the RTR and in building greater trust. Thus commitment allows the relationship to survive in the face of adversity and trust is strengthened, so that in viewing trust as commitment-based Pratt and Dirks (2007) note “the target of commitment is an interpersonal relationship” (p.121).

2.2.4 A deepest form of trust

Bouquillon and colleagues (2005) conducted empirical quantitative studies of trust from a social exchange perspective, using trust as defined by Mayer and colleagues (1995). However, they recognised two other aspects of effective mentoring relationships, identification and reciprocity that contribute to a ‘deepest form of trust’.

Identification is “the amount of projective self-image or value congruence that the protégé feels towards an idealized mentor” (Bouquillon et al., 2005, p. 241). Relationships with both trust and high identification are seen as mutually trusting

mentoring relationships that contain among other things commitment, creativeness and flexibility (Bouquillon et al., 2005). In being mutually trusting the relationship is based on reciprocity in which those in the relationship experience being both giver and receiver. Sample items measuring trust in their study included “I trust my mentor to treat me fairly” (p. 246) which equates with benevolence in the social exchange model, and “I feel like my mentor and I share many of the same values” (p. 247) which pertains to identification so that this recognises mutual trust that goes beyond social exchange, resembling more a relationship-based commitment yet based on identification so representing ‘deepest trust’. About this they wrote a “Deepest form of trust involves an emotional connection or identification between parties and is based on reciprocity, shared values, and congruent self-images and beliefs” (Bouquillon et al., 2005, p. 243). This ‘deepest form of trust’ shall be referred to as ‘deepest trust’ throughout this study. ‘Deepest trust’ as a trust archetype is supported by Nooteboom (2006) who in discussing the multiple dimensions of trust purports a “stronger, narrower notion of ‘real trust’ that goes beyond calculative self-interest, on the basis of norms of conduct (integrity), or personal bonds of empathy or identification, or routinized conduct” (p 261).

A mentoring relationship such as one involving a SCT-mentor and teacher-mentee may develop through stages so that eventually the relationship is more peer-like with the mentee having independence (Bouquillon et al., 2005; Kochan & Trimble, 2000) and resembling this ‘deepest trust’. Attitudes such as gratitude and appreciation and on-going friendship become part of the relationship (Bouquillon et al., 2005) and as such trust evolves from resembling more the social exchange perspective or the relationship-based commitment perspective, to ‘deepest trust’.

Key components of trust in peer-like relationships rests in choice to remain in the relationship (Pratt & Dirks, 2007) associated with having a sense of control within the relationship (Freitag & Traunmüller, 2009). The recognition of choice and a sense of control therefore are pivotal to recognising trust in a dyadic mentoring relationship such as between a SCT-mentor and teacher-mentee. Regarding choice, if the mentee is a PRT they initially have no choice in being mentored by the SCT whereas an experienced teacher does have this choice. For the PRT the

obligatory nature of the relationship may mean trust is not present or is low at the onset of the relationship, whereas for the experienced teacher or a PRT who after initial mentoring chooses to remain in the relationship this choice may be indicative of trust towards the SCT. In both cases if the relationship is on-going, choice is present and is indicative of trust rather than co-operation or blind obedience. Who control rests with, will be examined later (see section 2.7.3). It is sufficient at this stage to note that if control rests with one party, the relationship may be one of blind obedience (Pratt & Dirks, 2007) or co-operation (Mayer et al., 1995) rather than trust.

2.3 Views of support

Support is presented firstly as it relates to the Daloz (1999) model of support and challenge, because this model was a starting point for my journey of inquiry. How support is offered and received is an integral part of mentoring and is examined in section 2.3.2. The place of support in the growth of the mentee, and support that favours increased growth as capacity, are then treated in sections 2.3.3 and 2.3.4 respectively.

2.3.1 Support and the Daloz 2-D model

It is well established that support is a major function of any mentoring relationship (Awaya et al., 2003; Bouquillon et al., 2005; O'Brien & Christie, 2005; Rajuan, Beijaard, & Verloop, 2008). In the Daloz 2D model of support and challenge (Figure 1.1) support is examined from the mentees perspective based on the support they receive from the mentor towards meeting challenge for growth. Optimum conditions for growth and therefore the generation of new knowledge under this model are high levels of both support and challenge. This contrasts with high support in a low challenge environment that serves to confirm the mentee in their stage of development, and low support situations. Low support/low challenge environments result in stasis of the mentee. Whereas low support/high challenge environments result in retreat of the mentee from the challenge (Daloz, 1999) or leaves them in a state of tension or dissonance causing disempowerment

(Tang, 2003). Daloz's (1999) model shows unless high levels of support are evident to the mentee, growth will not occur.

In establishing support that is conducive to acting on challenge it is important to view support from the mentees perspective if the mentee is the person responding to challenge. Many mentees of SCTs will be PRTs so the study by Cameron, Dingle and Brooking (2007) who surveyed beginning teachers across New Zealand schools (393 respondents) is particularly relevant in that it found emotional support as “the most important mentoring activity” (p. 105). Emotional support engenders feelings of safety (Tang, 2003). Smith (2005) describes the need for safety as a conservative force noting until the need for safety is met, it is not realistic to expect change from well established teaching methods, a view supported by Montecinos and colleagues (2002) who assert in reference to student teachers that once the need for security is met the student teacher is “more likely to question his or her pedagogical choices” (p.787).

2.3.2 Support fields: recognising support offered and perceived

The concept of ‘support fields’ is an attempt to recognise that support must be offered in such a way as to be perceived by the supported party as supportive of them. The offering of support has been examined by some authors from the supporters perspective who have viewed support as a mentoring function (Awaya et al., 2003; Bouquillon et al., 2005; O'Brien & Christie, 2005; Rajuan et al., 2008) and from the perspective of those supported as categories or typologies of perceived support (Bouquillon et al., 2005; O'Brien & Christie, 2005; Rajuan et al., 2008). The concept of ‘support fields’ is an attempt to recognise the roles of both the supporter and the supported in establishing this support within the relationship in various areas of need or fields.

Support fields could be categorised according to ‘areas of needs’ which have been variously recognised in the literature. Three major categories related to teaching identified in the literature include firstly the field of expert knowledge. In teaching, this is knowledge appropriate to curriculum demands. Support in the

expert knowledge field is akin to cognitive or academic support (Rajuan et al., 2008). A mentee may perceive assistance offered in depth of treatment of the curriculum, or methods to assess student achievement as support in the expert knowledge field. In this field I include career development support on the basis that expert knowledge is knowledge specific to contexts, and the context of a teacher in various stages of a career pathway from beginning teacher to middle management and senior management requires different expert knowledge.

The second field is the ‘application field’ which recognises expert knowledge is applied in real-life situations. For instance knowledge of curriculum demands (expert knowledge) may be used in lesson planning (application). Application support has been referred to as ‘practical knowledge’ which encompasses both technical teaching knowledge, for example to do with classroom management and practical teaching knowledge, pertaining to coping strategies for decision making in immediate classroom problems (Awaya et al., 2003), the categories of teaching knowledge and skills (Rajuan et al., 2008) and instructional related (O'Brien & Christie, 2005).

The third field of support is the psychosocial field which has been variously described, but widely acknowledged in the literature. Examples include ‘personal knowledge and skills category of perceptions’ to do with “feelings and personality characteristics necessary for confidence” (Rajuan et al., 2008, p. 284) reassurance to be more self-confident (Montecinos et al., 2002), and psychosocial support that provides the mentee with acceptance and friendship, and confirmation of the mentees behaviour (Bouquillon et al., 2005). Aspects of psychosocial support pertain to providing a safety net. Tang (2003) identified affiliation (regular contact with groups of professionals in the school) as providing “support that engenders a psychologically safe and encouraging milieu” (p. 489) so that it resembles a field between interacting members of the group. Smith (2005) notes this need for safety as a stabilising force providing a predictable environment free from anxiety.

These support fields represent major areas of focus particularly for beginning teachers. In the Cameron and colleagues (2007) study, which involved 157 secondary PRTs, these PRTs reported the focus of support is on observation with

feedback, immediate planning, classroom management and task management such as report writing and communicating with parents most of which represent support in the application field, often dealing with immediate situations. If support is continually offered towards the immediate, there may be a tendency for the mentee to be socialized to view teaching in very narrow technicist terms as displayed by the lack of discourse of reflective practice (O'Brien & Christie, 2005). This lack of discourse of reflective practice indicates a lack of exploratory conversation towards professional growth and heutagogical decision making and as such may serve to maintain the status quo of mentee knowledge development. Support that maintains the status quo shall be termed 'static support', and I contend it can be distinguished from that specifically centred on professional growth and development.

2.3.3 Futuristic support as support for professional growth and development

I have termed support for professional growth and development as support in the 'futuristic domain' and contend it can be distinguished from support in the 'static domain'. Futuristic support is support specifically targeted at professional growth and development of the supported towards a higher future state of competency. This contrasts with static support which confirms the status quo or may be concerned with addressing immediate problems with little overall mentee development. For instance, in the psychosocial field, static support may be through affirmation or confirmation of current levels of competency, whereas futuristic support may appear as encouragement to become more competent and may be sustaining of development to a higher state of competency.

Justification for categorising support as static or futuristic exists in the literature. Static support is suggested through the noting of support to provide a sense of safety (Tang, 2003) and safety has been recognised as providing an environment that is stable (Smith, 2005). Safety is a conservative force necessary prior to engaging in a change process (Smith, 2005), so that support of this change process should be differentiated from support that favours the status quo. Use of the term 'futuristic support' gains further credibility through various phrases and

terminology appearing in the literature. For example support to meet challenges (Awaya et al., 2003; McNally & Martin, 1998; Rajuan et al., 2008), support for risk-taking (Lasky, 2005; Montecinos et al., 2002; Tang, 2003) and support for closing the gap between creative tensions and equilibrium, or dissonance and resonance (Tang, 2003).

The need to distinguish static and futuristic support is essential to determine if support leads to growth simply because high levels of support will not lead to growth if it is support of the status quo for a mentee in their stage of development. In their qualitative study of support for beginning teachers, O'Brien and Christie (2005) recorded this statement as one of instructional-related support (application field) "Their feedback after observation was useful. Good to get some praise and ideas for improvements" (p. 191). Feedback and praise may fall into the static domain if it concerns existing practice, whereas 'ideas for improvement' is suggestive of support in the futuristic domain. Viewing support as within the static or futuristic domains is a step towards purposefully directing support towards professional growth and development. This may help overcome what O'Brien and Christie (2005) see as problematic when they note in reference to support in their study "the discourse of reflective practice and conceptualization is entirely absent" (p. 199).

2.3.4 Futuristic support: for increased capacity

While support is largely directed in the induction of beginning teachers towards 'technicist' tasks (Cameron et al., 2007) and this support may increase teacher competency in these tasks, the view taken is that this type of support may be static if it does not involve reflective discourse and an increase in capacity. Increased capacity refers to the ability to undertake greater tasks (Yeo, 2006) and relates to double-loop learning. Drawing on the work of Argyris (1993) and Blackman, Connolly and Henderson (2004), Yeo (2006) regards single-loop learning as "minimal as members tend to be inward-looking merely performing tasks as part of their routine" (p. 411). Yeo (2006) contrasts this with increasing capacity through reflective discourse that leads to double-loop learning which occurs

“when members not only reference predetermined rules, they constructively challenge rote responses as well” (p. 411) and further explains “only then can true learning take place as the learner questions his/her own insights, actions and personal theory to create and gain knowledge” (p. 399).

Unless reflective discourse centred on improvement, for instance in overall pedagogical decision-making, is entered into, overall capacity and competency of the teacher in terms of curriculum decision planning with a longer term view may not eventuate. The use of reflective dialogue is called for by O'Brien and Christie (2005) who note support for pedagogical decision making and ‘career development’ support should be specifically addressed using techniques such as ‘strategic dialogue’. In this case strategic dialogue involves such things as clarifying the broader context, assessing strengths and weaknesses, linking decisions to long term goals, and consideration of radically different alternatives (Megginson & Clutterbuck, 2005). This type of support is futuristic support for professional growth and development. Futuristic support for professional growth and development transcends the immediate and takes a longer term view of the future and a more holistic view of growth and development in each particular support field than afforded by static support.

2.4 Inter-relationship between trust and support

Conflicting statements in the literature suggest a difference in the way the relationship between trust and support is viewed. Writing about affirmation of what is being done well, some authors suggest support will result in trust of the supervisor (McNally & S. Martin, 1998; Montecinos et al., 2002). Contrasting with this is the view adopted in this research that, particularly in collaborative relationships, the basis of support rests within the trust relationship. This view is shared by (Awaya et al., 2003) who state “protégé and mentor enter into an implicit agreement in which support is built on mutual trust” (p. 55), and O'Brien and Christie (2005) who report probationers suggesting “that supporters should be someone the probationer can trust” (p. 194).

Confirmation of a cause-and-effect relationship between trust and support, so that they become dependent variables has been provided through the quantitative study of Brockner and colleagues (1997). Viewing trust and support from employees' perspectives towards their supervisors their study involved 354 employees working under supervision, and proposed support as the dependent variable and trust and outcome favourability as independent variables. While it may appear that in working under supervision the factor under consideration is co-operation rather than trust, what was measured was the employees' willingness to engage in risk-taking behaviour which is indicative of trust. They found that employee trust in organizational authorities was more strongly related to their support for the authorities when they perceived the outcomes associated with authorities' decisions to be relatively unfavourable. The implication being that by showing themselves to be trustworthy, managers may be able to maintain their subordinates support when making decisions that lead to relatively unfavourable outcomes for the affected parties (Brockner et al., 1997).

While the above study places the supervisor as trustor and the subordinate as supporter, which represent the reverse positions taken in my research, the study nevertheless suggests a social exchange view of trust can be substantiated in quantitative studies contrary to the view of Pratt & Dirks (2007) who claimed there was difficulty in its empirical verification (see section 2.2.3) and as such is evidence supporting the placement of trust as the x-axis and support as the y-axis in my proposed 3-D model of a mentoring generative effect (Figure 1.2).

Brockner and colleagues (1997) used three statements to measure trust, each based on a social exchange perspective, for example "I trust the management to treat me fairly" (p. 563). Responses were quantified on a four point scale from (1) disagree strongly to (4) agree strongly. Considering outcome favourability as indicative of the degree of risk in the behaviour they found that when the outcome is likely to be highly unfavourable (riskier), high trust and support built on this trust, are more likely to result in pursuing these riskier outcomes, whereas low trust and low support will underpin low risk outcomes. This is as predicted by my proposed 3-D model.

This approach to quantification does not allow for the different ‘depth of trust’ that is dynamic within an evolving trust relationship. Bouquillon and colleagues (2005) extended the trust statements of Brockner and colleagues (1997) to six, including “I feel like my mentor and I share many of the same values” (p. 247) so that ‘deepest trust’ that may evolve was included in trust quantification. Additionally they used a three item scale for identification. Bouquillon et al. (2005) related trust to mentoring functions in four stages of the mentoring relationship identified as initiation, cultivation, separation and redefinition. While many results for hypotheses they tested were inconclusive they found some evidence that in “educational contexts, trust develops over time as the mentoring relationship matures into a peer-like friendship” (p. 251). They examined trust in relation to mentoring functions perceived by the mentee categorised as psychosocial support, role modelling and career development and found high levels of these functions in the initiation and cultivation stages of the mentoring relationship with a sharp drop-off of these functions in the separation stage. In this thesis relationships are within the timeframe suggested for the cultivation phase so support should be high.

McKnight and Chervany (2006) have noted a number of studies have viewed trust as “a set of granular, related constructs” (p. 39) and note the more that “terms are used, the more trust types will be researched in a synonymous, instead of homonymous manner” (p.39). For instance they cite studies that have quantitatively confirmed a link between the various trusting beliefs and trusting intentions (see Figure 2.2) so that trust may lead to behaviours as outcomes if the trusting intentions are followed through with actions. This seems consistent with the ‘theory of planned behaviour’ (Ajzen, 1991) in which the combined effects of attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural controls may lead to an intention that is followed through as a behaviour. (p. 215). This theory is shown in Figure 2.3.

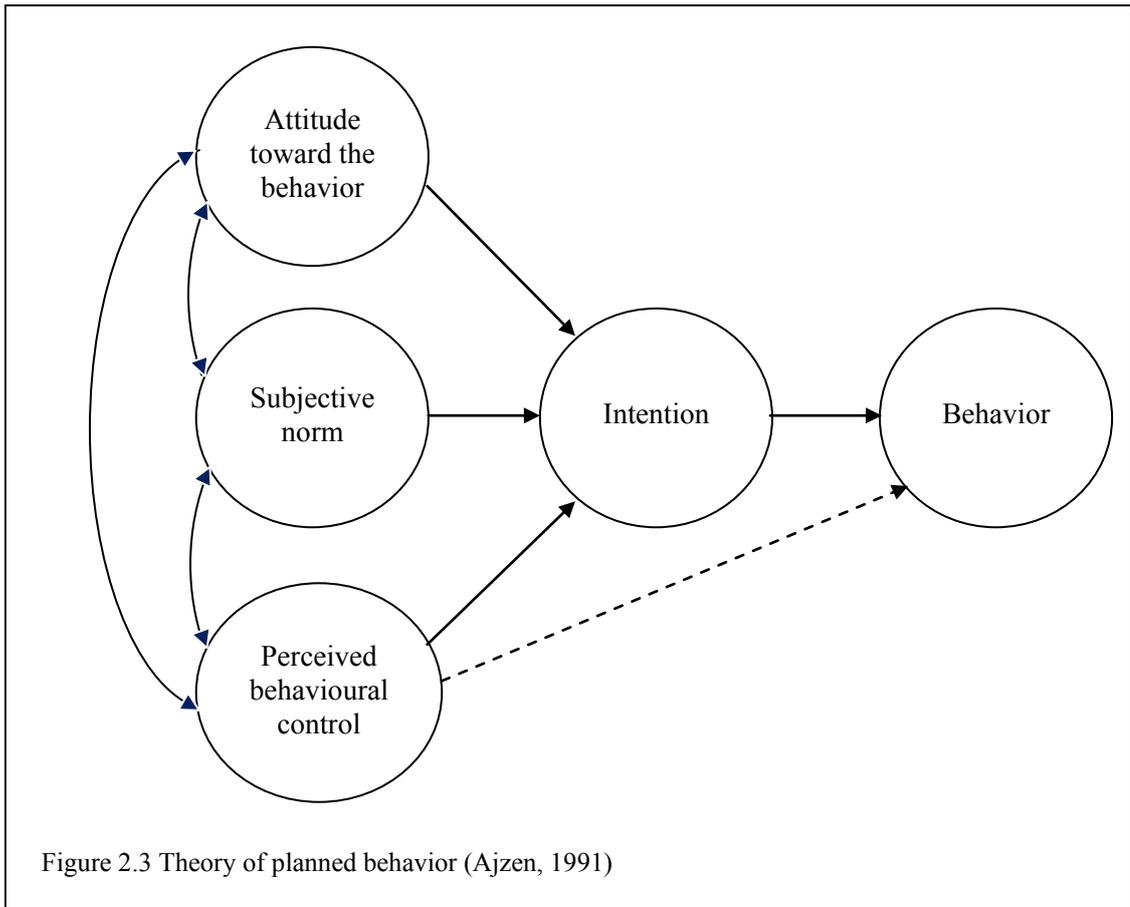


Figure 2.3 Theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991)

Ajzen (1991) views the ‘attitude toward the behavior’ as pertaining to confidence or belief about one’s ability to complete the behaviour. He explains factors that interact with it as firstly the ‘subjective norm’ meaning the beliefs surrounding perceived social pressures to perform the behaviour, and secondly ‘perceived behavioural control’ meaning the beliefs surrounding the perceived ease or difficulty of performing the behaviour. Through numerous quantitative studies conducted by many researchers Ajzen (1991) concludes “Attitudes towards behaviors [confidence], subjective norms with respect to the behavior, and perceived control over the behavior are usually found to predict behavioral intentions with a high degree of accuracy” (p. 206). In support of this theory Ajzen (2011) notes in 2010 there were 4550 citations in a Google Scholar search of ‘theory of planned behavior’ or ‘theory of planned behaviour’ and while arguing its usefulness in predicting behaviour, acknowledges the theory has detractors and that limits surround its predictive validity.

2.5 The meaningfulness of support

The idea of support being ‘meaningful’ originated in anecdotal evidence. I have heard several teachers over the years make comments (referring to an action a colleague did to help that teacher) such as ‘they did that for me, but it doesn’t mean anything’. This may happen for instance if a superior does something expected of them because of their role, and therefore is outside a trust-support relationship. This conception of the meaningfulness of support gains some credibility from the work of Tang (2003) who notes that support necessary for professional growth should help student teachers feel “that their professional lives and judgements are meaningful” (p. 486). The suggestion is someone can help another but that help is not necessarily perceived as support for or of the person being helped.

The question begs what is the basis for help being meaningful and therefore being perceived as support. An answer may be that it rests in the trust relationship. Help in a trusting environment may be perceived as support, whereas in an environment lacking trust it may be perceived as help only, lacking the meaning to allow it to be perceived as support. O'Brien and Christie (2005) list factors that supporters should have and included among these are reliability and honesty which are indeed trustworthiness factors. If the basis of support is that it rests in trust, then the definition itself suggests support is the dependent variable, dependent on trust as the independent variable.

If help is offered in a trusting environment then it may be perceived as meaningful and it may underpin a risk-taking action. The idea that trust makes help meaningful is a further basis for the view that support is built on trust. Help such as through the offering of expert advice may not lead to trust (and risk-taking) no matter how often or much help is offered. This counters the earlier argument that support leads to trust (McNally & S. Martin, 1998; Montecinos et al., 2002). Rather there must be a basis for trust in the first instance and this basis has been explored earlier in the various models and descriptions of trust.

The argument that trust is a basis for determining if help is perceived as support suggests that meaningful help or support, and futuristic support are one and the same. I suggest this is not the case as help for the status quo such as affirmation, can still be perceived as support (static) through other factors such as identification that may be present in non-trusting situations, though this has not been explored as it extends beyond the bounds of this study.

2.6 Challenge, risk-taking and generativity

A generative pathway that leads to new behaviours or learning is a consequence of challenge if challenge results in engagement in risk-taking. In this section challenge is examined as a role of the mentor, and the understanding of risk-taking is elaborated on and refined as applied to mentoring situations.

2.6.1 Mentor-initiated challenge of the mentee

Challenge of the mentee is seen by many authors as pivotal to the learning process and a function of the mentor (Daloz, 1999; Megginson & Clutterbuck, 2005; Rajuan et al., 2008; Tang, 2003). In viewing challenge as a mentor's function (mentee initiated challenge will be discussed in section 2.7.2) Megginson and Clutterbuck (2005) refer to taking the mentee into the 'zone of discomfort' to create challenge and note the best learning often takes place at the edge of what is known. Their term zone of discomfort has similarities to the term cognitive dissonance (Daloz, 1999; Tang, 2003) about which it is noted challenge creates a gap (dissonance) in the learner calling out for closure, and learning occurs in gap closure (Daloz, 1999). Thus challenge may lead to learning if it is acted on. Similarly if a mentee disagrees with a mentor's stances such as behaviours they may observe in the mentor, these are seen as "triggers of challenge that contain the potential for initiating a learning process" (Rajuan et al., 2008, p. 281).

Since challenge provides a stimulus for learning, there is a case for challenge of the mentee to be negotiated into a mentoring contract (Megginson & Clutterbuck, 2005). This process itself of negotiating for challenge may predispose the mentee towards accepting and embracing challenge rather than seeing it as a potential

threat. The implication is that in mentor-initiated challenge, the mentor is not springing surprises on the mentee, which could conceivably have a negative effect on trust of the mentee towards the mentor, if challenge is perceived by the mentee as a threat. Rather, if the mentee is alerted in advance of the possibility of challenge, and challenge occurs, this may positively affect trust, through its impact on the trustworthiness factor of reliability, since something expected eventuates. The building of greater trust may lead to increased risk-taking and enhanced learning so that learning extends beyond technicist task-related knowledge to longer term professional growth and development such as pedagogical decision-making.

2.6.2 Risk-taking: a response to challenge

Challenge in itself does not lead to generativity unless it is acted on. When within the mentoring a mentor offers a challenge to the mentee or the mentee self-challenges, a RTR results. If the challenge is acted on the mentee engages in risk-taking that equates to ‘risk-in-situation’ (RIS). Throughout this document RTR and challenge will be used synonymously and risk-taking shall refer to RIS. Effectively this places the ‘perceived risk’ as depicted in the Mayer and colleagues (1995) model (see Figure 2.1) in a second place that is, between RTR and outcomes, though now the risk refers to the risk the trustee takes when engaging in a behaviour. RIS can also pertain to the outcomes which have the potential to impact positively or negatively on trust in the relationship.

