Mentoring: Using an inquiry approach to support the development of higher education teachers' pedagogical practice

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ABSTRACT

Mentoring has been proven to contribute to the development of higher education teachers' pedagogical practice by expanding their knowledge and understanding for teaching in an adult learning context. This development can be enhanced when in parallel, mentors encourage higher education teachers to explore the factors that influence their practice.

In this study the influence of mentoring on the development of higher education teachers' pedagogical practice was investigated. The study was conducted in one New Zealand university where the participants and the researcher are academics who teach and engage in research. The seven participants hailed from two faculties and a teaching development centre. They elected to take part in the study because of their articulated commitment and desire to contribute to the development of effective higher education teaching. Their respective lived experiences of the ways that mentoring can support the development of higher education teachers' pedagogical practice was integral to their decision-making.

A qualitative in-depth narrative methodology framed by a constructivist research paradigm was used to investigate the participants' experiences of mentoring and the implications for their practice. The main sources of data were generated by the in-depth narrative semi-structured interviews. Thematic data analysis was conducted via the interview transcripts and subsequently reinforced by re-storying. These approaches to data generation and analysis enabled an in-depth scrutiny of the participants' experiences of both teaching and mentoring.

The study revealed that the participants' beliefs about teaching, their prior experiences, professional development, tacit theories of learning, reflection, and mentoring were factors that had shaped and influenced their pedagogical practice. In the subsequent exploration of the participants' experiences of being mentored and of mentoring others, mentoring was identified as a significant influence. For most of the participants mentoring had not only supported the development of their pedagogical practice, it had helped them to make sense of why they taught the way that they did. Notably, the participants indicated a preference for mentoring approaches which promoted the co-

construction of learning about teaching, encouraged co-inquiry into their teaching practice and gave them ownership of the mentoring process.

Three key recommendations about mentoring for the development of higher education teachers' pedagogical practice emerged from the study, and signal implications for higher education teachers and universities. First, that the influences on higher education teachers' practice should be intentionally explored in mentoring settings given the significant impact these influences have upon teachers pedagogical practice; second, that mentoring must be understood and pertinent to sustain higher education teachers' motivation and commitment to the ongoing development of their practice; third, that mentoring should be positioned as intentional and purposeful for learning about teaching.

This study has the potential to add to understandings about mentoring for the development of teachers' pedagogical practice in higher education. It is anticipated that it will contribute to both higher education teaching and mentoring discourses. A key aspiration of this study, drawn from the participants' insightful and honest sharing of their experiences, is for mentoring to be deliberately employed as an inquiry approach to support the development of higher education teachers' pedagogical practice.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

This chapter introduces the study and my research interest in mentoring as an approach that can support higher education teachers with the development of their pedagogical practice. The study's rationale and significance are described, and the research aims outlined. An overview of the thesis is provided.

Interest in the study

In my early years as a primary school teacher I was frequently told by more experienced colleagues how to teach. There were no school-based mentors to observe, feedback on, challenge, or affirm my practice. Professional conversations in which I could explore the kind of teacher I wanted to be were confined to the after-hours university classes I chose to enrol in. While I have come to recognise this was the prevailing climate at the time, I recall feeling isolated, bewildered and sometimes a little fearful. The words and actions of the inspiring teacher educators met during my teachers' college and ongoing university studies conflicted with the reality of my lived experiences. But there were several influences that led me to persevere, become more resilient and ultimately become the kind of teacher I wanted and needed to be.

Two key influences from my early years of teaching sustained and motivated me. First was the school inspector[1] responsible for my final teacher certification and a school science advisor. He became a critical friend whose wisdom, insight, advice, encouragement, and constructive critique motivated me to focus on and improve my practice. As a result, I came to better understand the nuanced complexity of being a classroom teacher. Similarly, an authentic and innovative science educator led me to further recognise my potential. By my fourth year of teaching, largely because of these two educators, I was participating in a variety of educational networks with like-minded teachers. Second, was the continuation of my university studies. I was introduced to

[1] In New Zealand schools (until the education reform of 1989), school inspectors were responsible for the assessment, evaluation and accreditation of beginning teachers. They also conducted whole school inspections to report on programmes and educational outcomes.

new ways of thinking about teaching. Particularly influential were my studies about the philosophy, sociology and psychology of education. Not only was my practice enhanced, my knowledge and understandings of the myriad broader contexts of education were broadened and deepened.

These key influences led to the formation of professional relationships, that over time grew into collegial and collaborative partnerships, and generated opportunities for me to support, advise and guide other classroom teachers. Ultimately I was motivated to enter the realm of higher education teaching. As a 'whole other world' to transition into, navigate and make sense of, I will be forever grateful for the writings of Palmer (1998) whose words have sustained, motivated, energised, and nurtured me for over 20 years. Through his words, I came to recognise and utilise the empowering nature of mentoring.

Significance of the research topic

The relatively small body of research into mentoring as an approach that can support the development of higher education teachers' pedagogical practice highlighted the need to undertake research that specifically explored teachers' experiences of mentoring and its influence on their practice. A key aim of this study therefore, was to investigate higher education teachers' experiences of being a mentor and of being mentored. Their sensemaking of these experiences was a particular focus that was first informed by their understandings of higher education teaching.

This study has the potential to provide insights about:

- The influence of formal and informal mentoring on the development of higher education teachers' pedagogical practice;
- Other influences on teachers' pedagogical practice;
- Teacher beliefs and the espoused theories that influence and shape teachers' pedagogical practice;
- The ways that mentoring, when intentionally facilitated, can contribute to the development, improvement and enhancement of teachers' pedagogical practice.

Mentoring in higher education

Although a number of studies about mentoring have been conducted in the higher education context, there is limited research about teachers' experiences of mentoring for the development of their pedagogical practice. Some studies address ideas about teaching development as just one aspect among others – for instance, academic career progression and researcher development (Hezlett, 2005; Petersen & Walke, 2012; Ritter, 2011). Mentoring has certainly proven to be a successful approach for increasing academics' confidence and skills (Bland, Taylor, Shollen, Weber-Main, & Mulcahy, 2009; Simpson, Cockburn-Wootten, & Spiller, 2005). While there is sound evidence that universities offer mentoring programmes to support academics' overall development, there is less evidence of mentoring programmes that are focused on the development of pedagogical practice. While small, there is a body of research that supports mentoring as an effective professional development approach for teaching and teacher development (e.g. Berki, 2005; Robertson-Welsh, Kirby, & Harris-Worthington, 2009; Fitzgerald & McNamara, 2021; Lynam, 2020; Wass, Rogers, Howell, Hartung, & McIntyre, 2019; Woolhouse & Nicholson, 2020). This points to the timeliness of pursuing the topic further, and taking action.

It has long been acknowledged that access to mentoring is essential for academics to be able to participate effectively and successfully in their respective universities by contributing to its goals, and to develop their capacity for teaching, research and leadership (Allan, Anh, & Le, 2020; August & Waltman, 2004; Olsen, Maple, & Stage, 1995; Lunsford, Crisp, Dolan, & Wuetherick, 2017). In particular, the research has shown there are considerable advantages in attaching greater weight to mentoring than to other approaches to develop and improve teaching effectiveness, and in doing so promote the scholarship of teaching. Mentoring has been shown to increase higher education teachers' enthusiasm for and willingness to try new approaches to teaching, and their capacity to engage in reflective practice (Dorner, Misic, & Rymarenko, 2020; Ritter, 2011). In light of the current and increasing global emphasis on effective teaching in higher education, a sense of urgency could be argued for.

Research design

Seven higher education teachers participated in this qualitative study. Data were generated through two in-depth narrative semi-structured interviews with each participant over a 12 month time frame. In the first semi-structured interview the participants talked about the ways their teacher beliefs and factors such as prior experiences, professional development and others had influenced their teaching practice. Key themes identified from the first interviews informed the second semi-structured interviews. The second interviews explored the participants' experiences of mentoring as an approach that had helped them to develop their pedagogical practice, and that they had employed to support others.

A constructivist paradigm and epistemology provided an appropriate and robust theoretical framework for this investigation. This framework supported the in-depth narrative interview methodology and semi-structured method through which data were generated and analysed. Thematic data analysis and subsequent re-storying were employed to identify key themes and interpret the participants' experiences (Jonassen, 1991; Ollerenshaw & Creswell, 2002; Slabon, Richards, & Dennen, 2014).

Thesis organisation

This thesis is organised into seven chapters. Chapter One provides an introduction to the research with a specific focus on mentoring higher education teachers. My interest in the topic, the significance of the research topic and the research design adopted for the study are presented. The research aims are outlined and an overview of the rest of the thesis is provided.

Chapter Two comprises a prologue and six 'stories' drawn from my teaching and mentoring journey. In this chapter I position myself in the study by employing a reflective process to explore my espoused theories. Their relationship to the theoretical positioning of the research overall is identified.

Chapter Three reviews the literature relevant to this study. A scoping of the body of literature on those aspects of higher education teaching considered relevant to the topic is conducted. This is followed by a scoping of the growing body of literature for

mentoring higher education teachers. The literature to do with mentoring as a professional development approach that can help higher education teachers to develop their pedagogical practice is examined.

Chapter Four outlines the overall research design, the research process and attendant procedures. Considerations of researcher reflexivity, insider research and ethical issues are presented.

Chapter Five presents the findings about the influences on higher education teachers' pedagogical practice and their experiences of mentoring to support its development. An account of the data generated by the in-depth narrative semi-structured interviews is provided. First, the context and personal teaching story of each participant is re-storied to provide insights into their individual and unique experiences. Second, the findings from the first interview about influences on teaching are presented. Third, the participant's experiences of mentoring are portrayed. The four main interview questions provide the framework from which the themes are developed.

Chapter Six discusses the findings from Chapter five. Teacher beliefs and influences on the development of higher education teachers' pedagogical practice are discussed. Mentoring as an approach that can support higher education teachers to develop their pedagogical practice is then discussed in light of the findings and the literature. Inquiry mentoring is presented as a deliberate professional development approach that could support the development of teachers' pedagogical practice. A representation of inquiry mentoring is proposed as a way of conceptualising and enacting mentoring in the higher education context.

Chapter Seven summarises the key points of the study and discusses the implications and recommendations for higher education teachers and universities. The study's constraints are examined and suggestions for future research are presented. Recommendations for action are proposed with specific reference to the representation of inquiry mentoring discussed in Chapter six. Inquiry mentoring is promoted as a structured informal approach that has the potential to support higher education teachers to develop, improve and enhance their pedagogical practice.

CHAPTER TWO: A CONCEPT OF MENTORING

In Chapter Two my espoused concept of mentoring is illustrated through six stories chosen from my experiences of teaching and mentoring. These are reflective of my own theoretical positioning in the study (Gary & Holmes, 2020; Savin-Baden & Major, 2013) and the theoretical positioning of the study overall. Not only has this influenced how the research was conducted with regard to the methodology and methods, it influenced what was investigated in the course of the interviews. Important to me and important in the study for instance, were the stories that portrayed the participants' experiences of both mentoring and becoming a higher education teacher. Similar to my own stories, they had fluidity and cohesion, and were contextual (Gary & Holmes, 2020). In addition, 'telling' some of my own stories served as a reminder that in my researcher role I must not make assumptions about the participants' perspectives and worldviews. Thus, positioning myself through a constructivist lens led to the subsequent adoption of a constructivist paradigm and epistemology for the study.

Self-reflection was crucial for the process of identifying, constructing, critiquing, and articulating my position. Employing Larrivee's (2000) reflective framework (designed for classroom teachers) proved a useful tool. By merging critical inquiry with self-reflection, I was able to immerse myself in a deep examination of my beliefs (and my assumptions) about my learning, knowledge and understandings of teaching and mentoring. I became aware that while my beliefs about and concepts of teaching and mentoring had not changed significantly over time, I was now more able to articulate and make sense of them. Moreover, I recognised that my positionality was not fixed, rather it was situation and context-dependent. As a result I became more mindful that there are diverse ways of knowing and understanding, and was able to bring this to the research process itself.

Reflecting upon my beliefs about teaching led me to recognise they are not dissimilar to my beliefs about mentoring. Through my exploration and reflection I understand that one can and must learn to mentor, and that practice of the latter is especially critical. I have come to know and understand that all mentor-mentee interactions (whether formal or informal) need to be intentional, albeit in different ways for different reasons, if the mentoring relationship is to truly be a learning one. As I look to the future, my teacher

beliefs continue to influence the way I understand and practice mentoring. Developing an awareness of my mentor self has generated a new openness to being mentored - I consider it a learning opportunity.

When I seek to identify why and how my mentors were so influential, what springs to mind is their compassion and empathy, and how the ways that created a foundation from which they could challenge and question. With hindsight, I know that I did not always take full advantage of their expert knowledge and experience, or the opportunities presented to me. Yet none ever expressed disappointment. Because they had come to know me, they knew when I wasn't yet ready. Most importantly my mentors did not attempt to 'create me in their own image', rather they helped to create conditions in which I could flourish. Ultimately it was up to me to choose which pathway to travel.

In the next section, six 'stories' about the influence of six mentors on my teaching development are shared. They are intended to illustrate how over time, I am better able to articulate my concept of mentoring.

Mentoring stories

Mentors connect

> *One of the greatest values of mentors, is the ability to see ahead what others cannot see and to help them navigate a course to their destination*
> *~ John C. Maxwell*

I recall my first meeting with Ron Rashbrook the coordinator of my teachers' college cohort. At the interview to gain entry into a teacher education programme I remember focusing all of my nervous attention on him because he seemed to be the kindest face on a panel of seven academics. But it was not just his kind face, he put me at ease by asking questions about my learning journey since leaving secondary school three years earlier. I had thought I wanted a career as an accountant. Uninspiring teachers and office politics changed that. Mr Rashbrook signalled through his questions and non-verbal affirmations that these experiences would be valuable in the teaching profession, while the other panel members remained focused on 'why I had not achieved university entrance' three years earlier.

A lasting memory of Mr Rashbrook stems from my fourth day at teachers' college. Placed in a local primary school for one day, us student teachers were required to read a book to small groups of children. Mr Rashbrook stopped by the tree under which I was reading with children and said, "you look so much more relaxed than the last time I saw you Jenny. I am so pleased you're here." Not only did he remember my name, he had taken the time to re-connect. My recollection is the affirming and powerful action I remember thinking that my journey to become a teacher had truly begun.

Mr Rashbrook continued to take an interest in my teacher development. I know now that he saw my potential, which I did not, when he facilitated my entry into university study during my second year at teachers' college. He regularly checked in with me to talk about my studies and my teaching aspirations, and he sought me out to shake my hand when three years later I graduated with distinction. This was my first professional mentoring relationship.

Mentors help mentees to realise their potential

> *The delicate balance of mentoring someone is not creating them in your own image, but giving them the opportunity to create themselves ~ Steven Spielberg*

During my final practicum whilst a student teacher, I vividly recall the teachers' college lecturer who arrived to evaluate my final teaching practice. While I had been taught by Angus McGougan during my third year at university, we had not connected in the same way that we did during his school visits. In our professional conversations Angus talked with me about my aspirations given I was about to embark on the next phase of my teaching journey as a beginning teacher. I recall him asking, "who are the people helping you to develop and reflect on your professional practice? Who are your mentors?" While the term mentor was not in my vocabulary at that point, I instinctively knew that he was referring to those who were guiding me as I formed my teacher beliefs and practice. Angus also asked, "could you see yourself becoming a teacher educator in the future?" I vividly recall that question even now, and how with it this gentle and astute educator lit a fire that gently flickered for seventeen years. While I had very few mentors during the early stages of my teaching career, Elva Gouk, Murray Thompson and Hugh Barr were three educators who encouraged, advised, guided and advocated, and became my critical friends. Hugh and Murray have passed away and Elva is now in

her late eighties but their combined influence on my professional practice, motivation, attitude, and the ways I have sought to support others has continued. Importantly, I had the opportunity to ask each if I could write about them in this thesis.

Mentors are wholehearted

> *I've learned that people will forget what you said, people will forget what you did, but people will never forget how you made them feel ~ Maya Angelou*

Elva was my associate teacher[2] during my final teaching practicum at Ohaupo Primary School and we maintained contact in the early years of my teaching career. Each day Elva brought a wholehearted approach to teaching and learning, and to living life. She instilled my desire to always bring my whole self to teaching. She helped me to understand that this required courage, confidence, perseverance, and resilience. We have connected only intermittently over the years. Our last (incidental) meeting was five years ago at the summit of a mountain. It was no surprise to find Elva climbing a mountain at the age of 83. As we hugged, laughed and reminisced I was reminded of her joyous approach to life, and importantly how infectious that could be.

Mentors open up possibilities

> *A mentor is someone who sees more talent and ability within you, than you see in yourself, and helps bring it out of you ~ Bob Proctor*

During that same practicum I met Murray Thompson, the principal of Ohaupo School. His encouragement led me to a greater belief in myself. Later in my teaching career, in his role as a school inspector[3], Murray continued to contribute to the development of my teaching and leadership practice not just through conversation, observation, and feedback but his way of being. Unfailingly committed to growing great teachers and leaders, Murray modelled, facilitated, observed, listened, critiqued and challenged. His

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[2] Associate teacher: A New Zealand teacher employed by a Board of Trustees and approved by an initial teacher education provider to contribute to and support the development of student teachers.

[3] School inspectors were employed by the regional education boards of New Zealand. They were tasked with assessing and evaluating schools, beginning teachers and teachers seeking promotion.

empathy, generosity, energy, and great capacity for insight underpinned the ways he engaged with people. Nothing illustrated this better than when I was facing some challenging times as a new principal in a small rural school. Unbeknownst to me, the school community was beset by historical frictions that pre-dated my tenure. Murray was the school's Ministry of Education advisor and while pastoral care was not his mandate, he regularly arrived with cake and muffins for the teaching staff and our 43 students. His visits were always timely. Each time we walked and talked, and he helped me to identify problems and potential solutions. Murry always checked in on my wellbeing.

Mentors focus on the other

> *Only the foolish would think that wisdom is something to keep locked in a drawer. Only the fearful would feel empowerment is something best kept to oneself, or the few, and not shared with all ~ Rasheed Ogunlaru*

Hugh Barr was my social studies lecturer whilst I was at teachers' college. Having observed my enthusiasm for and commitment to social studies teaching, Hugh encouraged me to pursue it as a curriculum area that I could become an expert in. After my graduation we maintained a professional relationship founded on our shared commitment to the teaching of social studies. Hugh provided me with numerous opportunities to contribute to teachers' professional learning and curriculum development at local and national levels. When Hugh passed away in 2018, for me his legacy was his giving spirit. The words of those who spoke about him made it clear that he epitomised the authentic educator who taught from the heart and the head. Hugh generously and deliberately 'passed the torch'.

Mentors are relational, insightful and compassionate

> *At times our own light goes out and is rekindled by a spark from another person. Each of us has cause to think with deep gratitude of those who have lighted the flame within us ~ Albert Schweitzer*

Judy McGee was instrumental in starting me on my academic pathway. Prior to that we had met through our work on the committee of a social studies association. After my appointment to an academic position, Judy and I worked in partnership for eight years. We shared the programme coordination of a graduate diploma in teacher education.

Judy's empathetic, gentle and compassionate guidance, advice, integrity, and sense of humour were rare in the academy and highly valued by me.

Judy quickly recognised that initially I was feeling out of my depth despite my prior teaching and leadership experience. She took time to make me feel secure and safe whilst encouraging me to take risks and helping me to build professional networks. Over time we established a rapport and a trust in each other, which proved a successful combination for our partnership and our students. As our relationship became more reciprocal and collaborative we began to 'learn from' and 'learn with' each other. It became clear that our relationship not only encapsulated a rich and dynamic mentoring relationship, which pushed beyond the boundaries of what might be expected. Judy was not the only colleague who facilitated my introduction into the academy but in the early years she was the most present. At the time, of her death in 2017, I thought I had lost a future of learning from and with her, and lost the person who saw in me a potential that I could not see in myself. But Judy left me with a gift. Often times I hear her words come out of my mouth and realise how influenced I have been by her many lessons.

An evolving concept of mentoring

Being mentored and being a mentor have contributed to the evolution of my concept of mentoring. The insights I have gained from being mentored and from being a mentor have enabled me to reflect on, and articulate my concept of mentoring with increasing clarity. Being mentored has refreshed me, stimulated reflection, encouraged inquiry, and helped to reduce isolation (Huston & Weaver, 2007). I am aware that my capacity to mentor did not wholly emerge from my concept of teaching but it has undoubtedly been influenced by it (Orland, 2001).

Through the intentional examination of and reflection on my beliefs about teaching and mentoring I have engaged in a form of continuous critical inquiry. One core belief I hold is that mentoring is about empowering the other (Fullick-Jagiela,Verbos, Wiese, 2015; Shamir & Eilam, 2005). And that for true empowerment to eventuate the mentor must facilitate the conversion of intentions into actions. Empowerment therefore, enables the mentee to develop the knowledge, confidence, means, and ability to make and own positive decisions about their professional development.

A second and integral belief is that of presence. The presence of both the mentor and mentee is not merely a physical presence. It is to do with the way the mentor and mentee 'are' in the mentoring relationship. How each acts and interacts is crucial to the quality of the mentoring relationship and the effectiveness of the mentoring work they do together (Ragins, Cotton, & Miller, 2000). For me, it was (and still is) the presence of my mentors that sustained, inspired, encouraged, motivated, and enriched my thinking, reflection and practice. Crucially, they are the people that have contributed to my endeavours to maintain a presence for those I mentor and for those who mentor me.

A third belief is that for mentoring to be robust and effective it should be understood, informed and enacted through a constructivist lens. When underpinned by experience, collaboration, reciprocity, reflection, and action-taking (Crow, 2012; Greyling & du Toit, 2009), mentoring becomes a learner-centered endeavour in which the learning focus resides with the mentee.

Summary

Writing stories about those who have influenced me has been a reminder of what a privilege it is to be a teacher and a mentor. The six stories above not only acknowledge those who intentionally chose to 'pass the torch', they illustrate one of the ways I endeavour to 'pay it forward'. These are the mentors who helped me to make meaning of my teaching. Their wisdom, guidance and expertise supported me to more confidently navigate my teaching, and ultimately my mentoring practice. From these mentors I learned that good mentoring does not translate into helping teachers do things differently, it is about supporting them to become the teacher they want to be (Brockbank & McGill, 2012). Thus, my experiences initiated my desire to explore with the participants in this study, the ways that they have been empowered to imagine and explore possibilities and to be authentic in their practice.

CHAPTER THREE: LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This study aims to add to knowledge in the area of mentoring in higher education with specific reference to the development of teachers' pedagogy and practice. It focuses on the following central research question;

- How have higher education teachers' experiences of being mentored or being a mentor contributed to, and influenced understanding and development of their pedagogical practice?

and two sub-questions;

- In what ways do higher education teachers see their espoused beliefs and theories about teaching and learning being lived in their pedagogical practice?
- Are there particular factors that higher education teachers believe have helped them to understand, develop, and enhance their pedagogical practice?