Challenge may lead to RIS if it is not seen as a threat that results in retreat, but rather provides some dissonance between the existing state and a perceived new state of knowledge (Tang, 2003). Challenge is seen as ‘constructive frictions’ (Vermunt & Verloop, 1999) and as ‘triggers to learning’ (McNally & S. Martin, 1998; Rajuan et al., 2008). Challenge provides a stimulus for the possible engagement in RIS by the mentee, and risk-taking is generative if the outcomes represent new knowledge and an increase in mentee capacity.

While it is acknowledged the terms challenge and retreat have rather general usage and meaning there have been attempts to define these in reference to physiological responses within the human body. Weisbuch, Seery, Ambady, and Blascovich (2009) conducted quantitative studies using established markers for what they term the “motivational states” (p.141) of challenge and threat. They maintain “challenge occurs when coping resources (e.g., skills, dispositions, external support) are evaluated as meeting or exceeding the demands of the situation (e.g., required effort, danger, uncertainty). Threat occurs when the demands of the situation are evaluated as exceeding coping strategies” (p 142). They further add that “Challenge and threat may thus roughly be understood as levels of context-specific confidence”. (p. 142). Ajzen (1991) maintains confidence affects ability to achieve something and is impacted on by “perceptions of control”. He cites Bandura who explains perceptions of control as meaning “judgements of how well one can execute courses of action required to deal with prospective situations” Ajzen (1991, p.184) rather than perceiving the action as being beyond one’s control because of external influences.

Many of the factors Weisbuch et al. (2009) list as impacting on challenge or threat are trust related. Skills pertain to expertise and danger to benevolence as trustworthiness factors. Uncertainty relates to risk. Therefore it may be appropriate to reframe their terminology whereby challenge represents the RTR as described earlier in this section, and engagement in RIS represents a positive response to challenge, and threat a negative response so that the RTR is retreated from. Motivational state roughly equates with confidence to undertake RIS.

Without challenge, high support in a high trust state will not lead to new knowledge, but will simply leave a mentee as receiving support and trusting the mentor. Challenge provides the stimulus for movement, and movement may occur through RIS. Challenge and RIS are viewed as separate processes and may involve different parties which happens if the mentor initiates challenge and the mentee engages in RIS, or the same party if the mentee self-challenges. Such views of challenge as discussed and derived from the literature, support the placement of challenge as the Z axis in my proposed 3D model of the mentoring generative effect (see 1.2). Risk-taking forms the diagonal on the 3D model and

represents the pathway from the current knowledge of the mentee labelled as the origin, to the new knowledge state. This pathway is proposed as the generative pathway.

2.7 Mentor and mentee roles in generativity

Key selected roles of each of the mentor and mentee in turn are now examined.

2.7.1 *Individual roles of the mentor*

Extensive lists of mentor roles are available in the literature, including the following sources: Kwan and Lopez-Real (2005); Megginson and Clutterbuck (2005; 2009); Millwater and Yarrow (1997); Newsom and Dent (2011); Rajuan et al. (2008). The New Zealand Teachers Council sets out a number of prescribed roles for mentors of PRTs (NZTC, 2009). Four roles selected from the literature particularly relevant to this study are now discussed beginning with the first which centres on the development of trust.

In their study of one hundred and thirty executive coaches affiliated with a major global leadership training and development organization, Newsom and Dent (2011) found the most frequent coaching behaviour was ‘establishing trust, honesty, and respect’, although honesty and respect have been considered earlier as components of trust, so that this is taken as ‘establishing trust’. Millwater and Yarrow (1997) noted “earning the trust and therefore the friendship and respect of the learner” (p. 22) as the first element of the mentoring mindset. This should not be taken as the mentors function is to build trust, since trust is relational, but rather that the mentor should approach the relationship in such a way that conditions conducive to the development of a trusting environment are promoted. Megginson and Clutterbuck (2005) write extensively on strategies that are useful in establishing and managing a relationship including building rapport, establishing grounds for relationship success and different forms of dialogue, all of which may lead to a trusting environment. A trusting environment represents the environment in which help may be perceived as support, and trust is essential to risk-taking (Brockner et al., 1997; Mayer et al., 1995). Development of a collaborative mentoring environment through such things as the mutual sharing of experiences (Awaya et al., 2003) can build trust into the relationship (Bouquillon

et al., 2005) and attention to the trustworthiness factors such as benevolence (Mayer et al., 1995; McKnight et al., 1998) represent conditions conducive to building a trusting environment.

A second role of a mentor is to be a supporter of the mentee and in the context of generativity support must be offered in the futuristic domain. Knowledge of support fields may assist a mentor towards ensuring the array of areas of need of the mentee are not overlooked. This is particularly relevant in the expert knowledge field pertaining to reflective discourse which has tended to be ignored (O'Brien & Christie, 2005). Support should be offered across all three support fields.

A third role of a mentor is to be a challenger (Cox, 2003; Daloz, 1999; Megginson & Clutterbuck, 2005; Tang, 2003) bearing in mind that challenge should be mixed with appropriate levels of support considering the ability level of individual mentees (McNally & S. Martin, 1998). In acting as a challenger it is worthwhile considering the place of the mentor in the 'conscious competence learning model' (see Figure 2.4).

In this model mentorship appears in the progression of the mentee from 'conscious incompetence' to 'conscious competence'. It is my view that a mentor can enter this model earlier than depicted, moving the mentee from 'unconscious incompetence' to 'conscious incompetence'. This is supported by the earlier anecdote of the mentee who reported having an epiphany about their use of questioning. This epiphany, in this case a 'realisation that something is a wrong', represented a movement from 'unconscious incompetence' to 'conscious incompetence' and it was initiated by the mentor challenging the mentee. McNally and S. Martin (1998) lend support to this proposing that there exist "triggers to learning" and the mentor plays an instrumental role in "pulling the trigger" (p. 44). It may be that as a result of this first realisation something is wrong, a mentee is positioned to self-challenge or be more open to mentor-initiated challenge so that new knowledge is sought and developed.

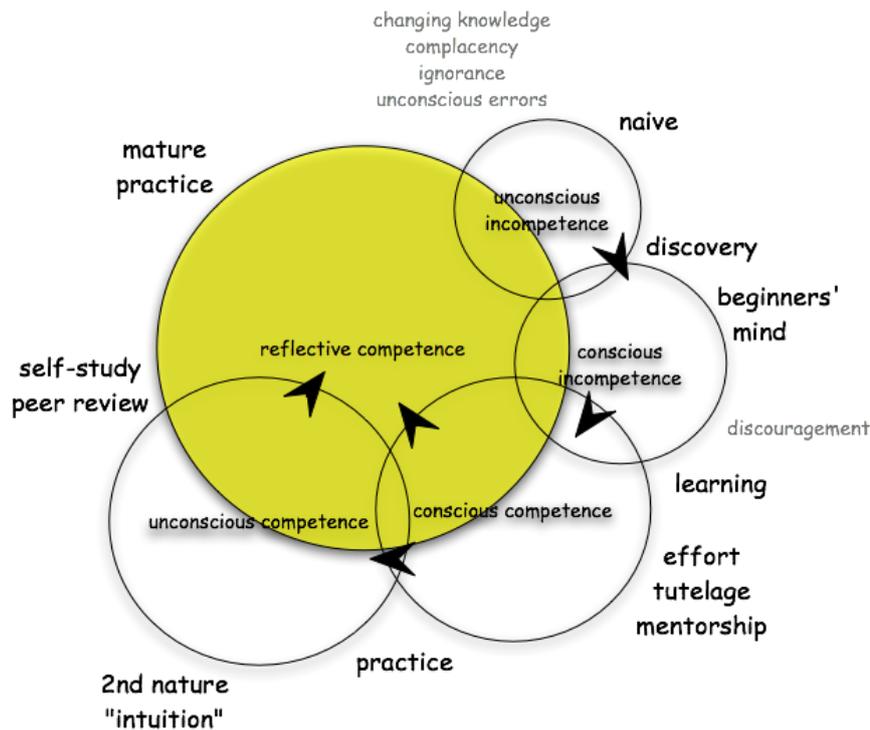


Figure 2.4 Conscious competence learning model

(Courtesy of Will Taylor, Chair, Department of Homeopathic Medicine, National College of Natural Medicine, Portland, Oregon, USA, March 2007)

If the mentee moves to a state of ‘conscious competence’ this would represent a second type of realisation, which is that they have developed new knowledge, since in moving from unconscious to conscious competence they have realised they have become more competent. The mentor’s role may be a mix of support and challenge going on in a swirl (Daloz, 1999). Challenge to initiate a realisation something is wrong, support (static psychosocial) of the mentee when this is recognised, challenge to realise a new state, futuristic support to aspire to a new state.

If the mentee engages in RIS the mentor should deliberately focus on futuristic support to maintain mentee development. At the same time the mentor should recognise and honour the mentee as the locus of control of their individual professional teaching identity (PTI). PTI refers to “an ongoing process of integration of personal and professional sides to becoming a good teacher” (Bayard, Meijer, & Verloop, 2004, p. 122) so that it is not a static object but

represents constant negotiation of the teaching self (Kwan & Lopez-Real, 2005). Essential to this development is that the mentee remains the locus of control (Awaya et al., 2003; Bayard et al., 2004; Kwan & Lopez-Real, 2005; Owen, 2004). This honours both the subjective view of knowledge adopted in this research, and choice essential to continued trust in the mentoring relationship.

A fourth role of a mentor is a facilitator of goal-setting and vision-setting by the mentee of the mentee's PTI. Megginson and Clutterbuck (2005) note "mentoring relates primarily to the identification and nurturing of potential for the whole person" (p. 4) and goals should always be set by the learner. This involves open ended, joint exploration of short-term and long-term goals and the development of action plans (McNally & S. Martin, 1998; O'Brien & Christie, 2005) adopted through a collaborative approach to mentoring. Exploration and setting of goals and a vision again requires a mix of challenge and support. One form of support should be encouragement of the mentee to self-challenge which allows the mentee to remain the locus of control in the relationship. Encouragement to self-challenge can be facilitated through engaging the mentee in self-reflection (McNally & S. Martin, 1998) and is conducive to empowerment of the teaching self (Tang, 2003).

A technique employed by the mentor that can facilitate the advancement of mentee initiatives through mentee self-reflection is that of 'active listening'. Active listening represents an attempt to elicit unbiased reflection whereby the listener tries "to understand the speaker's own understanding of an experience without the listener's own interpretative structure intruding on his or her understanding of the other person" (Weger, Castle, & Emmett, 2010, p. 35). Use of active listening by the mentor as a technique is consistent with the mentee remaining the locus of control, a heutagogical approach to learning, and can facilitate development of individual PTI of the mentee.

2.7.2 Individual roles of the mentee

A primary role of the mentee is to set realistic goals and a vision for themselves. This helps establish the mentee as the locus of control in the development of their individual PTI. Megginson and Clutterbuck (2005) expand on a vast array of techniques for coaching and mentoring that apply equally to the mentee as to the mentor including techniques for visioning, goal setting, and for clarifying and understanding core beliefs and situations to name but a few. Understanding core beliefs and situations facilitates the integration of personal dimensions of the individual with their professional side exhibited within the situations the individual encounters within the social setting of their practice.

Contributing equally to reflective dialogue represents a second major role of the mentee. The NZTC (2009) refers to mentoring in the induction of beginning teachers as facilitating “evidence informed, reflective learning conversations with the PRT” (p. 1). The literature presents a variety of foci for reflective dialogue a selection of which follows:

1. Establishing and/or uncovering an ‘educational platform’ described as a declaration of the principles on which a person or group of persons stands and consisting of strongly held beliefs that guide actions (Ovando, 2003). Discussing one’s platform through reflective dialogue establishes mutual understanding between supervisors and their teachers to allow grounding of collaborative efforts (Ovando, 2003).
2. To reflect on practice using various techniques. Two techniques include reflection-on-action and parallel conversations. Airasian and Guillickson (as cited in Ovando, 2003) describe ‘reflection-on-action’ as taking “place out of the activity of practice; it is consideration of an action, belief or effect divorced in time from the factors that prompted the need for reflection” (p. 8). Watkins (2000) notes ‘parallel conversations’ as a reflective technique described as “rather disconnected conversations that [give] an opportunity for each to clarify and develop their own thoughts about their own teaching” (p. 78).

3. To explore possibilities. Ovando (2003) refers to visualizing future practice which if acted on potentially enhances practice, and Hansman (2002) refers to reflection as 'dialogic exploration' and dialogue may be dialectic meaning it has transformative effects.

A third role of the mentee is to trust the mentor. The establishment of both mentee and mentor educational platforms and their discussion through reflective dialogue can build rapport into the relationship allowing more fruitful interactions than may otherwise occur. Since educational platforms are based on values and beliefs, the sharing of these may provide scope for enhanced mutual understanding between mentor and mentee. Understanding may connote with empathy, and both empathy, and value congruence if it exists, are factors in deeper forms of trust. In acting as a trustor of the mentor there is a willingness to be vulnerable, and if acted on through engagement in RIS, this can lead to outcomes that may be generative.

A fourth role of the mentee is to engage in the challenge process. Included in this challenge process are: negotiation of a place for challenge in the relationship, an openness to mentor-initiated challenge, the desire and ability to self-challenge, and engagement in challenges once they have been set. Whereas mentor-initiated challenge can shift the locus of control away from the mentee, it may impact on socialising of the mentee's direction within the overall aims of both the school and the wider educational community which is an important function of the induction of new teachers into the profession. Self-challenge, facilitated within a collaborative mentoring relationship involves mentees taking "increasing responsibility for setting their own targets" (McNally & S. Martin, 1998, p. 45) and is consistent with the mentee remaining the locus of control in the development of their individual PTI. Self-challenge may centre on short term goals, or a longer term vision of the mentee. If the longer term vision is the focus overlaying the challenge process, then challenge becomes an instrumental ingredient in achieving a "transformative strategic vision" (NZTC, 2009, p. 2) not only for individual teaching practice, but also for induction and mentoring programmes and practices.

Challenge negotiated into the mentoring relationship contributes to the development of individual PTI for the mentee, and the act of negotiating for challenge recognises the need for professional growth and the part this growth plays in the overall strategic vision for induction and mentoring programmes. This vision for induction and mentoring programmes and practices is described as the “systematic provision of high quality induction and mentoring of new entrants to the profession, [through which] the profession will progressively improve its ability to contribute to equitable learning outcomes for all learners (NZTC, 2009, p. 2). Challenge is essential for progressive improvement and is therefore fundamental to this vision.

2.7.3 Collective roles of the mentor and mentee

Two key roles of the mentor and mentee that overlay the establishment and maintenance of an effective mentoring relationship are presented in the following sub-sections. These roles are the negotiation of a mentoring heutagogy, and reciprocity.

2.7.3.1 Negotiating a mentoring heutagogy

A case exists for mentor and mentee to act as negotiators of a mentoring heutagogy. Two key aspects of this heutagogy within the context of a particularised, interpersonal trusting relationship for the purpose of generativity are the development of a collaborative relationship and negotiation of challenge within the relationship.

A collaborative relationship best serves development of the mentee’s individual PTI because it empowers the mentee to critically reflect on their own learning (Graham, 1997; McNally & S. Martin, 1998) and places the mentee as the locus of control so that they have a sense of control. Further collaboration through mutual sharing serves to develop a trusting environment (Bouquillon et al., 2005) which is contended as the base on which support, challenge and risk-taking are founded. Challenge has been discussed as originating from both the mentor and the mentee

and negotiating challenge into the relationship formally recognises the roles of both mentor and mentee as potential challengers.

2.7.3.2 Reciprocity: mutual sharing for trust building

Reciprocity between two parties has been defined in terms of each party being both a giver and a receiver (Bouquillon et al., 2005; Nooteboom, 2006) but as Löfströma and Eisenschmidt (2009) assert unless sharing acts are open to discussion they do not constitute reciprocity. They contend reciprocity more resembles a reflective relationship and working things out together through a mutual agreement. This description views reciprocity more as a relationship than a process of just giving and receiving so a basis for such a reciprocal relationship must exist.

Evidence suggests the basis for reciprocity rests in trust. Kramer (2006) notes “trust builds incrementally when others affirm or reciprocate our trusting initiatives” (p. 74). In support of this claim they note an individual’s beliefs about another’s trustworthy behaviour “tend to change in the direction of experience and to a degree proportional to the difference between experience and the initial expectations applied to the experience” (Boyle and Bonacich as cited in Kramer, 2006, p. 74). In having expectations and viewing outcomes the implication is that risk is involved and risk-taking is founded in trust. De Vos and Wielers (2003) note trust as the basis for reciprocity noting “It is clear that reciprocity implies trust” (p. 87). They maintain reciprocity has two minimal interrelated demands. The first is people should help those who help them and the second is people should not injure those who have helped them. This second point relates to concern (or benevolence) which is a trustworthiness factor, so that giving and receiving based on concern is effectively trust-based. Concern is noted as giving value to the relationship leading to positive feelings (de Vos & Wielers, 2003). The outcome being that the parties are “responsive to each other’s needs and know that they are” (de Vos & Wielers, 2003, p. 87) so that in the ‘knowing’ reciprocity becomes cognitively relational.

Within a trusting relationship, as would be expected in an established collaborative relationship involving an SCT-mentor and teacher-mentee, one would expect a high degree of reciprocity involving reflective behaviours. This is confirmed by Gargiulo and Ertug (2006) who note a behavioural consequence of a trusting relationship is higher levels (in terms of both scale and scope) of the exchanges between parties, so that these exchanges become a richer source for development. Being a richer source for development and being trust-based, the presence of reciprocity within the SCT-mentor and teacher-mentee relationship could serve to maximise challenge, and the uptake of challenge through risk-taking, thereby maximising generative opportunities.

2.8 Summary

Generativity, and the inter-relational concepts examined in this literature review that contribute to generativity, are viewed as ideologically subjective, and they occur in naturalistic and holistic settings. To elucidate knowledge contained in this review and to add to this knowledge therefore requires honouring this subjective ideology, gathering data within naturalistic and holistic settings, and applying interpretations to these data. The research design that follows in Chapter Three honours this subjective ideology and the need to preserve the naturalistic and holistic settings, and explains adopted approaches to the interpretation and analysis of the data.

Chapter Three: Research Design

3.1 Introduction: Why research

Inquiry - more than any other characteristic – has caused the elevation of humans to a special place in the world. ... Unlike other animal life humans are able to question, seek answers, and record the outcomes for future generations (Hopkins, 1976, p. 3).

For the outcomes of research to be useful to future generations a logical and coherent approach to the research questions needs to be adopted (Maxwell, 2005). Logic and coherence apply to “the components of your research design and the ways in which these relate to one another” (Maxwell, 2005, p. xii). Salmon (2003) claims good research invites the reader “to expose the coherence of the finished work to scrutiny” adding “this places responsibility for inciting scrutiny on the researcher” (p. 25). Newton and Burgess (2008) claim scrutiny leads to coherence and “coherence leads to incorporation into a body of knowledge” (p. 25) essential if answers and records are to serve future generations.

3.2 Researcher background

My undergraduate learning culminated in gaining a Bachelor of Science degree, centred on a positivist view of knowledge (epistemology) consistent with a realist ontological position. This view contends “that there is but one true reality that is apprehendable, identifiable and measureable” (Ponterotto, 2005, p. 130) and is concerned with predictability and control (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007; Kvale, 1996). However this positivist view of knowledge was questioned throughout my career as a teacher of science, which spans over thirty years, from the late 1970s to 2009. This questioning came more through the nature of social interactions, rather than the place of science in explaining the natural world.

Through exposure as a teacher to learning theory, I became increasingly aware of the social-constructivist view of learning that is more prevalent in postmodern times. This view contends “reality is socially constructed by individuals and this social construction leads to multiple meanings” (Lodico, Spaulding, & Voegtle, 2010, p. 14). Such a view of learning was reinforced through my work as a Specialist Classroom Teacher (SCT) mentor of teachers, during which I was acutely aware of the individual meanings teacher-mentees held of social interactions within classrooms. Further, I believed I needed to view these social interactions through the eyes of my mentees, so that I could better understand the individual meaning teacher-mentees attached to the interactions.

Social-constructivism and individual meaning are key tenets of anti-positivist epistemology and nominalist ontology respectively (Cohen et al., 2007; Habermas, 1972, 1974; Kvale, 1996). Nominalist ontology is supported by Kant who notes “even if knowledge begins with sense experience it does not stem exclusively from it. Or to put it another way, even if sense experience is a necessary condition of knowledge, it is not a sufficient condition” (as cited in Hartnack, 1968, p. 13). According to Hamilton (1994) Kant’s position was “human claims about nature cannot be independent of inside-the-head processes of the knowing subject” (p. 63). Consequently, nominalist ontology accepts multiple subjective realities, rather than the singular objective reality of realism (Burns, 2000; Cohen et al., 2007) and in research undertaken from this view the individual voice must be apparent.

The epistemological debate between positivists and anti-positivists is not entered into, suffice to say both positions have strengths and both have short-comings. Rather the approach adopted in this research is described, along with justifications for adopting this approach. The adopted approach is guided by the research inquiry which seeks,

understanding of individual perceptions (of the SCT-mentor and teacher-mentee) of trust, support, challenge, and risk-taking in knowledge generation within an interpersonal mentoring relationship.

The research approach that best serves the purpose of ‘understanding individual perceptions’ is a qualitative approach (Burns, 2000; Creswell, 2008). This is the approach that is adopted in this project.

3.3 A qualitative research approach

In acknowledging individual perception, the view of knowledge is that it is individual and subjective so that multiple realities exist (Burns, 2000; Cohen et al., 2007; Pressick-Kilborn, Sainsbury, & Walker, 2005). Qualitative research is well suited to understanding individual perceptions, because it allows use of a range of subtypes of approach including naturalistic and interpretive, that stress the validity of multiple meanings that are experience based (Burns, 2000; Flick, 2006). This contrasts with a quantitative, objective approach that tends towards being mechanistic and reductionist, defining life in measurable terms at the exclusion of inner experience (Cohen et al., 2007).

In stressing the validity of multiple meanings, adoption of a qualitative approach opens the researcher and participants to a rich array of unexpected understandings (Cohen et al., 2007). In referring to the promise of qualitative research Barton and Lazarsfeld (as cited in Burns, 2000) depict the analogy “like the nets of the deep sea-explorers, qualitative studies may pull up unexpected and striking things for us to gaze on” (p. 13).

A key to gaining maximum insight into individual understanding of the concepts under question is the optimisation of potential to explore these understandings, in-depth, as they happened in real life settings. Denzin and Lincoln (2005) offer a generic definition of qualitative research as follows: “Qualitative research is a situated activity that locates the observer in the world” and explain it as consisting “of a set of interpretive, material practices that make the world visible” (p. 3). Locating the ‘observer in the world’ places the researcher in the setting in which the participants operate, and affords greater opportunity to recognise and explore individual understandings than would be possible had an objective view, which places the observer outside of the setting, been used.

While qualitative research draws on a range of methods, and is typically multi-method, a number of characteristics of qualitative research identified in the literature needed to be considered that ensured the world made visible was more likely to be trustworthy. These included:

1. Acknowledgment of the existence of individual perceptions, the subjectivity of knowledge and multiple realities.
2. Adoption of naturalistic and holistic approaches to data gathering.
3. An interpretive approach to the understanding of meanings of the participants.
4. Assuring the validity of truth claims.

These four characteristics interacted with each other throughout the process, provided an integrative approach to the research question, were integral to maintaining coherence, and represented a means for assuring credibility of possible findings and conclusions. These characteristics are described in the following sections.

3.3.1 Individual perceptions, subjectivity of knowledge & multiple realities

Cohen and colleagues (2007) link perception to the subjectivity of knowledge and multiple realities drawing firstly on the work of Thomas's famous dictum claiming "if people define their situations as real. They are real in their consequences" (p. 21) and secondly on the work of Morrison who explains this through an example as follows "if I believe there is a mouse under the table, I will act as though there is a mouse under the table whether there is or not" (p. 21). Problematic to this is the argument that contradictory claims about the one event may lead to different perceptions, but cannot be considered equally valid realities. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) based on the notion 'realities' are created from a subjective state (that is, created and experienced realities) suggest the use of the term "multiple perspectives" (p. 16) rather than 'multiple realities'. However, they further explain that there is general agreement between qualitative and quantitative researchers on the relativity of the 'light of reason' explained as, "what appears reasonable can vary across persons" (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie,

2004, p. 16). In adopting qualitative research as a research approach, the view was taken that the beliefs of each participant were of paramount significance when exploring concepts such as trust and support perceived by each individual within a mentoring pair. This acknowledged each individual's unique and equally valid reality, based on subjective knowledge, which contributes to the total truth and truth claims. Burns (2000) supports this view stating "the human element has become recognised increasingly as a critical and determining factor in the definition of truth and knowledge" (p. 10).

Consistent with the subjective view of knowledge, this study adopted a social-constructivist position. This position contends people make meanings intentionally, situated in social activities, and in so doing construct their social world (Cohen et al., 2007). The initial focus was on the individual constructs rather than the seeking of consensus among constructors that is the hallmark of social-constructionism. Nevertheless, in being social, correspondence was with other constructors rather than with an objective reality.

This study was ideographic, considering the meanings of each individual (Burns, 2000) acknowledging each participant and the researcher brought their slice of reality to the collective reality. This study drew on hermeneutics in that it focused on interaction and language. The intention was to capture "the meanings of interacting others, recovering and reconstructing the intentions of the other actors in the situation" (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 27). This study acknowledged that recoveries and reconstructions were framed within the context of this research, and were subject to the influence the researcher brought, while attempting to understand the meanings within the specific context and situation in which they came to attention.

3.3.2 Data gathering approaches: naturalistic and holistic

Naturalistic and holistic approaches to data gathering are now discussed as separate entities though each was integrated within the research settings.

3.3.2.1 A naturalistic approach

A naturalistic approach to qualitative research is urged by Burns (2000) who notes it seeks to study the “social life as it occurs, in natural settings” and without “the intervention of the researcher” (p. 397). Pressick-Kilborn and colleagues (2005) stress a study conducted in authentic, real life activities is important if “meanings and values are to be explored” (p. 34). Naturalistic research requires the researcher “maintain close association with the participants in the setting” so that the researcher gains an “insider’s view of the field” (Burns, 2000, p. 15). This proximity to the field allows the researcher to uncover the beliefs of the participants, to document these beliefs as evidence, often revealing the “subtleties and complexities, that could [otherwise] go undetected” (Burns, 2000, p. 13). As such, qualitative research requires ‘thick descriptions’ that represent the complexity of the situation as “viewed through the eyes of the participants” (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 167).

There is acknowledgement that in forming an association with participants, the researcher influenced the findings. To suggest otherwise would nullify the understandings of the literature the researcher brought to the inquiry. Whereas some authors (Burns, 2000) urge the bracketing of biases meaning they are put aside, this research took the view these understandings and the researcher’s communications formed an ‘explicit part of the knowledge’ rather than being seen as an intervening variable’ (Flick, 2006). Through reflexivity, meaning the mutual interdependence of the accounts including descriptions and their analyses by the researcher, and the social settings from which these accounts are derived, there existed the possibility of reaching deeper insights (Burns, 2000) not otherwise accessible. Maxwell (2005) sees the subjectivity of the researcher as a strength of qualitative research noting “Separating your research from other aspects of your life cuts you off from a major source of insights, hypotheses and validity checks” (p. 38) a view shared by myself.

This study was phenomenological in approach. Phenomenology is centred on the primacy of subjective consciousness, that consciousness is active and meaning bestowing and that access to the meanings is gained through reflection (Cohen et

al., 2007). Focusing on the experiential life world of human interaction through reflexivity, allowed exploration of perceptions, interpretations and meaning structures, from the participants' perspective, reaching deeper levels of meaning (Burns, 2000) yet contributing to a collective reality that centred on the phenomena that are the focus of the inquiry. Patton (2002) reinforces the focus on the phenomena contending 'essences' are the core meanings, and advises these are ascertained through observation of what people experience and in-depth interviewing to gain in-sight into how people interpret their world.

3.3.2.2 A holistic approach

A holistic approach afforded through qualitative naturalistic methods allows understanding of phenomena in context, as opposed to the compartmentalised view associated with quantitative research (Burns, 2000; Gavin, 2008). While it is recognised the "whole story exceeds anyone's knowing, anyone's telling" (Stake, 1994, p. 240) adoption of a holistic approach recognised knowledge is created holistically so represents an attempt to depict objects in their entirety (Flick, 2006). The purpose of this approach was "to discover and to develop the new and to develop empirically grounded theories" (Flick, 2006, p. 15). Theory generated is inductive, and in being grounded in the research data is "understandable and experientially credible, both to the people you are studying and to others" (Maxwell, 2005, p. 24). New theory that is understandable and credible has the potential to improve existing practice, improvement of practice being a practical goal of qualitative, naturalistic and holistic research (Maxwell, 2005).

3.3.3 An interpretive view to the understanding of meanings

Consistent with an inductive, grounded approach to theory, an interpretive view overlaid this study. Such a view sought understanding of the subjective world of the individual participants so that the meanings behind their actions could be understood. These understandings contributed to the co-construction of new knowledge and theory development. Close association between the participants and researcher allowed for dialogic conversation, the purpose of such dialogue

was to reach deeper insights (McCutcheon & Jung, 1990) affording greater understanding of the reasons underlying actions.

3.3.4 *Validity of truth claims*

at best we strive to minimize invalidity and maximize validity

(Cohen et al., 2007, p. 133)

In considering that a naturalistic setting is almost impossible to replicate (Burns, 2000), difficult to capture holistically (Patton, 2002) and interpretations by the researcher are a double hermeneutic in that they represent interpretations of already interpreted worlds (Habermas, 1984) and the difficulty in eliminating threats to validity in qualitative research adopting such approaches became immediately apparent. For example, while the subjective nature of the prior knowledge the researcher brings to a study has previously been acknowledged as a strength of a qualitative approach (see section 3.3.2.1) it represented a validity threat with the potential to bias, for instance interpretation of the collected data because of a “divergence of opinions” (Burns, 2000, p. 150). Such validity threats required careful negotiation to minimise their effects and impact on the validity of truth claims.

In establishing truth claims, trustworthiness served this qualitative research as validity and reliability serve quantitative research (Burns, 2000; Cohen et al., 2007). Newton and Burgess (2008) explain trustworthiness as the reasons for believing truth claims, and Gorard (2001) draws attention to Hammersley’s first norm of qualitative research which is that “the overriding concern of researchers is the truth of claims” (p. 8).

Early views of truth of claims in qualitative research highlight validity and reliability of ‘outcomes’ in terms of the research measuring “what the research purported to measure” (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 133). Recent treatments of trustworthiness have greatly elaborated trustworthiness factors so that integration of these into the research process adds credibility to truth claims. Guided by the

views of Maxwell (1992) and Guba and Lincoln (1989) this research focused on authenticity as a chief principle underpinning trustworthiness. Authenticity is tied to understanding which in interpretive, phenomenological research is described by Maxwell (1992) as central to comprehending the phenomena from the participants perspective, which is what this research strived to represent.

Cognizance of Maxwell's five validity categories heightened researcher attention to these, and led to thoughtful integration of specific strategies into the research methods. For example, descriptive validity is one such category and this pertains to the factual accuracy of collected data (Maxwell, 1992). This is treated in more detail in section 3.6, however one strategy used to ensure accuracy of data gathered in the participant meetings was the audio-recording of these meetings.

Aspects of authenticity will be detailed later in this chapter as they apply to specific research instruments. Insofar as the participant meetings were authentic, were accurately recorded and selected parts of transcripts were participant checked for accuracy of accounts, trustworthiness of raw data was largely safeguarded, notwithstanding representativeness of transcript selection had the potential to bias the research, a point discussed in section 3.6. The above measures were taken to safeguard trustworthiness of data and contributed through this trustworthiness to the validity and credibility of truth claims. Contributing to a body of knowledge and withstanding peer scrutiny is the measure of the maturity of a study (Newton & Burgess, 2008) and maturity represented a goal of this study.

3.4 Research ethics

Ethical research behaviour must permeate every step of the research process from its design, carried through to all its procedures for the research to maintain validity. A key ethical consideration was the recognition of the autonomy and human rights of participants. Autonomy and the rights of others were recognised at the onset through the requirement of the University of Waikato to obtain ethical approval prior to the involvement of others as participants in this research. The

researcher conformed to the Ethical Conduct in Human Research and Related Activities Regulations (University of Waikato, 2009). Respect is central to the Regulations which have the express purpose, “to facilitate ethical conduct which respects the rights of people, communities, trusts and other organisations” (p. 105).

Various authors place respect alongside other key features of ethical research such as justice (Cohen et al., 2007; Orb, Eisenhauer, & Wynaden, 2001) beneficence (Orb et al., 2001) and honesty (Cohen et al., 2007). McGuire and McCullough (2005) view respect as broader and incorporating many other ethical convictions including autonomy and beneficence. T. Wilkinson (2001) supports this broader view of respect stating, “philosophically, the core idea is expressed as ‘respect for persons’ or the ‘separateness of persons’” explained as “People have rights and that there is a lack of respect for their personhood or their separateness if one violates these rights” (p. 15). This broader view acknowledges respect must overlay all steps in the research process if the research is to be valid.

Three key aspects considered at the onset of this research that respect the rights of the participants were: recognition of participant autonomy and anonymity, full disclosure of the nature of the research and participant involvement, and safeguards for the trustworthiness of data. Each key aspect is treated briefly in the paragraphs that follow, however it was acknowledged that many other decisions that contributed to an ethical research process were made. A selection of these, detailed in later sections of this chapter, formed an integral part of the research methods to which they pertained.

Participant autonomy was an issue because the research involved participant pairs as individual cases within a multiple case study method (Stake, 2005) and informed voluntary consent was required from each individual within each pair. It was decided to invite SCTs to participate on the basis that they considered they were working with a suitable mentee for the purposes of the research inquiry. When the SCT verbally accepted the invitation to participate they made an initial approach to the mentee for their verbal consent. Signed consent from willing

participant pairs followed so that each individual was a willing volunteer. This honoured individual autonomies.

Anonymity was an issue because there are a limited number of schools (secondary and area schools being the only schools with SCTs) within the Waikato area, and there is generally only one SCT in each school. Individual identities were protected by the use of self-selected pseudonyms and no information that allows identification of individual schools was incorporated into this report.

Full disclosure of the nature of the research and participant involvement was revealed to participants in two ways, prior to them granting their consent. First, a Participant Information Sheet was provided to individual participants as part of the consent process. Key points highlighted in these sheets included potential benefits (beneficence) that may result for participants, the extent of participant involvement, perceived risks to safeguard as much as possible non-malificence, and participant right of withdrawal. In the event of an individual's decision to withdraw steps to be undertaken were outlined. The first of these steps was to inform the other member of the participant pair as a show of respect of their relationship. Second, an invitation to discuss any matters of concern with either myself as researcher or with the research supervisor as the representative of the university was extended. Contact details were provided on the Participant Information Sheet to facilitate the establishment of contact had a participant wished to pursue this action.

Factors that safeguarded trustworthiness of data included, but were not limited to the following: first the primary source of data collection was naturalistic and authentic because it involved only the participant pairs (two people) meeting as a normal part of their mentoring relationship. Second meetings were audio-recorded and selected parts were transcribed verbatim by the researcher, and third the transcripts were checked by the participants. These latter two points helped ensure accuracy of data.

Each case study, of which there were three, also involved a semi-structured interview with three people present, the researcher and a participant pair. These

interviews were audio-recorded for accuracy, and opportunity for either agreement on interpretations of primary data or for explanations of differences existed. Agreement of interpretations and explanations for differences contributed to the authenticity of interpretations and represented a source of new information and insight.

The use of three cases in this study was a strategy for triangulation of data. When a phenomenon was recorded similarly in two or more cases this represented confirmation of the phenomenon adding to the trustworthiness of claims about this phenomenon.

3.5 A case study methodology

For the collection of qualitative raw data and its interpretation, a case study methodology was chosen because a case study allows close alignment with the decided research approaches. For instance alignment of naturalistic and phenomenological approaches with case studies is supported by Burns (2000), Stake (2005) and Cohen and colleagues (2007). Cohen and colleagues (2007) refer to the “resonance between case studies and interpretive methodologies” (p. 253) and interpretive methodology is fundamental to data analysis within this study.

Using Stake’s typologies, this study was a ‘collective or multiple’ case study because it was firstly an ‘instrumental case study’ with cases chosen to advance understanding of a particular interest (Stake, 2005). Secondly it used three individual cases in the hope of leading to better understanding (Stake, 2005). Burns (2000) supports the use of a ‘multi-case design’ asserting evidence can be more compelling particularly if several cases confirm similar outcomes. This multi-case design represented one form of triangulation as a deliberate design feature that added to the internal validity of this study.

The use of a purposeful sampling method allows the potential to maximise learning surrounding the specifics of the inquiry (Maxwell, 2005; Stake, 2005). A

purposeful sample has an advantage over a representative sample because it allows a focus on criteria that are different from the norm allowing a deeper study of these criteria than would have been possible through representative sampling (Stake, 2005). In recognising these criteria and identifying meaning inherent in the interactions surrounding them, this study has the potential to inform mentoring relationships in wider contexts. Stake (2005) notes “A new case without commonality cannot be understood, yet a new case without distinction will not be noticed” (p. 455). The distinctiveness of these collaborative SCT-mentor and teacher-mentee relationships, yet their roots in common human concepts such as trust and support, placed this study well in this regard.

It was decided to choose SCTs from those expressing a willingness to participate using a brief selection quiz so that selection relied on self-reporting. Basis of selection was firstly on the SCT working with a suitable mentee. Suitable mentees were those with whom an established relationship existed so that trust should be developed (Mayer et al., 1995) or a mentee who was considered able and therefore capable of self-challenge (McNally & S. Martin, 1998). The second basis of selection was a collaborative style of mentoring as described by McNally and S. Martin (1998) because collaboration is consistent with a social-constructivist view of knowledge generation and is a key to the development of trust.

3.6 Data gathering

There were three primary points of contact between the researcher and each participant-pair that provided the main sources of data. The first two were mentoring meetings that involved two people, the SCT-mentor and teacher-mentee as a participant pair. The third was a single semi-structured interview that involved three people, each participant pair and the researcher. These were interspersed with electronic contact as secondary points of contact.

3.6.1 Mentoring meetings

The two mentoring meetings as primary points of contact occurred within the mentoring process as it naturally unveiled. They provided the raw data for analysis prior to the semi-structured interview (discussed in section 3.6.2). One meeting occurred prior to a lesson observation of the teacher-mentee by the SCT as observer, and the other occurred post-observation. These two meetings were consistent with a naturalistic research approach because they occurred in natural settings and they formed a normal sequence of events in the mentoring process. In addition the effect of the researcher was minimised through the presence of a recording device rather than the researcher's own presence because it allowed the researcher to be largely a non-participant, yet still placed the researcher in the setting. Non-participant observation minimised demographic effects on participant perceptions which Dyer (1995) notes can alter interactions.

The capture of a sequence of events provided a more holistic view of the relationship than a single event because it allowed for continuous observation over two events so that sequencing of behaviours was possible (Dyer, 1995). A sequence of events affords "greater confidence in the representative nature of the data" (Dyer, 1995, p. 173) than for single event observation and is more in keeping with the holistic approach encapsulated in this research design.

Audio-recording the entirety of the meetings also served towards a holistic approach, and ensured as much as possible the accuracy of the gathered data. Nevertheless, audio-recording was recognised as overt observation because it required consent of the participants (Dyer, 1995) and was therefore open to participant reactivity such as 'faking good' as an attempt to seek approval which Dyer notes as "the social desirability effect" (p. 78). Audio-recording was also recognised as selective because it did not allow records of visual and non-verbal interactions (Cohen et al., 2007) so some potential data was not recorded.

It was decided to transcribe recordings using hand written and electronic records undertaken personally, and as much as possible, verbatim. In some cases this involved listening as many as five times to the one short piece of dialogue to

ascertain and confirm accuracy, for although all recordings were essentially quite clear, there were instances of participants talking over each other and of rapid speech that was less clear.

In support of audio-recording and transcription Kvale (1996) notes they represent a superior form of record keeping over for instance note taking. Note taking has been shown to not so much reproduce stored information as “reconstruct it around a set of expectations and assumptions” (Dyer, 1995, p. 78) so that audio-recording and transcription was more likely to result in more accurate representations of actual events than many other forms.

The personal approach to transcription was adopted for three reasons. The first was to preserve the confidentiality of the research process in keeping with the research ethics. The second was to immerse myself in the world of the participants so that I might learn of their situation, and become more familiar with the process of mentoring as it applied to them. It was felt this would better enable me to prepare the structured questions for the semi-structured interview that followed. The third reason was to familiarise myself with any “pauses, emphases in intonation, and emotional expressions like laughter and sighing” (Kvale, 1996, p. 170) because these potentially contained insights. While only some of these were recorded in the transcripts, one pause in particular seemed particularly salient and formed the basis of an interview question. However it was later revealed this was not a significant pause.

The naturalistic and holistic approaches adopted throughout this phase of raw data gathering helped ensure authenticity and accuracy of collected data. These measures contributed towards the descriptive validity of representations drawn from the data, and underpinned the trustworthiness of these representations and of the findings reported.

3.6.2 Semi-structured interview

One semi-structured interview for each case separately, followed the meetings and represented the third primary point of contact in the data gathering process. Time was a major consideration in limiting these interviews to one. Firstly the interviews represented a time imposition on the participants and further interviews may have represented an impediment to their willingness to participate. Secondly time was a factor in the completion of this study so represented a limitation on it. This needed to be understood in terms of the management of participant involvement, from consent to final confirmation of interview transcripts. Time was required for the SCT to select and approach a willing teacher-mentee, receive their consent, schedule the first meeting, timetable and conduct the lesson observation and conduct the second meeting. Scheduling these steps was at the discretion of participants and therefore outside any influence by the researcher. In one instance this process extended from June till August and the interview occurred in September.

The purpose of the interview was to ascertain participant perceptions surrounding inter-relational concepts as they occurred in the mentoring relationship. These perceptions included the meanings attached to the dialogue and so are ideographic and hermeneutic in nature in keeping with the research design. It was the perceptions of the participants and their attached meanings that this study sought to uncover and understand, and an interview such as a semi-structured interview was well suited to this. D. Wilkinson and Birmingham (2003) support this view stating “while other instruments focus on the surface elements of what is happening, interviews give the researcher more of an insight into the meaning and significance of what is happening” (p. 44).

Semi-structured interviews involved a sequence of themes to be covered with suggested questions (Kvale, 1996). Two features of semi-structured interviews among others, considered prior to data collection, were as follows. First, the prepared questions served as a guide only. As such there was flexibility in the questions asked. In keeping with the advice of Cohen et al. (2007) preparation for the interviews included: a list of topics, specific questions for each topic, issues

within each topic with possible questions for each issue, and a series of prompts (to seek clarification) and probes (to extend and seek elaboration). In such a way these interviews addressed richness, depth of response, comprehensiveness and honesty as hallmarks of successful interviewing (Cohen et al., 2007). Comprehensiveness and honesty, maintained through to the representativeness of accounts within the research findings helped maintain authenticity of the interpretations of meanings.

Second, the prepared questions were made available to participants prior to the interview as Patton (2002) advises, so that they were not unexpected. Making the questions available prior to the interview was a strategy for the building of rapport. Rapport development can lead to a collaborative interview style and a collaborative style acknowledges knowledge is socially-constructed, facilitating it's generation within the interactions (Stake, 2005). Kvale (1996) also stresses the dynamic of the interview questions stating they “should promote a positive interaction [so as to] motivate the subjects to talk about their experiences and feelings” (p. 130). The use of open-ended questions facilitated positive interactions and allowed for clarification of participant experiences and their meanings, and exploration into the respondent interpretations of those meanings, consistent with the interpretive research approach.

While Cohen et al. (2007) acknowledge the interview as a “powerful implement for researchers” (p. 349) and recognise the potential for richness and depth of responses as inherent strengths in semi-structured interviews, it was recognised interviews are not without limitations. For instance, flexibility in design could result in the omission of potentially substantive insights, and Kvale (1996) also notes a definite asymmetry in power explaining “The interviewer defines the situation, introduces the topics of conversation, and through further questions steers the course of the interview” (p. 126). So while measures taken to establish a collaborative interview may have lessened any researcher influence on the interviewees, the presence of the interviewer as an observer in the research process meant the ideal of a neutral effect was unlikely to be met (Burns, 2000).

Cohen et al., (2007) also forewarn the researcher that interviews are “expensive in time, they are open to interviewer bias, they may be inconvenient for respondents, issues of interviewer fatigue may hamper the interview, and anonymity may be difficult” (p. 349). These were all issues that needed to be considered throughout the design and implementation of the interview process because they have ethical and validity considerations. As an example, I attempted to use a ‘neutral tone of voice’ at all times during the interviews so as not to bias interviewee responses.

3.6.3 Secondary points of contact

The secondary points of contact mostly occurred electronically using emails. It was usual to email both participants simultaneously with identical information, thereby recognising each member of a mentoring pair equally. This honoured the ‘respect of the separateness of persons’ which is a broad view of research ethics supported by T. Wilkinson (2001). It was considered equal recognition of both participants would assist towards equal empowerment of both participants within the semi-structured interview setting, thereby optimising opportunity for each person to contribute their individual thoughts.

Included in these emails were transcripts of meetings and interviews, and prepared questions for the interviews. Providing transcripts allowed participants to check for accuracy, and comment on or clarify issues included in the transcripts. Confirmed transcripts are more likely to accurately represent the participants’ perspectives, which in the semi-structured interviews included authenticity of meanings so that data is more likely to be reliable and trustworthy and truth claims valid and credible. Supplying questions prior to the interviews allowed participants time to reflect on their responses affording opportunity for more considered responses than could be expected without this time, and also avoided the springing of surprises. A potential validity threat is that this time allowed participants opportunity to construct expected answers.

An organisational matter noted in the emails was the researcher’s desire for each participant to consider their responses on their own, rather than in consultation

with the other member of their mentoring pair. This was so that data provided was a reflection of their ‘individual perceptions’ because it was individual perceptions this inquiry sought to understand.

3.7 Data analysis

Analysis of the raw data provided via the participant meetings included selection of key descriptions and thematizing around central phenomena. The stepped approach to meeting analysis I adopted was to:

1. Provide descriptions of how, if at all, generativity occurred in the natural settings for each participant pair.
2. Allow thematizing of key concepts or interactions that arose in the meetings to act as guides in the design of questions for the semi-structured interviews.
3. Represent an initial interpretation by the researcher that provided a focus for the design of questions for the semi-structured interviews.
4. Gain insight into the nature of the mentor-mentee relationship and the roles of each in their mentoring process.

Stake (1994) notes the use of descriptions (step 1) from the raw data helps validate the participant’s experiences provided these are representative of those experiences, and draws the researcher to what is important about the case. Thematizing (step 2) related these descriptions to the theoretical conceptions providing a base for the integration and addition of new knowledge (Kvale, 1996). Integration and addition of knowledge occurred through the semi-structured interview in which the researcher sought to understand participant perceptions and the meanings attached to those perceptions. Specific foci identified in step 3 surrounding the concepts, and in step 4 surrounding the nature of the mentoring relationship afforded scope for gaining deeper understanding of concepts and the mentoring relationships respectively, from participant responses offered within the semi-structured interview.

Kvale (1996) refers to the craftsmanship of the interviewer and notes this involves balancing the interplay of description and interpretation, exploration and hypothesis testing, and the intellectual and emotional dimensions of the interview (Kvale, 1996). For instance, narrative descriptions may require longer time for adequate answers enabling thick descriptions, while categorizing answers may require clarification of meanings throughout the interview because it is acknowledged the attribution of meaning is continuous and evolves over time (Cohen et al., 2007). Data requires continuous and repeated interpretation (Stake, 1994) to confirm its reliability. While the purpose is to discover the intended or expressed meaning “in order to establish co-understanding” (Kvale, 1996, p. 47) it is noted different contextualised views may be agreed upon.

‘Exploration versus hypothesis testing’ and ‘description versus interpretation’ (Kvale, 1996) represent two dichotomies requiring careful negotiation to adequately represent all collected data. Interestingly Kvale (1996) discusses the former dichotomy under the assumption that thematizing for clarifying the purpose of the interview has preceded the exploratory process (see Kvale, 1996, p. 97) implying prior knowledge has already to some degree impacted on the study.

Kvale (1996) describes exploratory approaches as open with little structure, seeking to understand new information interviewees reveal and new angles on the topic, and contrasts this with more structured approaches, using standardised sequenced questions that may be used to test pre-formulated hypotheses such as to compare differences between groups in response to a common stimulus. The exploratory approach is inductive and can lead to the development of grounded theory whereby patterns and theories emerge because they are implicit in the gathering and analysing of the data (Cohen et al., 2007) whereas the hypothesis testing approach follows hypothetico-deductive reasoning whereby the researcher looks for evidence to prove or disprove the pre-formulated hypothesis. Critical is the decision as to how much researcher prior knowledge will direct the course of the study because it permeates this study in its entirety.