Prior to embarking on this study and aiming to improve my own pedagogical practice for higher education teaching, the considerable and growing literature about teaching in higher education proved informative and relevant. It motivated me to experiment with and implement new ideas, participate in several small scale research projects, contribute to conferences, and join collegial networks populated by like-minded peers. I became more alert to the somewhat limited but increasing literature and research about mentoring in higher education. I began to explore how mentoring could be employed as a deliberate approach to support the development of higher education teachers' pedagogical practice. A central tenet of this thesis therefore, is that mentoring can be a robust professional development approach that helps higher education teachers to develop their pedagogical practice.

Becoming and being a teacher

Academics must navigate a complex and challenging terrain with teaching considered just one of many integral components (Hénard & Roseveare, 2012; Wood & Su, 2017). Whether new or experienced, higher education teachers are considered unique in their education context (Mathieson, 2019). Despite an increasing emphasis in the global context on the importance of effective teaching to enhance the practice of higher education teachers, Fry, Ketteridge, and Marshall (2009) and more recently, Guthrie (2019) have drawn attention to much less being known about the process of being and becoming a higher education teacher than in any other education sector. Thus, becoming and being a higher education teacher has long been regarded as a process that is complex, ongoing in nature and 'hard work'. Further to this, Brandenburg and Wilson (2013) have stated that because learning and teaching form the core of university work, the complexities associated with both that "either directly or subliminally impact on the learning experiences of tertiary students" (p. 1) must be deliberately attended to given that it is "through teaching that the university derives its raison d'être" (p. 1).

The complexity of higher education teaching, Hénard and Roseveare (2012) have pointed out, has been compounded by it being a 'multi-level endeavour' involving the institution, programme and individual. Research in the field of higher education teaching has therefore sought to identify and provide solutions for addressing the complex nature of higher education teaching to help academics successfully navigate it. Cultivating an awareness of teaching's complexity and multi-level nature Hénard and Roseveare (2012) have suggested, could help higher education teachers develop a culture of collaboration, not just among themselves but with their students.

According to Knight (2002), the criticality of higher education teachers seeing themselves as individuals who are part of a learning community must be accentuated. A number of authors and researchers have highlighted the importance of teachers being participants in a wider community. Taking responsibility and being accountable for their professional development has been advocated for example, by both Hativa and Goodyear (2007) and Shulman (2004) as helping teachers develop a better understanding of higher education teaching through learning in communities of practice. And while they did not explore complexity specifically, Knight, Tait, and Yorke (2006) emphasised the importance of non-formal learning for higher education teachers. Their

study of 2401 part-time teachers in the UK Open University led them to argue for new ways to promote and enhance teachers' professional development within the activity systems in which they work. In contrast, Stensaker (2017) has pointed to the increasing fragmentation of universities and its impact upon teacher development. His reflection on the factors driving this fragmentation, the increasing tensions associated with it and the potential role academic developers may play to negotiate different interests that arise, support his supposition that increased professionalisation and specialisation add to the complexity of academic development work, including teaching. As a possible counter to this, Eskola (2017) has suggested a framework for managing complexity in higher education. Exploring the changes occurring in the context of higher education through complexity theory and the Cynefin framework (developed by Snowdon in 1999) Eskola (2017) has espoused that the framework can offer perspectives and ways to "explore complex systems in knowledge work characterised by uncertainty and lack of cause-effect relationships" (p.). Snyder (2013) also harnessed complexity theory to explore its applications for educational reform. He has argued that applying complexity theory can lead to positive outcomes during periods of education reform, which has implications for the higher education context, given that more than teachers in other sectors, higher education teachers are affected by factors such as policy, workload, research expectations, and universities' commitment to quality teaching.

Pedagogy and pedagogical practice

It has been well documented that a teacher's pedagogy (what a teacher does to influence learning in others) will initially be formed by the beliefs and assumptions they hold about teaching and learning, their prior and current experiences, and their theories of learning ('in use' and 'in action') (e.g. Ertmer, Ottenbreit-Leftwich, Sadik, Sendurur, & Sendurur, 2012; Kane et al., 2002; Pajares, 1992). As Cook-Sather (2011) and Mcleod and Golby (2006) have pointed out, a teacher's pedagogy informs the practices they employ to facilitate learning. This includes their behaviours and actions; their relationships with learners and each other; and the teaching strategies they employ. Moreover, whatever sector they teach in, teachers must have a sound theoretical understanding of learning and teaching. When higher education teachers' understanding of pedagogy is consistent with their theoretical understanding of learning,

Gibbs (2010) has asserted, they are more able to develop pedagogical practices that also include a vocabulary to engage in critical discussion and reflection about their teaching.

Forming pedagogy and pedagogical practice in higher education

For higher education teachers' to understand what is meant by pedagogy and pedagogical practice, Chang (2010) has emphasised that a clear understanding of both is needed for application in the higher education context. This Zukas and Malcolm (2002) have commented, can be challenging given that pedagogy has often been interpreted in a particular way due to a "split between disciplinary and pedagogic communities and a split between research-based and pedagogic communities of practice" (p. 57). These authors have asserted, however, that higher education pedagogy has avoided being limited just to an interpretation of teaching and learning because many higher education teachers as disciplinary thinkers are visible and involved in the "production and analysis of pedagogic knowledge" (p. 34). In contrast to the latter view (and a decade later), Hénard and Roseveare (2012) argued there is 'some way to go' before higher education teaching can be considered more than pedagogical techniques. Yet recent research has shown that 10 years on there may be 'less of a way to go'.

In their innovative study Trinidad, Ngo, Nevada, and Morales (2020) examined the pedagogical practices of higher education teachers through students' lenses. They found that while higher education institutions more frequently emphasised pedagogical practices to increase student engagement (practices that were said to be effective), research did not tend to focus on what students liked, or found motivating and engaging. Notably, the practices that students considered to be engaging and effective were considered "high in personal involvement and helped with idea retention while those they found initially unengaging but effective were activities with a lot of independent work, may seem monotonous, but helped reinforce ideas" (p. 161). The use of student voice has also been recognised by others. In earlier research, McLeod (2010) espoused the adoption of a pedagogy and politics of voice as a strategy to promote students' wider participation in higher education. Similarly, based on their examination of perspectives of student voice, Hämäläinen, Kiili, and Smith (2017) have argued that universities must meet the 21st century learning needs of students and encourage them to take an active role in the development of pedagogy by sharing their perspectives.

A number of approaches have been deemed effective for developing, improving and enhancing the pedagogical practice of higher education teachers. In her study about developing a cultural pedagogy in higher education for instance, Manning (2006) raised questions about what kind and how to sustain the provision of Continuing Professional Development (CPD) for such an endeavour. She concluded that while teachers are ultimately responsible for developing their knowledge and understanding about teaching pedagogy, they needed support to do so. Similar to this were the findings of Spowart, Turner, Shenton, and Kneale's (2015) study, in which they explored with 19 established academics their reflections on their experiences of gaining recognition through a university's teaching accreditation scheme. While these academics prioritised institutional structures and outcomes like student recruitment, job security, and status as drivers for their engagement in teaching, the researchers recognised the importance of the scheme. In particular they pointed to its impact upon teachers' practice because of the continuing nature of the professional development, and advocated for "continued critical interrogation" (p. 165) to ensure rigorous CPD processes. This conclusion was reiterated in Botham's (2018) study about academics' perceptions of their teaching practice through their participation in United Kingdom's Professional Standards Framework (PSF) CPD programme. Attributed in large part to the support the participants received during the programme, a positive change in perception was also identified.

The literature certainly suggests that the importance of continuing professional learning for the development of higher education teachers' pedagogical practice cannot be overstated.

Professional development for pedagogical practice

Learning to be a teacher and learning about teaching in higher education requires teachers to have access to opportunities to engage with differentiated approaches for their professional learning (Johnson & Golombek, 2002). For higher education teachers to understand, improve and enhance their pedagogical practice they must have opportunities to learn about teaching. It has been asserted that this can support teachers to bring a critical perspective to their thinking about teaching, to the actions they take, and to their reflections on their professional practice (e.g. Botham, 2018; Brookfield, 1995; Clegg, 2003; Crawford, 2008; Mälkki & Lindblom-Ylänne, 2012). With regard to

this thinking, the notion that learning about higher education teaching should ideally occur within communities of learning, knowledge and practice has continued to gain ground with researchers, external organisations like the Higher Education Academy (2018), and universities. It has been reasoned by researchers like Arthur (2016), Brew (2010), Hativa and Goodyear (2002) and Viskovic (2005, 2006) and others referred to above, that in these communities of learning; mentoring and coaching programmes, sabbaticals, and conferences are some of the approaches that have and could be employed by universities (e.g. Ayo & Fraser, 2008; Bland, Taylor, Shollen, Weber-Main, & Mulcahy, 2009; Fry, Ketteridge, & Marshall, 2009; O'Neill, Moore, & McMullin, 2005; Salter, 2013; Silander & Stigmar, 2021; Walker, 2006). One approach specifically identified as effective to support and guide the development of higher education teachers' pedagogical practice has often been mentoring - the focus and driver of this study. Along with other learning opportunities, various researchers have pointed out the vital contributions that mentoring can make to the development of higher education teachers' pedagogical practice (Ambler, Harvey, & Cahir, 2016; Trautwein, 2018; Woolhouse & Nicolson, 2020).

The study

This study aims to further knowledge and understanding about the ways that mentoring can support the development of higher education teachers' pedagogical practice. Attention is called to the importance of mentoring as being learning focused, and to the mutuality of the mentoring relationship. The importance of positioning, conceptualising and theorising mentoring to be a 'best fit' for each mentee is emphasised.

A review of the relevant literature about teaching and mentoring in higher education has been conducted to inform this study. Appropriate sources from other education sectors and some organisational contexts are also drawn upon. While some provide background to developing perspectives about teaching and mentoring in the higher education context, others provide broader insights that help to explain decision-making and directions taken. The key purpose of this literature review is to provide a theoretical base that positions this study within the body of knowledge relating to mentoring as a professional development approach to support the development of higher education teachers' pedagogical practice.

In the next section an overview of the structure of Chapter three is provided.

Scope and method of the literature review

To inform and guide this study, a scoping of the literature has been conducted with a specific focus on higher education teaching in the university context, mentoring and mentoring as a professional development approach. The study is contextualised and framed with reference to research findings and other scholarly work relevant to the thesis topic. While New Zealand literature that addresses mentoring directly or discusses mentoring in relation to higher education teachers is increasing, it remains limited. In light of this, much of the literature has been drawn from international sources. The University of Waikato library catalogue and databases have been drawn upon, along with google scholar, conference presentations and on several occasions, conversations with experts in the mentoring field. The literature reviewed predominately comprises journal articles but also includes books, book chapters and relevant research reports. Although not exclusive, keywords and terms used in database searches included: *higher education, higher education teaching, university teaching, effective teaching, teacher beliefs, adult learning, adult education, andragogy, pedagogy, pedagogical practice, mentoring, inquiry mentoring, mentoring in higher education, mentoring in universities, professional development in higher education*.

Chapter Three is organised into two parts given the literature about teaching and the literature about mentoring are distinct. While the complementary nature of teaching and mentoring is acknowledged, they are not considered synonymous, either conceptually or in practice.

In order to explore mentoring as an approach that can support the development of higher education teachers' pedagogical practice it was considered important to first examine the literature about some of the broader aspects and issues pertaining to higher education, and their relationship to teaching. A review of the literature about higher education teaching draws attention to the higher education context, particularly those facets that have implications for teachers' work, in particular the development of their pedagogical practice. The initial focus is on the global perspectives that influence universities' priorities and lead to change. This is followed by an examination of the impact of these perspectives on academics' work to understand the variables that affect

it and includes implications for teaching. Most notably these are the tensions that exist in politically motivated university environments, and what universities are doing to address them. While quantitative studies from the field have offered some insights and critique relevant to the focus on teaching (and proved informative), the majority of the studies referred to are qualitative. It should be noted too that the literature ranges from relatively recent publications to publications from up to 30 years ago. The latter have been included not just because of their historical relevance but their continuing relevance for the higher education teaching discourse.

Next, a review of the literature about mentoring begins with relatively broad perspectives to establish a foundation for the subsequent examination of mentoring as a professional development approach for the development of higher education teachers' pedagogical practice. Notably, many of those writing about and researching mentoring during the 1970s and 1980s were doing so in an emerging field. Notably, most have continued to do so. The influence of these authors and researchers on present-day thinking and trends about mentoring has been crucial to establishing mentoring as an efficacious and robustly researched professional development approach.

Higher education context

Seminal thinkers like Cross (1981) and Daloz (1986) recognised some 40 years ago that meeting the needs of an emerging 'new kind' of learner was a priority. This has been borne out in the significant changes that have occurred on a global scale in the higher education sector over the last three to four decades. There are various reasons for these changes that include the development of a market oriented higher education sector (Harvey & Green, 1993); advances in technology, social and demographic change; and the increasing social diversity of students (age range, ethnic diversity, life experience, study history) (Hénard, 2010; Ramsden, 2003). Competing on a global scale has led universities to adopt a business approach in order to become more operationally efficient, be more accountable and efficient (e.g. Greenberg, 2004; Kromydas, 2017; Tremblay, Lalancette, & Roseveare, 2012; Lapovsky, 2018; New Zealand Productivity Commission, 2016; Zepke & Leech, 2010). Crucially, there has been an ongoing critique of what Ball (2003, as cited in Clarke & Jopling, 2009) described as a functionalist perspective, that is, a perspective dominated by performativity and

marketisation. Deasy and Mannix-McNamara (2017), Gibbs (2010), Kalfa and Taksa (2017) have respectively argued that this is problematic because the market, the state, and the university each have their own purpose and priorities. Worth noting here is that over two decades ago Bracco, Richardson, Callan, and Finney (1998) acknowledged these as critical elements, and that their individual priorities were in conflict resulting in imbalances and competition.

As changes have persisted and intensified, factors that have had an impact upon higher education have been identified. For example, Foskett, Roberts, and Maringe (2006) and Greatbatch and Holland (2016) for example, have pointed to a decline in available public funds for higher education; an increase in the size and diversity of the student demographic; the intensification of public interest in the quality of programmes on offer; students' satisfaction and their expectations of choice; and, the number of programmes being offered in non-traditional ways. This has resulted in universities having to become more responsive to differentiate themselves from their competitors to attract students (Hénard, 2010). A result of this increased responsiveness to global and local change over time, has led to greater attention being paid by universities, external organisations and researchers to teaching, particularly with regard to student diversity and students' expectations of their higher education experience (e.g. Brew, 2006; Biggs, 2001; Biggs & Tang, 2011; Fry et al., 2009; Hativa & Goodyear, 2002; Hénard & Roseveare, 2012).

Influenced by the emergence of the `entrepreneurial university' and a view of students being the consumers in a marketised university environment, Etzkowitza, Webster, Gebhard, and Terra (2000) and Molesworth, Nixon, and Scullion (2009) among others, have pointed out that universities have had to respond and adapt to meet students' needs. Higher education teaching has therefore become more complex and intense. The New Zealand Productivity Commission's (2016) inquiry into trends impacting higher education argued for example, that innovative new models, better and different ways of facilitating learning were needed for a more effective delivery of higher education. While not confined to Aotearoa New Zealand context, the inquiry revealed that 'some inertia' in the New Zealand higher education system was 'compounded by a reluctance' to be innovative. In a response to the Commission's report, the New Zealand Government (2017) expressed its commitment to the continual improvement of the

tertiary education system. The Government agreed with the general findings of the Commission, and concurred that the tertiary education system tended towards the "status quo, with many providers being unwilling to trial new approaches to delivering education because of perceived or real funding or other implications" (p. 4). A commitment was made to creating a learning environment in which students' needs were met in innovative and engaging ways. Despite this according to Brake (2019), the way in which tertiary education is to be delivered (despite it being espoused as flexible and innovative) has yet to be defined.

The literature in this field points to the cruciality of universities being relevant to the societies in which they exist. But tensions have also been revealed with regard to universities' mandate to research and provide high quality teaching and learning experiences for students in a market-oriented environment where mass education has become the norm. Hattie (1996) and later Mathieson (2019), have highlighted that with universities' key pedagogical goal being to facilitate students' learning in innovative ways and help them prepare for what lays beyond university higher education. This view that higher education teachers must be open to developing their own knowledge and understanding of teaching and the methods of teaching has long been supported by researchers like Barnett (2000), Brooman, Darwent, and Pimor (2014), and Temmerman (2020). The latter author has pointed out that university leaders must be willing to provide the resources that create such a learning environment (Temmerman, 2020). Even so, with flexible models and mixed-mode pedagogies now a part of the changes, Arvanitakis and Hornsby (2016), Brake (2019), and Woodgates (n.d.) continue to argue that a shift in the ways universities approach education has not yet been consolidated.

There has been considerable dissension amongst researchers and practitioners in higher education that the pressure to achieve a specific number of research outputs, teach and carry out service/administration responsibilities has created challenges for academics (e.g. Billot, 2010; Greatbatch & Holland, 2016; Ramsden, 2003). In response to this, the implications for academics' work have been researched and well documented over the last two to three decades (e.g. Arvanitakis & Hornsby, 2015; Boyd & Wiley, 1994; Dixon, Dixon, & Scott, 2007; Soliman & Soliman, 1997). Relatively recently, Greatbatch and Holland (2016) and Kenny (2018) have suggested that rather than

diminishing the identified issues there has been an acceleration of them. One such issue is discussed next.

The teaching-research tension

Almost 30 years ago Ramsden and Moses (1992) commented, "few beliefs in the academic world command more passionate allegiance than the opinion that teaching and research are harmonious and mutually beneficial" (p. 273). Yet in some quarters, higher education teaching continues to be regarded by a number of researchers and writers as being separate to research activity (e.g. Zukas & Malcolm, 2002; Hughes, 2005; Lewis, 2013). While there is literature that has argued for the development of a complementary relationship between teaching and research (explored later in this section), Coate, Barnett, and Williams (2001) have asserted that the developing literature about the relationship between teaching and research has proven to be "strong on rhetoric and light on the empirical nature" (p. 159). In support of this, Hughes (2005) has pointed to the "enduring mythology of the research and teaching relationship … " (p. 15). The limited small scale empirical research that has been conducted to support the relationship between research and teaching, he has contended, has not conclusively demonstrated that research has had a positive impact upon on teaching, or that the nature of a connection between the two has been established. Others have pointed out that universities' agendas have become dominated by the generation and measurement of research outputs, more so than in the past (Boston, Mischewski, & Smyth, 2005; Lewis, 2013). In their meta-analysis of studies on the relationship between research and teaching Hattie and Marsh (1996) identified that the 'gap' between teaching and research had led governments and university policy-decision makers to separate out research and teaching. Their meta-analysis not only found a 'zero' relationship between teaching and research but a widening gap between rhetoric and reality with regard to research and teaching practices, findings that were later substantiated by Robertson and Bond (2005) in a scrutiny of the meta-analysis of studies.

In contrast to some of the above perspectives, there has been research into higher education teaching and research that has lifted the teaching-research tension, 'above ground' (e.g. Brew, 2011; Brew & Boud, 1995; Jenkins, Blackman, Lindsay, & Paton-Saltzberg, 1998; Hutchings & Shulman, 1999; Kane et al., 2002; Kreber, 2002; Ramsden, 2003). The research in this area, Brew (2006), and Trigwell and Shale (2004)

have pointed out has been viewed as ground-breaking because of its influence in helping to highlight and unravel the issue. Although some perceive the relationship between research and teaching to be incompatible, over time others have argued that it can be complementary and comprise joint activities (e.g. Bowen & Schuster, 1986; Fox, 1992; Light & Calkins, 2009). Aligned with the latter, McCarthy and Higgs' (2005) believe that continuing to isolate research from teaching would be 'short- sighted' and most certainly not an 'end in itself'. They further articulate that when teaching and research are deliberately connected in a learning context, research can be "communicated, synthesised and tested in the real world, and be of value to the discipline, the students and the community" (p. 6). In support of this view, an empirical study conducted by Horta, Dautel, and Veluso (2012) to examine the effect on academics' research productivity due to their involvement in graduate teaching concluded that teaching and research can be "leveraged synergistically and contribute to research outputs" (p. 171). Efforts to create a culture of inter-connectedness between the research and teaching relationship have also been highlighted in a number of qualitative studies about the perceptions and experiences of academics (e.g. Neumann, 1992; Rowland 1996, 2000; Smeby 1998). In contrast to the views espoused by researchers like Coate et al. (2001) and Hughes (2005), these studies indicate the need to pay greater attention to the development of the mutual relationship between teaching and research. It has been further suggested that an emphasis on teaching is of little value if not accompanied by research (e.g. Biggs & Tang, 2011; Brusoni et al., 2014; Elton, 1998; Fry et al., 2009; Greatbatch & Holland, 2016). As Parsons and Platt (1968) claimed some 50 years ago, they can be "two aspects of a single task" (p. 517), a perspective with which de Jonghe (2005) much later concurred. In her examination of research and teaching tensions, she argued this was "typical at traditional universities that have been actively developing their research mission" (p. 461).

Effective teaching

Research about effective teaching has intensified in recent times, similarly so with regard to teaching excellence and teaching quality. Although relevant to the wider conversations about higher education teaching, the literature with regard to teaching excellence and quality is not examined in this chapter. While this literature has been explored in the context of this study it is extensive. Including it would have resulted in a

very lengthy chapter. A key rationale for excluding this literature is its lesser relevance to the topic of developing teachers' pedagogical practice. In addition, while the effective teaching research and literature pertaining to the school sector has contributed to the discourse of higher education teaching (e.g. Burroughs et al., 2019; Harris, 1998; Rice, 2003) it is also not examined in this chapter. The skills, practices and discipline knowledge relevant to the higher education context are, however, drawn upon and acknowledged when relevant. Yet while a priority for most universities, effective teaching in higher education has remained a "contested and value-laden concept" (Skelton, 2005, p. 452). Conceptualising effective teaching has long been regarded as challenging in light of its complex and multi-dimensional nature (Patrick & Smart, 1998).

The multi-dimensional nature of effective teaching was earlier indicated by Ramsden (1992) in a qualitative evaluation of 13 dimensions from research studies about effective teaching. From this evaluation six key principles of effective teaching were established: interest and explanation; concern and respect for students and student learning; appropriate assessment and feedback; clear goals and intellectual challenge; independence, control, and active engagement; and learning from students. These principles were evident in the factor analysis conducted six years later by Patrick and Smart (1998). In their empirical evaluation of teacher effectiveness, Patrick and Smart (1998) sought to "clarify the nature of teacher effectiveness and develop a measure for evaluating teacher effectiveness" (p. 165). Three factors with attributes similar to Ramsden's (1992) were identified: respect for students; ability to challenge students; organisation and presentation skills. A decade later, an exploration of first year undergraduate students' perceptions of what constitutes effective teaching in their education related programmes led Allan, Clarke, and Jopling (2009) to develop four domains: the provision of a supportive learning environment; holding high expectations; the scaffolding of learning; and the provision of clear explanations. Students' descriptions of effective university teachers led these researchers to conclude that more than academic expectations, students valued teachers' personal attributes, actions and strategies especially when their learning was enriched. These findings appear to support Skelton's (2005) claim that any definition of effective teaching in higher education must be deliberately linked to the specific context in which teaching is happening. It should

identify the values and assumptions that underpin teachers' understandings of effective teaching.

Given the constantly changing higher education context it has been contended by Devlin and Samarawickrema (2010) that to come to an understanding of effective teaching, it must be regularly probed and communicated. They argue for universities to have an ongoing agenda committed to the "continuous investigation and articulation of the meaning of effective teaching in a changed, and changing, context" (p. 111).

Defining effective teaching

Universally accepted definitions of effective teaching in higher education have continued to prove elusive (e.g. Devlin & Samarawickrema, 2010; Johnson & Ryan, 2000; Paulsen, 2002; Skelton, 2005; Trigwell, 2001) with Varlas (2009) contending that working definitions of teacher effectiveness in higher education tend to be intangible and "so politically charged that they are unusable" (para. 2). The challenges of defining effective teaching for higher education have been identified in a number of studies resulting in descriptions of the characteristics associated with effective teaching in higher education rather than definitions. An example can be found in Feldman's (1988) earlier study, which highlighted the multi-dimensional nature of effective teaching. On the one hand, students emphasised the importance of interesting, articulate, available and helpful teachers. Teachers on the other hand, identified intellectual challenge, motivating students, setting and maintaining high standards, and self-initiated learning. In their recent review, Mastrokoukou, Kaliris, Donche, Chauliac, Karagiannopoulou, Christodoulides, and Longobardi (2022) commented that little is known about the conceptualisation and assessment of teaching effectiveness in higher education. Their research comprised examining studies published since 1990 that were conducted in higher education contexts. The review listed the literature on teacher effectiveness; pinpointed the ways that teacher effectiveness in higher education has been assessed, and highlighted the approaches deemed most appropriate for effective teaching. Notably, while no universal definition of effective higher education teaching was identified others have taken more open and innovation approaches to exploring effective teaching. Vulcano (2007) has indicated the importance of taking account of students' viewpoints, and McMillan (2007) has advocated for each of the disciplines in a university to take account of their different theoretical perspectives, qualitative and

quantitative approaches, and the various positions they hold when defining effective teaching.

According to Devlin and Samarawickrema (2010), the criteria for teaching excellence have largely become accepted as the "proxy list of skills and practices of effective university teaching" (p. 115), they also inferred that should a shared understanding of effective teaching emerge, quality and responsiveness to learning and teaching in the higher education context would be ensured. Aligned with this thinking, Greatbatch and Holland (2016) have argued for a common understanding of effective teaching, rather than a definition, in which factors like student and employer needs, modes of delivery, and technological and pedagogical innovation are paid attention to. Thus, a number of researchers and writers in the field have identified and developed characteristics, dimensions, competencies, principles, dimensions, and components that provide descriptions of effective teaching rather than definitions (e.g. Devlin, 2007b as cited in Devlin & Samarawickrema, 2010; Elton, 1998; Hativa, Barak, & Simhi, 2001; Kember & McNaught, 2007; Marsh & Roche, 1994; Young & Shaw, 1999).

It would appear Weimer's (2013) claim that the lack of definitive definition has been where research into effective teaching has 'let academics down' may be accurate. But Ramsden's (1992) statement that there are 'no sure-fire techniques' for, or clear definitions of effective teaching also appears to hold true. As he has stated, having an understanding of the essential nature of effective teaching should be "both broad and deep" (pp. 88–89) - a definition may therefore, not be so crucial.

Conversations about formal teaching qualifications

Additional to the challenges universities face in defining effective teaching and ensuring the provision of effective teaching is the number of higher education teachers who do not have prior teaching experience or formal teaching qualifications. Although the latter is largely due to there being no compulsion (in most universities) for academics to hold or acquire formal teaching qualifications, according to Bailey and Robson (2006) there has also been resistance from academics. Yet it has been identified by Ryan (2019) and Gibbs (2010) that the lack of a formal qualification or teaching background can impact upon higher education teachers' depth understanding and knowledge about teaching, which can have implications for students' achievement. Conversely, it has been shown

that those without a teaching background or formal qualification can, similarly to their experienced and formally qualified peers, employ sophistication and depth in their thinking and practice of teaching (e.g. Gibbs, 2010; Stoakes, 2018). In an investigation of the relationship between the factors that "characterise academics working in higher education and their approaches to the scholarship of teaching" (Luedekke, 2003, p. 213), the latter found that formal qualifications were less influential than expected. While Suddaby (2019) has deemed 'disciplinary expertise and experience' to be critical elements of higher education teachers' work, Luedekke's (2003) earlier study found that the academic discipline and teachers' conceptualisation of teaching had the most significant impact on teaching scholarship. Even so, Viskovic (2005) has emphasised that most higher education teachers' experiences of learning to teach are informal and experience based, and that their teaching knowledge tends to be tacit and process-oriented. But Fry et al. (2009) have pointed out that this knowledge and understanding, as well as teachers' academic expertise, can and does give rise to effective teaching. Moreover, there is evidence that this can be further enhanced by university programmes that offer support to new and experienced faculty who have no or little prior teaching experience (Parsons, Hill, Holland, & Willis, 2012; Te Pokai Tara Universities New Zealand, 2018). Opportunities that enable teachers to explore the learning theories that inform teaching practice and help them to understand how adults learn; develop pedagogical practices that include relevant teaching strategies and how to engage in reflective practice, are considered by researchers such as Gibbs (2010) to be crucial in encouraging and generating effective teaching.

In the next section useful insights for thinking more deeply about the development of higher education teachers' practice are offered through an examination of the literature as it pertains to four specific aspects identified in my reading of the literature. Considered critical to the development of effective teaching in higher education: *scholarship of teaching*, *teacher beliefs*, *theories of learning*, and *pedagogical practice.* and inter-related, each aspect is explored separately to examine its place in the effective teaching discourse in higher education.

Scholarship of teaching

There has been significant advancement in the area of the scholarship of teaching and learning at the theory building and programme development levels (Kreber, 2002,

2007). By associating scholarship with teaching, Boyer (1990) sought to change conceptions of teaching; hence, the perceived value of teaching. He offered a framework for thinking about the opportunities to enhance teaching practice through scholarship. Boyer (1990) stressed that as one of the four types of scholarships engaged in by academics, teaching should be a dynamic endeavour that involves "… analogies, metaphors, and images that build bridges between the teacher's understanding and the student's learning … knowing and learning are communal acts" (p. 24). He argued for embedding the scholarship of teaching in academic culture to "move beyond the tired old teaching versus research debate and give the familiar and honourable term scholarship a broader and more capacious meaning, one that brings legitimacy to the full scope of academic work" (p. 16). A number of authors have argued that embedding the scholarship of teaching requires that higher education teachers plan for and continuously scrutinise their pedagogical practices through critical reflection (e.g. Glassick, Huber, & Maeroff, 1997; McCarthy & Higgs, 2005; Shulman, 2004). Not only would this ensure their practice relates to the subject being taught, Gordon, D'Andrea, Gosling, and Stefani (2003) claim that active learning would be stimulated by encouraging and motivating students, and themselves, to be critical and creative thinkers and life-long learners.

Somewhat differently, Shulman's (1999) emphasised aspects of scholarly work conducted in a community of scholars. In Shulman's view, the scholarship of teaching presented teaching as 'community property', whereas this was not present in Glassick, et al's (1997) definition. They articulated that teachers' active participation in the scholarship of teaching should ultimately lead them to inquiry into their practice that is both individual and collaborative. When enabled and empowered to critique, reflect on, revise and articulate their theories of learning, and identify their pedagogical beliefs and practices, Orison and Jordan (2007) suggest teachers are more likely to engage in a "shared discourse and communication of ideas" (p.12). An example of this can be found in Jenkins et al's (1998) study about students' perspectives on academics' involvement in research. It was discovered that students perceived some disadvantages from research involvement with a key issue being a perception being that they were not stakeholders in the research. The researchers indicated that while more effective management of research could resolve this, of greater interest to them was that students also perceived

clear benefits, confirming the interconnection of scholarship and the teaching-research relationship.

The scholarship of teaching has also been promoted as helping to address the teaching-research tension by playing a mediating role between research and teaching. According to Hughes and Tight (1995), Elton (1992), Moses (1990) and, Rhoten and Coulhoun (2011), this greater attention can lead to the development of innovative ways to combine research and teaching. An example of this can be found in McCarthy and Higgs' (2005) exploration of the implications for teachers' practice of the research-teaching gap in a climate of rapid change. They inferred that Boyer's (1990, 1997) four scholarships have the potential to bridge the teaching-research gap. Their view was that when these elements of scholarship complement each other, so too do research and teaching. Prior to this, Fox (1992) and Light et al. (2009) also considered scholarship a potential solution. While both expounded there was more conflict than mutuality between research and teaching, they also advocated for approaches which have the scholarship of teaching at their core. Light et al. (2009) for instance, highlighted that it is important to develop compatibility by seeking and encouraging connections between research and teaching through investigation, transformation and the extension of knowledge. These authors also emphasised the importance of recognising and acting on the similarities of and integrating of teaching and research goals. A further argument has been made for a model designed by Brew (2010). Founded on communities of learning, to further enhance the relationship between teaching and research Brew (2005) has argued that a core rationale for academics would the development of a greater understanding of how to connect and conceptualise their research and teaching in a community of learning.

When higher education teachers 'step back and reflect', both Glassick et al. (1997) and Orison and Jordan (2005a) have suggested that a shared discourse of higher education teaching can be achieved. Higher education teachers are then better able to offer insights about effective teaching, student learning, the development of innovative practices and leading teaching universities are also advantaged. Moreover, Trigwell, Hutchings, and Schulman, 2000) assert that teachers engaging in the scholarship of teaching "seek to understand teaching by consulting and using the literature on teaching and learning, by investigating their own teaching, by reflecting on their teaching from the perspective of

their intention in teaching while seeing it from the students' position, and by formally communicating their ideas and practice to their peers" (p. 164). Further to this, Schön's (1983) stance that the critical reflection dimension of the scholarship of teaching makes it a distinct activity. Adopted by Prosser (2008), who has defined it as "evidence based critical reflection on practice aimed at improving practice" (p. 1), the scholarship of teaching has long been differentiated from research, investigations and evaluations.

Teacher beliefs

To teach effectively, the complex and multi-dimensional nature of higher education teachers' work requires them to be knowledgeable about, and to understand their pedagogical practice. Numerous authors have pointed out, teachers' core beliefs about teaching influence the ways they teach, make sense of their own and others' existing practice, and process new information about teaching (e.g. Calderhead, 1996; Clark & Peterson, 1990; Kagan, 1992; Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992). In her thinking about teacher beliefs, Levin (2014) emphasised that teachers hold many different kinds of beliefs simultaneously. While teachers' understandings about their teaching are drawn from shared ideas about what it is, for many these derive from their own beliefs, thinking and understandings about the nature of the knowledge to be taught and the nature of learning (e.g. Furco & Moely, 2012; Kane, Sandretto, & Heath, 2002; Kember, 1998; Norton, Richardson, Hartley, Newstead, & Mayes, 2005; Ward & Selvester, 2012). In agreement with those listed above, Windschitl (2020) has asserted that the influence of teacher beliefs cannot be overestimated given that teachers' decisions tend to be guided by what works, rather than by theory and research.

Research from the 1980s to the present-day has acknowledged the identification and examination of teacher beliefs as a crucial factor in understanding teachers' explicit and tacit knowledge about the nature of teaching. Moreover, the research and the professional learning opportunities that have emerged from it have helped teachers to understand the beliefs that are evident in their theories-in-action *(what teachers 'do' as practitioners,)* and how they are informed and defined by their theories-in-use *(what teachers say about their actions to themselves and to others)* (e.g. Argyris & Schön, 1974; Argyris, Putnam, & McLain Smith, 1985; Bright, 1992; Kane et al., 2002). As Pajares (1992) has contended, when attention is paid to teacher beliefs, educational

practice is “informed in ways that prevailing research agendas have not and cannot” (p. 329).

Notably, there has been considerable research since Nespor (1987) assertion that little attention was being paid to the “structure and functions of teachers' beliefs about their roles, their students, the subject matter areas they teach, and the schools they work in” (p. 317). This research has demonstrated the influential nature of teachers’ beliefs in shaping their pedagogical practice, and that they are strong predictors of teachers’ behaviour and actions (Ertmer, 2005, Fang, 2006; Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992). In a study about preservice teachers’ beliefs for example, Valcke, Sang, Rots, and Hermans (2010) found that beliefs were a crucial variable in these developing teachers’ studies about teaching.

Teacher beliefs have thus, proven an important strand in the research about teaching. This research has helped teachers to make better sense of their practice, and recognise the links between their thinking and beliefs, their knowledge and classroom practice, and the implications for students’ learning (e.g. Calderhead, 1984, 1986; Day, Pope, & Denicolo, 1990; Valcke, Sang, Rots, and Hermans, 2010). Moreover, with regard to teachers’ beliefs and their relationships to students’ motivation and learning, and the difficulty of changing those beliefs, Ashton (2014) has commented that the research has dramatically increased. Even so, because of what Pajares (1992) has called the “messy” nature of teacher beliefs, Raymond (1997) and van der Schaaf, Stokking, and Verloop (2008) have advised that the challenges for researchers in locating consistent links between beliefs and teachers’ use of certain instructional practices remain. Further to this, van der Schaaf, Stokking, and Verloop (2008) hypothesised that not all beliefs can be said to influence teachers’ behaviour. As Gilleece (2012) has suggested, “only the most salient are likely to influence a particular task” (p. 110).

Defining teacher beliefs

It has long been acknowledged that defining teacher beliefs has been an enduring, complex and confusing undertaking over several decades (Calderhead, 1996; Kagan, 1992). According to Fives and Buehl (2012), “the lack of cohesion and clear definitions has limited the explanatory and predictive potential of teachers’ beliefs” (p. 471), even though Kagan (1992) had earlier defined teacher beliefs as “tacit, often

unconsciously held assumptions about students, classrooms, and the academic material to be taught" (p. 65). Following this Calderhead (1996) offered a broad definition of teacher beliefs, suggesting they are "suppositions, commitments and ideologies" (p. 715). In light of this complexity and confusion, Clandinin and Connelly (1987) argued that teacher beliefs are difficult to define because they and knowledge are challenging to distinguish between. In their examination of the origins, uses, and meanings of personal knowledge constructs in their study about teacher beliefs, Clandinin and Connelly (1987) found it difficult to 'pin down' where knowledge ended and beliefs began. They contended that while most of the constructs identified were 'bewildering'. Constructs such as *teaching criteria, principles of practice, personal construct, personal theories, personal epistemologies, beliefs, perspectives, teachers' conceptions, personal knowledge, and practical knowledge* they claimed were merely different words with the same meaning. This resulted in their coining of the term 'personal practical knowledge'. Defined as "experiential knowledge embodied and reconstructed out of the narrative of a teacher's life" (p. 490) it later resonated with Pajares' (1992) argument that a clear conceptualisation of beliefs was more necessary than a definition. A clear conceptualisation, he claimed, would enable an examination of key assumptions to ensure teachers formed a consistent understanding of, and assessment of their beliefs. Those perspectives have not of course deterred researchers from pursuing a definition of teacher beliefs. Evident in Fessakis and Karakiza's (2011) study about the pedagogical beliefs and attitudes of computer science teachers, teacher beliefs were defined as "the cognitive structures which help teachers to interpret their experiences and specify their teaching pedagogy and practices" (p. 75), which aligns somewhat with Clandinin and Connelly's (1987) earlier definition.

Although Eisenhart, Shrum, Harding, and Cuthbert (1988) considered that different definitions of teachers' beliefs generated ongoing discussions about their sources, it has been well documented that the beliefs teachers form about the nature of teaching and learning have originated from a range of sources (e.g. Rienties, Brouwer, Lygo-Baker, 2013; Calderhead & Robson, 1991; Eraut, 1985; Goodman, 1988; Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992). It has become evident that teachers' childhood schooling, pre-service teacher education, prior teaching experience, peer influence, mentors, and the policies and programmes of educational institutions can all be considered sources of teacher beliefs.

Formation of teacher beliefs

Teacher beliefs about the nature of teaching are formed over many years, often beginning with teachers' own experiences as students themselves (Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992). Formed through enculturation and social construction, beliefs are considered by Pajares (1992) to be largely drawn from episodic memories which influence their perceptions of, and reactions to future events. According to Nespor (1987), however, there are "no clear logical rules for determining the relevance of beliefs to real-world events and situations" (p. 321). Emerging from her Teacher Beliefs Study in which the foundations for a framework grounded in field-based research on teacher thinking were laid, Nespor (1987) asserted that beliefs tend to be 'unbounded'. Ertmer (2002) explained this notion further, stating that beliefs "readily extended to apply to phenomena" maybe "unrelated to the context in which they were formed" (p. 29). The unbounded nature of beliefs was deemed a positive characteristic by Nespor (1987) who argued they have value when people are dealing with situations where a large amount of information is available to them but no one right solution. In teaching contexts therefore, the "episodic and unbounded nature of beliefs makes it possible to apply them flexibly to new problems" (Nespor, 1987, p. 321). Further to this, Pajares (1992) argued that teacher beliefs travel in disguise. Often, these are under aliases like: attitudes, values, judgments, axioms, opinions, ideology, perceptions, conceptions, conceptual systems, preconceptions, dispositions, implicit theories, explicit theories, personal theories, internal mental processes, action strategies, rules of practice, practical principles, perspectives, repertories of understanding, and social strategy (p. 309). In contrast, Griffin and Ohlsson (2001) contended that because beliefs (and personal theories) tend to be insufficiently revisited, reviewed and revised, they become more deeply personal and embedded; thus, are more resistant to change.

Nevertheless, teacher beliefs continue to be acknowledged as being influential in determining how teachers organise and define tasks and problems, and strong "predictors of behaviour" (Ertmer, 2002, p. 28).

Adapting and changing beliefs

There is a consensus that teacher beliefs are important influences on the ways teachers conceptualise and enact tasks, and learn from experience. Nonetheless, Fang (1996) has

suggested that teachers' practices are influenced by their beliefs consistently and inconsistently. Whereas Pajares (1992) perceived teacher beliefs as being connected to ways of teaching that are consistent across different groups of students and learning levels, Ertmer, Gopalakrishnan, and Ross (2001) and Farrell and Ives (2014) found inconsistencies between teacher beliefs and practices. Given Guerra and Wubbena's (2017) view that beliefs are "unobservable constructs that must be inferred from what a person says or does" (p. 37), this is perhaps not surprising. Buehl and Beck (2014) also point to evidence that teachers' espoused beliefs are not always present in their enacted practices. They indicate that teachers engage in practices they do not necessarily support. But these authors have argued this is not a reason to discount the usefulness beliefs. Rather it is crucial to understand the potential relationship between beliefs and practice and the factors that support or hinder this connection.

When teacher beliefs are supported and influenced over time by a prevailing educational philosophy or other factors, for example the embedded practices of their education setting, Albion and Ertmer (2002) propound that strongly held beliefs can lead to resistance to change. Teachers, Niederhauser and Stoddart (2001) submit, can be helped to identify, adapt and adopt new or different practices that lead to change but they need to be motivated to change their beliefs. For this to occur, Kagan (1990) and latterly, Martin, Park, and Hand (2019) proposed that teachers must be dissatisfied with their existing beliefs. According to Fetters, Czerniak, Fish, and Shawberry (2002), they must recognise when holding on to or merely adapting them cannot be sustained.

A number of researchers have demonstrated that facilitated professional learning settings are sites where this dissatisfaction can transpire. It has been shown that professional development facilitators can empower teachers when comprehensive opportunities are provided to examine and reflect on their current teacher beliefs (Fetters, Czerniak, Fish, & Shawberry, 2002; Devine, Fahie, & McGillicuddy, 2013). In these settings, both Guskey (1995), Ertmer (2005) and Haney and Lumpe (1995) independently identified that teachers may be asked to identify, clarify, examine, and challenge their beliefs. When these kinds of opportunities are not included as an element of teachers' professional learning, Clark and Peterson's (1986) caution from over three decades ago, that teacher beliefs are ignored at their 'peril', must be paid attention to. Paying little or no attention to teacher beliefs, they argued, can result in teachers being

less likely to develop the desire and ability to examine the impact and influence of their beliefs upon their teaching practice.

Teacher beliefs in higher education

Most of the research about teacher beliefs has occurred in the school sector and in teacher education contexts. According to Fang (2006) this has proven fortuitous for the higher education sector as it has made significant contributions to developing knowledge and understandings about the relationship between higher education teacher beliefs and the development of their pedagogical practice. This research that has been conducted for more than four decades has not only informed thinking about teaching beliefs in the higher education context, it has provoked research. While higher education teacher beliefs remain under-researched and the field of literature relatively small a growing body of literature has identified that when higher education teachers are open to exploring their beliefs about teaching and learning they better understand the nature of teaching. Additionally, they are more likely to engage in critical reflection on their beliefs, and make change to their practice. It is in the "discourse of beliefs about teaching Goodyear and Hativa (2002) have asserted, that we can find some of the opportunities for *radical* change" (p. 2). Thus, identifying and understanding their teacher beliefs has been identified as a crucial aspect for the development and improvement of higher education teachers' pedagogical practice.

Over the past two to three decades in particular, a body of literature committed to examining the beliefs of higher education teachers has emerged (e.g. Burroughs-Lange, 1996; Dunkin & Precians, 1994; Hativa, 1997; 2000; Hativa & Goodyear, 2002; Kane, Sandretto, & Heath, 2002; Kember, 1997, 1998; Pratt, 1998; Trigwell, Prosser, & Taylor, 1994; Trigwell & Ramsden, 2002). This and the more current research referred to below, has identified that the beliefs of higher education teachers influence the ways they think about, understand and engage in the practice of teaching. A study conducted by Rientes, Brouwer, and Lygo-Baker (2013) found for instance, that teachers' engagement in online professional development impacted positively on their higher education teacher beliefs, and their intentions towards learning facilitation and technology. With a similar focus on technology, Jääskelä, Häkkinen, and Rasku-Puttonen's (2017) study examined higher education teachers' beliefs about the role of technology in achieving the pedagogical aims of learning within teaching development

initiatives. A particular finding of the study was the need for a more systematic illumination of teacher beliefs and acknowledgment of alternative ways of thinking in professional development programmes. Also with an emphasis on teacher beliefs, Northcote (2009) acknowledged the "established and powerful link between educational beliefs and the teaching and learning practices of teachers and students" (para. 1). Then drawing on this belief-practice connection, she presented the findings of a study that investigated the beliefs of a group of higher education teachers and students, who were teaching and learning in a teacher education context. A set of practical suggestions for both teachers and students was developed.