Kvale (1996) explains the later description-interpretive dichotomy (again in relation to interviews) stating the interviewer “might seek mainly to obtain

nuanced descriptions [or] also attempt to clarify and interpret the descriptions together with the subject” (p.127). The dilemma rests in the juxtapositioning of descriptive and interpretive design features of this study. The main purpose of the raw data from the mentoring meetings is to provide descriptions of the mentoring process. In themselves these descriptions could form the basis of a study without interpretation that would allow the reader to apply their own interpretations. However in adopting an interpretive approach to this study it is accepted that the researcher’s prior knowledge including the conceptual framework, the concepts it contains, and these and other related concepts such as co-operation discussed in the literature review, influenced the course of the study. It is the meanings surrounding these concepts, and how if at all they inter-relate, that represent the issues under investigation. So while in the findings of this study substantial use is made of descriptions, significant use of interpretations are also utilised to reach deeper meanings and as a basis for the justification of conclusions.

Fundamental to this is whether data is organized by individual, by issue or by research instrument (which normally requires further analysis by individual or issue) (Cohen et al., 2007). Cohen and colleagues (2007) debate a narrative story approach which may be conducted by individual (or individual group such as a mentoring pair) thereby conserving the whole, versus the approach by issue which they describe as “atomistic and fragmentary” (p. 468). They note often “the synergy of the whole [is greater than] the sum of the parts” (p. 470) because organizing data under pre-ordinate categories amounts to data reductionism. The risks in data reductionism are many including: decontextualising the data, loss of sequencing of data, and the loss of the interconnectedness of data. There is also a need to sieve through residual data for other issues, not previously identified that may emerge (Cohen et al., 2007).

Maxwell (2005) assumes from an initial reading of a narrative transcript, tentative categories and relationships will emerge so that coding and thereby fracturing the data will occur. He maintains fracturing facilitates comparison of statements within the same category for consistency and aids the development of theoretical concepts. Maxwell (2005) suggests category coding be accompanied by memos that record for instance analysis of narrative structure and contextual

relationships, serving to maintain a more holistic view than the less holistic view fracturing alone would afford. Since the focus of this study was to examine how knowledge may be generated within a mentoring relationship, and there was an expectation concepts typical of mentoring relationships such as support were likely to be present, there were the dual goals of maintaining the holism of each case, and the study of each issue. In choosing a multiple case study, there was faithfulness to the way each individual case presented yet acknowledgement that issues needed to be pursued. As Cohen and colleagues (2007) warn when analysing by issue, the “wholeness, coherence and integrity of each individual risks being lost” (p. 467).

Nevertheless, consistent with phenomenological processes, meaning was sought in the observed behaviour as each case presented, and in phenomenology (existential) these meanings are classified and organised based on learned typifications (Cohen et al., 2007). Burns (2000) notes explanations concerning phenomena reflect some theoretical propositions and states “the ultimate goal [of categorization] is to analyse the evidence in relation to the original propositions and to any feasible alternative propositions” (p. 472) a view shared by Maykut and Morehouse (2003) who contend “we cull for meaning from the words and actions of the participants in the study but framed by the researcher’s focus of inquiry” (p. 128). In interpreting meaning in the world Patton (2002) notes phenomenologists look for ‘essences’ which he describes as the “core meanings mutually understood through a phenomenon commonly experienced” (p. 106). In a phenomenological research approach it is the essences that become the defining characteristic of the research (Patton, 2002).

A stepped approach was adopted to the analysis of meanings contained within the semi-structured interviews based on Kvale's (1996) approaches to interview analysis. The four steps used were:

1. ‘Narrative Structuring’ which entailed “the temporal and social organization of text to bring out its meaning” (Kvale, 1996, p. 192).
2. ‘Meaning Categorization’ where long sequences of interview were coded as simple categories.

3. 'Meaning Interpretation' which involved "extensive and deeper interpretations of meaning, inspired by hermeneutical philosophy" (Kvale, 1996, p. 201).
4. 'Visualization' of the findings that brought out "connections and structures significant to the research project" (Kvale, 1996, p. 204).

This stepped approach allowed the researcher to be responsive to the range of data that presented and is consistent with a grounded theory approach through which theory may emerge based within the collected data.

Kvale (1996) distinguishes data analysis from data interpretation and describes analysis as "more extensive and deeper interpretations of meaning, inspired by hermeneutical philosophy" (p. 201). He explains this requires the researcher to ascribe meanings not directly apparent in a text, achieved through distancing oneself from the participants, through the use of methodological or theoretical stances. These stances expressed for instance as a conceptual framework re-contextualize "what is said into a specific conceptual context" (Kvale, 1996, p. 201) and as such recognise tangibly the prior knowledge of the researcher and their view, without denying the interpretations of the participants within their context. Indeed interpretive qualitative analysis acknowledges a reactive interaction through reflexivity between the researcher and the de-contextualised data (Cohen et al., 2007). Flick (2006) draws on the work of Denzin noting the "correct application of procedures of interviewing or interpretation counts less than the practices and politics of interpretation" (p. 19).

Perhaps one could view this 'practices and politics of interpretation' through a view of trust itself since trustworthiness of interpretations presented is a precondition for the validity and credibility of truth claims. Jennings (as cited in Butler, 1991, p. 646) refers to accessibility as a condition for trust and explains accessibility as "being mentally open and receptive to the giving and accepting of ideas" (p. 646). In the search for meaning and interpretations, being open and receptive to ideas applies to accepting ideas both consistent and in conflict with one's prior knowledge, and through the findings that follow in Chapter Four,

presenting to the reader accounts that are representative of these consistencies and conflicts.

Chapter Four: Research Findings

4.1 Introduction

The approach adopted in the presentation of findings is to begin on a case by case basis using a narrative approach. This serves to preserve the naturalistic and holistic nature of each case, and allows the reader opportunity to understand the individual contexts of each mentoring relationship. Understanding the context better positions the reader to consider the findings as they apply within each mentoring relationship up front, rather than if the data were initially presented decontextualised such as through a thematic approach. This case by case approach is considered important in this research because it seeks to understand generativity within each mentoring relationship, and how (if at all) this occurs can be quite context specific.

It is also acknowledged that learning is situation specific. Within the mentoring relationships this means any learning and therefore generativity that occurs is as Owen (2004) explains “connected to the situation” (p. 4). This will impact on individual cognition and meaning as it is socially constructed (Owen, 2004) not only as it applies to generativity through the mentoring episodes that are under investigation, but also to the representations that are generated throughout the course of this study. In acknowledging this situativity, representations are based in specific contexts, occurring in specific situations at certain points in time. Each event such as meetings, interviews and other communications should therefore be viewed as unique to each situation.

As each case is presented it is intended to give particular voice to the participants because it is their descriptions and interpretations that are of interest at this point. Abundant use will be made of quotations from the two mentoring meetings and each interview for individual cases so that descriptions and interpretations are as much as possible accurate and authentic within the limitations of this research.

These descriptions centre on the questions guiding this research inquiry which are repeated here from section 2.1:

1. What is the basis of trust and support, and how do they interact in an effective mentoring?
2. What part if any do challenge and risk-taking play in generativity?
3. What are the individual and collective roles of the mentor and the mentee in generativity towards individual professional teaching identity of the mentee?

Participant descriptions and interpretations will be interspersed with researcher commentary to assist in the flow of information while attempting to preserve participant accuracy and authenticity of descriptions and meanings.

Further analysis through a thematic approach ensues (see section 4.3). Interpretive and phenomenological in approach, this thematic analysis contains more of the voice of the researcher and brings in my prior knowledge gained through examining the literature and from personal experience and study. This prior knowledge includes my conceptual framework as a proposed 3-D model of a mentoring generative effect (Figure 1.2) and in introducing this model in Chapter One I have acknowledged my position at the onset of this research, and through discussion of the research design in Chapter Three have recognised the influence this has on the representations contained in these findings. This researcher analysis which represents my own reflections on the participant descriptions and interpretations is therefore embedded in both the data and the knowledge I bring to this study.

Researcher analysis may further confirm interpretations as they occurred in the interview or present alternative views, particularly as they relate to the proposed 3-D model which was not revealed to participants prior to the completion of data gathering. While this reflective analysis distances the researcher from the participants, and allows the possibility of bias in the researcher analysis which is a

potential validity threat, it is nevertheless well based on participant views and serves to allow evaluation of my proposed 3-D model and to justify any truth claims surrounding the overall research inquiry which seeks,

understanding of individual perceptions (of the SCT-mentor and teacher-mentee) of trust, support, challenge and risk-taking in knowledge generation in an interpersonal mentoring relationship.

In presenting my conceptual model, and through this overall research inquiry and the guiding questions, there was a desire to gather data on the ‘inter-relationships’ between the concepts of trust, support, challenge, risk-taking and other concepts identified by participants. A dilemma I faced that required a design decision was the extent of my prior knowledge that I would reveal to participants at the onset of the research because I recognised the potential this has for bias, yet there is a need to be honest with participants. I have already stated that my conceptual model was not revealed to any participants.

However in seeking to inform of the inter-relationships between concepts through a single semi-structured interview that limits accessibility to data, I was aware of the possibility that these concepts may not arise, and if they did not, the interview may not serve the purpose of gathering participant perceptions on these concepts. I revealed only concept names to cases two and three and kept them hidden from case one. I also decided to include a fourth case with names hidden but this later inclusion of a fourth case put time constraints on it and due to unanticipated delays in the provision of audio-recordings from the mentoring meetings it was decided to terminate this case.

Finally, I initially invited SCTs to participate through a presentation at an SCT cluster meeting. I further made personal contact with fourteen SCTs. Those who were unavailable commonly stated they were not working with a suitable mentee as required for this purposeful sample. In one instance the SCT was willing and was working with a mentee considered suitable, but the mentee was unwilling to participate, while in two instances the SCT was unwilling because they considered they were too busy.

4.2 The case studies

Data used in presenting the three cases that make up this multiple case study are presented separately for each case. Data used include that provided through the two mentoring meetings for each case and the single semi-structured interview along with researcher commentary. Guided by my conceptual model for a generative effect, I initially sought evidence in the raw data collected from the mentoring meetings of professional growth and therefore new knowledge of the mentee. I sought to confirm this in the semi-structured interview.

I was also guided by my three research questions. For instance in seeking evidence for question 1 regarding trust and support, I searched the raw data from the mentoring meetings for evidence of these concepts that naturally occurred. For example, a statement of affirmation of the mentee made by the SCT was flagged as a potential indicator of support. I undertook this flagging process over several readings of transcripts, undertaken on separate days in an attempt to be open to new insights the data may present. During the flagging process I was mindful of being open to alternative concepts that may appear. Flagged data were used in the construction of structured questions for the semi-structured interviews.

All names have been changed to protect the anonymity of participants in accordance with the ethics surrounding this research. All three SCTs have a minimum of two years' experience in that position and in all cases the mentoring relationship with the mentee is an established relationship, extending beyond one year timeframe. One year is the maximum time for the 'initiation phase' of a mentoring relationship (Bouquillon et al., 2005) and allows time for the development of higher levels of trust than may be present at the onset of the relationship, through the mentoring interactions which may include reciprocity. Challenge is therefore more likely to be incorporated into these relationships than for those less established.

4.2.1 Case one

This case involved Chris as the SCT-mentor and Kerry as the teacher-mentee. Participants were not alerted to the concepts.

4.2.1.1 Mentoring meetings

In the first mentoring meeting Chris referred to the use of a mentoring model⁴ for observation and feedback that focuses on identifying positives and advice-to-self arising from a classroom lesson with Kerry as the teacher being observed. Chris reported typically adopting this model as an approach to mentoring. Kerry was offered the choice to begin feedback or for Chris to begin, starting with positives. Advice-to-self that followed was only given by the mentee in this model.

There were three areas that were broadly stated by Chris as areas to be looked at in the observation to follow. These were in Chris's words a "more student directed lesson", secondly "we're looking at the co-construction idea here" and thirdly an aspect of questioning described to Kerry as your "feeding forward, we'll be looking at that as well, not giving them the answers, but making them think about the answers" (CS1M⁵). In the post-lesson observation meeting Kerry then gave positive feedback describing teacher questioning and student responses in the lesson as follows:

I think what happened is that even with that question I, questions they answered, to make sure they did understand what they were talking about, even in some cases where I asked them to explain how they got to their calculation procedure, even though it was a simple basic one. (CS1M).

Following the mentoring model Chris also gave positive feedback on Kerry's questioning as follows:

Kerry, I really like your questioning, especially your feeding forward. You know you are developing this ability to ask a question and to expect an answer, and you persevere...(CS1M).

Chris then gave an example of this development of Kerry's practice that he had observed in Kerry's classroom:

You said," how did you do it"? And he said "I used my multiplication skills" and you said "very good but it still doesn't tell me how you did it". So then you made him come up with a strategy... (CS1M).

Towards the end of the first meeting this piece of dialogue occurred that raised the issue of advice-to-self being interpreted as a negative judgement:

⁴ The identity of the named model has not been revealed because other models exist that use positives and advice, and as used the model named was not fully represented.

⁵ CS1, CS2 etc means case study 1, case study 2 etc. M = meetings, I = interviews

C: *Do you have any advice-to-self?*

K: *Negatives, right what I've got to try and do is...*

4.2.1.2 *Semi-structured interview*

The approach I adopted to this semi-structured interview, being the first interview I had conducted in this study, was to have very few structured questions to allow as much scope as possible to respond to any lead given by the participants. I chose to focus on three areas, the first was to identify and confirm any change in practice surrounding questioning as evidence of pedagogical development and new knowledge for Kerry as the mentee. In being asked to describe Kerry's questioning before and after the mentoring, these were a selection of responses:

K: *I don't like spoon feeding them. As I said before, I wanted to make them think so I was asking them questions and then asking them to clarify their answers.*

C: *The change that I noticed was that he was very determined that I've asked you a question, and one way or another I'm going to get a thoughtful answer.*

The second area of interview questions focused on the mentoring relationship. In response to Chris as the mentor stating the three areas that will be looked at in the observation, I wanted to explore the role each of Kerry and Chris were playing in the identification of areas for development and to explore the 'locus of control' in the relationship. The following question was asked of Kerry, and selected mentor and mentee responses are then noted:

So if we are developing Kerry as a teacher, how in the relationship, how much do you see Chris contributing and how much are your ideals and that sort of thing contributing, because I'm just thinking if that questioning goal came from Chris...

K: *I think basically I've got my teaching style, whatever it may be, and Chris is there to polish it up. You know, and just tweaking it to make sure it's improving in the best possible way.*

C: *Can I just come in here. One of the things that came from Kerry was that Kerry wanted to have the lessons a little more student-centred and a little less teacher-centred and that was Kerry's idea. So the only thing I tried to do was help facilitate that by making suggestions.*

In exploring this further the question was asked of Kerry of any goals for his teaching. The responses included:

K: *O my goals as a teacher. I want to become one of the best teachers and to do that I've got to learn from other people that have been in the business.*

K: *When I go to x⁶ school they have a very similar sort of vein, they are going in that sort of same direction. When I was at varsity my science and maths tutors, they were trying to go that way so yeah, that's the way to go. It's a newer way. Some of the teachers don't like this new approach I like this approach and this is a chall..., I call it the changing classroom, gotta be able to, you must change with the classroom and to make sure the students become street wise.*

K: *...anything that Chris does suggest I'm going to go for it, because what I'm doing is putting that into practise and it works...*

K: *I want to hand the kids the responsibility it's their learning and they've got to take it up so it's the way I address them, a way or why I teach them.*

The third area of focus for interview questions was on the inter-relational concepts. Two areas were explored, the first surrounded 'choice' on the part of Kerry as mentee, since choice differentiates trust from co-operation (see section 2.2.1). The question was asked of Kerry, by Steve (S) as the interviewer:

S: *What would happen if you thought Chris, have you ever thought Chris has come up with an idea that you didn't like?*

K: *Right, if I did, Chris and I would talk it through and I would say maybe it's not such a good idea, because of this, this, and we'd discuss it. Ah well, let's try it anyway or let's do it, with maybe a slightly different approach so we can work it out...*

And further, if faced with a difficulty in the classroom Kerry was asked if given a choice as to whom to approach, the response was:

K: *Yep, I would, Chris is the person. I've, what's happened is I've a lot of, oh a lot of dealings mostly with Chris here...ah Chris from a tutor come helper, come wow, he's great and he's got right behind me which is awesome.*

In investigating the inter-relationship of concepts a second area of focus was on affirming statements (including identifying positives) since these may be perceived as statements of support. The interview question referred to explicit feedback and the use of terms like "that is really good".

S: *How did that impact on your working with Chris?*

K: *From a teaching point of view it's much better, as I said it's more challenging, more rewarding...I think we are becoming stronger and stronger, and I, I'm relying on Chris. He's become a real good friend. He's helped me out heaps, you know that something that's happened in the last*

⁶ Name of school removed for confidentiality reasons

couple of days, first person I'm going back to is Chris. And really it's good that we've got this understanding and relationship that's important.

S: *Okay so if you are saying there is this understanding in the relationship how might that differ from other relationships., or what is it about, other than it's just the way you are relating with positives, what other things are you looking at in Chris as a mentor?*

K: *Someone that I can look up to and I do. What Chris suggests and it works, and that's great. Ah empathy, understanding.*

Kerry explained empathy as:

Empathy to me means that Chris is talking, proposing, suggesting etcetera to me, as Chris understands exactly where I am and knows where and what I have to do to become a great teacher. Chris is on my level and not talking down to me, we are on the same wavelength. And we both enjoy the regular get togethers and chats to discuss the success or problems encountered.

There was frequent use by Chris of positive comments, about which the following was asked: "What's the purpose in the relationship of making statements like that?" In answering this question Chris referred briefly to "reinforcing what Kerry is doing" and then at length described different events within Kerry's lessons so that there was no voicing of the purpose of this within the relationship. The following represents a part of the interview that followed:

S: *Right so just another example, you used the word 'reinforcing', what Kerry is doing well, so I'm looking at why you are reinforcing it and what impact that has on how you are interacting?*

C: *Oh, okay.*

S: *In a similar way to when you started off you used a mentoring model.*

K: *Yes and you used positives.*

C: *Yes*

S: *So why are you focusing on that sort of thing and how do you think that impacts on the relationship between you two?*

C: *I think it gives Kerry some continued enthusiasm and it's giving him motivation so that he's now thinking about okay, so when I'm going to my next class, I'll try this and I'll try that and he's just thinking about the different ways of doing things and also, oh well I'm trying to give him as many positives as I can because in the model you don't talk about negatives, you talk about advice-to-yourself so with Kerry and I, it's never been negatives. It's always been either positives within his lessons or what advice would he give to himself.*

4.2.2 Case two

Bruce is the SCT-mentor and Laura the teacher-mentee. Concept names were revealed to these participants, but not the conceptual model.

4.2.2.1 Mentoring meetings

The mentoring again followed the same mentoring model as for CS1, identifying positives and advice-to-self. Bruce began the discussion with Laura stating for meeting one:

B: *I'll get you to reflect on some things that went well in the lesson and anything you may want to do differently in hindsight which is the standard sort of thing we look at, but as a specific focus you're talking about, what are we looking at?*

And again near the beginning of meeting two Bruce invites Laura to self-reflect using positive feedback consistent with the mentoring model:

B: *Ah from your point of view the good, the things that made an effective lesson. I've several things written down, but if you were to analyse it for yourself?*

In response to the question in the former quote "...what are we looking at?" Laura identified her questioning specifically for student understanding in linking the theoretical side of her subject to the practical side. A part of the feedback to Laura from Bruce after the lesson observation contained the following:

B: *If I just go through very quickly the sorts of questions. In the open-ended questions, because you do it really nicely cos you're doing it as you're moving, as you're demonstrating, you're throwing questions at the same time in relation to what you are doing so a lot of the questions like I wrote down a few of them here "hands up if you understand" or things like "Who can tell me what is happening to..what'll happen to the ball now, do you think" and more specifically a couple of whys as well.*

4.2.2.2 Semi-structured interview

A more structured approach to this interview was adopted than for CS1. Seven structured questions, attached as appendix 1 were prepared. The section of the meeting transcripts to which a question referred was highlighted for the participants. The first two questions focused on identification of an area of teaching pedagogy for Laura in which development was sought and on anything particular about this mentoring relationship that allows such a focus.

- S: *Yes but then where did the suggestion of questions come from?*
- B: *I don't know which of us.*
- L: *I think it was me.*
- B: *Yeah.*
- L: *Because I knew I was doing my achievement standard which is hard content stuff. And I wanted to make sure I was using appropriate questioning so that they understood the content because last year I had 60% pass rate and I thought that I could do better than that and my kids could do better than that so.*
- S: *Right, you were aiming at 75%.*
- L: *Yeah teaching it again, yeah I'm well, do you know what I mean... I want to make sure that they are understanding...*
- S: *And so you've already got the results for it.*
- L: *Yes, I do.*
- B: *And?*
- L: *And I had one person fail out of ah eighteen. So seventeen out of eighteen passed.*

Part of the conversation led to the naming by Laura of trust in Bruce. In the section prior to this Laura stated she had heard Bruce teaching from outside his classroom.

- S: *And you've heard the understanding, the seeking of that in questioning?*
- L: *No but I've, I know Bruce is good at what he does through other people as well, so I trust them and I trust that they know and that they've seen Bruce teach. That he is good at what he does so I trust, you know his you know, guidance and mentoring.*
- S: *Okay cool, and so explain trust to me.*
- L: *I take on board what he says and I apply it. So he said that for example I should call on these kids who are quiet, and so I did do that, and it was successful, so when I say trust I mean I listen to what he says and I apply what he suggests that I do.*

The above pointed to 'co-operation', 'confidence', or 'predictability' as possible interpersonal relationships rather than trust so the following unstructured question was asked:

- S: *Okay so what about if you had a different thought to what Bruce suggested?*
- L: *Oh, I would probably tell him if I thought, and maybe kind of come to some, not agreement, but I would tell him if I thought and go from there and probably build on that. You know maybe I haven't told him the full story about something and you know, I need to supply more background and it may affect what he said but I would definitely tell him if I didn't agree.*

B: *There's an example of that in the transcript I think. In the practical where I intimated that I thought, I was a bit surprised that you didn't... you basically said, nah nah, if I do this...and it's your specialty area and I took that on board and that was cool. It wasn't the way I was thinking but it makes sense what you said.*

These answers confirmed choice is present so the relationship is not one of co-operation. Probing further into the nature of the relationship a further unstructured question was asked as follows:

S: *When you attempt something new like then, or where you are trying to develop in a certain way, do you feel it's always going to be successful from the start?*

L: *No.*

S: *You don't? So give me some examples about how you would feel then?*

L: *I always believe in giving things a go and trying things out and I know from a previous experience that that's not always the case, sometimes it doesn't come out on top like the questioning thing. Sometimes I've been given advice and I've tried it and it just hasn't worked, yeah. And so I know that if you give it a go, you know, it could be successful. So I'm more in that kind of mind frame. I know that things are not going to work first time every time.*

S: *And so a suggestion like that from Bruce of developing the why questions, how do you see a suggestion like that when it's made to you?*

L: *I kind of internalise it and I think about it and realise that it's something I should do...*

The fact that Laura identifies the potential for both negative and positive outcomes means risk is involved that is RIS so that trust is confirmed as the basis of the relationship rather than confidence, or predictability as defined by (Mayer et al., 1995).

Questions 3-5 focused on identification of positives (consistent with the mentoring model) and on positive verbal comments such as "that's a really cool thing" (Bruce, CS2I) made by Bruce towards Laura though it was acknowledged positive comments represented a two-way flow.

L: *I suppose it's positive affirmation that's making me feel good about what I'm doing and yeah. It just kind of makes me feel that you're doing some things right and I should keep doing what I'm doing.*

B: *That and the fact that they are really cool things...It's a cool thing and so they are really good strategies that some of those young teachers have that some of us old fellas don't necessarily use. We should get around to doing it.*

S: *That's true so do you think there's benefits.*

B: *Absolutely. It's just ah, I'm not saying that maybe in some cases but not often, just to make it sound reaffirming on some sort of artificial level. The fact is they are cool strategies that are being used and sometimes I haven't seen them before which is brilliant.*

And further, on questioning Bruce about his mentoring practice:

S: *Right so how would you describe then your style of mentoring if you were going to pick out some words?*

B: *Oh I think I'm very lucky here. The teachers I'm working with, so you're reinforcing what's happening. Reinforcing very good practice.*

S: *Except we've just had an example of Laura developing, which goes beyond reinforcement.*

B: *Yep.*

S: *Is that a focus at all?*

B: *Yep, as required, as required. So it depends what level of class you're working with...*

This again resulted in a piece of conversation that focused on classroom interactions rather than on mentoring practice. However, further into the conversation trust was revisited by asking Bruce to give his views on it.