A study conducted by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2009) found that the beliefs of higher education teachers become more evident as they navigated and negotiated particular aspects of their universities that included policies, programmes, curriculum change, and professional development. The study also identified that in higher education, teacher beliefs are linked to how they coped with the challenges of their professional work, and to their overall sense of well-being. This did not mean as Bullough (1997), Clark and Peterson (1986), Ethell (1997 as cited in Kane et al., 2004); Kagan (1992), Richardson (1996) and Trumbull (1990) had identified in their respective research, that teachers were relatively easily able to articulate the beliefs that were playing a crucial role in the development of their pedagogical practice. But the research did find that some teachers were more able to talk about the influences of their beliefs on their perceptions, practice, theorising, and responses to future events.

Much of the research about higher education teacher beliefs has focused on what it is that teachers say about their practice. As Kane et al. (2002) discovered, this has rarely included direct observations of practice. While there appears to be little recent research, the evidence has nonetheless, strongly indicated that teacher beliefs permeate higher education teachers' thinking, reflection, planning, decision-making, and action taking, along with being a filter for change (Norton et al., 2005; OECD, 2009; Yerrick, Parke, & Nugent, 1998). It has been identified too, that as with teachers in other sectors, higher education teachers' fundamental beliefs tend to be strongly influenced by the sources of their beliefs, contextual factors and theories (Kember, 1997). And similar to teachers in other education sectors, when they explore their teacher beliefs higher education teachers gain a better understanding of the nature of teaching. They are more likely to

engage in critical reflection of their beliefs; make changes to their theories of teaching; and, review their pedagogical practice (Hativa & Goodyear, 2002; Kagan, 1992; Kane et al., 2002; McLeod & Golby, 2003; Norton et al., 2005).

That higher education teachers are more likely to adapt and make change to their practice when they have opportunities to examine and reflect on their teacher beliefs has been borne out in several studies about teacher beliefs. One study explored the orientations towards the facilitation of learning and towards knowledge transmission of higher education teachers from four universities in the United Kingdom. A questionnaire measured nine different aspects of teachers' beliefs and intentions concerning teaching in higher education (Norton, Richardson, Hartley, Newstead, & Mayes, 2005). While orientations towards learning facilitation and towards knowledge transmission were detected, it was found that teachers' intentions more orientated towards knowledge transmission than their beliefs. Another study conducted with five higher education teachers and 100 teacher education students about their educational beliefs (termed a belief-practice relationship) identified a number of implications considered useful for disciplines other than teacher education (Northcote, 2009). The data generated by the belief inventories about teaching and learning, and by the interviews with a small group revealed that student teachers' educational beliefs were as diverse and complex as those of the teacher educators. The latter led the author to deduce that teachers could improve their relationships with students if both made their beliefs visible (Northcote, 2009). A further and potentially valuable finding was that the beliefs expressed by teachers and students were mostly student-centred in nature. This prompted the suggestion that teaching methods in higher education should be more focused on how, why and what students learn rather than the more common emphasis on content delivery and knowledge transmission.

An examination of the impact of online professional development upon teachers' beliefs about learning facilitation and technology was the focus of Rienties, Brouwer, and Lygo-Baker's (2013) study. These researchers found that teachers' beliefs about knowledge transmission were noticeably narrow but that professional learning led to substantial shifts. This finding was endorsed by another study in which the beliefs of 18 higher education teachers from a range of disciplines were examined about the role technology had in achieving the pedagogical aims of learning (Jääskelä, Häkkinen, &

Rasku-Puttonen, 2017). The thematic interviews also revealed a need for professional development initiatives that employed a more focused and deliberate approach to uncover teacher beliefs.

The literature and the findings of empirical studies support an argument for teacher beliefs to become an important focus of professional learning and inquiry in the higher education context. Identifying their teacher beliefs and developing an understanding of the influence of contextual factors on applying these in practice could contribute significantly to the development of higher education teachers' pedagogical practice.

Theoretical considerations for teaching

In light of the changing nature of higher education the literature has emphasised there can be no one overarching theory of learning (Barrington, 2007; Cunningham, 2013; Farren, 2006). This should not deter higher education teachers from identifying the theory or theories that underpin and help them to describe their teaching practice, for as Webb (1996) has claimed, "without theory education it's just hit and miss … we risk misunderstanding not only the nature of our pedagogy but the epistemic foundations of our discipline" (p. 23). Moreover, researchers like Evans (2008), Hativa and Goodyear (2002), and Ramsden (2003) have variously stated, if higher education teachers are to base their teaching practice on theoretical knowledge, being able to describe and apply learning theory should be a key element of their professional teaching approach.

Given that teachers are accountable for, and have a responsibility to be able to describe the theory (or theories) that underpin their teacher beliefs and pedagogical practices, Trigwell, Prosser, Marton, and Runesson (2002) have asserted that an understanding of theories of learning and teaching be considered a key determinant of effective higher education teaching. Further, they have suggested that when higher education teachers come to understand the theoretical underpinnings of their pedagogical practice they are more able to develop, improve and adapt their teaching practice. While Rice (2003) expressed concern about the "dichotomy between what teachers actually do" (p. 10) and what they say they do, there is evidence that overtime there have been endeavours to address this divide. In a report about supporting the professional development of teachers in higher education, Donnelly (2016) has pointed to this evidence and highlighted the approaches that appear to be working.

Discussed in the previous section on teacher beliefs was that higher education teachers' various theoretical positions, and their ways of thinking about and enacting teaching are influenced and supported by their teacher beliefs. Hativa and Goodyear (2002) and Light and Calkins (2009) state this includes their beliefs about how people learn. Notably, in their review of the research about teacher beliefs and the practices of higher education teachers, Kane et al. (2002 identified that some studies about teachers' espoused theories identified that they were not reflective of their theories-in-use, or their theories-in-action. In contrast, Astin (1984) and Hativa (2000) in their earlier research, found growing evidence of higher education teachers thinking more about their theoretical positions, and McLean and Bullard (2009) and Kane et al. (2004) identified that some teachers were able to describe the ways theory was visible in their practice.

Interviews with higher education teachers conducted by Trigwell et al. (2002) about their views of learning, teaching practices and conceptions of problem-solving in science also highlighted teachers' thinking about their theoretical positioning. Using a phenomenographic approach Trigwell et al. (2002) discovered significant differences in the ways teachers understood student problem solving situations in science courses. For example, two teachers identified that cognitive and constructivist learning theories underpinned their practice. While a third teacher was not "committed to an explicit theory of learning (p. 257), he was still able to articulate the ways in which his 'homespun' beliefs about learning had shaped his practice. The latter is reflective of Astin's (1984) perspective that teachers should be provided with opportunities to examine their implicit pedagogical theories and be encouraged to implement them explicitly. That theory is usually inherent in the actions of higher education teachers and rarely examined critically as a "testable proposition" (Astin, 1984, p. 520) was affirmed by Kember and Kwan (2002) in their study about higher education teachers' approaches to teaching. The study revealed a strong relationship between teachers' concepts of teaching, their teacher beliefs (described by the participants as: active, facilitative, constructivist, and transmissive) and their approaches to teaching. These and other studies confirm that higher education teachers' understanding and knowledge of learning theories and the implications for their pedagogical practice. Although generally not explicit in their talk about teaching or research-informed Hativa (2000), Hénard and Roseveare (2012) and Westbrook et al. (2013) have contended that learning theories do tend to be manifested in the tangible approaches they employ.

In the next section, a review of the literature about adult learning theory has been conducted. It is by no means exhaustive. Given the constraints of word count but also keeping in mind the thesis' topic, the broader elements of adult learning theory have been focused upon. First with the constructivist paradigm and epistemology that frame this study in mind, my own constructivist teacher beliefs, and the emphasis on mentoring as a constructivist learning approach, the literature relevant to constructivism in higher education teaching has been reviewed. Then the adult learning theory literature (which is said to have its roots in constructivism but has emerged as a theory in its own right) is examined.

Constructivism

Constructivism is to do with the ways people construct knowledge and meaning from their experiences (Macolol & Fisher, 2005). Stemming from the work of Jean Piaget, the socio-cultural work of Lev Vygotsky, and the work of Jerome Bruner and Howard Gardner, constructivism has most frequently been referred to as a theory about learning. Twomey Fosnot and Perry (2005) emphasis that it is 'not a description of teaching' was reflected in Merriam and Caffarella's (1999) earlier description of constructivism being a learning process in which meaning is constructed and people make sense of their experiences.

Centred on the active construction of knowledge by learners, constructivism has been articulated in varying though similar ways as knowledge and meaning constructed by people from their experiences (van Geert, 2017; Merriam & Caffarella, 1999; Twomey Fosnot & Perry, 2005); the recreation of existing mental models (Byrne & Johnson-Laird, 2009); and, situating new learning in terms of what learners already know (Eyler, 2018). Critical to constructivist theory is the teacher's role. Teachers are required to support and contribute to learning by providing opportunities for scaffolding, modelling, cognitive apprenticeship, facilitating, and cooperative and collaborative learning in different kinds of learning communities (Amineh & Asl, 2015). Constructivism also requires teachers to be learners so that when they teach, they also draw on their prior ideas and experiences to make sense of their learning.

A constructivist stance means that a teacher's personal beliefs about teaching are crucial. When the belief that knowledge is constructed by learners underpins a teacher's

practice they are more likely to employ active learning approaches that involve asking questions, exploring, analysing, researching, experimentation, problem solving, and evaluating, and encouraging social interaction (Twomey Fosnot & Perry, 2005). This is especially important for adult learners for whom reflection and dialogue need to be to the fore. Merriam (2008) does caution, however, that "learning to reflect—especially in a critical manner—is itself a developmental process that needs to be fostered in adult learning settings" (p. 97).

Adult learning theory

Adult learning theories are based on the premise that adults learn differently to children. Over the last few decades, a number of adult learning theories have gained prominence with each shedding light on a particular aspect of adult learning. In most searches about adult learning Malcolm Knowles is to the fore as one of the first contemporary thinkers about adult learning, andragogy in particular; hence, its inclusion here.

Popularised by Knowles (1975, 1980) almost four decades ago the concept of andragogy has been described as a theoretical framework for adult learning. Originating with the German educator Alexander Kapp in the 19th century, it was then developed into a theory of adult education by Eugen Rosenstock-Huessy (Henschke, 2009). Knowles (1980) initially viewed andragogy and pedagogy as dichotomous, however, feedback from teachers across all education sectors led him to take heed of their assertion that it was not a case of employing one or the other, rather it was whichever was a 'best fit' for their learners (Knowles, 1984). Knowles' (1980) set of assumptions about adult learners on which he later based the principles, and identified implications for teachers (Knowles, 1984) has not only continued to inform and influence adult educators and learners alike but generate research.

Since its introduction, there has been substantial critique of andragogy. Davenport (1993) has cited Houles (1972), London (1973), Elias (1979), and Davenport and Davenport (1985) among others, who over time have challenged the theory status attributed to andragogy. Further, Brookfield (2003) has described it as less a theory than an ideal state for adult learners to be in, and prescriptive rather than descriptive. Merriam (2009) concurred and claimed that andragogy is a "framework for teaching adults" rather than a "lens for explaining learning" (p. 456). Notably, Knowles (1984)

himself stated he was unsure whether andragogy was a theory. Rather he thought that it encapsulated theories of learning that frame adult learning and teaching through the identification of assumptions and principles. The four principles that emerged from Knowles' work can be found embedded in many contemporary adult learning theories: adults learn best from experience; adults prefer practical approaches and opportunities to apply their learning to solve problems; adults want to learn 'things' that have immediate relevance; adults need to be involved in the planning and evaluation of their instruction.

With higher education teachers coming from diverse backgrounds and entering diverse settings, often with minimal preparation for the role of teacher (Cranton, 1996), understanding adult learning theories can support them to develop their theoretical positioning (Merriam, 2001). It has been argued that for higher education teachers to be able to navigate and make sense of the already mentioned unknown and confusing terrain of higher education teaching, an understanding and knowledge of adult learning is needed (Henscke, 2013; Zukas & Malcolm, 2002). As Ramsden (2003) asserted "a theoretical understanding of learning and teaching and their relationship to each other is an essential base for effective action as a university teacher" (p. 9). Nevertheless, the teaching and learning approaches of adult learning theory can pose a challenge for higher education teachers, particularly in light of the less controllable conditions under which adults learn (Knowles, 1990). In light of this, when teachers know and understand the concepts of adult learning theories they are more able to enact them (and the relevant principles) in their practice (e.g. Brookfield, 1995; Cranton, 2001; Kegan, 2000; Knowles, 1984; Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 2015). Having a theoretical understanding of learning can help higher teachers to critique their thinking about learning (not just with regard to their students' learning, also their own), teaching and their pedagogical practice. They become better equipped to make sense of their tacit theories of learning or what Ramsden (2003) has described as their "common-sense" (p. 4) theories and make informed changes.

The literature, particularly during the 20th century, has generated a range of theories, explanations, descriptions, models, principles and assumptions that have resulted in the foundational knowledge of adult learning. Thus, while there is no one theory of learning that can be applied to all adult learning contexts Barrington, 2007; Cunningham, 2013;

Farren, 2006), by becoming familiar with the adult learning knowledge base and all that entails, higher education teachers become more effective and their practice more responsive to the needs of adult learners (Brookfield, 1986, 1995; Cranton, 1996; Knowles, 1990).

Although new understandings have emerged of adult learning theories and they have been interpreted for different contexts (Loeng & Omwami, 2018), a mutual understanding of adult learning has emerged that adults are self-directed leaners and expected to take responsibility for their decisions (Henschke, 2013). Contemporary theorists in the field assert that anyone teaching adult learners must know and understand the concepts of adult learning theory to be able to enact the theory and its principles in their practice (e.g. Brookfield, 1995; Cranton, 2001; Kegan, 2000; Knowles, 1984; Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 2015; Mezirow, 2000).

While the knowledge about the unique characteristics of adult learners and their learning processes was largely gained between 1960 and 1980, the research has continued to add to the field. Thus, researchers of adult learning and teachers of adult learners have been encouraged to critique, reflect, filter and make meaning of their findings (Rabourn, Shoup, & BrckaLorenz, 2015) to work towards a common understanding. Nonetheless, becoming familiar with adult learning theory has continued to be considered a complex endeavour. Many concur with Brookfield (1995) who stated some 25 years ago, "we are very far from a universal understanding of adult learning" (p. 1). This despite his exploration of four areas of research on adult learning: self-directed learning, critical reflection, experiential learning, and learning to learn that led him to point out that combined they constitute a theory of adult learning and inform practice.

In the 21st century, historical and sociocultural contexts of adult learning have become more recognised and acknowledged key components for understanding the nature of adult learning (Merriam, 2008). The recognition that adult learning is a "multidimensional phenomenon, and that it takes place in various contexts" (Merriam, 2008, p. 97) has generated a greater understanding of how adults learn and the kinds of learning approaches that are best suited to optimising an adult's learning experience.

Mentoring

A review of the literature has shown that limited research has been conducted about higher education teachers' experiences of mentoring. No research in this area has been found in the New Zealand context. In this part of the chapter the importance for higher education teachers and their institutions to develop an understanding of mentoring has been highlighted through a review of the relevant literature.

The literature pertaining to concepts of mentoring, definitions and their theoretical underpinnings, and the mentoring relationship has been approached from a relatively broad perspective. The main rationale for this was to establish what is known and understood in the literature about the complex, diverse and multi-dimensional nature of mentoring. Following this, the literature about mentoring as a professional development approach in higher education has been explored. While some may still consider mentoring to constitute an expert-novice relationship in which an expert offers sage advice, this more traditional kind of relationship it can be argued that it is longer the most prevalent approach in education settings (Clutterbuck, 2014; Daloz, 2012; Grey, Garvey, & Lane, 2016; Ragins & Kram, 2007; Zachary, 2000). In this literature review therefore, mentoring has been deliberately positioned as a learning approach and a learning relationship. This is reflected in the literature selected for review.

In the next sections, concepts of mentoring, definitions and theoretical underpinnings of mentoring have been examined in light of the literature. The process and function of mentoring, the role of the mentor and the role of the mentee are then explored in a review of the literature about the mentoring relationship. Finally, the literature pertinent to mentoring as a form of professional development with a specific emphasis on mentoring in higher education has been examined.

Having knowledge of and understanding concepts of mentoring, definitions and theoretical underpinnings have been deemed critical for those practicing, teaching and researching in the mentoring field (Clutterbuck, 2009; Kram, 1985; Ragins, 2012; Zachary, 2000). Some of those writing and practicing in the field have argued that mentoring has not been a well conceptualised field of research (Clutterbuck, 2014; Wang & Odell, 2002), however, mentoring research about the "nature and advantages of mentoring" (Higgins & Kram, 2001, p. 265) has advanced considerably in recent

years. An increasingly extensive, and at times contrasting, literature has identified that while developing an understanding of mentoring has been no easy task given its diverse, multi-dimensional and complex nature (Garvey, Stokes, & Megginson, 2018), progress has been made. Ragins and Kram's (2007) contention that after "20 years of research it is time for us to step back and assess where we have been, where we are, and where we need to go in the field of mentoring" (p. 4) has borne fruit as they and others have continued their pursuit of a consistent and widely accepted conceptualisation of mentoring to the present day.

Aligned with this, Clutterbuck (2014) identified the need for ongoing conversations about what he termed the 'mentoring phenomenon'. These he has asserted, achieve a clearer and deeper understanding of mentoring for students of mentoring, researchers and practitioners. A claim made by Bozeman and Feeney's (2007) that, "mentoring research adds up to less than the sum of its parts" and that "there has been too little attention to core concepts and theory" (p. 3) has likely also helped to accelerate the reviews, revisions, and presentations of others' understandings of mentoring (Clutterbuck, 2014; Clutterbuck, Kochan, Lunsford, Dominguez, & Haddock-Millar, 2017; Eby & Allen, 2007; Fletcher & Mullen, 2012; Ragins & Kram, 2007; Zachary, 2009, 2012).

Concepts of mentoring

Concepts of mentoring, sometimes called perspectives of mentoring, convey what is understood and known about mentoring's diverse attributes and structure (Tang & Choi, 2005). Ideally, they will promote a mutual understanding of mentoring. Applicable to a range of mentoring contexts that include personal, pair or group-orientated, and/or organisational situations (Meier, 2013), concepts of mentoring indicate the ways people think about mentoring. In particular, these are the ideas, beliefs and experiences that have led to forming the concepts that researchers, mentors, and mentees can draw on to help them describe their understanding of what mentoring is and what it 'looks like' in practice (Meier, 2013). Informed by the origins and changing nature of mentoring, they also contribute to the development of mentoring definitions and theory (Clutterbuck, 2014; Gallo, 2011).

To be effective the mentor and mentee, and the organisation must have a sound conceptual understanding of mentoring. While Clutterbuck (2014) has stressed this has become a concern, many of those working in the field have begun to address it in pragmatic ways. A recent example of a robust approach to conceptualising mentoring can be found in Lofthouse's (2018) alignment of a perspective of teacher education with contemporary thinking about mentoring. Viewing mentoring as a "dynamic hub within a practice development-led model for individual professional learning and institutional growth" (p. 1) had resulted in mentors and mentees being better able to conceptualise mentoring as an approach that could "contribute to the transformation of professional learning practices" (Lofthouse, 2018, p. 1).

Changing nature of concepts of mentoring

Within the mentoring discourse, it has been acknowledged that mentoring can and does occur in a range of contexts. It can be formal or informal, or a combination of both and conducted with groups or individuals for a specific purpose but always to support people to develop personally and professionally by helping them to manage their own learning to maximise their potential; develop their skills; and, improve their performance (Kram, 1985).

Significant in any examination of the concepts of mentoring is recognising that concepts of mentoring have changed as the 'world of work' has changed (Gallo, 2011). Notably, Kram's (1985) ground-breaking research moved mentoring from "an abstract academic construct to a household word" (Ragins & Kram, 2007, Part 1, para 3) and create a theoretical foundation for mentoring. Even so, Ragins and Kram (2007) have asserted that in her endeavours to do so, a lack of conceptual clarity ensued.

Not unexpectedly then, the debate about the problematic nature of conceptualising mentoring has not diminished over time. Evident in Cross's (1986 as cited in Daloz, 1986) comment that "mentoring is a slippery concept"(p. ix), this perspective was further endorsed by Colley (2002) almost two decades later. Her acknowledgement that mentoring is "essentially contested concept" and that mentoring practice can be defined in a "plethora of ways" (p. 3) has pointed to a lack of clarity. While Bozeman and Feeneny (2007) have suggested the lack of clarity could be the result of little attention being paid to the conceptual needs of a growing field of study, the evidence although

limited, has continued to amass that this is not a forgotten topic. Anderson and Shannon (1988) argued over 30 years ago "effective mentoring programmes must be grounded on a clear and strong conceptual foundation" (p. 38), and should include a "definition of the mentoring relationship, the essential functions of the mentor role, the activities through which selected mentoring functions will be expressed, and the dispositions that mentors must exhibit if they are to carry out requisite mentoring functions and activities" (p. 38). This perspective holds true in the present-day albeit with attention paid to the strong influences of culture, "both organizational and national … in ways not considered by earlier researchers and thinkers in the field" (Clutterbuck, 2014, p. 5).

In light of the shift from sponsorship mentoring to a more holistic concept of mentoring noticed by Kram and Chandler (2005) and provided an example in light of the diverse millennial generation. Now comprising 75 percent of the work force in the USA (Frey, 2018); 29 percent in Australia; and 25 per cent in New Zealand (Gordon, 2017), it has been argued that they are the most technologically driven generation they also want to feel valued and make an impact in the world (Khanna, 2019). Mentoring for millennials according to Meister and Willyerd (2010), should be more tailored to their needs. They have suggested three alternative ways (that could of course be employed with other groups): reverse mentoring, group mentoring and anonymous mentoring (an online approach).

Understanding and applying concepts of mentoring continue to be a critical element of research and development in the mentoring field. The research has shown this can not only result in a better understanding of mentoring's many facets but have quite rapid practical implications (see thte millennial example provided above). As Kram and Ragins (2007) have attested, conceptions of mentoring now emphasise 'developmental networks' and take account of how the environmental conditions of "globalization, increasingly diverse workforces, flattened hierarchies, team-based organizations, new technologies, and a persistently rapid pace of change—influence the nature and potential of mentoring at work" (p. 659).

Origins of mentoring

Sometimes cited as the source of concepts of mentoring, there has long been a common understanding that mentoring's ancient roots (Clutterbuck, 2017; Colley, 2000; Ehrich,

Hansford, & Tennent., 2001; Garvey, 2011; Gray et al., 2016; Ragins & Kram, 2007) originated in Homer's *The Odyssey.* It has been left to the readers of this chapter to further explore this well documented story largely because the Mentor Myth has frequently appeared in the mentoring literature at either the "start of a work, or in the introduction to a chapter or section on the mentor's role" (Colley, 2000, para. 4). That is not to say the myth has no relevance. Exploring its many facets along with others' interpretations has guided scholars and practitioners towards the use of a perspective that can contribute to present-day concepts, definitions and practices of mentoring (Gray et al., 2016). Further to this, it has been pointed out that the modern concept of a mentor really emerged from the dialogues between Athena, Mentor and Telemachus that were written by Fénelon (Clutterbuck, 2017). Clutterbuck (2017) has asserted that while Fénelon's thinking was a starting point for present-day thinking about mentoring and leadership development, the modern foundations of mentoring stemmed from the rise of the trade guilds and the apprenticeship system in 19th century Europe (Clutterbuck, 2014). But the 18th century is still considered the era when mentoring began to develop as an 'educative process' (Grey et al., 2016) with Garvey et al. (2018) pointing out that Fénelon's work was ahead of its time, and Grey et al. (2016) claiming it had a major impact on "learning, leadership development and education" (p. 8).

During the 1960s and 1970s of the 20th century mentoring became popular in organisations in the United States. Conceptualised as a career development strategy, it was often called 'sponsorship mentoring' (Clutterbuck, 2001; Guptan, 2006). This emphasis has been largely sustained although Ragins and Scandura (1999) have argued that although sponsorship mentoring can enhance knowledge, raise achievement, and lead to promotion, it can also result in disharmony and power imbalances.

In comparison to the United States, a concept of mentoring consistent with encouraging people to take responsibility for their own personal growth emerged in Northern Europe around the same time (Barber, 2015). Initially embedded in a model brought to the fore in the United Kingdom (UK) by Clutterbuck, it evolved from Levinson et al's (1978) research about adult development (Clutterbuck, Kochan, Lunsford, Dominquex, & Haddock-Millar (Eds, 2017). Levinson et al's (1978) research employed a multi-disciplinary approach to "create a developmental perspective on adulthood in men" (p. x) and in their later work, in women. Lunt, Bennett, McKenzie, and Powell (1992) have

pointed out that the psycho-social view of adult development that surfaced, led to the identification of seven developmental stages. Described as "the underlying pattern of a person's life at a given particular time" (Levinson et al., 1978, p. 41), Allen and Wergin (2009) have stated that ultimately, this work led to the formation of adult development theory. Mentoring was a key element of this and viewed as a critical approach to help men and women transition from early to middle adulthood. Assertions were made that a mentor needed to be at least half a generation older, and that the learning relationship needed to be based on trust, respect and honesty for it to be productive (Lunt, Bennett, McKenzie, & Powell, 1992). In advance of 21st century conceptualisations of mentoring, mentoring was also considered to include counselling, teaching, advising, and sponsoring (Allen & Wergin, 2009; Grey et al., 2016; Lunt et al. 1992).

Since that time, concepts of mentoring have traversed time and context although in the present-day they continue to be contestable. Now it has been claimed, existing and new theoretical perspectives, models and definitions of mentoring more cognisant of context and culture need to be critiqued and tested in practice (Ragins & Kram, 2007). Thus, it has been argued) that the modern concept of mentoring is that it is developmental and learning focused. Even so Grey et al. (2016) have contended, that can be dependent on the mentoring discourse a person subscribes to.

Defining mentoring

A key issue underpinning the acknowledged definitional problem of mentoring has been identified as the absence of theoretical underpinnings (Ehrich et al., 2001; Rice, 2003) even though as concepts of mentoring have evolved so too have definitions. A review of the literature between 1990 and 2007 discovered over 50 definitions (Crisp & Cruz, 2009 as cited in Dahlberg & Byars-Winston, 2019). A proliferation of definitions has highlighted the challenge (or perhaps the relative ease?) of choosing the 'right' definition. In light of this, Clutterbuck (2014) has asserted that the meta-studies and literature reviews have compounded the situation because definitions tend to begin from the assumption that everyone is attempting to measure the same thing. Hence, some authors and researchers avoid seeking or articulating any kind of definition (Clutterbuck, 2014).

The debate about definitions is not recent. Unless it is clear which definition has been employed in a particular piece of research, Clutterbuck (2014) has claimed it can be difficult to draw conclusions with confidence, or make comparisons with other studies. Some authors have claimed for instance that Kram (1985) did not specifically define mentoring, describing her definition as an "imprecise conceptualization" (Bozeman & Feeney, 2007, p. 721):

> mentoring involves an intense relationship whereby a senior or more experienced person (the mentor) provides two functions for a junior person (the protégé), one function being advice or modelling about career development behaviors and the second function being personal support, especially psycho-social support. (p. 10)

Yet rather than being imprecise, others have argued that Kram has conceptualised and defined mentoring, and the mentoring relationship (Chao, Waltz, & Gardner, 1992; Eby, 1997; Whitely, Dougherty, & Dreher, 1991). Moreover, Carmin (1988) appeared to build on it in her definition of mentoring: "a complex, interactive process occurring between individuals of differing levels of experience and expertise which incorporates interpersonal or psychosocial, career and/or educational development, and socialisation functions into the relationship" (pp. 10-11).

When definitions of mentoring are provided, however, they appear to have more similarities than differences. Most convey that mentoring is a professional activity in which a trusted relationship and commitment are critical (Metros & Yang, 2006). Additionally, most suggest that 'helping' is at the heart of mentoring in both personal and professional settings resulting in more practice-oriented definitions of mentoring (Alpert, 2009; Stoddard & Tamasy, 2003).

In their examination of the relationship of career mentoring and socioeconomic origin to the early career progress of managers and professionals, Whitely, Dougherty, and Dreher (1991) also drew on Kram's definition, similarly Chao, Waltz, and Gardner (1992) in their research about the distinction between formal and informal mentoring. In a comparable manner, Eby (1997) defined mentoring as an "intense developmental relationship whereby advice and developmental opportunities are provided to a protégé by a mentor, which, in turn, shapes the protégé's career experience" (p. 12). She cited the two types of support for mentees identified by Kram (1985) as instrumental (or

career support) and psychological support. A variation of Kram's definition can likewise be located in Chao's (1997) study. To compare data from current mentees and former mentees with those from individuals who had never had a mentor (which also found consistent differences between mentored and non-mentored individuals), Chao (1997) employed Kram's mentoring phases.

In contrast to others' developmental definitions, Bozeman and Feeney (2007) have suggested a definition of mentoring that is more aligned with traditional ways of thinking about mentoring. Pointed out in the literature on developing mentoring practice, these authors have tended to describe content and offer examples of practice rather than a definition (Dahlberg & Byars-Winston, 2019; Healy & Welchert, 1990). Further to this, the core functions of the mentoring relationship have been referenced resulting in the very impreciseness of definition Bozeman and Feeney (2007) have alluded to:

> A process for the informal transmission of knowledge, social capital, and psychosocial support perceived by the recipient as relevant to work, career, or professional development; mentoring entails informal communication, usually face-to-face and during a sustained period of time, between a person who is perceived to have greater relevant knowledge, wisdom, or experience (the mentor) and a person who is perceived to have less (the protégé). (p. 719)

To advance a knowledge base for future mentoring research, Healy and Welchert (1990) have offered a definition of mentoring grounded in contextual-developmental theory and specific to educational contexts. They have argued that their definition of mentoring as a "dynamic, reciprocal relationship in a working environment between an advanced career incumbent (mentor) and a beginner (protégé) aimed at promoting the career development of both" (p. 17) can offer "immediate benefits" given it "highlights critical elements of the mentoring process" (p. 17). Here the developmental elements depicted in other definitions are present, along with the notion that a mentor has experience to share with a mentee. But reciprocity has now become a feature of the mentoring relationship not evident in the previous definitions. Although there is no suggestion in the literature that Healy and Welchert (1990) indicate from whom the notion of reciprocity originated it is from this time that it has become more evident in definitions of mentoring such as Zachary's (2012a):

> a reciprocal learning relationship in which mentor and mentee agree to a partnership where they work collaboratively toward achievement of mutually defined goals that will develop a mentee's skills, abilities, knowledge and/or thinking.

Here mentoring has been viewed as a developmental learning relationship and the notion of reciprocity (Healy & Welchert, 1990) emphasised. In placing a particular emphasis on the development and promotion of emotional intelligence, self-directed learning, and transformational learning Zachary (2012) has championed mentoring as a learning endeavour. This definition, unlike those that precede it, has explicitly defined mentoring as reciprocal learning and a relationship with learning at its core. In presenting this concept of mentoring Zachary (2012) has affirmed the educative approach of mentoring – an approach in which the development of new knowledge, skills, attitudes and competencies are central.

The dynamic nature of mentoring was re-emphasised in one of Clutterbuck's (2000) iterations with a definition that was extended to include more about what mentoring actually involved: "… primarily listening with empathy, sharing experience (usually mutually), professional friendship, developing insight through reflection, being a sounding board, encouraging" (Clutterbuck, 2000, p. 8). A progression of this thinking can be found in a more recent iteration that has a more holistic intent:

> 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 both 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). (Megginson & Clutterbuck, 2005, p. 9)

Definitions specifically developed for mentoring in higher education have been almost impossible to locate. A broad definition that could be employed has stemmed from the work of D'Abate, Eddy, and Tannebaum (2003). Included are references to techniques that contrast the practices of apprenticeship as used in various permutations throughout human history that involve some form of tutoring. In Bland, Taylor, Shollen, Weber-Main, and Mulcahy's (2009) definition, the holistic purpose evident in that of Megginson and Clutterbuck (2005)'s definition can be identified. Due in part to the relatively small size of the field and the interactions of researchers, Clutterbuck (2014)

has indicated that when mentoring becomes more deliberately informed by theory and research, this kind of synchronicity will continue to increase. An example of this thinking can be found in Bland et al's (2009) description (rather than definition) of mentoring for higher education mentors, mentees and leaders:

> … a professional relationship with three essential characteristics …. First, mentoring is a relationship with a defined purpose: to help mentees successfully acquire the key competencies and constructive work relationships they need to have a successful and satisfying career. … Second, mentoring is a collaborative learning relationship. … third, mentoring is a relationship that develops over time and passes through specific phases. (p. 12)

A definition considered by Cordie, Lin, Brecke, and Wooten (2020) to be useful for higher educational mentoring was identified by Buell (2004 as cited in Cordie et al., 2020). Involving the process of one individual supporting, teaching, leading, and serving as the role model for another, it has been contended that the focus of the definition has effectively described the traditional role of a mentor. This way of thinking about mentoring, that a mentor is an "experienced advisor in the teaching setting in higher education" has also been put forward by Johnson (2015). Further, an expansion of this, proposed by Cordie et al. (2020), included "joint participation of both the mentor/mentee by using reciprocal communication and collaboration within a co-teaching environment" (p. 150).

Theoretical underpinnings

While theories of teaching have been critiqued, challenged and articulated in the literature there is limited research about mentoring theory or mentors taking theory into account in their practice. Thus, the emergence of a mentoring discourse comprised critique, challenge, and revision around the lack of mentoring's theoretical underpinnings, contextual relevance and philosophical stance (or lack thereof) in the mentoring research (Eby, Rhodes, & Allen, 2007). Pointing out the limited nature of theory-driven mentoring research (Russell & Adams, 1997) does not diminish the existing scholarly engagement by those in the field or the growing published research. Attempts have been made for instance, to address the identified and problematic elements through typologies of mentoring (Gay & Stephenson, 1998; Philip & Hendry, 1996). Others have sought to capture the complex, multi-dimensional and

developmental nature of mentoring through mostly qualitative research (Garvey, 2011). Even so, despite more than 500 published articles on mentoring emanating from the late 80s to the late 90s, Allen and Johnston (1997) have determined the limited progress in developing mentoring theory may in part be attributable to a tendency to focus on the 'how' of practice rather than the explanatory 'why'. It has been further claimed that mentoring research has tended to be based on 'one off' studies, "there is all too often impatience with troublesome conceptual and analytical problems" (Bozeman and Feeney, 2007, p. 4).

The absence of theoretical underpinning has contributed to both a lack of grounding in appropriate theory (Ehrich et al., 2001) and its location in a wider theoretical framework (Healy & Welchart, 1990). Such views support Burke and McKeen's (1997) claim that a limitation in the research on mentoring has been an 'integrated research model or framework' and Jacobi's (1991) contention that one of the most significant weaknesses in mentoring research is "the lack of theoretical and conceptual base" (p.522). While Gibbs (1999) has echoed this by arguing that "a substantial theoretical analysis of mentoring has been absent, implicit, limited or undeveloped" (p.1), the results of Arnesson and Albisson's (2017) study showed that mentoring can make an important contribution to the learning process for the integration of theory and practice in higher education when 'practically applied' and 'theoretically anchored'. These and the views of others support Bozeman and Feeney's (2007) assertion that despite a "wide array of valid and useful research findings", conceptual problems continue to impede the ability of mentoring studies to "provide compelling middle or broad-range theoretical explanations" (p. 719).

Nevertheless there is also evidence that mentoring theory is being critically examined, critiqued, reviewed, and refreshed in the 21st century (Ragins & Kram, 2012). As theoretical advancements in the related disciplines of adult learning, adult development; leadership; education; coaching; and psychology have offered important new insights into the meaning of mentoring they have also generated theoretical directions and perspectives that have led to new theories of mentoring (Ragins & Kram, 2012). The theoretical underpinnings of mentoring are now more prevalent and supported by empirical research (Bey & Holmes, 1992; Daloz, 2012; Eby, Durley, Evans, & Ragins, 2008; Levinson, Darrow, Kline, Edwards, & Levinson., 1978; Scandura & Pellegrini,

2007; Zachary, 2000). While some studies have focused specifically on the ways in which individual careers can benefit from mentoring (Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz, Lima, 2004; Godsalk & Sosik, 2003; Noe, 1988), on women (Burke & McKeen, 1997; Levinson, 1986; Scandura & Ragins, 1993) and minorities (Ragins, 1997), others have focused on organisations and the ways to improve organisational performance (Payne & Huffman, 2005; Singh, Bains, & Vinnicombe, 2002).

There is overall agreement that the research about mentoring theory must expand but there must also be recognition of the development of theory dating back to the 1970s. Levinson et al. (1978) for example, examined the mentor relationship in considerable depth and to do so applied mentoring in the context of adult development theory; Kram (1985) examined mentors' roles and mentoring functions in light of both adult and career developmental theory; and Clutterbuck (1985) built on Levinson's (1978) adult development theory for his model of developmental mentoring. A decade later, Maynard and Furlong (1995) drew on Clutterbuck's (1985) theoretical work and identified three phases of mentoring, apprenticeship, competency and reflection – all connected to theories. And in his work on the need for mentors to support and challenge student teachers, Daloz (2012) employed adult developmental and learning theory. In Hansford et al. (2003) efforts to develop a comprehensive database from which more reliable inferences regarding the nature and outcomes of mentoring programs" (p. 5) could be made, it was found that adult learning and adult development theory provided the dominant conceptual framework for eight of the 159 studies including: Brookfield's (1986) and Daloz's (1986) theories of adult learning; Kolb's (1984; 2015) theory of experiential learning, and Schön's (1987) theory of reflection on learning. A fundamental assumption was that mentees' learning would be facilitated by mentors, with both paying attention to contextual and cultural factors. A further theory identified by Hansford et al's (2003) was Fuller's Concern Theory (a developmental stage theory), which perceives teachers as moving through three stages of concerns: self (survival, self-adequacy, and acceptance); task (student performance and teacher duties); and impact (social and educational impact on the system). According to Fuller (1969 as cited in Hansford et al., 2003) teachers cannot move to the next stage of concern until the concern of the previous stage is solved. Critique in the form of inquiry and reflection is an important element in being able to 'move on'. In relation to mentoring, Fuller (1969 as cited in Hansford et al., 2003) asserted that when mentors know and

understand the stage of development the mentee (in this case, the teacher) is experiencing, the mentoring process becomes more effective.

In other studies, cognitive development theories underpin theoretical frameworks for mentoring. For instance, the cognitive development work of Sprinthall and Thies-Sprinthall (1983, as cited in Ehrich, 2001) whose teaching and learning framework was designed to promote the learning and development of mentor teachers, and Street (2004) draws upon Vygotsky's theory of social interaction in his examination of learning to teach through a social lens. Important here, was the way these theories specifically focused on the ways learners construct and make sense of their learning experiences. Thus, they provide sound theoretical frameworks for mentors and mentees to draw.

While most contemporary researchers in the mentoring field indicate that Kram's (1985) and others' (Daloz, 1986, 2012; Ragins, 1999; Raggins & Scandura, 1999) developmental mentoring theories of two to three decades ago are relevant and inform present day developmental mentoring Chandler & Kram, 2005; Clutterbuck, 2014; Yendol-Hoppey & Dana, 2007; Zachary, 2000). Indeed, that was the premise of Ragins and Kram (2007) in their relatively recent chapter on the roots and meaning of mentoring. They urge researchers to focus an extension of the "theoretical horizons of mentoring" (p. 3), indicating an openness to developing new perspectives in the field. For mentoring research to be taken seriously by both researchers and practitioners it is "incumbent upon researchers to articulate the theoretical underpinnings of their empirical research" (Ehrich et al., 2001, p. 3). This has the potential to not only eliminate definitional confusion but strengthen mentoring's place in the research.

In the next section the literature to do with the mentoring relationship has been reviewed. Particular attention has been paid to the terminology associated with the mentoring relationship, that is the process and functions of mentoring, and the role of the mentor and mentee.

The mentoring relationship

Mentoring relationships are viewed in the literature and by researchers in the field as being critical for peoples' development in most professions (Ramaswami & Dreher, 2011). Since Levinson et al's (1978) pronouncement that mentoring is "one of the most

complex and developmentally important relationships …" (p. 97), that view has appeared to prevail among those writing and researching in the mentoring field. And it would also appear that Hezlett's (2005) recommendation that to completely "understand the mentoring relationship and to fully utilize it as a means of human resource development" (p. 505) more research was required has been heeded.

Over time the mentoring relationship has met with considerable scrutiny (Dalton, Thompson, & Price, 1977; Clutterbuck, 2005, 2014; Kram, 1985; Levinson et al., 1978; Megginson, Clutterbuck, Garvey, Stokes, & Garrett-Harris, 2006; Ragins & Cotton, 1991; Ragins et al., 2000). It is acknowledged, however, that for a mentoring relationship to develop and progress from a mentee's relative dependence at the start of the relationship to much greater autonomy (Barnett, 1995), it must be a flexible relationship in which an individual's needs can be developed with a mentor preferably experienced in the mentee's context (de Janasza & Sullivan, 2004; Metros & Yang, 2006). Those working and researching in the field have also identified the likelihood of greater success when a learning relationship has developed between a mentor and mentee. Zachary (2012) has described this as a learning centered mentoring paradigm with "seven critical elements: reciprocity, learning, relationship, partnership, collaboration, mutually defined goals, and development" (as cited in Rao, 2012, p. 142). An example can be found in a multi-case study about forming the mentoring relationship in the pre-service teacher context. Positive relationships were formed when the relationship was understood as a learning one (Alnajjar, 2016). When trust and respect were present; information shared; resources adequate; and expectations clear, both parties remained "professional, enthusiastic, and supportive with collaborative problem-solving" (Alnajjar, 2016, p. 30) for the duration of the relationship.

Whether mentoring relationships are undefined, informal collegial interactions or more defined structured formal agreements, Metros and Yang (2006) have stressed they require professional action, and a commitment to learning and trust. These are important factors that must be considered in order to ensure the development of effective mentoring relationships. It is critical too, that an atmosphere in which the mentee understands the process be generated, and the mentee enabled to not only trust in the process but be willing to participate in it. A number of authors draw attention to the critical elements of rapport, trust, respect, mutual consent and purpose that they believe

should underpin the development of all mentoring relationships (Megginson & Clutterbuck, 2005; Zachary, 2009). But it must also be recognised that like any relationship, mentoring will have its 'ups, downs, and unforeseeable swerves' (Brouwer, Pierce, Treweek, & Wallace, 2017). In light of this, it has been maintained that in both new and existing mentoring relationships, boundaries must be established and consistently revisited to ensure it continues to be effective and 'fit for purpose' (Barnett, 1995). Moreover, when establishing a mentoring relationship it has been suggested that context is important and taken into account. Not doing so can impact "on the relationship and within which the relationship exists" (Cox, 2003, p. 9), and the influence of context lessened because the relationship has taken precedence.

The stages through which mentoring relationships evolve were first identified by Kram (1985) in her research about mentoring in organisational settings. Not only did the research confirm that mentoring can create opportunities to improve communication and enhance relationships between colleagues it provided a greater impetus for further research (e.g. Blaxter, Hughes, & Tight, 1998; Clutterbuck, 2014; Metros and Yang, 2006; Ragins & Kram, 2007). Kram (1983, 1985) suggested that the stages of *initiation*, *cultivation*, *separation* and, *redefinition*[4] were sequential, that they denoted the limited duration of the mentoring relationship (time and purpose), and that a more equal relationship between mentor and mentee would be the ultimate outcome. The mentoring relationship has been similarly viewed by others as being more personal (Feiman-Nemsar, 2001; Milne, 1991), with Feiman-Nemsar (2001) suggesting that mentors are "local guides … educational companions … agents of change" (p. 3) in the relationship. The relationship has further been described as one where mentees are encouraged to manage their own learning "in order to maximize their professional potential, develop their skills, improve their performance, and become the person they want to be" (Metros & Yang, 2006, p. 52). These points of view are aligned with others' assertions that

[4] *initiation* (when mentors and mentees form expectations and get to know one another); *cultivation* (when the relationship matures and mentors typically provide the greatest degree of psychosocial and career support); *separation* (when mentees seek autonomy and more independence from mentors); and, *redefinition* (when mentors and mentees transition into a different form of relationship characterised by more peer-like interactions or terminate the relationship)

mentoring relationships are intended to be more than a career resource (Ragins, 1999) or a way to attend to organisational disparity (Dominguez, 2013 as cited in Clutterbuck, 2014).

A defining feature of a mentoring relationship (different to other kinds of personal relationships) is that it is developmental in nature (Ragins & Kram, 2007), highlighting that it has become more of a learning relationship (Lipton & Wellman, 2005; Zachary, 2012). Although 'teacher' has often been included in definitions of what a mentor is and does, teaching and learning have only recently been the focus of research on mentoring relationships (Allen & Eby, 2003; Hale, 2000). In support of this, Zachary (2000) has emphasised the importance of developing a learning focused mentoring relationship, in which the mentee is viewed as a valued learner and partner. This she has contended, requires a mentor to be a facilitator of learning with learning the "fundamental process and the primary purpose of mentoring" (p.1). Such a relational model, Ragins and Verbos (2006) asserted, can be deemed the "highest quality mentoring state" (p. 21).