S: *I just wanted to flick back just for a few minutes and Laura started talking about trust, and mentioned some things about it. How do you see that in an SCT mentor- mentee relationship Bruce?*

B: *The relationship we try to have, the focus is on us. It's a little bit different to the PRT relationship with them. When I do, and I have done some formal lesson observations, which is outside the brief a little bit but so that these folks can use them in their folders if they so wish, but I just explained I think people realise that what I do they can choose to disregard completely and it doesn't go any further. I don't go off to the PRT co-ordinator or the Principal and say this is not happening or whatever. It's just done purely on a one-to-one basis between myself and whoever I'm working with, a HOD in some cases. And so I think most people around here have got the understanding that they can ask me in and I'll sit and watch what's going on and make some suggestions and they choose to work on them. I like to think that people have that understanding of the way that it operates because we've got attestation things, we've got professional development around here, we've got PRT stuff going on around here a lot of other stuff going on which has got to be paper trail stuff.*

S: *...is there anything specific about your mentoring where you emphasise development of say rapport or anything like that or is it just...*

B: *It depends on the teacher, it's totally individual.*

The explanation moved away from the mentoring relationship focusing on rapport between a specific teacher and their class.

4.2.3 Case three

John is the SCT-mentor and Kelly is the teacher-mentee. Participants were alerted to the concept names, but not the conceptual model.

4.2.3.1 Mentoring meetings

These meetings were characterised by long sections of talk from one participant and then from the other as they both reflected on the issue that was identified by Kelly, and they related this issue to their own teaching. At the beginning of the first meeting for this study, John summarised earlier conversations, and invited Kelly to reflect on what was happening for her.

J: *...you said there were a lot of things going on for you as a teacher and like all these different thoughts going on and then you came up with this idea you wanted to focus on student understanding and how much you were putting into your planning and putting into your lessons so do you want to sort of talk about that?*

Part of Kelly's reflection included the following two pieces interspersed with a question from John:

K: *And I know the research says it, and the literature will tell this, teach to the needs but are we doing it? And for me, I'm only starting to realise what's important and honestly I don't think pushing to that assessment and teaching to get through the work is the be all and end all.*

J: *Yeah that was going to be my next question, how did you come to that realisation? So it was about?*

K: *...that's my own personal opinion and I think well if they understood a concept would they have retained at least some of it for the following year. And they hadn't.*

John then reflected on how he perceived this issue within his classroom. Part of his reflection was:

J: *So what? That's something I've discovered for myself. I'm struggling to develop in terms of. At the moment theoretically we're supposed to have covered two achievement standards if we push them through. Right and it looks good on the reports ... Good looks, looks good ... Good stats but have they learnt?... but having you say that, and I really respect your opinion. And I, yes it just gives me the confidence that I'm doing the right thing 'cause I feel my students are learning, learning more than just getting credit accumulation. ... You know I don't, I don't want that to happen. I don't want them to get just say I want to get it out of the way. I want them to value what they're doing and, and truly learn.*

In preparing for the observation to follow John asked Kelly the following:

J: *...So what I'm trying to get at is what is valuable to you...we have this discussion around it, would there be any focuses that you want me to focus on? I'm just anticipating.*

K: *Yeah well probably. I'm still interested to see if the whole dynamics, like going that way. And you'll see, you'll see if it's assessment driven or not.*

The second meeting followed a similar approach with both mentor and mentee reflecting one after the other on their individual practice. Kelly talked about the students' knowledge and their ability to apply knowledge, and John's response follows:

K: *And I think, see, information and knowledge that you have, but you can't apply it. So that is what they're doing.*

J: *But I, yeah I hear your frustration, but I just think the issue of, you've identified what you want to do. It's basically the knowledge has to be applied.*

The meeting continued to its completion with similar dialogue where mentor and mentee exchange views on knowledge and application of knowledge. The possibility of getting feedback from students of 'what worked well in this whole assessment' and 'what helped you (students) learn' or 'what stopped you learning' was explored. The conversation ended with John saying "I watch when I get year 12 when I think, well, why haven't they got this, yeah why haven't they got it?"

4.2.3.2 *Semi-structured interview*

Leading to this interview seven structured questions (see appendix 2) were emailed to both participants along with highlighted sections of the meeting transcripts to which each question referred. The first three questions focused on the meeting discussion surrounding the 'realisation'. The interview began with Steve reading the first question.

S *Kelly if possible are you able to recall what it was that resulted in the start of the realising, or circumstances that may have lead directly to the realising"?*

K: *Yes, I've thought about this. I think it's a process, and because of experience in the job I think. To make sense of everything...and so I think it's through those experiences that I've realised.*

Kelly further elaborated on realisations as:

K: *Yeah I was, but I think it's from along the way them not succeeding, it hasn't been through success I don't think ... because that's what I'm saying*

it's like, man is it in a moment in class you're verbalizing, questions have been, you know they've been asked.

When asked how this affected the following dialogue these are excerpts from John's response:

J: *Yeah I guess for me, like a realisation is a realisation, you suddenly realise something so something must have occurred for you to realise that so she's saying these kids, as I understood it, these kids are actually learning, they are demonstrating the knowledge in class at a certain points, but when it came to this assessment, written assessment, it didn't show what I believe, perceived was going on in the classroom...so it's always about what initiates that train of thought and ... I was reflecting on my own practice and heard what Kelly was saying, totally, but I certainly moved it beyond that as well.*

As an example of professional growth for Kelly to which question 4 referred, Kelly described the following:

K: *...I have tried different approaches for instance instead of giving them, okay, what's a method of training, give me a definition, all of those kids could tell me that I know it. That's knowledge and information, it's not understanding so instead I gave them a different task and I gave them a full on training programme, one page for a week, ah identify or describe the different methods, why is it, you know...*

Questions 5-6 were designed to explore the roles of the Mentor and mentee, and their perceptions of these roles in the mentoring relationship.

S: *So do you think that came about as a consequence of the mentoring with John?*

K: *I think it, no I did, think it did for me because we, like we had this dialogue and it gave me a little bit of excitement actually to say yeah well maybe and I think that's what this does for me it, it allows me to get all this stuff out of my head and you know, sort of, not that John says you can and can't do it but it, it makes me through what we're speaking about say yeah, have the confidence to go for it. And I have.*

As interviewer I then probed for different words that might be applied to the relationship. John stated "the T word". This is the conversation that followed:

S: *What's the T word John?*

J: *Trust.*

S: *Trust.*

J: *Like if you spoke to me, I mean if you spoke to anyone else, you know it's like me, I wouldn't reveal certain things to certain people because I don't trust them. What they'd do with it. That's from my own experience, you know you never, you never talk about your weaknesses with people you*

can't trust, you know because they'll use it against you sort of thing. Teaching can be like that.

S: *So can I ask what trust means to you.*

J: *What does trust mean? It means openness so you can lay whatever you want out on the line and show your vulnerabilities and you won't be judged and you won't, and it won't be used against you. It'll be used in a learning conversation rather than a judgement, put you in a box and to justify a perception of you.*

S: *Okay, what do you think of John's description of trust Kelly?*

K: *Yeah, I agree with it but I think it's still more than that for me.*

S: *Go on.*

K: *From our dialogue, I mean I'm, I like giving things a go anyway, and I'm probably gonna, I think I'd do it, but I feel, having to report back about how something went maybe, after okay we've talked about this, and it's all okay I'm gonna try it this way, and then going back into the classroom, trying it, knowing that, not really reporting back, but you're going to then, discuss well this, some revelation from it. This is what happened. And then you can feed off that again and you're always trying to be better.*

Kelly was questioned on being open to feeding back to John and stated:

K: *he's [John] humble about what he does so that makes me think, well yeah why not, I can share those things with him...maybe his belief in me...his acceptance...and maybe kind personality...he's honest...he's not judgemental.*

Following this John described his further views on trust:

J: *I think for me it's similar, similar values in the sense of education and things like that, like we've talked about a moral purpose [K interjected: Values, yes] and believing in a certain thing, and she's got very high standards.*

In talking about giving things 'a go', it seemed unclear from the mentoring meetings what if any actions had eventuated, and whether Kelly had constructed any new knowledge.

S: *I didn't get that jump in the meetings. Sort of the conversations ended where, well this is what I'll look at but I didn't see perhaps.*

K: *What I'm gonna do about it?*

S: *Yeah what you're going to do about it.*

K: *Yeah I don't think we discussed it.*

J: *I don't think, yeah I wasn't I didn't want to.*

K: *And I don't write things, I haven't, I know we're supposed to, gorr we teach the kids to write down a goal but ...(S interjected : But you took an action) but it was, in my mind I did I did more than that too. We, I spoke to our*

department about how we're scaffolding our learning and what it is. So I looked even beyond that, those lessons you know, apply the knowledge, find ways to apply the knowledge. And we looked at, well what are we teaching at year 12, what do these year 11s need to know and how in the junior school can we build them up so time for them to learn is provided. And so we've made changes, changes in that area as well. And so we've aligned, we've looked at the task, we've changed some tasks, all from this. And like I said, I believe, because I believe in it and I have someone here with those same values or beliefs that yeah it's more than this then that allowed me to go over there and say well look, what are we doing, cause this is what I'm finding in my class. I've tried it this way, this you know, and I, this exercise helped them so maybe we need to scaffold it a little bit better, look at the tasks that we're doing and we have, we've made changes and to me, hopefully for that assessment anyway, we are going to see changes in the kids learning.

S: *Okay.*

K: *So there's been some real action from the dialogue.*

John then commented on how he saw his mentoring.

J: *For me just, from a mentor point of view, I've, a lot of my mentoring is based on my own experience in terms of how it works for me, and I don't like to be saying, okay well we've got this little you know mentee relationship so you need to have a goal now, you know we need to go and measure this sort of thing. I know from Kelly that she'll go and do, that she's gonna do something anyway sort of thing you know. She's going down that track, she's doing it herself. So I don't need to say well you know, let's, let's work out a goal, cause she you know, she'll do it anyway, and I don't like, I don't like the obligation that you have to come up with a goal when you're having a conversation okay, and you know so when I come back I'll check on it sort of thing to see if, you know it's like she'll do it, you know I just find it a bit too constraining. For me personally, I felt you know cause when I've had observations, oh what's your goal now, you've had, you haven't even had time to reflect on it you know.. I don't know, I want to think about it a bit more, I don't even know that I agree with what you're saying sort of thing, you know, but I've got to have a goal. You know, you know, I understand that you got to you know, sort of have a process and it's got to be manageable but...*

The audio-recording cut out at this point in time. Question 7 concerning the significance of positive comments such as 'that's fantastic' and 'reaffirms me' followed and participants were asked via email if they could briefly write their comments on question 7. Kelly did not respond to the email which was sent to her twice. John responded to the email (sent to him once) with the following written comments:

1. *It affirms the mentee in that they have been understood and valued in what they have said.*
2. *The valuing involves not making a negative judgement on what they have said.*
3. *The significance from a mentor perspective is probably affirmation about one's own view on education.*
4. *It's also about showing support for certain philosophies of education. ie a broader vision than credit accumulation.*
5. *It's like having your own cheer team for experimenting with your teaching always with the student's best interest at heart – the moral imperative.*
6. *It has a liberating and supportive effect for both parties.*

4.3 Researcher categorization and interpretation

Section 4.3.1 focuses on generativity because this must be evident within each case within this multiple case study, if the case is to inform this research. Section 4.3.2 examines guiding questions one and two (see sections 2.1 and/or 4.1) that relate chiefly to the inter-relational concepts and section 4.3.3 relates to guiding question three that focuses on the roles of the mentor and mentee.

4.3.1 Generativity

In sub-section 4.3.1.1 generativity is established as occurring within each case. Reflection was identified as a major part of the generativity process and is examined in section 4.3.1.2 giving a naturalistic overview of the generativity process.

4.3.1.1 Evidence of generativity

There was clear evidence of generativity as professional growth for each mentee in all three cases. In CS1M development of the 'feeding forward' questioning technique as a strategy for a more student-centred classroom learning approach is evident. Both mentor and mentee were able to describe this development and verify it with examples. For example, Chris described Kerry's development as "your feeding forward. You know you are developing this ability to ask a question and to expect an answer, and you persevere" (CS1M). This 'feeding forward' development represents a strategy as part of a shift from a transmission style of teaching to a more student-centred learning approach and so represents a change in pedagogical choice.

In CS2I Laura explained her development in terms of the use of “appropriate questioning so that they [students] understood the content”. In so doing she linked the theoretical side of her subject with the practical side and sought a shift in teaching pedagogy that included understanding of this practical side for students. Interestingly she related a possible effect of this intervention on learning outcomes for students as measured in assessments, and noted significantly improved performance as a result of the intervention. While statistical validity of proof of any effect of the intervention has not been established, a change to ‘understanding’ represents a change from cognitive recall learning for the students to meta-cognitive learning processes that required a shift in teaching pedagogical practice.

Growth in CS3 focused on adopting a new approach to lesson planning and task alignment and redesign. For example Kelly described her task development as follows: “I have tried different approaches...so instead I gave them a different task and I gave them a full on training programme, one page for a week, identify or describe the different methods, why is it” (CS3I).

4.3.1.2 Generativity through mentoring as a reflective process

Generativity was facilitated by the mentoring in this study using primarily reflective processes. Both CS1 and CS2 used a mentoring model whereby the focus was on reflection-on-action whereby action refers to the action of teaching by the mentee. In CS1M the first three italicised quotes (see section 4.2.1.1) represent reflection-on-action, and in CS2 Bruce began meeting one inviting reflection-on-action from Laura stating “I’ll get you to reflect on some things that went well in the lesson” (CS2M) and the dialogue that followed pre-dominantly represented reflection-on-action with a focus on mentee actions within the classroom.

In contrast CS3M began with John talking about the mentee-identified focus on student understanding through planning and practice in lessons. John invited Kelly to contribute to the dialogue stating “do you want to sort of talk about that”

(CS3M). What followed was the sharing of understandings of their individual teaching experiences, using parallel conversations. Individual quotes from Kelly and John that depict parallel conversations include:

...And I know the research says it, and the literature will tell this, teach to the needs but are we doing it? And for me, I'm only starting to realise what's important and honestly I don't think pushing to that assessment and teaching to get through the work is the be all and end all... (Kelly, CS3M).

...That's something I've discovered for myself. I'm struggling to develop in terms of. At the moment theoretically we're supposed to have covered two achievement standards if we push them through. Right and it looks good on the reports (K: Oh yes)...Good looks, looks good (K: Good on stats) Good stats but have they learnt?... but having you say that, and I really respect your opinion. And I, yes it just gives me the confidence that I'm doing the right thing because I feel my students are learning, learning more than just getting credit accumulation. (K: true) You know I don't, I don't want that to happen. I don't want them to get just say I want to get it out of the way. I want them to value what they're doing and, and truly learn (John, CS3M).

So whereas generativity was facilitated by reflection within each mentoring relationship, there was a clear distinction in the type of reflection adopted. CS1 and CS2 adopted a reflection-on-action approach with 'action' referring to the action of the mentee and reflection being by both mentor and mentee. In CS3 reflection involved the use of parallel conversations with each of the mentor and mentee reflecting on their individual practice.

4.3.2 Inter-relational concepts

The first three sub-sections that follow present the findings on risk-taking, trust, and support as categories identified in guiding questions one and two (challenge as the fourth concept in the guiding questions will be examined in section 4.3.3). Confidence as an essence that emerged in the data is examined alongside risk-taking to which it relates. The relationship between trust and support that is fundamental to my proposed 3-D model (Figure 1.2) is examined in the fourth sub-section that concludes this section.

4.3.2.1 Trying, risk-taking and confidence

'Trying' as a concept represents an essence that was the most referred to of all essences across all three cases. It was identified (either by direct use of words

such as ‘try, trying, tried’ or such that the meaning of alternatives was interpreted as ‘trying’) on the following number of occasions: CS1 = 6, CS2 = 5 and CS3 = 9. Identification of ‘trying’ was by both mentors and mentees, and referred mostly to mentees but also to mentors. Extraneous references such as what students were trying in class were not counted. Selected examples include:

Ah well, let's try it anyway or let's do it, with maybe a slightly different approach so we can work it out... (Kerry, CS1I).

I always believe in giving things a go and trying things out and I know from a previous experience that that's not always the case, sometimes it doesn't come out on top like the questioning thing. Sometimes I've been given advice and I've tried it and it just hasn't worked... (Laura, CS2I)

These two quotations confirm that RIS led to generativity. Trying in both instances above encompassed the possibility of positive and negative outcomes so that risk was involved that equated to RIS, and it was in the trying of new ways or engaging in RIS that generativity, as behaviours and/or new knowledge that is cognitive, eventuated.

In CS3, the mentee referred to the concept of confidence in relation to trying as follows:

... we had this dialogue...and I think that's what this does for me it, it allows me to get all this stuff out of my head and you know, sort of, not that John says you can and can't do it but it, it makes me through what we're speaking about say yeah, have the confidence to go for it. (Kelly, CS3I).

John acknowledged confidence, and in so doing there was reciprocity of confidence:

...but having you say that, and I really respect your opinion. And I, yes it just gives me the confidence that I'm doing the right thing... (CS3M).

Both quotes contain RIS since there existed ambiguity of outcome (potentially positive or negative). Confidence in this case referred to an internal state of self-confidence, because both mentee and mentor spoke about it as their own confidence. In CS3 both mentee and mentor identified individual confidence as resulting from the mentoring interactions so that both individuals were more self-confident to engage in RIS. Essentially Kelly was confident enough to ‘go for it’, knowing she could complete a task or learn a new behaviour, yet without knowing whether the outcome would be successful or otherwise.

The situation in which RIS was taken varied between the cases. In all three cases a change in practice resulted and mentees were exposed to the possibility of positive or negative outcomes within the classroom. Whereas in both CS1 and CS2 the outcomes of the mentoring centred on individual practice within the classroom, in CS3 Kelly as mentee approached her department to raise her concerns which exposed her to an additional risk. This approach to her department opened her up to the thoughts and attitudes of other colleagues including those senior to her in the department hierarchy, with the prospect that they may have preferred to continue with established methods of teaching pedagogy including the existing approach to task development and curriculum alignment across levels. The approach to her department is considered a greater risk because it may have resulted in an impediment to her developing in the way she saw fit.

4.3.2.2 Trust: the basis of the relationship

Trust was present in all three cases and formed the basis of each relationship yet features of trust varied from case to case. Trust is therefore examined on a case-by-case basis because how it developed, the factors that contributed to it, and how it was perceived were specific to each relationship.

In CS1 the word ‘trust’ did not occur in the interview conversation. Nevertheless there was evidence trust underpinned the relationship. Both choice to remain in the relationship and choice within the relationship are indicative of ‘choice’ that is a condition of trust situations. In CSII Kerry was asked about who he would choose to approach if faced with a classroom difficulty and responded, “Yep, I would, Chris is the person”. Kerry acknowledged having choice in decision making when he responded to the question about the possibility of Chris having an idea with which he may disagree by answering “Right, if I did, Chris and I would talk it through and I would say maybe it’s not such a good idea”.

The basis of trust in this relationship as viewed from Kerry’s perspective appears multi-dimensional. The dimensions of this trust relationship extended beyond initial trust because it was based in first-hand experiences. The first of these

dimensions is the social exchange view of trust. When Kerry stated “anything that Chris does suggest I’m going to go for it, because what I’m doing is putting that into practise and it works” (CS1I) there was the possibility of the relationship being one of either ‘co-operation’, ‘confidence’, ‘predictability’, or a ‘social-exchange view of trust’. Co-operation and predictability are more dependent on external controls rather than choice so when choice was confirmed as part of the relationship it was indicative of trust rather than co-operation or predictability. Confidence may result from not considering risk, yet Kerry acknowledged he may disagree with a suggestion of Chris’s which implied he may perceive negative outcomes, again pointing to trust. Kerry confirmed perceptions of risk that are indicative of the presence of trust rather than confidence when he said “I would say it’s not such a good idea” (CS1I). When Kerry stated “what I’m doing is putting that into practise and it works” (CS1I) he is confirming a social exchange perspective of trust because there was a series of positive outcomes that had feedback effects on the perceived trustworthiness factors of Chris as trustee, such as Chris’s ability and integrity (see Figure 2.1).

A second dimension of the trust relationship was suggested by Kerry when he stated “I think we are becoming stronger and stronger...he’s [Chris] become a real good friend (CS1I). This is consistent with the relationship-based commitment view because it involved an escalation of committed behaviour from exchanges to friendship.

A third dimension of trust is ‘deepest trust’ that is more peer-like. Kerry acknowledged this when he raised the idea of empathy which he described as “Chris is on my level, and not talking down to me, we are on the same wavelength” (CS1I). Being on the same level is more peer-like from the mentee’s perspective and development of empathy is consistent with deepest trust.

In CS2 trust was raised by the mentee Laura who stated “I know Bruce is good at what he does through other people as well, so I trust them and I trust that they know” (CS2I). This trust fits with ‘initial trust’ in that it was based on second-hand evidence rather than concrete first-hand experiences. It has endured within the relationship from Laura’s perspective. However through reflective dialogue

trust extended to first-hand experience. Laura acknowledged a trust in Bruce's "guidance and mentoring" explained by stating "so when I say trust I mean I listen to what he says and I apply what he suggests that I do" (CS2I). The existence of choice as acknowledged by Laura precludes 'co-operation' and 'predictability' and the acknowledgement of risk precludes 'confidence' thereby pointing to trust operating. In adopting a change in behaviour suggested by Bruce, Laura undertook a RIS consistent with both social exchange and relationship-based commitment perspectives of trust. Trust therefore underpinned the risk-taking action of Laura.

CS3 presented trust from both mentor and mentee perspectives. John (mentor) described trust consistent with definitions that incorporate a willingness to be vulnerable when he stated trust "means openness so you can lay whatever you want out on the line and show your vulnerabilities and you won't be judged ... and it won't be used against you" (CS3I). Implicit in this is the notion of taking a risk-in relationship (RTR). Whereas this fits with both the social exchange and relationship-based commitment views of trust, and Kelly agreed with this, she added that she believes trust goes beyond this explaining "I have someone here with those same values or beliefs" (CS3I). She explained her trustworthiness in John as based on personality traits of John including humility, acceptance, honesty, kindness and being non-judgemental and further stated "maybe his belief in me" (CS3I). Whereas many of these traits refer to trustworthiness factors that pertain to social exchange and relationship-based commitment views of trust, there appeared high identification of Kelly with these values and high identification is a feature of a 'deepest trust'. John acknowledged value congruence with Kelly when he stated "I think for me it's a similar, similar values in the sense of education and things like that, like we've talked about a moral purpose and believing in a certain thing, and she's got very high standards" (CS3I) so that reciprocity of 'deepest trust' existed in the relationship. The suggestion is that this reciprocity of 'deepest trust' underpinned the additional risk Kelly took when she approached her department with her ideas that may have been accepted or rejected. If they were rejected, this would have represented an impediment to the development of her individual PTI.

4.3.2.3 *Support*

Support occurred through positive feedback that fits both static and futuristic domains and was within the three support fields identified in the literature review (see section 2.3.2). In both CS1 and CS2 the mentors referred to the mentoring model they were using to justify the use of positive statements made as support statements by both mentor and mentee of each mentee's practice. Illustrating this Chris stated "because in the model you don't talk about negatives, you talk about advice to yourself so with Kerry and I, it's never been negatives. It's always been either positives within his lessons or what advice would he give to himself" (CS1I). The impact of offering positive statements was explained by Chris as "I think it gives Kerry some continued enthusiasm and it's giving him motivation so that he's now thinking about okay, so when I'm going to my next class, I'll try this and I'll try that" (CS1I). Positive statements that enhanced 'enthusiasm and 'motivation' represent support in the psychosocial field and in that this support was directed towards the 'next class' and practices the mentee would 'try' it fits within the futuristic domain.

In CS2 Bruce talked about his mentoring as "reinforcing what's happening. Reinforcing very good practice" (CS2I) and Laura explained the effect of positive affirmation when she stated it is "making me feel good about what I'm doing and, yeah. It just kind of makes me feel that, you're doing some things right" (CS2I). Positive reinforcement and affirmation adopted through use of the mentoring model is support in the psychosocial field and it may be in the static domain if it reinforces an existing practice or in the futuristic domain if it is affirming or reinforcing a new practice adopted as a change or as part of a change process. Bruce commented about affirming statements not being on an 'artificial level' and in so doing drew attention to the significance of such statements in reinforcing 'cool strategies' so that such statements of support must have genuineness to them to be significant. In reinforcing 'cool strategies' this represented static support in the application field.