Mentoring process

A number of studies have found that despite increasing research about its practice, there has been a continued "mystification about what actually happens" within the process of mentoring (Rix & Gold, 2000, p. 47). This has led to arguments being made for a greater focus on the process of mentoring to better understand it and ensure a positive impact upon mentoring outcomes (Clutterbuck, 2013; Ragins & Kram, 2007; Zachary, 2000). This can then provide "another set of variables" (Clutterbuck, 2013, para. 13) such as e-mentoring, face-to-face mentoring, and frequency of meetings. A further consideration should also be the mentoring process pertaining to formal and informal mentoring. They are similar but have distinct characteristics; hence cultivating understanding the nuances of the mentoring process has been deemed vital (Wanberg, Welsh, & Hezlett, 2003).

Whether formal or informal, it has been generally agreed that the mentoring process is to do with the different developmental phases of the mentoring relationship. Several factors that contribute to the complexity of the mentoring process have been identified. These include the dynamics of the mentoring relationship and the application of theory in the mentoring process (Head, Reiman, & Thies-Sprinthall, 1992; Kram, 1983, 1985).

While awareness of these has increased as greater insights have been provided by the research (e.g. Burley & Pomphrey, 2011; Ragins & Kram, 2007) it has also been acknowledged that the work must be sustained in light of changing contexts and ways of interacting. The mentoring process in a teaching context for example, a greater cognisance of factors (positive or negative impact) on the mentoring process has emerged. Some of these factors have been identified as the multiple needs of new and experienced mentees and mentors; developmental factors, issues or concerns to do with a mentee's repertoire of teaching (or other) skills; and, an institution's culture (Portner, 2008).

Mentoring functions

Often called mentoring roles or behaviours, mentoring functions are considered to be those aspects of a mentoring relationship that involve the interaction of the mentor's and mentee's personal, psychological and professional skills (Hudson, 2016). Generally considered to be about enhancing the mentee's and the mentor's professional growth, Cole and Griffin (2008) state the term emerged from Kram's (1983) endeavour to unite the recurring themes of the mentoring relationships that were identified in her study about informal mentoring relationships among 22 educated North American participants. While Kram (1985) later conceded that arriving at the still contestable term was challenging, her work on mentoring functions was considered ground-breaking at the time (Cole & Griffin, 2008), with two primary functions identified: providing psycho-social support that included role modelling; and, offering career or instrumental support that involved skill development (Kram, 1983).

It was argued that career functions emerge first because they develop from the mentor's experience (and occasionally their status) because the mentor initially facilitates the relationship (Noe, 1988; Kram, 1983, 1985; Parise & Forrest, 2008; Ragins & McFarlin, 1990). Related to what Cole and Griffin (2013 as cited in Paulsen, 2013) have termed 'professional socialisation', Ehrich et al. (2000) have highlighted that the career functions comprise "sponsorship, coaching, protection, exposure, visibility and challenging work assignments" (p. 1). The psycho-social functions reflect the quality of the relationship. Grounded on trust and mutuality, they can include role modeling, observation and advice (Kram, 1985), counselling, friendship, and feedback (Cole & Griffin, 2013 as cited in Paulsen, 2013). These functions are intended to enhance a

mentee's "sense of competence, effectiveness and clarity of identity" (Head et al., 1992, p. 15).

Along with the four phases that emerged from Kram's (1983, 1985) observations of mentoring relationships, Daloz's (1986, 2012) later thinking about the critical nature of the mentoring relationship was underpinned by adult learning and developmental learning theories. From Daloz's (1986, 2012) perspective, the mentoring of higher education students provided a central premise that could be extrapolated to other education settings and contexts. Further examples can be found in Gray's (1998) five phases: *prescriptive, persuasive, collaborative, confirmative, successful* and Zachary's (2000) four phases: *prepare, negotiate, enable, close*. And unlike Kram's phases which indicate 'endings', Clutterbuck and Lane (2004) have pointed out that their four-stage model: "*establishing rapport, direction-setting, progress-making* and *moving on"* (p. 179) has led to a more positive, pragmatic, adaptive, and flexible approach. Of note too, Mertz' (2004) conceptual model of mentoring (a deliberate modification of Kram's functions of mentoring) was designed to distinguish mentoring from other kinds of helping relationships. The concepts of intent and involvement became variables for distinguishing and categorising "the bewildering array of relationships and roles referred to as mentoring" (Mertz, 2004, p. 541).

The inherent danger of over-emphasising mentoring functions has been alluded to by several authors. Attention has been drawn by Head et al., (1992) for instance, to different types of mentors - peer mentors, networking mentors, collegial mentors and so on. True mentoring, they have argued, is not a "piecemeal assortment of activities or behaviors" and that mentoring is more than "fulfilling mentoring functions in someone's life" (p. 17). What has been made clear in the literature is that different types of mentoring might be better suited to support particular mentoring functions. Where peer mentoring might advance psychosocial functions, supervisory mentoring might advance career functions (Ensher, Thomas, & Murphy, 2001); and a type of mentoring involving multiple mentors could require a broader set of mentoring functions than a one mentor-one mentee type (Baugh & Scandura, 1999; Burlew, 1991; Nolinske, 1995).

In a recent critique Barber (2015) acknowledged that Kram's work had "spawned a vast array of mentoring research but she also challenged the assumption that more functions equate to a more effective. For the mentoring relationship to be effective, dynamic and

reciprocal both Barber (2015) and Clutterbuck (2015) have argued that the functions for the mentor and mentee should be equally relevant rather than focused on the mentor's role and actions. Notably, Clutterbuck (2015) referred to the scarceness of studies that have explored this aspect of mentoring and commented that while "it's not time yet to bury mentoring functions" … "it probably is time to move on" (para. 9).

Having said that, the creation of a further educative functions category has emphasised the 'learning with' functions of mentoring (Langdon & Ward, 2015; Stanulis & Brondyk, 2013). A main purpose was to provide opportunities for mentors and mentees to work collaboratively on genuine issues; to develop and improve their practice; and, to facilitate professional learning for the mentee and mentor (Langdon & Ward, 2015). Educative functions (or educative mentoring) have become central to mentoring research and practice in a number of educational contexts, particularly where teaching and mentoring are viewed as collaborative, reflective and inquiry-focused developmental approaches (e.g. Langdon & Ward, 2015; McDonald & Flint, 2011; Stanulis & Brondyk, 2013; Whatman, 2018).

In the higher education context, Dorner, Misic, and Rymarenko (2020) have suggested mentoring functions can be synthesised into three broad areas: educational development, professional development, and psycho-social development. The focus of educational development could for example, be on academic programme planning and formal and informal teaching/learning moments. Professional development could offer different perspectives about the unique elements of higher education and provide resources for research and professional learning. Psycho-social development could offer while emotional and social support for academic, professional, and personal advancement. By paying attention to these functions through faculty mentoring programmes it was argued, feelings of isolation could be reduced, confidence, professional growth and research productivity increased, and the capacity to self-reflect and problem solve enhanced (Dorner et al., 2020).

Role of the mentor

Guiding the development of new colleagues can be a powerful motivator for a mentor. Mentors almost always benefit from the mentoring relationship (Harper & Sawicka, 2001). This is particularly evident in the opportunities that arise for mentors to reflect

on their own practice, performance and career direction by sharing ideas and supporting others (Palmer, 1998; Woodd, 1997). Notably though, in the adult learning and career fields, the benefits of the mentoring relationship for the personal and professional development of both parties have been promoted.

While Rix and Gold (1999) have argued that a specific focus on roles is not particularly helpful and that identifying specific attributes, "competencies and skills" (p. 2) can lead to a limited understanding of the mentoring relationship process, certain attributes have been deemed important for a mentor (Petersen & Walke, 2012). Often presented as lists (Clutterbuck, 2014; Hezlett, 2005; Milton, 2004), this was the case in Petersen and Walke's study (2012) about the implementation of a mentoring model for teachers in a higher education context. In the mentees' lists the mentor's history of teaching, their history within the organisation, and their professional identity were highly valued. Mentees also noted the value of having a "teacher trained person" (p. 19) able to assist with resources and share their own experiences.

A mentor may have one role or take on more than one (Kram, 1985; Ragins, Cotton, & Miller, 2000). An example can be found in teaching contexts where mentors are most often considered growth and change agents. Their 'jobs' are to help mentees recognise and build their capacity to be an effective teacher, problem-solver and decision-maker (Zachary, 2002). Zachary (2012) further purported that a mentor's key roles are to create a learning partnership in which they support mentees to: identify, focus on and review their learning goals; use a variety of methods and resources to achieve the goals; and facilitate the mentee's learning experience. As Ragins and Cotton (1999) have pointed out, "… mentoring is not considered an all-or-nothing enterprise; a mentor may fulfill only one role or take on many roles…" (p. 529).

Role of the mentee

There is little literature about the mentee's role in a mentoring relationship that does not point to the role being a learning one in the context of the mentoring relationship (Hezlett, 2005), which itself has come to be understood as about learning (Hudson, 2016; Zachary, 2000). There has long been a consensus that the point of mentoring is to assist the mentee in their professional development but it is only in recent times that the role of the mentee has come to the fore.

Largely evidenced on websites similar to the kinds of lists attributed to the role of the mentor by Clutterbuck(2014), lists of mentee attributes would likely prove a pragmatic starting point for developing a greater understanding of the role of the mentee and prompt new research. Those that do exist articulate that mentees should bring to the relationship a willingness to be mentored, and a receptiveness to learning. One such example can be found on the website of the University of Western Illinois where mentees are advised they must have certain attributes for successful mentoring to occur: "project a positive attitude; show an interest in the work to be done; exhibit a willingness and desire to work hard; be flexible; be mature; be responsive to the request of the mentor; be committed; be positive; keep an open mind; maintain a sense of humour; and, take the initiative. Another example can been located on the website of the American Speech-Language-Hearing Association (ASHA). Within the context of their learning role ASHA has indicated that the mentee should be the driver of the relationship. As such, the mentee has an integral role as a "development planner … resource partner … teacher … continuous learner … ."

The attributes listed on these and other websites align with what Zachary (2002) and Zachary and Fischler (2009) have to say about the role of the mentee. They have identified elements of the mentee's role as: communicating goals and aspirations to their mentor; raising new topics with and giving feedback to their mentor; developing and maintaining an mentoring action plan with their mentor; being a learning resource partner; and sometimes being a teacher by sharing information with their mentor. They argue for empowering the mentee through the thoughtful, reflective, constructivist and facilitative approach of a well prepared and knowledgeable mentor. In a qualitative study about forming the mentor-mentee relationship, Hudson (2016) proposed a reciprocal model in which the mentee also provides feedback to the mentor on their practice. It is therefore, important to pay attention to a mentee's professional identity given its influence on role modelling in the mentoring relationship, and capacity to shape mentoring learning outcomes (Weinberg, 2019).

Mentoring: A professional development approach

Mentoring has been acknowledged in the literature and by practitioners as a robust approach for teachers' professional development, especially when positioned as a learning approach. Through mentoring, teachers have been able to enhance their

professional growth and be more able to conceptualise their own teacher development (Feiman -Nemser, 2001; Huling & Resta, 2001). Mentors also benefit from their mentoring of others (LaFleur & White, 2010; Ragins & Scandura, 1999; Johnson, 2016).

It has been argued that when mentoring, "learning only occurs when events are interrogated through critical reflection or discussion" (Ghaye & Ghaye, 1998, p. 86). When deliberately grounded on the theories and principles of learning, mentoring becomes a learning relationship (Garvey, Stokes, & Megginson, 2018) in which its "structures and phases contribute to learning in both formal and informal settings" (Zachary, 2000, p. 4). Further to this, Feiman-Nemser (2001) has contended that mentors need to be 'reformers' if they are to help mentees "learn the ways of thinking and acting associated with new kinds of teaching" (p. 3); thus, mentors must be willing to collaborate and explore new approaches.

A number of authors in the field contend that teacher mentoring has 'come of age' in education contexts, and that evidence of a mentoring 'maturity' has emerged (Gallo, 2011; Portner, 2008). The characteristics that differentiate it from other learning relationships have also been described (Eby et al., 2007). Although Clutterbuck (2014) has argued there is some way to go, over the last two decades the research into how teachers learn has emphasised that a mentoring approach can help teachers develop an understanding of their learning and teaching beliefs, the theories that underpin their practice and the practices themselves. Consequently, it has been claimed that the best way to support and guide the professional learning of teachers is through the introduction of mentoring as both a learning system and a learning resource (Coombs & Fletcher, 2005).

When conceptualised as 'learning from and learning with' in professional development settings, effective mentoring can result in teachers shaping the direction and format of their own professional development (Lofthouse, 2018; MacLennan, 1995; Mayer & Austin, 1999). Teachers are then more likely to experience greater satisfaction from their teaching earlier in their careers. Although it has been pointed out that to "… unleash the power of mentoring as a means of professional development" (Koki, 2012, p. 3), teachers must pay good attention to its complexity (Bresnahan, 2011; Huling-Austin, 1990). Mentoring can therefore encourage and motivate teachers to shape and

own the direction of their professional development (Bey & Holmes, 1992; Brookfield, 1993; Mayer & Austin, 1999; Zachary, 2000). It can also effectively support teachers to develop their teaching and reflective practice through structured opportunities (O'Connor & Ertmer, 2006) that help them to "unravel their preconceptions and examine the impact of these on their developing practice, helping them to refine or amend their perspective as appropriate" (Hawkey, 1997, p. 4).

A consequence of mentoring being about learning and being a learning relationship therefore, is that the mentor and the mentee must be willing to reflect on "responsive ways of going on" (Rix & Gold, 1999, p. 1). Svensson (1990) has stressed that when this does not occur, there is a tendency for the mentor to concentrate more on solutions than on the "formulation of the problems" (p. 62). This was also evident in Cox's (2000) study which sought an understanding of the "impact of biographical and motivational factors on perceived success in mentoring relationships" (p. 403) by drawing on theories of "volunteer motivation, documentary evidence and interview data" (p. 403). One specific finding was that rather than reflecting on specific situations presented by their mentees, new mentors used their "previous knowledge (their repertoire of previous experience, views and beliefs, understanding, successful or unsuccessful actions, culture, education etc.)" (p. 11) to deal with them. This resulted in them reporting "less 'meaningful change' or learning" (p. 11), while experienced mentors were less concerned with their own reactions.

While mentoring is often considered being someone with more experience and expertise providing support and advice to someone with less experience (Megginson & Clutterbuck, 2005), over time it is intended for it to become a shared experience. To be most effective it has been argued, mentoring needs to be a learning partnership involving collaboration, opportunities for challenge, and ongoing reflection (Berki, 2005).

Mentoring: Teacher professional development in higher education

Mentoring has been employed in education contexts for over three decades to support teacher development and latterly in higher education. While the concept of mentoring is familiar to most, it has been argued that in universities because of the relative 'newness' of mentoring it has yet to become well understood (Christie, 2014; Knippelmeyer &

Torraco, 2007). Even so, amid various contentions that little is known about academic mentoring in higher education, evidence-based research and literature have emerged and continue to do so (e.g. Bland et al., 2009; Laverick, 2016; Woolhouse & Nicholson, 2020).

With a growing literature about higher education teaching, mentoring as an approach that can assist with the development of teachers' pedagogy and practice has also increased (Bullock, 2009; Petersen & Walke, 2012; Robertson-Welsh et al., 2009). While Knippelmeyer and Torraco (2007) assert a "conundrum still remains about the 'best' form of mentoring" (p. 7), they also assert that formal mentoring programmes in higher education institutions have the potential to offer mutual benefits for the mentro and the mentee, and the institution. While this potential may not always be achieved for a number of reasons (Hezlett & Gibson, 2005), the literature has indicated there are considerable advantages in attaching greater weight to mentoring in order to improve the quality and effectiveness of teaching, and to promote the scholarship of teaching in higher education.

The still relatively small body of research has confirmed the significant impact that mentoring and a high quality mentoring relationship can have on higher education teachers' understanding of teaching (e.g. Arnesson & Albinsson, 2018; Berki, 2005; Petersen & Walker, 2012; Simpson et al., 2005; Woodd, 1997). Just as there are differing views about concepts of mentoring, definitions and the mentoring relationship, so too are there differing views about whether mentoring can provide long-lasting results. Taking this into account, a number of authors caution that mentoring should not be considered a comprehensive approach for higher education teachers' development, nor should it be the predominant professional development approach (Ayo & Fraser, 2008; Herman & Mandell, 2004; Hezlett, 2005). Learning focused mentoring, especially when informal does, however, align with current knowledge about and practice in adult learning contexts. On this point, Zemke and Zemke (1995) have posited that informal mentoring can meet the needs of learners/mentees who want ownership of learning in which they can draw on prior knowledge and experience; is oriented toward solving problems; and, enables them to directly and immediately apply their learning.

Studies about mentoring in higher education

More frequently, mentoring has been promoted as a valuable approach to assist with the development of teachers' pedagogical practice in higher education (Hénard & Roseveare, 2012; Johnson, Becker, Cummins, Estrada, Freeman, & Hall, 2016). Several New Zealand studies have also attested to mentoring as a sound and interactive approach that can support new and experienced higher education teachers (e.g. Petersen & Walke, 2012; Simpson et al., 2005). It has become clear that mentoring can assist in the development of higher education teachers' overall conceptual understanding and knowledge of their pedagogical practice, thereby enriching the teaching of their discipline and importantly their students' learning (Carbone, Conway, & Farr, 1996). Moreover, when viewed as an effective, adaptable, flexible, and practical approach for supporting professional and personal learning, growth and change (Bland et al., 2009), mentoring can support teachers to put their experiences into perspective and reflect on their academic environment and culture (Malderez & Wedell, 2007).

For mentoring to be employed and sustained to support teacher development in higher education, having an understanding and knowledge of mentoring are crucial (Laverick, 2016; Woolhouse & Nicholson, 2021). Such a viewpoint has been supported by studies that have examined the implementation of mentoring approaches in higher education. Some of these studies have provided important insights into mentoring beliefs and practices and their implications for the mentoring relationship (e.g. Bresnahan, 2011; Harper & Sawicka, 2001; O'Connor & Ertmer, 2006; Petersen & Walke, 2012). Others have highlighted the multidimensionality and complexity of mentoring. For example, in their examination of the experiences of mentoring in the development of an online course for Indian teacher education faculty development, DeWaard, Chavhan, Nathibal, and Thackersy (2020) drew from mentor/protégé conversations and reflections to describe how mentorship can develop digital competencies that are foundational for transferring tacit knowledge about aspects of teaching and learning. In particular, they found that when explicit knowledge-building for professional learning occurred within a supportive mentoring relationship there was a greater level of engagement by the participants.

The literature has emphasised that mentoring is effective for academics' induction, career advancement and development as researchers and teachers, and for increasing their confidence and skills (Pinnegar, 1995; Simpson, Cockburn-Wootten, & Spiller,

2005). But until relatively recently, mentoring was mainly used as a career development approach in higher education (Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz, & Lima, 2004; Merriam; Bland, Taylor, Shollen, Weber-Main, & Mulcahy, 2009; Gibson, 2004). With universities increasingly developing and offering a variety of formal and informal mentoring programmes to support teaching development, it has been emphasised that higher education teachers have access to mentoring to develop their capacity for teaching, research and leadership (August & Waltman, 2004; Erickson & Treviick-Jackson, 2006; Olsen, Maple, & Stage, 1995; Petersen & Walke, 2012).

Although mentoring relationships exist in universities, Knipplemeyer and Torraco (2009) have claimed there are few mentoring programmes. In light of that assertion and the findings in their literature review about mentoring as a developmental tool for higher education, Knippelmeyer and Torraco (2009) have drawn on Marsick and Watkins' model of learning and propose a model of mentoring in higher education. Their suggestion that informal and incidental learning be "intentionally employed" (para. 3) rather than develop formal mentoring programmes would appear to be well suited to mentoring in higher education.

Supporting the development of higher education teachers' pedagogical practice

Education sectors' mentoring programmes have long been recognised as a means to support (and retain) new and experienced teachers (Ingersoll & Strong, 2011). While a more recent phenomenon in higher education, mentoring has been identified to be well suited to the professional development of higher education teachers' pedagogical practice. Growing empirical and largely qualitative research supports mentoring as a meaningful and effective professional development approach to help higher education teachers develop and refine their practice (Berki, 2005; Petersen & Walke, 2012; Viskovic, 2006). The research supports mentoring (especially when structured and regular) as an approach that can provide higher education teachers with opportunities to talk about and reflect on their teaching experiences, and improve and enhance their pedagogy and practice.

Although Franey (2015) commented that individualising professional development can provide the "greatest opportunity for the learning that takes place to make a difference in the lives of the learner" (p. 2), a number of studies have found that collaborative and

collegial approaches to mentoring in higher education proved effective. For instance, Cordie et al. (2020) have suggested employing co-teaching to frame a mentoring model (2020) designed to expand and elevate higher education teachers' skills and scholarship in collaborative ways. Learning through co-teaching they asserted, would "enhance mentoring relationships, produce better faculty, enrich experiences for students, and empower all to become more effective and self-directed learners in the 21st century" (p. 149). Arnesson and Albinsson (2017) for example, corroborate Merriam and Caffarella's (1991) belief that collaborative, mutually respectful relationships based on adult learning principles can be created. Others writing and researching in the field have further asserted that teaching scholarship (see the previous section on this topic) could include mentoring that is located in the domain of the Scholarship of Teaching, and the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (SoTL) (Kreber, 2007; Trask, Marotz-Baden, Settles, Gentry, & Berke, 2009).

A number of studies are indicative of the increasing recognition of mentoring as a comprehensive (although not sole) approach for the continued professional development of higher education teachers. Petersen and Walke's (2012) pilot study of a mentoring programme was implemented with 24 academics at the Universal College of Learning (UCOL). Changes in teachers' "learner-centered teaching approaches, increased reflective practice and the development of a leadership capability framework …" (p. 4) provided evidence that mentoring was a practice that could effectively support higher education teachers' professional development. An earlier example can be found in the findings about a pilot-mentoring scheme implemented at Victoria University to address some of the challenges faced by female academics (not just with their teaching) (Harper & Sawicka, 2001). An investigation of the scheme showed that the structured mentoring programme offered genuine benefits for the women and the university. Similar findings have been reported by Robertson-Welsh (2009). At the conclusion of their Ako Aotearoa project to support higher education teachers to develop self-reflective practice and ultimately enhance their longer-term teacher development, the participants were paired as 'teaching champs' with new higher education teachers.

A recent study used an inductive analysis method to explore how online mentoring supports new academics in their development as higher education teachers. Analysed were teachers' perceptions of what was intended to be a transformative experience in

their respective professional contexts, and how an online setting could provide an effective context for their mentoring experience (Dorner et al., 2020). It was expected that the mentees' conceptualisations of the mentoring process and the role of the mentor would be diverse but they also perceived the 'transformative potential' of the relationship in different ways. This led to the identification of a range of phases for professional development in an online mentoring programme and for a model of transformative experiences to evolve.