In CS3 Kelly identified the dialogue that gave her "a little bit of excitement actually [and] have the confidence to go for it" (CS3I). In the context of

attempting a new approach to teaching, the dialogue approach that has been described previously as parallel conversations represented psychosocial support in the futuristic domain. The support felt by both mentee and mentor through parallel conversations led to both expressing confidence to either keep trying or keep doing what they were doing which involved risk for them both. Support in the futuristic domain offered through ‘parallel conversations’ led to a change in practice because it stimulated feelings of self-confidence through reciprocal exchanges. This was best summarised by Kelly who stated “not really reporting back, but you’re going to discuss well this, some revelation from it. This is what happened. And then you can feed off that again and you’re always trying to do better” (CS3I). In facilitating a change in practice surrounding curriculum alignment across levels, parallel conversations in this example provided futuristic support in the expert knowledge field.

John (in his email reply to question 7) identified a number of additional features he considered significant about positive comments. Three of these were: first the valuing of statements made by others through not making a “negative judgement”, second “support for certain philosophies ie a broader vision” which may impact on change in the expert knowledge field pertaining to curriculum delivery, and third the “liberating and supportive effect for both parties” and in being liberating there is implied a freedom to try new things.

A first point that arises from these features is the idea of negative judgments. In CS1 when Kerry was asked by Chris for feedback as ‘advice-to-self’ he responded “Negatives, right, what I’ve got to try and do is” (CS1M) and later he confirmed this negative view referring to “success or problems encountered” (CS1I). When ‘positives’ and ‘advice-to-self’ were identified, judgements were made. These judgments were viewed by Kerry as opposites, namely positives and negatives. The fact that Kerry followed the negative judgment with a challenge (what I’ve got to try and do) meant that he exposed his vulnerability as a weakness and this was indicative of trust. Identification of negatives was accepted within this relationship possibly because they were preceded by positives with which they may have interacted consistent with a relationship-based commitment view of trust.

A second point is the use of the word ‘support’. This relates to the idea presented in the literature review that for help to be perceived as support it must be trust-based. Whereas the question to John related to positive statements two of John’s comments referred to support yet when Kerry talked about his relationship with Chris he referred to Chris as a “tutor come helper” (CS1I). While there may be significance in the different terms used (support and help) this was not pursued during the interviews so any interpretation would be highly speculative. Tentatively the deepest trust evident in CS3 may be a source of the perception of ‘help as support’ in this relationship, yet in acknowledging trust in CS1 there remained the possibility Kerry may perceive Chris as a supporter and indeed the case for support being evident in all three cases has been proffered. Nevertheless the distinction, if any, needs to be researched more thoroughly in further studies.

A third point arising from John’s email pertains to support for ‘certain philosophies’. This implied an integration of personal and professional dimensions of both mentor and mentee, brought to the relationship. It resonates with valuing each other’s and one’s own perspectives, and ensuing endeavours.

4.3.2.4 *Relationship between trust and support*

Examining the consequences of RIS informs on the relationship between trust and support. The following statement made by Kerry in CS1 occurred in the interview and shed light on this relationship:

From a teaching point of view it’s much better, as I said it’s more challenging, more rewarding...I think we are becoming stronger and stronger, and I, I’m relying on Chris. He’s become a real good friend. He’s helped me out heaps, you know that something that’s happened in the last couple of days, first person I’m going back to is Chris. And really it’s good that we’ve got this understanding and relationship that’s important (CS1I).

Within Kerry’s statement he referred to the relationship with Chris as “more challenging”. This implied he was taking greater RIS than previously and pointed to trust situations. Rewarding is interpreted as benefits from the outcomes of RIS and these positive outcomes feedback positively on the trust relationship in either a social exchange or relationship-based commitment view of trust explaining the next comment in the sequence referring to becoming stronger and stronger.

Similarly in CS2 Laura stated in referring to a suggestion from Bruce “and so I did that, and it was successful, so when I say trust I mean I listen to what he says and I apply what he suggests I do” (CS2I). In both CS1 and CS2 the positive feedback from outcomes of RIS to ‘perceived trustworthiness factors of the trustee’ confirmed the presence of either social exchange or relationship-based commitment trust, and contributed to the building of this trust. Trust therefore underpinned RIS and represented the environment in which the interactions occurred. This does not however confirm support as dependent on trust.

Visualising the alternative, if trust was built on support this would mean increasing support would build increasing trust. Consider then if a large amount of support results in an unsuccessful outcome. There would be negative feedback from outcomes to perceived trustworthiness factors so that trust would decline in a social exchange model or the balance of interacting positives and negatives altered in the relationship-based commitment model. When viewed this way, support would not be the environment for the building of trust or underpinning RIS.

In CS1 and CS3 participants referred to support for motivation and confidence respectively so that support was linked to an attitude towards a behaviour rather than to the development of trust.

4.3.3 Mentor and mentee roles

Guiding question three focused on the roles that each of the mentor and mentee played in generativity. These roles varied within cases. For instance, in CS3 John refrained from challenging Kelly who self-challenged. The approach in this section is to focus on the generativity process and the roles each participant in a pair played in that generativity process as it unfolded, and as it related to growth of the mentee. Additionally both challenge from guiding question two, and mentor and mentee roles in realisations are examined in this section.

4.3.3.1 Goals and locus of control

In the identification and pursuit of goals or actions that resulted in generativity the data highlighted each mentee’s perceptions of being the locus of control, a

perception confirmed by the mentors. In CS1M while Chris stated the areas to be looked at, within the interview it was established these areas were goals identified by Kerry. Chris confirmed this stating “One of the things that came from Kerry was that Kerry wanted to have lessons a little more student-centred and a little less teacher-centred and that was Kerry’s idea” (CS1I). In CS2M Bruce openly asked Laura “as a specific focus, you’re talking about, what are we looking at?” In both cases the mentee established a personal goal for their teaching practice that was a focus for future observation and feedback in meetings.

In a similar way CS3 began with discussion that led to John asking Kelly “would there be any focuses that you want me to focus on” (CS3M). While Kelly suggested looking at the “whole dynamic to see if it’s assessment driven or not” (CS3M) no specific goal was identified. What followed was dialogue that involved active listening on the part of John. Highlighting this Kelly identified an issue as “information and knowledge, that you [students] have but you can’t apply it” (CS3I) to which John responded “I hear your frustration...you’ve identified what you want to do. It’s basically the knowledge has to be applied” (CS3M). Both meetings continued without any goal setting or apparent outcomes from the two meetings or observation that occurred between these meetings. This apparent lack of outcomes was a focus for interview questions (see appendix 2, questions 4 and 5). When she talked about what I’m going to do about the concern Kelly stated “Yeah, I don’t think we discussed it” (CS3I) and John stated in reference to discussing it “I didn’t want to” (CS3I). By way of explanation of his mentoring style he noted such things as: “I know from Kelly that she’ll go and do it...so I don’t need to say let’s work out a goal...so when I come back I’ll check on it...I find it a bit too constraining...what’s your goal now...you haven’t even had time to reflect on it” (CS3I).

Nevertheless when prompted on actions she took Kelly responded “but it was, in my mind I did, I did more than that too. We, I spoke to our department about how we’re scaffolding our learning, apply the knowledge...we looked at, well what are we teaching at year 12. What do these year 11s need to know...so we’ve aligned, we’ve changed some tasks, all from this” (CS3I) Measures taken by Kelly and outcomes she pursued were clearly of her own doing so that she remained the

locus of control throughout the entire process from identification of an area of concern through to initiation of strategies designed to address the concern which resulted in a change in pedagogical approach. So whereas in CS1 and CS2 the mentees had individual goals they pursued, in CS3 the area of concern was raised within her department and the department, as a ‘community of learners’ collaborated in taking actions to address the concerns.

The perception particularly in CS1 and CS2 of each mentee being the locus of control is open to interpretation for a number of reasons. Firstly the use of the mentoring model imposed an instrument on the mentoring process and this instrument was a usual way of mentoring adopted by each mentor. Their style of mentoring was therefore a basis for interaction rather than a style that may have suited each mentee. Secondly positive statements and advice-to-self encompassed judgements, and when these judgements were made by the mentor, power in the relationship may have shifted from mentee to mentor thereby shifting the locus of control. Thirdly there was the perception of the mentor as being an ‘expert teacher’ so that the mentee must learn from the mentor. If the mentee simply followed mentor advice without exploring their individual possibilities this shifts the locus of control to the mentor.

Contrasting with these two cases is CS3 and the use of parallel conversations that involved intrinsic feedback. This case resulted in mentee actions not discussed in the mentoring meetings that included an approach by Kelly to her department, curriculum alignment across levels and task redesign not discussed in the mentoring meetings so that Kelly remained the locus of control in her development.

4.3.3.2 Challenge: mentor initiated and mentee self-challenge

In all three cases the mentee identified at least one area of concern within their practice, and these concerns were brought into the mentoring relationship as challenge. Challenge in this context was a stimulus to change and this stimulus was embedded in each mentee’s personal classroom experience. This experience centred on the learning of students and classroom interactions so that the concerns

surfaced predominately through anecdotal evidence. Laura however quoted assessment statistics as an additional reason for her concern though these statistics and their analysis was confined to 'pass rates' within her own subject. RIS actions ensued, resulting from predominantly reflective processes facilitated within the mentoring relationships and focusing on the areas of concern. RIS actions resulted in outcomes as professional growth for all three mentees.

All six participants willingly engaged in reflective dialogue within their pairs. In CS1 and CS2 the dialogue included establishing goals and feedback through 'positives and advice-to-self' that came through self-reflection by the mentee and from observation and feedback by the mentor. In CS1 both mentee and mentor saw the role of the mentor as a facilitator of mentee development. Kerry stated "I've got my teaching style, whatever it may be, and Chris is there to polish it up"(CS1I) so the view of Kerry is that he is in control of development of his own PTI. Chris concurred stating "Kerry wanted to have lessons a little more student-centred and a little less teacher-centred...So the only thing I tried to do was help facilitate that by making suggestions" (CS1I).

In CS2 Bruce explained the SCT role and the understanding his colleagues have about it as "they [colleagues] can ask me in and I'll sit and watch what's going on and make some suggestions and they choose to work on them. I like to think that people have that understanding of the way that it operates" (CS2I). Laura noted as regards a suggestion from Bruce that "I kind of internalise it and I think about it and realise that it's something I should do" (CS2I) although it is accepted she has choice to accept, reject, or modify the suggestion. Nevertheless, in 'internalising' the feedback and suggestions from Bruce, facilitation of reflective processes occurred for Laura.

When a mentor made suggestions there was acknowledgment of the expertise of the mentor that is 'expertise in teaching practice'. Kerry acknowledged this when he stated "I want to be become one of the best teachers and to do that I've got to learn from other people that have been in the business" (CS1I), and similarly Laura stated "I listen to what he [Bruce] says and I apply what he suggests I do" (CS2I). This nevertheless set up a hierarchy where the mentor was viewed as the

superior in terms of expertise, and the mentee was viewed as the sub-ordinate who may follow advice. This following of advice was acknowledged by both Kerry and Laura and when they gave advice Chris and Bruce acted as challengers to Kerry and Laura respectively, who may or may not have acted on the challenge by engaging in RIS.

CS3 adopted parallel conversations as a tool to facilitate self-reflection that led to self-challenge by Kelly as mentee. While some of this reflection occurred within the dialogue, a significant part of the parallel conversations was reflection-on-action whereby action refers to the ‘mentoring actions’ that lead to the self-challenge to approach her department. This interpretation derives from the comments of Kelly as follows: “we’ve changed some tasks, all from this...and I have someone here with those same values...this then allowed me to go over there and say well, look, what are we doing” (CS3I). John and Kelly both confirmed Kelly self-challenged when they made comments concerning any actions that eventuated from the mentoring such as “I don’t think we discussed it” (Kelly, CS3I) and “yeah...I didn’t want to” (John, CS3I) and further “I know from Kelly that she’ll go and do, that she’s gonna do something anyway” (John, CS3I). The relationship between Kelly and John was peer-like with Kelly expressing her concerns about student learning and John expressing similar concerns. Both were equally empowered to reflect on their concerns and decide on any ensuing actions for their individual practice.

4.3.3.3 Realisations

Realisation was raised in CS3 by Kelly during meeting one and this was responded to by John who asked “how did you come to that realisation? What was it about?” (CS3M). The word realising was a trigger for further exploration by John who responded by asking probing questions that allowed Kelly opportunity to reflect back and to tell her story about how the realising occurred. Active listening and the use of probing questions by John were therefore instrumental in the unfolding of Kelly’s story.

During the interview Kelly debated a realisation as both a ‘process’ and a ‘moment in time’. She commented “If there was a moment that I realised that, I think I’ve had sort of visions of this all through from, probably it’s come from testing assessments so when the students have to be assessed and then you see how much they know or don’t know” (CS3I). This suggests for Kelly realisations come through a process. Yet she again debated realisation as a ‘process’ and in a ‘moment’ as she reflected “yeah but I think it’s from along the way them not succeeding, it hasn’t been through success I don’t think because that’s what I’m saying it’s like, man is it in a moment in class you’re verbalising...It’s through those experiences that I’ve realised yeah is it, is that important” (CS3I). Kelly also used the word ‘revelation’ that connotes with ‘realisation’ when she stated “going back into the classroom, trying it ...then, discuss well this, some revelation from it” (CS3I) which left open the possibility of realisation being a process or in a moment.

John referred to a realisation as:

I guess for me... a realisation is a realisation, you suddenly realise something so something must have occurred for you to realise that so she’s saying these kids, as I understood it, these kids are actually learning, they are demonstrating the knowledge in class at a certain points, but when it came to this assessment, written assessment, it didn’t show what I believe, perceived was going on in the classroom...so that’s really how I initiated...so it’s always about what initiates that train of thought” (CS3I).

When Kelly referred to realising as not being from success this was acknowledgement of a ‘realisation something is wrong’, and identification of this represented a shift from ‘unconscious incompetence’ to ‘conscious incompetence’ in the ‘conscious competence learning model’ (see Figure 2.4). Similarly Bruce reported being a “bit surprised” (CS2I) at an action of Laura which seemed wrong in his eyes yet when explained by Laura was considered acceptable. This new view of the situation represented new learning for Bruce.

Consistent with the ‘conscious competence learning model’ mentorship for Kelly began when she was in a state of ‘conscious incompetence’ when she realised something was wrong. Through the mentoring Kelly later chose an action to approach her department concerning student understanding that lead to task

alignment and redesign. How these ideas of task alignment and redesign were arrived at was not explored in this interview, nevertheless it was Kelly who originated these ideas as evidenced by her stating “I spoke to our department about how we’re scaffolding our learning” (CS3I). At some point Kelly came to the knowledge that task alignment and design were ‘incompetent’ and coming to this knowledge represented a further realisation. Kelly appears to have moved from a state of ‘unconscious incompetence’ to ‘conscious incompetence’ concerning task alignment and the mentoring process played some part in this realisation. This effectively repositioned mentorship in the ‘conscious competence learning model’ between ‘unconscious incompetence’ and ‘conscious incompetence’ (see section 2.7.1). When Bruce became ‘surprised’ about something appearing wrong to him, he became positioned as the learner (mentee) experiencing a realisation. The fact that his realisation was later accepted by both Bruce and Laura as incorrect meant Bruce moved from an ‘unconscious incompetent’ view to one of ‘conscious incompetence’ consistent with the previous re-positioning this research suggests.

4.4 Summary

Raw data available from mentoring meetings was analysed on a case-by-case basis using a stepped approach that included descriptions, thematizing and initial interpretations that culminated in the setting of structured questions for one semi-structured interview for each case. Data obtained from these meetings and interviews gave rise to further data, the analysis of which again followed a stepped approach beginning with ‘narrative structuring’ on a case-by-case basis. The extensive use of quotations in the narrative structuring conserved the holistic and naturalistic nature of each case as much as possible within the limitations of this study. Holistic and naturalistic approaches contextualised the data selected for further analysis, and placed the reader in the context within which the data arose, so that they were well positioned to critique the researcher interpretations and draw their own interpretations.

Researcher categorization and interpretation followed that was phenomenological and hermeneutical in approach. Guided by the research inquiry, and based in the

data available that included participant interpretations, elicited essences included: risk, confidence, trust, support, the relationship between trust and support, goal setting and the locus of control within the mentoring relationship, challenge and the roles of mentor and mentee in the challenge process, confidence, trying, and realisations.

Findings surrounding these essences are further discussed as detailed in Chapter Five that follows including further interpretation integrated with the literature and my prior knowledge.

Chapter Five: Discussion

5.1 Introduction

This qualitative study inquired into knowledge generation within particularised, interpersonal, mentoring relationships. Particularised refers to ‘between two people’ rather than towards people in general, and interpersonal refers to ‘between persons’ rather than ‘between persons and an organisation’. These relationships studied involved two people, a Specialist Classroom Teacher (SCT⁷) as mentor and a teacher-mentee who was either a Provisionally Registered Teacher (PRT) or had recently become a teacher with full registration status. SCT-mentor and teacher-mentee relationships were well positioned to inform this research inquiry which seeks,

understanding of individual perceptions (of the SCT-mentor and teacher-mentee) of trust, support, challenge and risk-taking in knowledge generation in an interpersonal mentoring relationship.

Features of these relationships that positioned them favourably to inform this inquiry included:

1. SCT mentoring is required to be “high-trust” (MOE et al., 2007, p. 3) and trust can lead to risk-taking behaviour.
2. There is a focus on support functions directed towards teacher-mentees as specified in the aims and objectives of the SCT role (MOE et al., 2007).
3. Generativity particularly of the teacher-mentee should be evident because included among these support functions of the SCT-mentor is “support for professional growth of other teachers” (MOE et al., 2007, p. 2) and professional growth encompasses generativity.
4. “Challenge and support...to develop teaching strengths” (NZTC, 2009, p. 4) is a specified role of mentor teachers including SCTs. Challenge should therefore be in effect within the SCT-mentor and teacher-mentee relationship be it mentor-initiated challenge or the facilitation of self-challenge for the teacher-mentee.

⁷ See section 1.2 for descriptions of SCT and PRT

This multiple case study involved three purposefully selected cases involving collaborative SCTs (based on self-reporting) mentoring either an able mentee defined as being capable of self-challenge (McNally & S. Martin, 1998) or within an established relationship of 12 months or more. A relationship that extended beyond this duration should have been beyond the initiation phase as defined by Bouquillon and colleagues (2005) and represents an established relationship. An established relationship is one that is more likely to be based in ‘deepest levels of trust’ because, as found “in educational contexts, trust develops over time as the mentoring relationship matures” (Bouquillon et al., 2005, p. 252). Trust can lead to risk-taking (Brockner et al., 1997; Mayer et al., 1995; McKnight et al., 1998) by the mentee and the outcomes of risk-taking can include new knowledge. A mentoring relationship with an able mentee or that is an established relationship should therefore facilitate the generativity of knowledge for the mentee.

Audio-recordings provided by SCTs of mentoring meetings involving participant pairs (SCT-mentor and teacher-mentee) provided descriptions and allowed a naturalistic and holistic initial approach to data gathering. One semi-structured interview between the researcher and each participant pair allowed an interpretative approach to the seeking of meaning of the raw data from the meeting recordings, as viewed from the perspective of each participant. All data were further categorized and interpreted by the researcher and presented as findings in section 4.3. These findings were therefore grounded in the data and integrated with the experiences of the researcher including personal experience and knowledge gained from the review of the literature. This chapter analyses the findings and the literature as a method of triangulation, in relation to the following: generativity, trust, support, risk-taking, and confidence. Additionally realisations are briefly discussed.

5.2 SCT mentoring for generativity

SCT-mentors (hereinafter used synonymously with mentor/s) mentoring facilitated the generation of knowledge for teacher-mentees (hereinafter used

synonymously with mentee/s) whereby generativity meant an increase in teacher capacity pertaining to double-loop learning. Double-loop learning involves the challenging of rote responses (Yeo, 2006) and increases capacity equating with professional growth of the mentees. As examples, in CS1 there was a move from a teacher-centred approach to teaching by the mentee to more student-centred approaches that included strategies such as ‘feedforward questioning’ and student goal setting. In CS3 the mentoring initiated an approach by the teacher-mentee to her subject department that resulted in alignment of the curriculum between year levels, and alterations to tasks. An approach to her department engaged colleagues as a learning community and represented deprivatisation of the mentoring initiatives so that the immediate wider community of teacher-learners may have benefitted. Whereas the Review (Ward, 2007) of the SCT pilot scheme found SCT mentoring “potentially supports a privatised culture centred on teacher autonomy” (p. 1) in this latter case the autonomy displayed by the teacher-mentee resulted directly in deprivatised actions. Empowerment of the teacher-mentee for greater action originated from within the SCT-mentor and teacher-mentee relationship.

Collaborative mentors as per the typologies of McNally and S. Martin (1998) as a purposeful sample were well suited to this study because these mentors engaged with their mentees in reflective dialogue, and reflective dialogue facilitated generativity. In CS1 and CS2 reflective dialogue involved the use of a mentoring model that required identifying positives and advice-to-self as feedback. Feedback focused on lessons conducted by the teacher-mentee and observed by the SCT-mentor. Reflection took place removed from the event so represented reflection-on-action (Ovando, 2003) whereby action referred to the action of teaching by the mentee. Expertise provided by the SCT-mentor was more so as teaching expertise without denying mentoring expertise was evident. Reflective dialogue using the mentoring model was effective in facilitating generativity for the teacher-mentee, and in facilitating development that focused on mentee-set goals, represented an effective mentoring strategy.

Reflective dialogue in CS3 utilised ‘parallel conversations’ (Watkins, 2000) and within the mentoring meetings reflection-on-action occurred involving each of the SCT-mentor and teacher-mentee separately reflecting on their own actions. So

that mentor reflections were relevant to the teacher-mentee, whose learning was of prime consideration, specific mentoring expertise was required. This expertise included active listening skills, the use of specific levels of questioning to seek for instance understanding and to probe, and personal skills of empathy with the mentee Kelly. Further, reflection undertaken by Kelly represented reflection-on-action whereby action referred to the action of the mentoring. What eventuated was the empowerment of Kelly to act autonomously and engage in greater risk-taking action involving presentation of her concerns to the immediate wider teaching colleagues of her department. This reflection on the mentoring action by Kelly was facilitated through the freedom Kelly had to explore her own possibilities and the time she had to do so, rather than being asked or feeling the need to set goals or decide on actions within the mentoring meetings.

Stimuli for development were embedded in the classroom experiences of each mentee and resulted chiefly through anecdotal evidence that involved interactions with students. For instance, both Laura and Kelly commented on the lack of student understanding of concepts as demonstrated by student responses to questioning when these concepts were applied in different contexts. This focus on student learning as perceived by each teacher, is consistent with key indicators in the ‘Registered Teacher Criteria’ (RTC) document including incorporation of “successful strategies to engage and motivate ākonga” (learners), and “apply new learning to different contexts” (NZTC, 2010, p. 3). In responding to stimuli in ways consistent with Registered Teacher Criteria, the SCT mentoring contributed to the ‘vision’ in the Induction and Mentoring Draft⁸ of improvement of teacher contribution to “equitable learning outcomes for all learners” (NZTC, 2009, p. 2). The data confirmed the mentoring contributed to professional growth of the teacher-mentee without denying professional growth of SCT-mentors also occurred. In being confidential SCT mentoring sat outside attestation for full registration status, yet in contributing to goal attainment related to RTCs, SCT mentoring facilitated both the movement of PRTs to full registration status, and continued attestation for more experienced teachers. SCT mentoring as it occurred within these purposeful samples therefore contributed significantly to the

⁸ See section 1.1 for a description of this document

progressive improvement of the profession which is a key principle of mentoring programmes (NZTC, 2009).