These and other studies demonstrate the mentoring's capacity to support, develop and consolidate teachers' learning about teaching. Moreover, they emphasise that mentoring can offer opportunities for mentors and mentees to actively engage in collaborative and collegial learning (Bresnahan, 2011; Jones, 2012; Robinson, Horan, & Nanavati, 2009) and that mentoring can be a professional learning experience for both the mentor and mentee (Kahle-Piasecki, 2011).

To illustrate, several examples of mentoring programmes in practice can be found in the New Zealand context. Waikato University has drawn on the "principles of adult learning and collaborative inquiry" (Spiller, 2011, p. 2) to provide a theoretical underpinning for a mentoring programme for all academic staff to participate in. In addition, regular opportunities have been established for university teachers to meet and contribute to professional discussions around aspects of pedagogical practice. These opportunities occur through the regular activities of a well-established teaching network and the university's annual (and free) teaching conference. Auckland University supports several formal mentoring programmes with mentoring for teaching development among them. Notably, a resource has been compiled with guidelines and resources to assist with both mentoring and coaching practice (Auckland University, 2014). At Massey University, academics have been encouraged to develop their own network of mentoring circles to learn about different approaches to teaching and learning (Massey University, 2014). Although varied in nature, each has encapsulated the concept of mentoring as being, "someone to learn from, and someone to learn with" (MacLennan, 1995, p. 2).

Important to the mentoring discourse is the concept of cross-cultural mentoring. This is an important consideration in the higher education setting where ethnic diversity must

be addressed in the development of formal mentoring programmes and the provision of informal mentoring.

Cross cultural mentoring

When considered in the context of mentoring, Zachary (2012a) has pointed out that because cross cultural understandings frame how we see the world and how act within it, the way people express themselves is influenced. Additionally, how the word mentor is defined and understood varies from culture to culture matters. The latter is an important consideration also raised by Clutterbuck (2014) who has commented on the varied understandings that can alter the essence of the mentoring relationship. This is evident in Ragins and Kram's (2007) point to the theories of Hofstede (1991 as cited in Ragins & Kram, 2007) and Trompenaars (1993 as cited in Ragins & Kram, 2007) in relation to cultural difference. They have proposed two cultural dimensions as most relevant. The first is Hofstede's power distance (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010), which can affect a mentee's willingness to challenge and acknowledge limitations. A difficult dimension to address, Mezias and Scandura (2005) have suggested employing a variety of strategies. One of those suggested is the implementation of a mentoring style and structure that is in alignment with the mentee's 'home' culture. Second, the culturally adaptable approach begins by developing a broad understanding of mentoring and its purpose. Within a core programme, resources are then made available that are relevant to each mentee's cultural context. While susceptible to a loss of momentum should a lead person move on, a core strength of this dimension is that it "encourages local buy-in" (Ragins & Kram, 2007, p. 648). These approaches reflect Zachary's (2012a) conception of being culturally attuned. It means being able to read the culture of a mentee, understanding what is happening and what is expected through the context. Further affirmed by Clutterbuck (2014), he opined that the mentor and mentee must collaboratively develop an approach for working together. Even with knowledge, evidence and advice about cross cultural approaches to mentoring, he also cautioned that "individual approaches are rarely clear-cut or typical" (p. 122).

A number of authors have asserted that institutions and individuals must examine and identify their cultural assumptions to be able to develop specific strategies for mentoring in multicultural contexts (e.g. Gonzales Rodriquez, 1995; Ragins & Kram, 2007; Zachary, 2012). In their examination of transcultural mentoring (and coaching),

Brockbank and McGill (2012), also raise the topic of cultural assumptions. They point to Rosinski's (2003) assertion that because cross cultural mentoring and coaching challenges our assumptions, it "propels you beyond your previous limitations to discover creative solutions that lie outside the box" (as cited in Brockbank & McGill, 2012, p. 84).

In the New Zealand context rather than the global one on which the above authors are focused, Kensington-Miller and Ratima (2015) describe a peer-mentoring model, piloted in 2009 at Auckland University, as a professional development programme to bring an indigenous minority group of tertiary staff together. All of the participants were Māori. Implementation of the model also gave an insight into cultural mentoring at work. The model provided Māori staff with an opportunity to "work with other Māori in a context where their culture was the norm with regard to language, spirituality, humour, and whakawhanaungatanga (togetherness)" (p. 813). Notably, the findings aligned with the wider knowledge and understandings attributed to the importance of taking account of culture in mentoring contexts. Importantly, the authors have signalled that this model for professional development would be "applicable to other indigenous minority groups, by adopting a similar approach and adapting the model to the specific cultural practices of the group" (p. 813). Further, in their research, Baice, Lealaiauloto, Meiklejohn-Whiu, Fonua, Allen, Matapo, Iosefo, and Fa'avae (2020) explored multi-cultural perspectives utilising the methodological framework of talanoa[5]. They drew on indigenous concepts and frameworks to foreground Pacific language and ideas that are central to their worldviews. Importantly, it validated the "lived realities of Pacific peoples in higher education" (p. 75). They shared their stories, experiences and efforts to identify transformative solutions that would support early career Pacific academics. The Mentoring Oceanic Academics Navigating Academia in education network was the

[5] "A generic term referring to a conversation, chat, sharing of ideas and talking with someone. It is a term that is shared by Tongans, Samoans, and Fijians … is used for different purposes; to teach a skill, to share ideas, to preach, to resolve problems, to build and maintain relationships, and to gather information" (Kakala Research Framework, Seu'ula Johansson Fua, https://talanoa.com.au/about-talanoa/).

result. Located in Auckland University's Faculty of Education and Social Work it has become a "way to mobilise, collectivise, mentor, nurture, and empower the next generation of Pacific/Pasifika academics" (p. 75). Clutterbuck (2014) would view this collective and collaborative approach to mentoring to be strengths based and importantly owned by those who voices should be to the fore in the mentoring and the mentoring relationship. Additionally, Garvey, Stokes, and Megginson (2014) would add that working with one's own collectivist culture is more likely to engender "strong-tie 'kinship' relationships" (p. 247) even though the participants are not related to each other.

Cross cultural mentoring and culturally focused mentoring requires a great deal of forethought. Appreciation of local and regional cultures is critical to be able to engage in mentoring that has cultural diversity as one of its core elements.

Implementing mentoring

For mentoring to be employed by universities to guide and stimulate the development of higher education teachers, mentoring needs to be committed to; research informed; intentionally planned for; and, implemented through appropriate and relevant strategies and programmes (Petersen & Walke, 2012). In light of this, universities need strong theory-informed and practice-oriented foundations for mentoring (Kahle-Piasecki, 2011). The benefits, barriers to implementation, and means for successful implementation in higher education institutions have been explored by Knippelmeyer and Torraco (2007). When preparing for the implementation of mentoring programmes they have asserted that an institution's culture must first be examined. Furthermore, because mentoring "revolves much around life experiences" (p. 5) they have emphasised that theories of learning are useful for the conceptualisation of mentoring programmes prior to implementation. Also recommended to ensure successful implementation of mentoring models and programmes was that all participants engage in professional development to learn how to mentor, be a mentor and/or a mentee (Cox, 2000).

It has been established that academics are more likely to seek support when mentoring programmes in their universities are considered important by higher education leaders (Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz, & Lima, 2004; Bland, Weber-Main, Lund, & Finstad, 2005;

Wilson, Valentine, & Pereira, 2002). In addition, when mentoring programmes are instituted by a university (especially formal programmes) it has been shown that the mentor and mentee are more willing to take responsibility for initiating, maintaining, sustaining, and even ending the relationship (Scandura & Pellegrini, 2007). In this way, not only are there benefits for the ongoing professional development of the mentor and mentee, the university's goals are supported (Cranwell-Ward, Bossons, & Gover, 2004).

Ways of thinking about mentoring in higher education

Within or parallel to mentoring, approaches (informal and formal) that can strengthen and enhance teachers' professional learning and development have been documented (Bell, 2011). Professional learning communities, collaborative research and coaching are some of those proven to be effective. Sometimes referred to as 'approaches within an approach' (Timperley, Barrar, Wilson, & Fung, 2008), they are considered well suited for the university setting. A professional learning community for example, can implement a variety of methods based on the contexts and experiences of the participants over extended periods (Eaker, DuFour, & DuFour, 2004). The establishment of professional learning communities (PLCs) as a means to renew and support teachers is a common recommendation in the professional development literature for teaching in the school sector (e.g. Ferrier-Kerr, Hume, & Keown, 2008/09; Guskey, 1995, 2002; Little, 1994; Timperley, 2008; Timperley et al., 2008).

More recently, specific examples of mentoring higher education teachers in PLCs were presented by Petersen and Walke (2012) and Viskovic (2006) in their respective studies. The former identified PLCs to be ideal for locating mentoring approaches, and the latter suggested that groups such as the university, faculty, department, and teaching team could themselves be learning communities. Each of these examples highlighted that mentoring can help teachers develop their teacher knowledge, teacher identities and enhance teaching effectiveness.

Alternatives to mentoring

Increasingly, the research and literature point to mentoring as a specific professional development approach to support teachers' development (Arnesson & Albinsson, 2017; Woolhouse & Nicholson, 2021), although alternative forms of mentoring for

professional development have also been argued for. Mullen commented (2005 as cited in Mullen, 2016) for example, that alternative mentoring "allows for unveiling burdens of power and authority … opening up topics that are otherwise unquestioned in traditional mentoring" (p. 132). Rather than detract from mentoring therefore, the examples of alternatives to mentoring that follow contribute to the evidence that mentoring is an effective professional development approach in higher education. Ayo and Fraser (2008) have argued it has often been assumed that higher education teachers are able to collectively and individually support one another's teaching development through mentoring. Their observations and conversations revealed, however, that mentoring impacted negatively upon teachers' development when it was less about learning to teach and more about 'how we do things around here'. They noticed implications for "programme delivery, succession planning and organisational direction" (Ayo & Fraser, 2008, p. 57). 'Alternative collegial relationships' were suggested and claimed to be better suited to teacher development. Advocating for a *Four Constructs* model, these researchers have sought to develop a shared understanding of the constructs of collegial relationships and their enhancement through the synthesis of the "range of modern conceptualisations of how collegial relationships (like mentoring) can function in an institution" (p. 57).

Another study about academics' perceptions of the impact of mentoring upon their teaching practice found that the most significant impact was their participation in a Continuous Professional Development (CPD) teacher accreditation programme (Botham, 2018). While not suggesting an alternative specifically, even though mentoring emerged as an approach teachers could utilise, it was the continuous nature of their learning that became the most significant. Notable too, was the participants' willingness to lead and mentor their colleagues for their teaching, learning and personal development as they became more confident and knowledgeable about 'good' teaching. 'Alternative mentoring types' that are intended to push beyond traditional mentoring models have also been described by Mullen (2016). The proposed eight "expanded and transformative forms" it has been argued have the potential to "diversify, enrich, and improve relationships, environments, and systems" (p. 132).

Mentoring, whatever its form, should have the potential to empower the mentee to take responsibility for their teaching development. It should promote and nurture problem-

solving, reflection, and critical and creative thinking (Portner, 2008). As implied by Mullen (2016), those practicing and researching in the field should be looking more at mentoring approaches that are learning focused, collaborative, cultural, and inquiry oriented.

Inquiry approach to mentoring

There is limited literature and research into mentoring as an inquiry approach for teacher development. It would appear the literature that does exist has been closely aligned with the broader literature about inquiry teaching. This has not proved problematic, rather it could be argued it has added to the robustness of an evolving literature and field of research. An inquiry mentoring approach for teacher development has been described as having the potential to be a powerful growth experience for both the mentor and mentee (Awaya, McEwan, Heyler, Linsky, Lum, & Wakukawa, 2003).

When positioned, conceptualised and practiced as inquiry, mentoring can effectively draw on the authentic prior experience and knowledge brought to it by the mentor and the mentee (Awaya, McEwan, Heyler, Linsky, Lum, & Wakuawa, 2003). Further to this, when mentors and mentees are encouraged to apply the principles of inquiry to their teaching practice, inquiry mentoring can provide a lens to help mentors and mentees develop a greater awareness of and ability to express their teacher beliefs, assumptions and practices can (Yendol-Hoppey & Dana, 2007). Mentoring as inquiry therefore, has the potential to contribute to the deepening of the mentoring experience for all participants. When both the mentor and the mentee engage as analytical, experiential learners who can use a range of critical thinking approaches, their learning, reflection and action are well supported by the inquiry mentoring approach and process (Bey & Holmes, 1992; Gudwin & Salazar-Wallace, 2010). Moreover, being learners in the process they too must engage in the inquiry process whilst putting the mentee at the center of what Melville and Bartley (2010) have referred to as an active learning process.

In support of an inquiry mentoring approach, Cox (2000) has referred to it as a learning conversation and a kind of meta-learning. Emphasising that the mentor's and mentee's reflection in and on what they have learned, including reflection on the mentoring process, are constructivist and co-constructivist in nature Cox (2000) and others have

pointed to reflection being a critical element of the inquiry and reflective process (Carnell, McDonald, & Askew, 2006; Pask & Joy, 2007; Zachary, 2012).

An inquiry approach to mentoring appears to have the potential to offer significant opportunities for higher education teachers' to expand their understanding and knowledge of their pedagogical practice (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2001; Zeichner, 2003), and to be a critical strategy for its enhancement (Wang, 2001).

Conclusion

Increasing accountabilities in higher education teaching have led to significant pressures for higher education teachers (Biggs & Tang, 2011; Light et al., 2009) with the promotion and pursuit of quality and excellence by universities playing a part in this (Gibbs et al., 2000). Even so, many higher education teachers have developed a greater commitment to teaching because they choose to and are drawn to becoming effective teachers. Light et al. (2009) have perhaps captured this best, positing that the "shift towards professionalism in teaching and learning is a natural manifestation of the discourse of excellence" (p. 8). Certainly there is ample evidence that higher education teachers are becoming increasingly enthusiastic and committed to the development of their pedagogical practice. Moreover, while their agendas may differ universities are more frequently supporting them in their endeavours.

The literature and research point to mentoring as being a robust approach to support academics to become effective teachers and researchers (Johnson, 2015; Zellers, Howard, & Barcic, 2008). It has been suggested in the literature that when higher education teachers engage in mentoring, they become more able to articulate, review and adapt their teaching practice. And with the complexities of adult learning now more recognised in higher education, mentoring has been identified as an approach that can support theory and practice building for both teaching and mentoring.

When conceptualised, theorised and positioned as learning, mentoring can support the development of higher education teachers' practice (e.g. Awaya et al., 2003; Colley, 2003; Knippelmeyer & Torraco, 2007; Petersen & Walke, 2012; Rix & Gold, 2000; Wang, 2001). For this concept of mentoring, a variety of approaches can be employed to nurture teachers' professional development. Further, if implemented as an inquiry

approach, mentoring can be more closely aligned with and informed by adult learning theories (Yendol-Hoppey & Dana, 2007).

In the next chapter the methodology and methods used in the research to answer the central research and two sub-questions are outlined.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

Higher education teachers not only hold different conceptions of and beliefs about teaching, but different ideas about the nature of knowledge. Professional learning is, therefore, integral to the ongoing development, improvement and enhancement of all teachers' pedagogy and practice to develop their knowledge and understanding of higher education teaching. In the higher education teaching context, the discourse that has emerged over more than three decades identifies different kinds of professional development as being effective for higher education teachers to develop, improve and enhance their pedagogy and practice.

A number of strategies and approaches are deemed well suited to the professional learning and development of higher education teachers. They comprise communities of learning, study towards a formal teaching qualification, professional seminars and workshops, conferences, coaching and mentoring. Mentoring is also a professional development approach proven to be particularly effective when employed to develop, improve and enhance higher education teachers' pedagogy and practice. In this context, purposeful mentoring incorporates strategies pertinent to teachers' learning that encourage self-directed learning and critical reflection that can lead to transformative learning.

This study aimed to investigate the formal and informal mentoring experiences of seven higher education teachers with a specific focus on the influence of mentoring on the development of their teaching pedagogy and practice. The multiple discourses of higher education and the interplay of these with the contextual factors that influence each participant in their academic work resulted in the telling of seven diverse stories. Individually and collectively these stories offer insights into the participants' experiences of mentoring and teaching in higher education. Further, they have implications for the provision of professional learning opportunities for the development of higher education teaching.

Underpinning this study was the central research question:

- How have higher education teachers' experiences of being mentored or being a mentor contributed to, and influenced their understanding and development of their pedagogical practice?

The central research question was supported by two sub-questions:

- In what ways do higher education teachers see their espoused beliefs and theories about teaching and learning being lived in their pedagogical practice?
- Are there particular factors that higher education teachers believe have helped them to understand, develop, and enhance their pedagogical practice?

In this chapter information about the research approach is provided. It consists of five sections in which the research methodology and methods are described. The first section briefly revisits and re-establishes the context for this study. In the second section the research is grounded within a constructivist paradigm. In light of this, I position myself with respect to a constructivist epistemology. This is followed in the third section by a rationale and justification for the qualitative constructivist methodology that led to a specific emphasis on an in-depth narrative methodology. The insider nature of the study and elements connected to my researcher reflexivity are examined. Particular attention is paid to my role as a researcher conducting insider research. In the fourth section the research method is described and justified, and the methods for data generation are described and discussed. A description and justification of the data analysis process is offered, and includes an account of the thematic phases of the data analysis (transcription and restorying). The fifth section is a summary of the considerations given to ethics and ethical procedures. Here details about ensuring the quality of the research, the methods used for participant recruitment and the ethical considerations of insider research are presented. A discussion of the methods used to support the trustworthiness and credibility of the study are discussed. Finally, some concluding comments are offered.

Context

This study was conducted in a New Zealand university. The participants and I are academics at the university, and hail from three faculties and five departments. Our

years of experience as academics at the university range from three to twenty years. The participants chose to take part in this study because of an interest in and commitment to their own higher education teaching practice, and their desire to share their experiences of mentoring with regards to their teaching.

It was important to take account of the roles each participant had in the university at the time of the research. While all were clearly enthusiastic and committed to their teaching, they also had research and administration responsibilities and several had leadership roles at a faculty level. Further to this, I had to be cognisant of my insider researcher role and of the wider implications of the insider nature of the study (examined later in this chapter).

Research paradigm

A research paradigm is a collection of assumptions about the nature of reality, the positioning of knowledge, and the types of methods that can be employed to answer the research questions (Guba, 1990). In any research, the ontological and epistemological views of the researcher should be evident in the research paradigm, and in the theoretical framework and methodological underpinnings that provide the foundations for the research. For this study, the research paradigm is viewed as a set of beliefs that will "guide action" (Guba, 1990, p. 17). Such a view has allowed for researcher flexibility and reflexivity in the implementation of a constructivist paradigm.

Constructivist paradigm

In seeking to understand others' experiences (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011), a constructivist researcher relies upon the participants' views, beliefs, perceptions and experiences (Creswell, 2014). Because worldviews offer different beliefs about what can be known and how it can be known, the types of research questions that are asked, the research approach taken, and ultimately, the data collection and analytic methods used are shaped accordingly.The researcher's own background and experiences also come to the fore and the impact of these on the research and vice versa must be recognised and acknowledged. Rather than beginning with a theory therefore, constructivists "generate or inductively develop a theory or pattern of meanings" (Creswell, 2014, p. 9) throughout the research process.

Epistemology

Epistemology refers to the question of 'how can we know?' Influenced by a researcher's ontological viewpoint, epistemological positions can be placed on a continuum. This can range from a positivist worldview that is based on the belief there is an objective reality and a truth to be discovered, to a constructivist worldview where the belief is that multiple or situated realities are constructed in social, cultural, institutional, and historical contexts. Here, knowledge is created through the exploration of beliefs, perceptions, and experiences of the world.

Epistemology therefore reflects the rules that people use for making sense of their world. Concerned with knowledge, its nature and forms, and how it is gained and shared, epistemology implies an "ethical – moral stance towards the world and the self of the researcher" (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000, p. 157). When regarded by researchers as a tool to use in a way specific to their research, they formulate questions like, 'How do I know the world? What is the relationship between the inquirer and the known?' to guide the research design.

Constructivist epistemology

For this study a constructivist epistemological position has been adopted. As a researcher with a constructivist worldview I wanted to explore, capture and interpret the participants' beliefs, perceptions, and experiences with regard to teaching and the impact of mentoring (if any) on the development of their pedagogical practice (Wright, O'Brien, Nimmon, Law, & Mylopoulos, 2016).

In taking this stance the questions: *'How do I know the world? What is the relationship between the researcher and the known?'* were critical for me in developing an in-depth understanding of my researcher role. These two questions motivated me to take account of: my beliefs and assumptions about the topic and the participants (in Chapters one and two I share what I bring to this study as researcher, teacher and mentor); the research context; and the participants' contexts and perspectives (Creswell, 2014). These questions provided me with a guide early in the research process, in particular the decisions that had to be made about methodology and methods, data analysis and interpretation.

For this study constructivism provided an appropriate and robust epistemological framework. Informing my decision along with the philosophical beliefs and assumptions I brought to the study, were the methods for data generation, analysis, and interpretation (Creswell, 2014). Thus, the research design was based on the nature of the research topic, my own personal experiences, the audience for the study and importantly the willingness of the participants to open up about their experiences. Because the study is to do with the ways that higher education teachers have experienced mentoring for the development of their pedagogical practice, an exploration of the influences on that development were critical, and that included the role of mentoring.

The constructivist epistemology for this study is evident in the meaning making that is central to an in-depth narrative interview methodology, the semi-structured in-depth narrative interview research method, and the subsequent restorying approach. This enabled the participants to give meaning to what they had observed and actively experienced (Jonassen, 1991; von Glasersfeld, 1995). Furthermore, given constructivism's concern with the nature of knowledge and how it is constructed (Gergen, 1999), the participants' personal epistemologies (Elby, 2009), that is their beliefs, assumptions and perceptions about the nature of knowledge and the nature of teaching, were important ingredients in the study's epistemological framework.

Researcher beliefs

It was important for me to come to grips with the concept and definition of belief as it pertained to this study, especially in light of the exploration of beliefs in Chapters 3, 5 and 6. It meant I had to identify a meaning of belief and know how it differed from similar constructs (Clandinin & Connelly, 1987). According to Creswell (2014) indicates, when designing a study the researcher must "think through the philosophical worldview [his term for beliefs] and assumptions that they bring to the study, the research design that is related to this worldview, and the specific methods or procedures of research that translate the approach into practice" (p. 5). While Guba (1990) refers to a "basic set of beliefs that guide action" (p. 17), Crotty (1998) uses epistemology (and ontology). In light of the latter, it made sense given that my assumptions and understandings were initially informing the study (Pajares, 1992), that in this section I articulate the nature of beliefs as they pertain to mentoring and teaching. Pointing out that belief systems comprise the stories we tell to ourselves in order to define our

personal sense of reality, Usó-Doménech and Nescolarde-Selva (2016) state, "Every human being has a belief system that they utilize, and it is through this mechanism that we individually, 'make sense' of the world around us" (p.1).