5.3 Trust

There was evidence that trust represented the foundations on which all three mentoring relationships were based. This evidence included the following:

1. Identification and exploration of the trust archetypes present in each relationship. For instance Laura identified trust from second hand experiences that fits the description of the initial trust-building model (McKnight et al., 1998) as a reason for trusting Bruce. John provided a definition of trust as involving a willingness to be vulnerable as applies to social exchange trust and relationship-based commitment trust. Both Kelly and John confirmed sharing their views about values and a moral purpose and their parallel conversations confirmed value congruence. Their personal values were integrated with professional dimensions within their professional teaching identity, and within this mentoring relationship there was reciprocity of 'deepest trust'.
2. Alternative relationships to trust were excluded as possible foundations for each relationship. These alternatives included 'co-operation', 'confidence', and 'predictability' as described by Mayer and colleagues (1995) and 'blind obedience' (Pratt & Dirks, 2007) which equates with 'co-operation'.
3. Perceived trustworthiness factors of the mentor as trustee were identified by the teacher-mentee as trustor. Kerry identified Chris's 'ability', Laura identified Bruce's mentoring ability when she stated "I know Bruce is good at what he does" (CS2I) and Kelly identified John's kindness which is a benevolence factor in the Mayer and colleagues (1995) model and the 'honesty belief' (McKnight et al., 1998) that is integrated within the 'factors of trustees perceived trustworthiness' within the Mayer and colleagues (1995) model.
4. 'Trying' as RIS was the modal essence referred to twenty times across the three cases, and RIS typifies trusting situations.

Across the three cases there was evidence of trust that represented the four different archetypes described in the literature review including: initial trust (McKnight et al., 1998) social exchange trust (Mayer et al., 1995) relationship-based commitment (Pratt & Dirks, 2007) and ‘deepest trust’ (Bouquillon et al., 2005; Kochan & Trimble, 2000).

Consistent with the findings of Bouquillon and colleagues (2005) there was evidence that in teaching the level of trust in the relationships had developed over time. When Laura explained trust in Bruce as being based on second-hand experience she described ‘initial’ trust but went on to explain a trust in Bruce’s “mentoring and guidance” (CS2I) that was based in first-hand experience. Kerry’s comment “I think we are becoming stronger and stronger...he’s [Chris] become a real good friend” (CS1I) depicts trust development towards greater committed behaviour more typical of relationship-based commitment trust rather than ‘exchanges’ that characterize social exchange trust.

Risk-taking as risk-in-situation (RIS) was apparent in all three cases, and learning outcomes for all three teacher-mentees resulted. In confirming trust as the basis for each relationship, and in recognising the inherent risk in the learning situations it was trust that underpinned the RIS. Further, while discussing trust, Laura talked about initiatives as sometimes but not always being successful, and in doing so acknowledged the feedback loop from ‘outcomes’ to ‘factors of trustees perceived trustworthiness’ in the Mayer and colleagues (1995) model of trust.

In CS3 the discussion between John and Kelly of values and a moral purpose that was noted in the interview represented a strategy that contributed to building ‘deepest trust’. The trust between John and Kelly underpinned greater risk-taking by Kelly in approaching her department and seeking broader changes including curriculum alignment across levels, compared with the lesser risk-taking behaviours inherent within individual teacher classroom practice. This trust involving high identification, value congruence and reciprocity, was developed through the uncovering of at least aspects of an ‘educational platform’ (Ovando, 2003) and therefore contributed to significant changes to both practice and professional growth of the mentee.

5.4 Support

The findings of this research confirm support offered is viewed within static and futuristic domains. Static support was perceived in CS1 and CS2 particularly through the use of positive statements affirming existing practice made by the SCT-mentors and perceived by the teacher-mentees. Consistent with the findings of Cameron and colleagues (2007) many of these support statements were in the application field and addressed the needs of the teacher-mentees in this study, who faced the many demands on a daily basis, associated with being good teachers. Additionally, in affirming good practice generally or the efforts of teacher-mentees, there were psychosocial effects. For example “making me feel good about what I’m doing” (Laura, CS2I) so that a “psychologically safe” (Tang, 2003) and stable environment (Smith, 2005) resulted.

Futuristic support was in all three cases linked with the concept of ‘trying’ which was the most identified essence in the data. Futuristic support provided “enthusiasm and motivation to try new things” (Chris, CS1) and “confidence to go for it” (Kelly, CS3I). In ‘trying’ teacher-mentees engaged in RIS so that futuristic support is consistent with support to meet challenges (Awaya et al., 2003; McNally & S. Martin, 1998; Rajuan et al., 2008) and for risk-taking (Lasky, 2005; Montecinos et al., 2002; Tang, 2003). Support was not identified as contributing to trust development.

Support, existing as ‘fields of support’, gained credence from the words of John who referred to affirming statements as having a “liberating and supportive effect for both parties” (CS3I). Associated with parallel conversations that preclude judgements being made, the reciprocal sharing of individual experiences related to those of the other party was a way of voicing support for the other party and building a strong support field.

Support in the futuristic domain provided motivation and “confidence to go for it” (Kelly, CS3I). Futuristic support is consistent with ‘external support’ of Weisbuch

and colleagues (2009) noted as a ‘coping resource’ to ‘engage in challenge’ which I reframed as ‘engaging in RIS’. In providing a coping resource to engage in RIS, higher levels of futuristic support, associated with strong support fields within this domain provided impetus for teacher-mentees to engage in and to continue moving with the RIS, rather than retreat from it. Futuristic support therefore facilitates movement in the direction of change.

There was no clear evidence that allowed an evaluation of the proposal that help and support differ in that ‘support is help that is trust-based’. This proposed distinction between perceptions of support and help is therefore unable to be validated, negated or modified.

5.5 Risk-taking and confidence

Trying presented as the modal essence in the data and equated with engagement in RIS that led to outcomes as new behaviours or knowledge. As examples, Laura stated “I always believe in giving things a go and trying things out and I know from a previous experience that that’s not always the case, sometimes it doesn’t come out on top” (CS2I) and Kerry stated “let’s try it anyway or let’s do it, with maybe a slightly different approach so we can work it out” (CS1I). Findings from CS3 established greater trust underpinned greater RIS (see section 5.3) and therefore potentially greater changes to practice as professional growth of the teacher-mentee.

The type of confidence particularly applicable to this study is ‘confidence to engage in RIS’ that is self-confidence. Self-confidence emerged in the data and in the literature. In the data Kelly as mentee stated “makes me...have the confidence to go for it” (CS3I). Chris, as mentor of Kerry, when referring to positive statements made to Kerry, stated “I think it gives Kerry some continued enthusiasm and it’s giving him motivation (CS1I). Motivation equates with confidence, so positive comments (as affirmation) for motivation resonates with reassurance to be more self-confident (Montecinos et al., 2002) and with confidence as a ‘personal orientation’. Rajuan et al. (2008) describe confidence as

a personal orientation stating that “developing a sense of confidence [allows one] to explore and discover personal strengths” (p. 281) and in ‘exploring’, engaging in RIS is implied.

The use of the word ‘confidence’ by John required closer inspection. A fuller version of the text in which it arose is “Good looks, looks good ... Good stats but have they learnt?... but having you say that, and I really respect your opinion. And I, yes it just gives me the confidence that I’m doing the right thing because I feel my students are learning, learning more than just getting credit accumulation” (CS3I). At first glance I initially considered John’s confidence was in the enhanced learning beyond credit accumulation so that only positive outcomes were perceived by John. This would have meant this was not a trust situation. However, further analysis led to the interpretation that this confidence was ‘confidence to successfully engage’ in teaching for learning. Teaching for learning represented a RIS for two reasons. First, John could have met with the displeasure of colleagues because his students may not have been ready to complete the assessment on time. John had acknowledged this in the interview explaining this type of teaching took a longer time than teaching to the assessment and that he was behind other teachers in the programme. Second, in not targeting the assessment there was the risk that ‘teaching for learning’ may disadvantage his students in the assessment. When John voiced respect for Kelly’s opinion this was interpreted as trust in Kelly because John engaged in RIS. The self-confidence to engage in the RIS to ‘teach for learning’ was based in this trust.

The value congruence and shared beliefs of John and Kelly were sufficient for them to both challenge in their own ways the subjective norm pressures impacting on them. These pressures included the classroom pressures from students wanting to accumulate credits, and the dominant discourse amongst staff that focused on ‘teaching for assessment’ rather than ‘teaching for learning’.

5.6 Realisations

Chance favours only the mind which is prepared

Louis Pasteur (1854)

When Kelly in CS3 debated realisations as either a process or ‘in a moment’ it suggested the process is the ‘preparation of the mind’ and the moment is the critical incident that occurs as ‘chance’. The following comment that confirmed the type of realisation I referred to as ‘a realisation that something is wrong’ that highlighted this is “I think it’s from along the way them not succeeding, it hasn’t been through success I don’t think...man is it in a moment in class you’re verbalizing...It’s through those experiences that I’ve realised yeah is it, is that important” (CS3I). The series of events that led to the ‘moment’ represents the ‘preparation of the mind’. John clearly sees a realisation as occurring in a moment when he explained “a realisation is a realisation, you suddenly realise something so something must have occurred for you to realise” (CS3I) and the ‘something’ is the ‘chance moment’ that results in the realisation.

The proposal that mentorship should be repositioned in the ‘conscious competence learning model’ is supported firstly by direct evidence of Bruce “being surprised” (CS2I) that positioned Bruce as the mentee-learner moving from ‘unconscious incompetence’ to ‘conscious incompetence’. Incompetence in this example represented an incorrect judgement of the actions of Laura. Additionally when after the mentoring Kelly came to the knowledge that task alignment and design were ‘incompetent’ as a further realisation, Kelly moved from a state of ‘unconscious incompetence’ to ‘conscious incompetence’ concerning task alignment. The mentoring process played some part in this realisation. In both case studies new knowledge initiated directly or indirectly through the mentoring came about through realisations stimulated by ‘critical moments’ and mentorship moved the learner from ‘unconscious incompetence’ to ‘conscious competence’.

5.7 Summary

The main findings discussed in this chapter are summarised in Chapter Six that follows. Chapter Six includes a brief review of this study, and examines the main findings in terms of the conceptual model and the context in which this study was set.

Chapter Six: Conclusion

This research explored the individual perceptions of Specialist Classroom Teacher-mentors (SCT-mentors) and teacher-mentees interacting within two-person mentoring relationships. Described in Chapter One, these relationships focus especially on the professional growth of teacher-mentees. Professional growth involves the ‘acquisition of new knowledge and/or skills, referred to as ‘generativity’. Researcher experiential knowledge brought to this study included a ‘proposed conceptual model’ that was also presented in Chapter One. This model was useful in framing the research inquiry which seeks,

understanding of individual perceptions (of the SCT-mentor and teacher-mentee) of trust, support, challenge, and risk-taking in knowledge generation in an interpersonal mentoring relationship.

The concept of ‘confidence’ as self-confidence’ was not part of the original enquiry focus. It has since been included in the title of this study and in the literature review because it emerged in the data, and had a significant influence on the interpretation and discussion of the findings, and the review of the conceptual model. This chapter unfolds as follows:

1. Review of the study.
2. Summary of main findings.
3. Discussion of models.
4. Implications for SCT-mentoring.
5. Recommendations for future study.
6. Limitations of this research.

This chapter focuses on generativity as a change process and relates this to the development of teacher-mentee professional teaching identity (PTI) facilitated by the mentoring relationship.

6.1 Review of the study

This study has its source in my personal experience. I wanted to learn about the generation of knowledge within a two person collaborative mentoring relationship, and I developed a ‘proposed 3-D model of a mentoring generative effect’ (Figure 1.2) as a starting point. The model proved useful as a foundation because it provided a focus when examining the literature particularly when viewing how one concept may relate to another. As a result of the literature review, three questions were devised to guide the research, namely:

1. What is the basis of trust and support, and how do they interact in an effective mentoring relationship?
2. What part if any do challenge and risk-taking play in generativity?
3. What are the individual and collective roles of the mentor and the mentee in generativity towards individual professional teaching identity of the mentee?

Adopting a nominalist stance and a subjectivist view, it was decided the most fitting research approach was a qualitative approach. A qualitative approach was enlightening in that it informed on the concepts identified in the model from the participant perspectives, and allowed for the emergence of the concept of ‘self-confidence’. A multiple case study methodology involving three purposefully selected cases was decided on because it was considered this methodology, being naturalistic and holistic, was best suited to study generativity for each teacher-mentee as it unfolded within the mentoring relationship. Audio-recording of two naturally occurring mentoring meetings per case helped ensure raw data authenticity and accuracy. One semi-structured interview per case followed. This interview allowed the researcher to probe for participant perceptions surrounding the inquiry. It was acknowledged researcher prior knowledge and interpretations had the potential for bias. Nevertheless, measures taken to safeguard trustworthiness of data, and credibility and validity of findings have been carefully maintained throughout this study.

While recognising this study as a small scale study, the main findings allow for both an evaluation of the proposed model, and a consideration of potential impacts on the future practice of SCT-mentors (hereinafter used synonymously with mentor/s) in the induction of teacher-mentees (hereinafter used synonymously with mentee/s) to the teaching profession. A summary of the main findings now follows.

6.2 Summary of main findings

The main findings of this study concerning generativity, predominately for the mentee, are summarised below. These findings focus on the concepts of trust, support, risk-taking, confidence (as self-confidence), and realisations, and in particular how they interact in the facilitation of generativity for mentees.

1. SCT mentoring resulted in professional growth of the mentee in all three cases within this study. Professional growth occurred as an increase in capacity pertaining to double-loop learning (Yeo, 2006) facilitated by reflective dialogue within collaborative relationships.
2. The focus on mentee goals or initiatives derived from classroom practice, and on ‘collaborative’ relationships, contributed to individual autonomy of the mentee, so that mentees perceived themselves as the locus of control in their development.
3. The focus on worthwhile goals or initiatives, related to ‘Registered Teacher Criteria’ (NZTC, 2010) as normalising influences, and on the pursuit of new knowledge, either individually or through deprivatised interactions with the wider network of colleagues, contributed towards fulfilment of the overall vision for induction and mentoring programmes. This vision includes progressive improvement of the teaching profession (NZTC, 2009).
4. The use of tools such as a mentoring model and parallel conversations facilitated reflective dialogue that resulted in mentee learning. The mentoring model included positive judgements by both mentor and mentee of the mentee. Positive judgements impacted positively on motivation of mentees to continue trying new initiatives, and thereby

facilitated generativity. Parallel conversations, combined with active listening and the use of questions to clarify, seek understanding, and probe, precluded judgement. The preclusion of judgement facilitated enhanced trust development exhibited as engagement in greater risk-in-situation (RIS) resulting in enhanced professional growth of the mentee.

5. The use of various mentoring tools has the potential to affect the ‘balance of power’ in the relationship though this may not be perceived by the participants in the relationship.
6. The findings support the interpretation that these SCT-mentor and teacher-mentee relationships were trust-based. All four trust archetypes presented in the literature review, namely: ‘initial trust’ (McKnight et al., 1998), social exchange trust (Mayer et al., 1995), relationship-based commitment trust (Pratt & Dirks, 2007) and ‘deepest trust’ (Bouquillon et al., 2005) were evident within the findings, though not all archetypes were present in each individual case.
7. Particularised, inter-personal trust developed over time, and engagement in RIS by the mentees within these trust relationships resulted in generativity. ‘Deepest trust’, developed through mutual sharing of values and moral purposes as part of individual ‘educational platforms’ (Ovando, 2003), led to greater risk-taking and greater enhancement of practice. This ‘deepest trust’ was particularly apparent in CS3⁹ as reciprocity of trust and the effect of it was deprivatisation of learning, meaning it involved learning for the wider community of teachers within the school.
8. The evidence suggests that classifying support as static support described as support of the status quo, and futuristic support described as support of a change process, has merit. Classifying support this way may heighten awareness of the significance of futuristic support as support for change so it is purposefully directed towards movement of the mentee in the direction of change. Static support contributed to feelings of reassurance, resonating with ‘safety’ (Tang, 2003) and ‘stable environments’ (Smith, 2005) as found in the literature and is important in the induction of teachers into a demanding profession. Futuristic support led to confidence

⁹ Refers to case study three

and motivation to try things and is a ‘coping resource’ (Weisbuch et al., 2009) for engagement in RIS that may result in change as professional growth. ‘Trying things’ equates with taking a RIS and was the modal essence that emerged in the data. Teachers in this study repeatedly ‘try things’ in an effort to better serve their students, even though initiatives tried are not always successful. Support was not related in this study to the development of trust.

9. There was evidence of support in the three suggested fields, psychosocial, application, and expert knowledge. Mutual sharing, through for instance parallel conversations, contributed to a strong ‘field of support’ that is relational and results in perceptions of mutual support. My proposal that support be recognised as ‘support fields’ has merit.
10. ‘Confidence as an internal state’ or ‘self-confidence’ was found to be enhanced by supportive comments consistent with “reassurance to be more self-confident” (Montecinos et al., 2002) as found in the literature. This self-confidence resulted in engagement in RIS and appeared to be based in trust, trust being the foundation of the mentoring relationships. The self-confidence that derives from particularised interpersonal trust within mentoring relationships has the potential to override the subjective norm influences of those external to the relationship on the intention of a mentee to engage in RIS.
11. Challenge was found to originate from sources both external to the relationship that impacted on each individual within a participant pair, and from within the relationship. Challenge was interpreted by the researcher to equate with ‘risk-in-the relationship’ (RTR) because it has the potential to impact on trust, and thereby affect the foundation of the relationship.
12. The proposed re-positioning of mentorship in the ‘conscious competence learning model’ (Figure 2.4) between ‘unconscious incompetence’ and ‘conscious incompetence’ gained support from the findings. The concept of a type of realisation ‘that something is wrong’ surfaced in critical moments within the mentoring meetings or as a consequence of these meetings, and resulted in this new state of conscious awareness. SCT-mentoring was therefore found to facilitate a movement from ‘unconscious incompetence’ to ‘conscious incompetence’.

6.3 Discussion of models

This section begins with a fresh view of the x, y and z axes in the conceptual model, and leads to the presentation of a revised model that suggests how the concepts examined may have interacted within this study. Though the model is 3-D it serves only to suggest major influences, and it is acknowledged these influences may not be the only ones operating. Aspects of mentor and mentee roles are integrated within this section as they apply to generativity as a change process. Viewing generativity as a change process led to the later inclusion of the ‘theory of planned behaviour’ (Ajzen, 1991) in the literature review. Whereas a search of the literature on ‘confidence’ and ‘self-confidence’ did not bring this theory to light because of differences in language (Ajzen refers to confidence as an “attitude toward the behavior”) it was through Smith (2005) and his treatment of this theory in relation to mentee development that its significance to this study became apparent.

It is acknowledged similarities exist between the ‘theory of planned behaviour’ and the revised conceptual model presented in the following section. It may be considered the individual mentee is the core system that is changing and the mentor is a part of the subjective norm, consistent with this theory. However, the view taken is that this study differs from ‘the theory of planned behavior’ in that this study’s focus is on the trust relationship between the mentor and mentee and that it is this relationship that underpins the generative process. Justification for this rests in two areas. Firstly challenge is not just an individual’s challenge. Rather it has been equated with risk-in-relationship (RTR) so that it is the trust relationship between mentor and mentee that underpins engagement in RIS and the generative process.

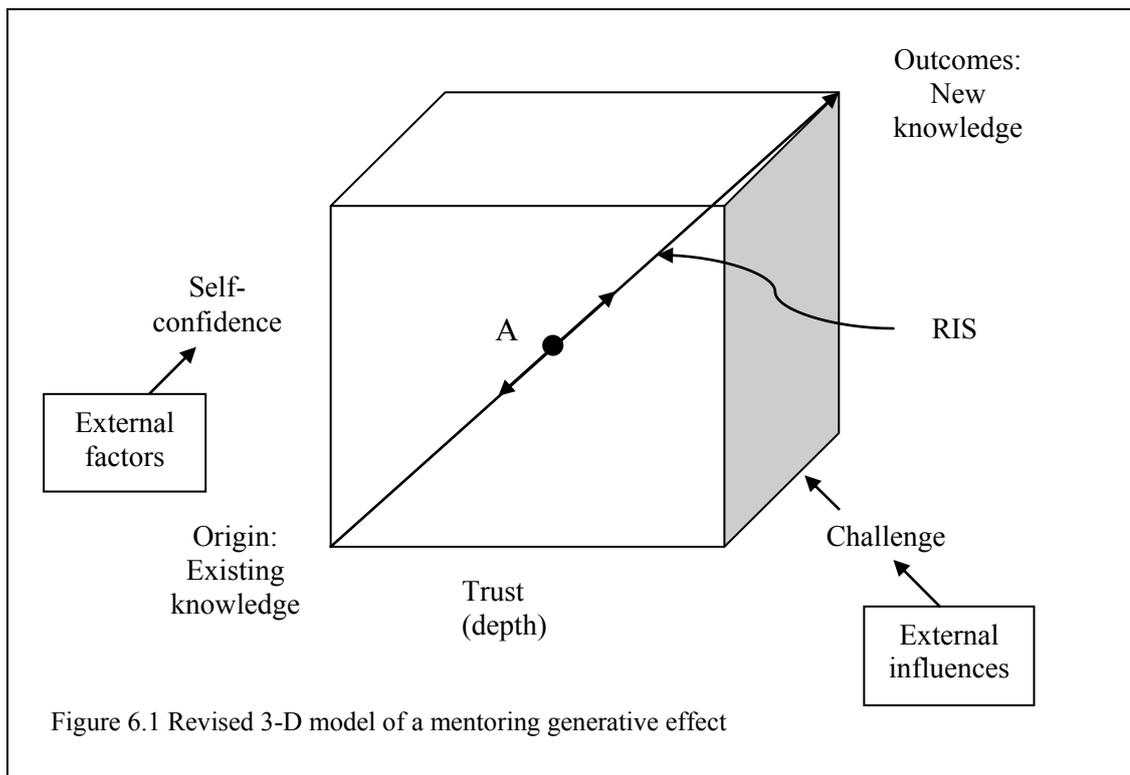
Secondly engagement in RIS and the outcomes of the RIS action will both impact on the trust relationship. Consideration of potential impacts on the relationship therefore places the development of trust within the mentoring relationship, along with the pursuit of a changed behaviour, as separate goals of the mentoring interactions.

6.3.1 X, Y and Z

Interpersonal trust between SCT-mentor and teacher-mentee underpinned the engagement of teacher-mentees in RIS. Consistent with the findings of Bouquillon and colleagues, (2005) this study found trust developed over time, whereby development encompassed movement towards deepest levels of trust. The levels of trust that were identified are in order (beginning with the archetype with the least depth): initial trust (McKnight et al., 1998); social exchange trust (Mayer et al., 1995); relationship-based commitment trust (Pratt & Dirks, 2007); and deepest trust (Bouquillon et al., 2005). Quantifying trust requires consideration of the constructs that contribute to each archetype, and applying appropriate measures to these constructs. If any future quantitative study is considered, it is suggested depth of trust needs to be determined. The study by Brockner et al. (1997) expanded on by Bouquillon et al. (2005) both of which contained statements to quantify trust, represent useful starting points.

In the context of generativity support means ‘support of action’ and in trusting situations action has been termed ‘risk-in-situation’ (RIS). The findings suggest there is merit in terming support for RIS as ‘futuristic support’ to distinguish it from support of the status quo as ‘static support’ though it is also acknowledged that ‘support of a change process’ implies support that is future orientated. There was however, no clear evidence that a deepening of trust results in perceptions held by the mentee, of greater support of them. However, emerging in the findings was the concept of ‘self-confidence’. Self-confidence as suggested by Weisbuch et al. (2009) is constructed of ‘coping resources’ including skills, dispositions, and external support that build confidence, and the ‘demands of the situation’ including required effort, danger and uncertainty as constructs that compromise self-confidence to ‘engage in RIS’. These constructs as suggested by Weisbuch et al. (2009) include the trust factors of ‘skills’ that pertain to ability, ‘danger’ that pertains to benevolence, and ‘uncertainty’ that pertains to risk. When viewed this way self-confidence may be dependent on trust. This is consistent with confidence as an ‘attitude toward the behavior’ (Ajzen, 1991) that interacts with the ‘perceived behavioural control’ which is influenced by factors such as resources required for coping.

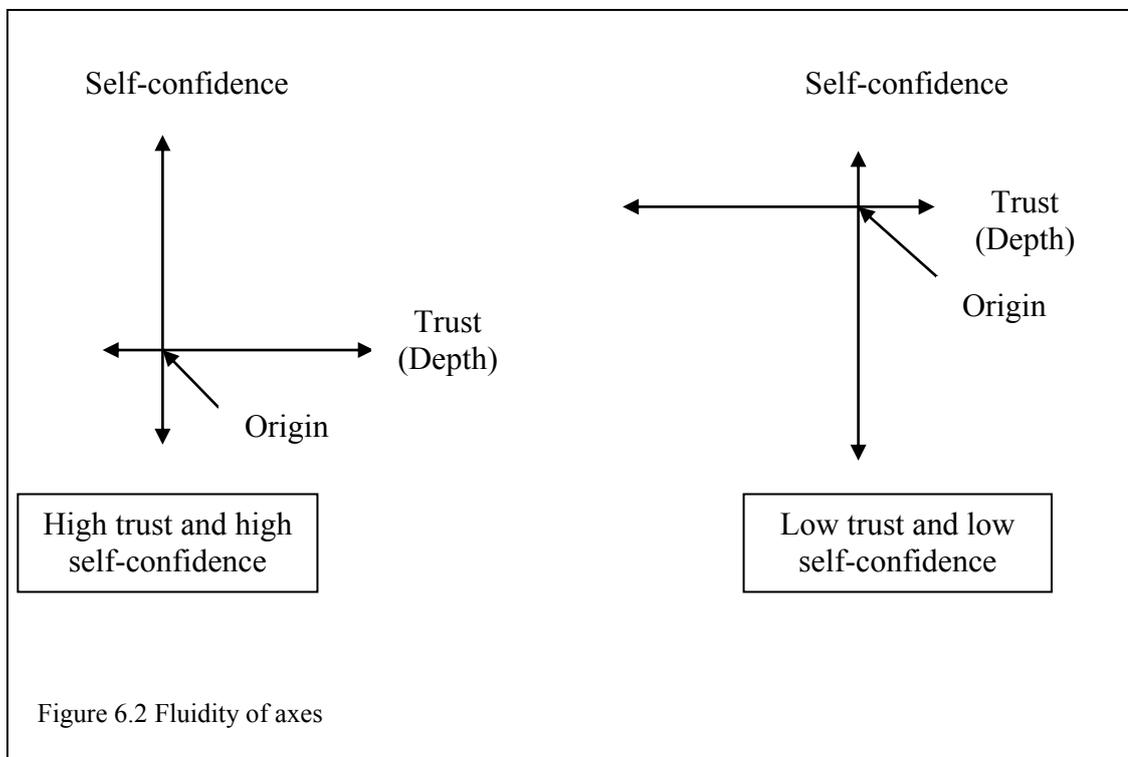
‘External support’ included as a ‘challenge coping resource’ by Weisbuch et al. (2009) is suggested as more likely an external factor that may contribute to self-confidence, rather than a variable dependent on trust. My view is support is external to the person to whom self-confidence applies, and is external to the trust relationship. Affirmation of the mentee may have a positive influence on mentee self-confidence, while negative comments may detract from mentee self-confidence. This provides a possible explanation for the view held by some authors (see McNally & S. Martin, 1998; Montecinos et al., 2002) that support leads to trust. In a trust situation where external support is offered, if self-confidence leads to engagement in RIS, then this engagement as the observed behaviour, may be incorrectly attributed to the external support, rather than the self-confidence of the risk-taker, and self-confidence of the risk-taker is influenced largely by trust of the mentor within a trust-based relationship.



Challenge was described in section 4.3.3 as ‘a stimulus to change’ and equates with risk-in-relationship (RTR). In stimulating change, challenge remains viewed as the z-axis in the model so that the axes of a suggested revised model are as

follows: trust as the x-axis, self-confidence as the y-axis, and challenge as the z-axis. This model is shown in Figure 6.1.

Before discussing how the concepts in the model may impact on generativity, it should be noted the interaction between concepts is dynamic meaning they are in constant interaction. In addition, the relative position of each concept is fluid in that the axes slide over each other because of the effect of the interactions on the levels of trust and self-confidence. The sets of axes shown in Figure 6.2 depict two contrasting ‘trust/self-confidence’ situations.



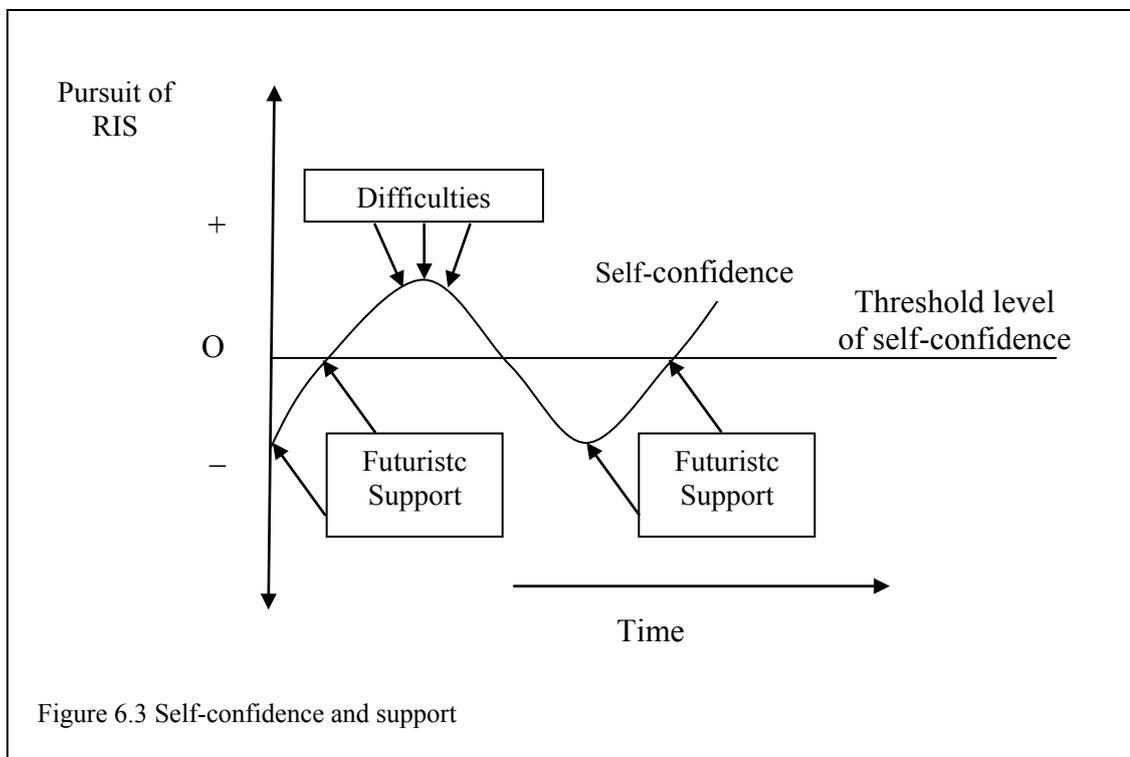
When challenge is brought to the relationship as an RTR, it can be drawn as the z-axis. The mentee remains in a state of stasis unless they engage in RIS. Challenge may stimulate movement but unless it is acted on, the generative process does not begin. Assuming that the level of trust, self-confidence, and challenge are at some point in time sufficient for the mentee to engage in RIS, that is, to start trying, then the pursuit of new knowledge begins and the RIS line can be drawn on the model. The degree of difficulty of the challenge needs to be determined in scaling the z-axis, so the representation of the model above, and those further presented in

Figure 6.3 and Figure 6.4 are crude at best. The skill of the mentor in challenging the mentee, or of the mentee in self-challenging lies in setting ‘appropriate challenge’ whereby ‘appropriate’ means there are or could potentially be, sufficient levels of trust and mentee self-confidence to complete the RIS arising from the challenge. Movement towards new knowledge represents a positive response in the pursuit of the outcome, and movement away from new knowledge represents a negative response, as depicted by the arrows on the RIS line in Figure 6.1.

Possible effects of support, self-confidence, and trust are now extrapolated as they pertain to this model.

6.3.2 *Effect of support in challenge situations*

Positive and negative movements in the ‘pursuit of outcomes’ can be depicted simplistically as a sine wave as shown in Figure 6.3 that follows.



Imagine beginning at point A on Figure 6.1 if a mentee’s self-confidence is sufficient to cope with the demands arising from the challenge, this level is above

the threshold level of self-confidence to meet the situation, and the RIS may be engaged in. Movement occurs in the direction of new knowledge. If a mentee's self-confidence is below the threshold level, futuristic support may be applied so as to lift the self-confidence of the mentee above the threshold level before they engage in RIS. This is shown on Figure 6.3 as the earlier one of the two 'futuristic support' labels.

When difficulties arise self-confidence may drop a little but the mentee continues working towards the outcomes. It is possible mentee self-confidence may drop below the threshold level and the mentee may retreat. Futuristic support as an 'external factor' (see Figure 6.1) including from the mentor, may lift mentee self-confidence and may be introduced at any point in time. A lift in self-confidence may allow the mentee to overcome the difficulty and continue positive movement. Vermunt and Verloop (1999) refer to "constructive and destructive frictions" (p. 270) in relation to 'challenge for learning' and these terms could be equally applied to difficulties encountered in RIS. If a difficulty is encountered it may represent 'constructive friction' provided self-confidence remains above the threshold level. Futuristic support, through lifting self-confidence may assist the mentee to continue movement towards the new knowledge state and in this respect a mentor who acts as a supporter plays an important role in mentee growth.

If a difficulty or a series of difficulties results in self-confidence again dropping below the threshold level so that retreat occurs, the difficulty or series of difficulties may represent 'destructive friction'. Futuristic support may need to be drawn on again by the mentee. A focus on the provision of support, and a reliance by the mentee on the mentor as a support provider has the potential to result in never ending cycles of lowering mentee self-confidence in the face of difficulties, and the need for support to lift self-confidence. It is conceivable these cycles may put the mentoring relationship at risk of dissolution, particularly if there comes a point when the teaching expertise of the mentor is no longer sufficient to contribute to mentee development. Part of the skill of the mentor therefore rests in judging the difference between constructive and destructive friction and when to

intervene as this may well affect the self-confidence of the mentee and may result in retreat from further engagement in RIS.

Additionally, a skilled mentor may recognise where they too do not have expert knowledge. In this case drawing on other resources (as examples, current research and other people with the expertise) may mean both mentor and mentee become learners so that the mentoring relationship may continue to evolve. Without drawing on external expertise the mentor's teaching expertise may be at risk of being exhausted which could result in dissolution of the mentoring relationship.

6.3.3 *Effect of deepest trust in challenge situations*

Reciprocity of 'deepest trust' may allow a better appraisal of the level of challenge appropriate to the mentee at the onset because it may lead to better understanding between mentor and mentee. The effect of setting 'appropriate challenge' as opposed to challenge that is difficult for a mentee to achieve is to shift the relative positions of 'self-confidence' and 'the threshold level of confidence' as shown in Figure 6.3 below.

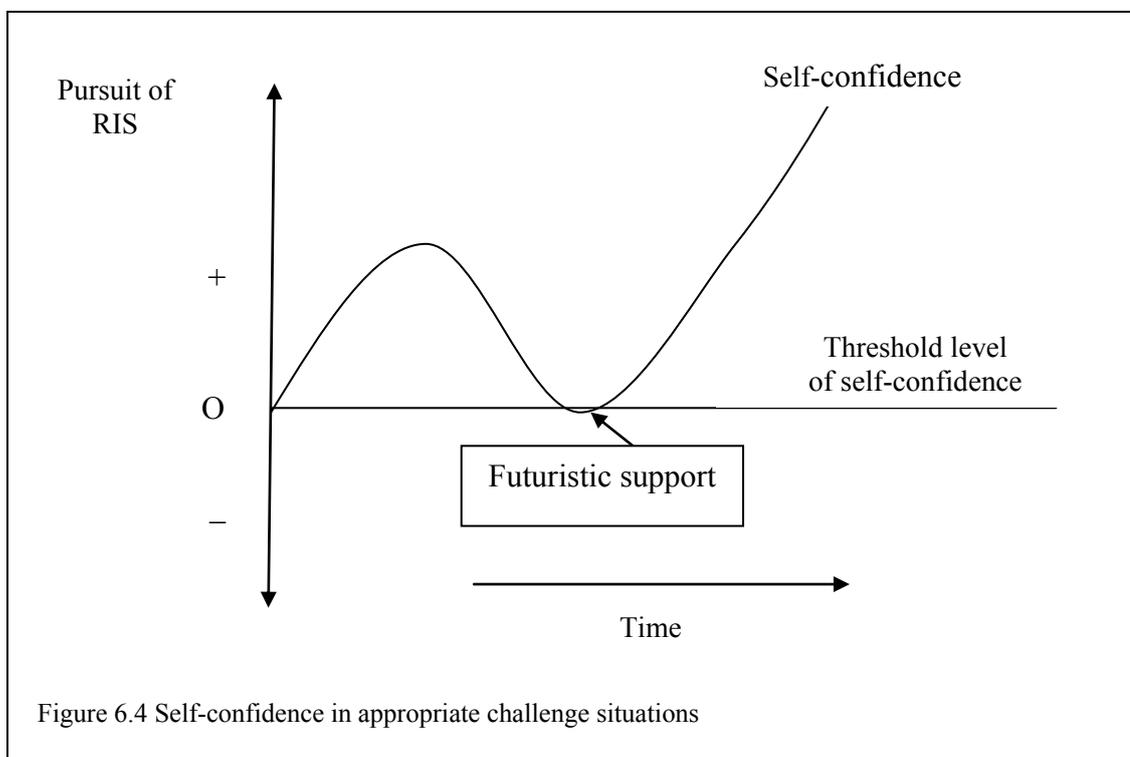


Figure 6.4 Self-confidence in appropriate challenge situations

Setting ‘appropriate challenge’ (either by the mentor or self-challenge by the mentee) may mean little if any futuristic support is required for the mentee to engage in RIS. In addition if mentee self-confidence increases because of reciprocity of trust within the mentoring relationship then this potentially overrides the subjective norm influences (if they are opposed to the RIS) again allowing the mentee to engage in RIS through their own motivation. Difficulties may impact on self-confidence but they are less likely to result in a fall in self-confidence below the threshold level so that any futuristic support is not required or may be minimal. For instance words of encouragement may be sufficient to motivate the mentee to continue engaging in RIS. The ‘personal bonds of empathy’ and greater ‘reciprocity of sharing’ that are typical of high trust relationships may allow appraisal of what level of challenge could stimulate engagement in RIS and lead to successes along the RIS pathway. Goals set or initiatives undertaken are more likely to be realistic in that they are more likely to be achieved. The result may be the mentee maintains growth through his/her efforts rather than needing additional support, and the mentoring relationship may endure and grow through feedback from positive outcomes.

6.4 Implications for SCT- mentoring

The establishment in 2006 of the SCT position, with a focus on a mentoring role in the induction of new teachers into the profession, underlines the important contribution mentoring makes to the professional growth of these new teachers. Section 6.4.1 discusses some implications arising from the revised model as applied within the context of SCT-mentoring. Sections 6.4.2-6.4.4 link these implications to the key principles and vision in ‘The Guidelines for Induction and Mentoring Programmes and Mentor Teacher Development in Aotearoa New Zealand’ (NZTC, 2009).

6.4.1 *Back to the context*

The context of this study is SCT-mentor and teacher-mentee relationships focusing on the generativity process for teacher-mentees. This section has a focus

on 'trust' because of the importance of trust as a basis of the mentoring relationship.

This study suggests 'trust' is the basis of these relationships in generative situations, and trust better underpins increased capacity of the mentee rather than support. Whereas research shows there is a focus on support towards technician tasks in teacher induction in New Zealand (Cameron et al., 2007) and the SCT Guidelines (MOE et al., 2007) this study suggests a greater focus on trust would be more in line with a vision for professional growth. Future professional development opportunities for SCTs and others involved in trust relationships should therefore include a focus on trust: This focus could include:

- developing understanding of the constructs of trust and trust archetypes.
- heightening awareness and understanding of the impact of trust within the generativity process, so that SCTs may better facilitate relationship building and generativity.
- Providing opportunities for SCTs to develop trust-building strategies so that these strategies may become central to a SCTs mentoring heutagogy.

It is recognised that not all mentoring relationships will develop to levels of 'deepest trust'. However understanding the constructs of trust and statements that allow a measurement of depth of trust potentially enables mentor and mentee to develop trust to a level appropriate to each situation. As two examples, first consider if either party asked the other a question such as "how do you view teaching for learning compared with teaching for assessment?" Such a question allows scope in the dialogue to develop 'deepest trust' through the sharing of beliefs. Second, consider a mentor question such as "what is it you need from me?" This allows, as an example, the expertise of the mentor to be called on so that social exchange trust operates. Effectively the parties are negotiating 'depth of trust' into the relationship. In such a way, there is some control over the construction of the x-axis in the model, and this has ramifications on the other

concepts such as the level of challenge appropriate to stimulate mentee growth particular to the situation.

6.4.2 Principles for induction and mentoring

A key principle in the ‘Draft Guidelines for Induction and Mentoring programmes and for Mentor Teacher Development in Aotearoa New Zealand’ (NZTC, 2009) is for these programmes to be “based on the aspirations and needs of the teacher” (p. 2). This principle is consistent with the description of mentoring with a focus on learner goals and mentee reflection (Megginson & Clutterbuck, 2005), a heutagogical approach to mentoring that includes ‘self-determined learning’ (Hase & Kenyon, 2000), and the ‘voluntary and individual valuing’ of initiatives consistent with achievement theory (Hollyforde and Whiddett, as cited in Smith, 2005). The ‘individual valuing’ points to a relationship that goes beyond support and more towards ‘trust’ as a relationship basis.

Within such trust-based collaborative relationships such as those within this study there was scope for teacher-mentees to explore their own individual teaching professional identity (PTI). Mentees took initiatives that they saw as important in their professional development and perceived themselves as the locus of control in this development. ‘Exploring’ is consistent with the notion that “inquiry-more than any other characteristic- has caused the elevation of humans to a special place in the world” (Hopkins, 1976) and this applies not only to humans in general but to each individual. Consistent with this inquiry focus of humans Smith (2005) refers to the work of Rogers maintaining there is “an in-built need for continuous mental growth and development” (p. 210). Smith (2005) relates this to Maslow’s ‘hierarchy of needs’ and ‘achievement theory’ whereby the movement from Maslow’s fourth level of self-esteem to the fifth and highest level of self-actualization or personal fulfilment is achieved. Through the attainment of personal goals or initiatives facilitated by reflection within the mentoring relationships, this study lends support to the findings of Smith (2005) who found evidence that (trainee) teachers obtained personal fulfilment through developing their own aspirations in teaching.

6.4.3 A clash of worlds

Where this study takes a different view to Smith (2005) rests in Smith's concluding statement which reads "To broaden the repertoire of trainee teachers will require mentors to seek out, support and praise the use of a wide repertoire by trainees" (p. 218). While it is acknowledged Smith (2005) adopts a situated social constructivist perspective that encompasses the notion of "reciprocal determinism in which the individual has effects on the social environment, and the social environment affects the individual" (p. 209) and it is also acknowledged that in society not all behaviours are acceptable to that society, the implication in Smith's (2005) concluding statement is that the mentor's view of the world, that there is value in developing a wide repertoire, is more important than the trainees own beliefs. Such a view is suggestive of a realist ontological position rather than that of a nominalist position and in my view represents a clash of ontological worlds. To remain consistent with the core ethical considerations in this study of individual autonomy and respect for the "separateness of persons" (T. Wilkinson, 2001, p. 15) and the very nature of nominalist ontology, requires the honouring of different views rather than a mentor seeking out behaviours to encourage from their own perspective. To honour individual autonomy and separateness of persons would require a discussion on the use of a wide repertoire and willing engagement of the teacher-mentee in initiatives to develop this wide repertoire if they so wished.

This leads to a questioning of the nature of "deepest trust" which has been defined in terms of "value congruence" (Bouquillon et al., 2005, p. 241). While value congruence was found to exist in "deepest trust" within this study, it is suggested that a deeper form of trust again exists when people with different values are able to accept these different values and still maintain individual autonomy, separateness of persons, and can work together collaboratively so that each may achieve personal fulfilment. 'Acceptance of different values' rather than value congruence possibly represents a 'highest form of trust', and is more in keeping with a nominalist ontological position and a subjectivist view of knowledge.

6.4.4 Summary

Since its inception as a pilot programme in 2006, the SCT position has had considerable input from the key stakeholders in terms of time allowances and funding for the position. It is not unreasonable therefore to expect SCTs to be fulfilling the aims and objectives of the role one of which is “supporting and assisting teachers to expand their knowledge, skills and attributes to increase teacher effectiveness” (MOE et al., 2007). While the ‘Review¹⁰’ found the most impact of the SCT position was on “beginning and struggling teachers” and secondly on “classroom management (Ward, 2007, p. 1) this study found across all three cases, that when collaborative SCTs mentored able teacher-mentees or teacher-mentees with whom they had an established relationship, there was an expansion of knowledge as an increase in capacity related to pedagogical decision making. Largely driven in response to student needs, the teachers in this study were motivated towards professional growth with the students’ best interests at heart. The collaborative, trust-based relationships with SCTs facilitated this mentee growth consistent with a key principle for effective induction and mentoring of PRT¹¹s in Aotearoa New Zealand in that such mentoring should be “educative in focus” (NZTC, 2009, p. 2) and as such is an integral part of mentee PTI development. In such a way SCT-mentoring contributes towards the vision for induction and mentoring programmes providing “high quality induction and mentoring of new entrants to the profession, [so that] the profession will progressively improve its ability to contribute to equitable learning outcomes for all learners” (NZTC, 2009, p. 2).

6.5 Future Study

This research represents a small contribution to the knowledge previously available surrounding some key concepts considered fundamental to a growth process within a collaborative, particularised, inter-personal mentoring relationship. Much further research is required if the knowledge surrounding generativity within similar relationships is to be expanded on. As one example,

¹⁰ See section 1.1 for document description

¹¹ PRT means provisionally registered teacher see section 1.2.2 for a description

further study on the concept of ‘confidence’ and how its development is affected within mentoring relationships would not only add to the existing knowledge base, but through understandings gained, could enhance ‘successful’ engagement in the generative process by mentors and mentees, thereby leading to increased teacher effectiveness. If the knowledge gained through this and future studies is made available to, and taken up by practising SCTs, it has the potential to make a valuable contribution to the overall effectiveness of induction and mentoring programmes in Aotearoa New Zealand and to similar mentoring programmes wherever they may be.

6.6 Limitations of this research

This study was a small scale qualitative study that investigated individual perceptions of SCT-mentors and teacher-mentees surrounding generativity for mentees. There is recognition of the complexity of the key concepts on which this study focused, and that there exist other factors not examined that impact on generativity for mentees. Representations have been simplified to fit within the bounds of this study. Further research on a more extensive scale would need to be undertaken if a fuller understanding of the generativity process within SCT-mentor and teacher-mentee relationships is to be acquired.

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Appendices

Note: all names are pseudonyms.

Appendix 1: Semi-structured interview prepared questions -case two

Laura identified her questioning as a focus for the observation by Bruce (p.1). In so doing a specific area of her teaching is open to comment.

- Q1 How typical of this mentoring relationship is this type of interaction where a specific teaching area is identified for comment compared with other relationships where observation may occur?
- Q2 What is it about an SCT-mentee relationship that allows opportunity for this type of interaction?

Bruce asked for Laura's thoughts on good points about her teaching before offering his own.

- Q3 Why is the focus on good points?
- Q4 Is there any importance in asking Laura for her comments before Bruce offers his?

On several occasions Bruce makes comments like "that's a really cool thing" (p.2).

- Q5 What effect do you think these statements have during the mentoring, and/or on the mentoring relationship?

There is a small section where Laura interrupts Bruce saying "Yep" and there is a pause. I will replay this section to help refresh memories if you wish (p.2).

- Q6 Can Laura recall why she interrupted or what if anything she was thinking during this pause?

There is a section of dialogue on 'why' questions (bottom p.2 – p.3).

- Q7 What if anything has happened about these 'why' questions since the second meeting?

Appendix 2: Semi-structured interview prepared questions -case three

Kelly refers to 'starting to realise' and John asks 'how did you come to that realisation' (p.1).

- Q1 Kelly, if possible are you able to recall what it was that resulted in the start of the realising, or circumstances that may have lead directly to the realising?
- Q2 Could you describe the experience of 'realising' for you?
- Q3 How do you think John's question may have affected the dialogue that immediately followed?

There are three areas amongst others that are areas of concern within the classroom that arise in your meetings. These are:

- A) Pushing to the assessment rather than to meet student learning needs (p.1)
 - B) Application of knowledge (p. 8 amongst many references)
 - C) Questioning (p. 6).
- Q4 Describe any alteration to the practice of Kelly or any initiative being undertaken in any one of these three areas of concern that has resulted from this mentoring?
- Q5 Once a concern has been identified what do you see as the roles of the mentor and the mentee?

Referring to the above quote (C) on questioning, Kelly invites observation of her teaching and feedback on it from John which potentially leaves her open to criticism.

- Q6 Can you name any specific features of this relationship that allowed Kelly to do this, whereas she may not in other relationships because of the absence of these features?

There are many interchanges (see pages 5, 6 and 8) where one party responds to the other using words like 'yeah', that's 'fantastic', 'reaffirms me'.

- Q7 Is there any significance in the use of these comments?