Evolving this study from my beliefs about teaching and mentoring has proved fortuitous in that they largely aligned with the teacher beliefs and mentoring beliefs of the participants. A definition of beliefs I consider could be adopted in light of this study's constructivist epistemology comes from Fessakis and Karakiza's (2011) research, that is "the cognitive structures which help teachers to interpret their experiences and specify their teaching pedagogy and practices" (p. 75). This highlights the importance of teachers being able to interpret their experiences to focus on changing or perhaps discarding their beliefs in light of the knowledge accumulated and practices developed over time.

Theoretical framework

The theoretical framework guiding this study employed a qualitative in-depth narrative interview methodology based on a constructivist paradigm and epistemology. This qualitative research approach allowed for exploring the topic and developing understandings with the participants (Creswell, 2014) as they drew from their experiences and contributed their individual perspectives to form a picture of the group's shared perspectives.

For this study my interpretations were grounded on data generated through in-depth narrative semi-structured interviews and restorying designed to capture each participants' experiences, interpretations of and understandings about mentoring. Because knowledge is personal, contextual and developed through interaction with others, it was critical for the participants to be involved in constructing and co-constructing their individual data during and after each interview and the subsequent restorying. Further, drawing on the constructivist theory of learning enabled me to access the participants' 'know-how' through practice (Cox, 2003). The research process of research involved being responsive to emerging questions from me and the participants. Those who engage in this form of inquiry support a way of looking at research as an inductive style that focuses on individual meaning and interpreting the complexity of situations.

In my researcher role I was conscious of not making assumptions about the issues, topics, challenges and highlights the participants identified in the in-depth narrative interviews. This aligned with my concept of mentoring, which is premised on constructivist learning theory and the principles of adult learning theory. I was aware that there is often a sense of immediacy of application with regards to adult learning (Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 1998), which can relatively quickly lead them to create knowledge through interpretation, understanding and transformation of experience (Kolb, 1984). Because learning is more problem-centered and contextual for adults than it is for children, I was tuned in to the participants becoming reflective on their teaching pedagogy and practice during the interviews.

Research methodology

For the purposes of this study a qualitative in-depth narrative methodology was deemed appropriate for the research. Considered to be as much a perspective on how to approach investigating a research question or problem as it is a methodology, qualitative research lends itself to a constructivist approach and vice versa.

Qualitative researchers seek answers and facilitate participants' answers to questions that emphasise how experience is created and given meaning (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). An advantage of working within a qualitative constructivist paradigm is that it requires the researcher and the participants to develop a relationship in which inquiry is central, and conversation and skilful questioning critical.

In-depth narrative interview methodology

The in-depth narrative interview is intended to generate data on given topics through interviews with individual participants. Its key purpose is to understand the experiences, attitudes, opinions, beliefs, and feelings of the participants on a particular topic or topics. While Mishler (1986) and Elliott (2005) caution that researchers can be inclined to censor stories, withhold stories or interrupt the narrative, when framed by a constructivist epistemology the discourse is jointly constructed by the participant and the researcher and these factors are mitigated.

The quality of the interaction between the researcher and the participant are therefore central to an in-depth narrative interview methodology. Participants are not treated as "epistemologically passive and as mere vessels of answers" (Holstein & Gubrium, 1995, p. 39) rather the researcher should aim to stimulate interpretation of experience. Their role should "be to 'activate narrative production' by 'indicating – even suggesting – narrative positions, resources, orientations, and precedents" (Holstein & Gubrium, 1995, p. 39).

In this study, the in-depth narrative interview methodology facilitated environments for conversation in which interpretation and meaning making occurred. Engaging in this kind of research provided the participants with a platform from which they could talk, story-tell to be able to make meaning of and reflect on their experiences of mentoring, Importantly, it respected the complexity of the topic and the participants' experiences of it (Creswell, 2014).

Researcher credibility

Positioning not just the research but myself within a constructivist epistemology meant that I was informed by my perceptions of being a teacher, mentor and researcher when defining the focus and aims of this study, deciding on the methodology, designing the methods, and accessing the research participants. My own teaching and mentoring experiences, reflected upon in Chapter Two, played a considerable part in this, as did my growing knowledge and understanding of the mentoring and higher education teaching discourses. Crucial too was the recognition of my own philosophical assumptions and beliefs, with regard to the study's epistemology before I settled on the research methodology and the data generation methods. Taking account of my worldview with regard to the study's epistemology, methodology, methods, data generation, data analysis, and interpretation proved critical to the research design (Wright, O'Brien, Nimmon, Law, & Mylopoulos, 2016).

The way I prefer to learn, teach, and mentor are indicative of a worldview that is mainly interpretive and constructivist. Intuition and reflection are very important in my ways of perceiving and understanding the world. Because of this I am accepting of diverse perspectives and am able to draw on a variety of theories and experiences to consider issues, situations, problems and solutions. My concern is not just understanding ideas

but how I can 'make sense of' and apply them in my work. I believe there is no single objective reality, rather there are multiple realities (Erlandson, Harris, Skipper, & Allen, 1993).

Reflexivity

In any qualitative study a researcher must concern themselves with being transparent and reflexive (Fook, 1996; Galdas, 2017; Stevens, 1993). In the design and subsequent conducting of this study I was reflexive with regard to my researcher positioning and the way I engaged in the many aspects of the research process – methodological decision-making, participant selection, data generation, data analysis, and conclusions made (Galdas, 2017). I was intentionally and critically self-reflective about my own beliefs, assumptions and knowledge and importantly, the relationship dynamics in light of the insider nature of the study. An example of my reflexivity was illustrated as I grappled with the generation of data and their subsequent analysis. During what I had considered was a final thematic analysis using the interview transcripts an 'aha moment' occurred. I noticed that while the data were substantial, they did not convey the richness of the participants' stories or my privileged insider insights (discussed in the next section). I recall asking myself "who are these participants? and 'where and what are their stories?" This led to my seeking further ethical approval to contact each participant and gain their consent to write their stories.

Being deliberately reflexive and understanding my positioning in the study led to an increased awareness of the need to be mindful about my privileged position as an insider researcher, and the importance of rigour and trustworthiness in all phases of the research.

Simply stated, reflexivity is the concept that researchers should acknowledge and disclose their selves in their research, seeking to understand their part in it, or influence on it (Cohen et al., 2011). Reflexivity informs positionality. It requires an explicit self-consciousness and self-assessment by the researcher about their views and positions and how these might, may, or have, directly or indirectly influenced the design, execution, and interpretation of the research data findings (Greenbank, 2003, May & Perry, 2017). Reflexivity necessarily requires sensitivity by the researcher to their cultural, political, and social context (Bryman, 2016) because the individual's ethics; personal integrity;

social values; and, their competency influence the research process (Bourke, 2014; Greenbank, 2003).

Reflexivity starts by identifying preconceptions brought into the project by the researcher, representing previous personal and professional experiences, pre-study beliefs about how things are and what is to be investigated, motivation and qualifications for exploration of the field, and perspectives and theoretical foundations related to education and interests.

Being an insider researcher

Most educational researchers are positioned as outsiders when researching aspects of teachers' work. In seeking to generalise knowledge about teaching, teachers are often the subject of research rather than experts with 'hands-on' experience (Johnson & Golombek, 2002). Ethnographic research about teachers' practice has, however, revealed that teachers construct and interpret their own explanations of teaching largely as a result of their own experiences (Clandinin, 1986; Elbaz, 1983; Grossman, 1990; Lampert, 1985). This kind of immersion in and observation of teachers' practice highlighted the importance of being 'close to', if not 'in' mine and the participants' context. It made good sense to conduct this study from an insider perspective. A consequence of *insider research* is the need to be alert to one's presence and stance in the research, to explore the implications of these for the research, and examine how each functioned in the research relationship. This was particularly important given the participants' knowledge of my insider status, and that I shared what Pelias (2018) terms 'cultural membership' with them. Because I had signaled my insider status from the outset, it remained unproblematic throughout the research process. In fact, in all interactions – especially those where I had not previously met the participant - it appeared to provide a foundation for trust, respect and rapport to develop more rapidly than it might otherwise have. There was a recognition of each other's genuine interest in the research topic and a shared commitment to developing a better understanding of it was evident. Moreover, it seemed we were all eager advocates and action-takers with regard to developing teaching pedagogy and practice through mentoring in our higher education setting.

Inevitably my insider status implicated me in the research. This became evident as the interviews became more conversational during the data generation phase. Throughout the data generation period I frequently saw 'pieces' (Johnson & Golombek, 2002) of myself embedded in the participants' stories. Although the participants and I hailed from different faculties and departments, we had a number of factors in common. Our academic work (not just teaching) was impacted upon by the same university policies and our networks intersected. I was, for example, a member of several teaching teams that one participant was a member of; I had worked closely with another participant on a teaching development project; and, I had attended a teaching conference with a third.

Rigour and trustworthiness

In conducting this qualitative research I was an integral part of both the process and the final product. As Galdas (2017) points out, "separation from this is neither possible nor desirable" (para. 3). I was aware of the need to demonstrate researcher rigour and trustworthiness in all phases of the research. This seemed especially critical in light of my insider status. Paying attention to each phase of the research design, in particular employing a constructivist in-depth narrative interview methodology proved an advantage with regard to establishing trustworthiness. Guba's (1981) constructs for trustworthy research proved useful in assuring this study's trustworthiness: credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. To that end I focused on trust by engaging with the participants before the first interview with a 'getting to know' meeting during which we shared our contexts, our experiences, some even shared aspects of their personal lives. We also talked about the commitment they would be making to the research prior to signing the consent form. I followed up the initial meeting with a thank you email and asked the participants to make contact if they had more questions. All indicated that their preferred mode of communication was email (other than the interviews), so that was used throughout. Consent forms were returned to me via the university's secure internal mail. I acknowledged the receipt of these with each participant. Communication did not end with the research although several participants preferred that. Others would check in from time to time about how the research was going. I had another opportunity to communicate with the participants when I sought their consent for restorying.

Research methods

An in-depth narrative interview methodology obviously requires that some kind of interview method be employed. In this study that was the semi-structured interview enriched by the in-depth narrative interview methodology, but does not prescribe how the interviews should be conducted. Nor does it specify other data generation methods although several methods are better suited to data generation in this context. Based primarily on the participants' spoken words and an interpretation of their words with regards to their contexts (Marshall & Rossman, 1995), two methods were used (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011). The semi-structured interview and restorying are outlined next.

The main research method for this study was the semi-structured interview enriched by the in-depth narrative interview methodology (Bauer, 1996). Together these usually separate interview methods resulted in purposeful conversations complemented by story-telling (Bauer, 1996; Jovchelovitch & Bauer, 2000; Kvale, 1996) and subsequently by the restorying process examined in the data generation section of this chapter (Ollerenshaw & Creswell, 2002).

From a practical perspective the interviewing was time-consuming, especially as the second interview also incorporated re-visiting data from the first to ensure continuity and authenticity (den Outer, 2010). This was outweighed by the method's capacity to generate data from the participants' with regards to both their contexts and experiences. For this study, the data guided the development of additional questions during the interviews, and informed the identification of themes and sub-themes.

In-depth narrative semi-structured interviews

The semi-structured interview is often called a conversation with purpose because the interviewer knows the areas they want to cover, and can encourage the participants to explore different thoughts, feelings, ideas and opinions (Kvale, 1996). There is immense value in teachers "reflecting on, talking about, re-storying and making sense of their lived experiences…" (Bell, 2011, p. 11).

In this study, the semi-structured interview was intentionally enriched by the in-depth narrative interview methodology. The latter similarly aims to find out about

participants' experiences in specific contexts, and the meaning they make from those experiences. The narrative interview offers a specific and unique method for eliciting data (Jovchelovitch & Bauer, 2000) as the research takes on the facilitative role of 'narrative production'.

While there are potential problems associated with the narrative interview method in conjunction with the semi-structured interview - what Jovchelovitch and Bauer (2000) describe as the "thorny epistemological problem of what narratives tell us" (p. 2) - the evidence suggests that narrative interviews empower participants to come to understand their experiences (Manning & Cullum-Swan, 1994). Moreover, the constructivist theoretical framework combined well with the in-depth narrative interview method, and subsequent restorying (Eckerdal, 2013). When people tell a story they tend to use analytic techniques to make sense of their world (Smith & Sparkes, 2008) they not only recall what has happened, they are likely to put "experience into sequence, find possible explanations for it, and play with the chain of events that shapes individual and social life" (Jovchelovitch & Bauer, 2000, p. 2). Further, they are likely to draw upon multiple stories to explain, expand and clarify their sense-making.

The agenda for the in-depth narrative interview is usually determined by the participants. For this study with its particular research focus and semi-structured interview framework, questions were developed for the first interview to provide a platform for eliciting information about teaching and mentoring (Hollway & Jefferson, 2008). Further, it provided the scope for each interview to range from semi-structured to unstructured. Based on the experiences and stories garnered in the first interview the participants' own agendas then 'came into play' in the second (Hollway & Jefferson, 2008).

Although the strategy of combining the two interview methods can potentially blur the boundaries between them (Hermanns, 1991 as cited in Bauer, 1996), in this research it provided greater scope for an in-depth exploration of the participants' personal/professional teaching and mentoring stories, and the further meaning they constructed in the telling of them (Jovchelovitch & Bauer, 2000). Through their interaction in the interviews, the ways participants made sense of their experiences (Gergen, 1999) became critical to the research findings and conclusions. During the data generation phase of the study there was clearly an ongoing cognitive process that led the

participants to construct meaning and understanding (Weick, 1995). The complexity of the process was evident as each participant articulated their thoughts, beliefs, values and reflections about teaching a in different ways. Often these are revealed best through the use of the interview method, and this proved to be the case for this study. The interview allowed me, to “enter another person's world, to understand that person's perspective" (Patton, 1987, p. 109). Thus, the interview proved an appropriate source of data for this qualitative study.

Data generation

The data were generated in each participant’s own setting through two in-depth interviews. The interviews were up to 80 minutes duration. At the first interview some time was spent becoming acquainted if we did not already know each other. Opportunities were provided for the participants to ask questions about the research before embarking on the interview. Each interviews was digitally recorded using both an iPad and iPhone.

Once the interviews had been transcribed, the participants were invited to read, review and comment. They were asked to notify the researcher of any changes or anomalies within three weeks of receipt. Initially a summary report was to be written at the end of the data generation phase once all of the interviews were completed, transcribed and commented on. This was altered when the decision was made to restory each interview (Appendices E, F, & G). The interview times were negotiated with the participants and scheduled to avoid disrupting participants’ research and teaching activities.

The first interviews were a combination of the semi-structured interview and the in-depth narrative interview. The first part of each interview was semi-structured, and comprised ordered and prepared questions (Appendix D) that were guided by the study’s central research question and sub-questions (Bauer, 1996; Wengraf, 2001). Each interview concluded with focused questions with the intention of introducing the topic of mentoring in preparation for the second interview. Brief notes were made after each interview to capture my moments of insight, and to help with the formulation of questions for the second interview.

During the two interviews the participants were open, authentic and honest in their responses. Added to at a later time due by the restorying data, this rich data allowed for insights to be gained about the participants' understandings, thinking and sense-making of their experiences.

Data analysis

The data analysis inductively built from particulars to general themes with interpretations made of the meaning of the data (Creswell, 2014). The data enabled the participants' experiences of mentoring for the development of their teaching pedagogy and practice to be described and interpreted. A first thematic analysis of the verbatim transcriptions of the semi-structured interviews was undertaken. This analysis was later added to through the restorying method (describe below). The deeper thematic analysis that ensued, corroborated the identified themes and allowed the emergence of sub-themes.

First thematic analysis

Thematic analysis is common among qualitative researchers. It has a strong focus on content; hence, it considers what is said rather than how (Riessman, 2008). Importantly, the development of themes helps to create a story of what is being communicated by the research participants. With regards to data gathered via narrative interviews, thematic analysis relies on the participants' accounts or aspects of them (Riessman, 2008).

For this study, the analysis process began with the stories generated in the course of the interviews, leading first to the creation of conceptual categories. Thematic analysis supported and enhanced the meaning making process by enabling me to identify, analyse and arrive at themes, and develop descriptions (via the restorying method) to clarify the findings (Boyatzis, 1998).

While the themes that emerged from data were generated by the participants, they were also informed by my - the researcher - prior knowledge, the literature and the theory (Ryan & Bernard, 2003). The thematic analysis approach proved ideal for discovering common themes but some that fell outside of these also needed consideration. In these instances I needed to be reflexive to ensure the unspoken or less well-articulated themes were accounted for (Ryan & Bernard, 2003).

Comments made by the participants on their first interview transcript, my notes and the themes identified during the first thematic analysis phase established the agenda for the second in-depth interview (McMorland, Carroll, Copas, & Pringle, 2003). The data guided me in developing questions to test my own and their emerging hunches about their experiences of mentoring aligned with their thinking about and understandings of higher education teaching (Hollway & Jefferson, 2008). In the second interview the participants were encouraged to share further insights as they examined their mentoring experiences in greater depth.

Restorying

After considering the quality and nature of the data generated by the interviews and subsequently analysed using thematic analysis, it became evident that the personal teaching and mentoring story of each participant had not truly emerged. This meant that the stories could not be clearly portrayed in the findings because there was little sense of each participant's context, their thinking, reflections, and understandings. To add depth and breadth to the presentation of the findings in Chapter Five and enable the development of robust discussion in Chapter Six, it was decided that the participants' personal teaching and mentoring stories should be told. The transcripts of the two narrative interviews, my notes about each participant's background and context underpinned a restorying or process (Ollerenshaw & Creswell, 2002; Slabon, Richards, & Dennen, 2014) or storying stories process (McCormack, 2000, 2001). The restorying process was a way to approach and portray the interview transcripts. In this process the interview transcripts and the themes that were identified in the initial thematic analysis were further scrutinised through several lenses, which also supported the writing of each story, which formed the teaching and mentoring stories found in Chapter Five. Re-reading the transcripts, and paying greater attention to the participants' contexts and their diverse experiences enabled a more robust examination of the participants' teaching and mentoring experiences and their responses to them.

While restorying confirmed the themes identified from the interviews, it also allowed for the emergence of a number of sub-themes that added a new depth and a richness to the study. By employing a restorying approach I was able tell the participants' stories and address those portions of their stories that addressed the themes already identified. This allowed me to confidently confirm, add to, and enrich the earlier thematic analysis

(Ollerenshaw & Creswell, 2002). Moreover, while the participants' stories about HE teaching and the influence of mentoring on their pedagogical practice had been prompted by the interview questions, other stories that had been spontaneously told could now be included in the findings. In this way the stories of the seven participants could be shared more authentically and in ways that illustrated their understandings of their teaching and mentoring experiences (Clandinin & Connelly, 2004; Smith & Sparkes, 2008).

Ethical considerations

Participant selection

Academics from the University of Waikato with teaching responsibilities were invited to participate in this study. The invitation was extended via an email that outlined the purpose of the study and what would be required of participants (Appendix A). The number of participants required and the criteria for selection were clearly stated. The following criteria were used to help make the selection:

- a variety of years of tertiary teaching experience;
- representation from across the university's faculties/schools;
- gender balance (if possible);
- equal numbers of mentor and mentee participants (if possible).

Potential participants were asked to respond to the initial request by email. Once selected according to the criteria above, contact was made to arrange a face-to-face meeting. An email was also sent thanking those who expressed interest but were not selected. At an initial information meeting with each participant, the study was explained in greater detail and questions responded to.

Informed consent

Participants received detailed information in a formal letter inviting their participation in the study (Appendix B). This ensured they were aware of the nature of their participation and the possible implications of their involvement in the study. Prior to giving informed consent, the participants were invited to make contact with me about any concerns or issues they had regarding the study. Being adequately informed ensured the participants had sufficient information about the purpose of the study and that they

understood the implications of their participation. Once they had agreed to participate in the study each person was asked to sign a consent form and return to me through the university's internal mail system (Appendix C).

Additional informed consent

In a memo to the university's ethics committee (Appendix E) in December, 2015 I sought approval to make contact with each participant to:

- gain permission to write the participants' teaching and mentoring stories (Appendix F);
- read and review their stories, and engage in further conversation if they wished to make changes, additions or talk more;
- give their permission to present each story in the thesis (Appendix G).

Confidentiality

The setting for this study is the university in which the participants and I are employed. All possible steps have been taken to safeguard the participants' individual data. I made sure the information was only used as intended and securely stored. Care has been taken to ensure the information given does not lead to the discovery of the person (Cohen et al., 2011) and I have given pseudonyms to others mentioned in the interviews. While the participants were not aware of others involved in this study, it is possible they have shared information with others. This information cannot be accessed by their colleagues or employer (see *ethical concerns relevant to insider research* below). Given the use of the restory method a guarantee of total anonymity could not be guaranteed, but the participants accepted my assurance that all steps would be taken to ensure their confidentiality and privacy. Anonymity was maximised by the use of pseudonyms for all participants from the outset, and the use of pseudonyms in the writing of the thesis and any subsequent publications or presentations will limit the risk of identification of participants.

To ensure the participants had confidence in the research process, it was made explicit in the pre-interview meeting (see *participant selection* above). This initial meeting provided each potential participant with the opportunity to find out more about me, as both their peer and the researcher. These potential participants were advised for instance on how to access mine and my two supervisors' academic profile, as I considered that

knowing more about those involved in the study (professional backgrounds and experience, qualifications, research experience and publishing) would provide further assurance of my commitment to the project and my understanding of the research process.

It was also made clear that at no time would participants be asked for information of a personal nature, nor would they be asked to make comments or judgments about their colleagues or employer. Because judgment or criticism can act as barriers to communication, it was important to establish and maintain openness at the start an during the research process. It was anticipated there might be reluctance by some participants to expand on or make comments about specific issues that arose in the course of the interviews. This may have occurred if they considered their comments could be construed as criticisms of colleagues or their employer, or that their comments had the potential to affect relationships with their colleagues or the employer. With this consideration in mind, I had a responsibility to not use or edit material accordingly. When references were inadvertently made to other people, the identity of those mentioned remained confidential.

Arrangements were made for the seven participants to receive and review their interview transcripts after each interview, and once the initial thematic analysis of data from the two rounds of interviews had been completed, the restories were. Their preferred way to receive the information was via email with the relevant documents attached. If a participant disputed, or wished to add to or correct the representation of their responses in their transcripts and subsequent stories this was immediately discussed, clarified, rectified and offered for further review.

Ethical considerations: Insider research

The term insider research is used to describe studies like this one, where the researcher has a direct involvement or connection with the research setting (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003). As this research was carried out in a setting in which I am a doctoral student and an academic at the same university as the participants, I needed to be aware of and alert to the potential inter-play and impact of the power dimensions on the research process. The research process could, for instance, be affected by any existing rapport I had with the participants, or by the fact that I had not previously interacted with others.

Furthermore, there could be occasions in some interviews where particular topics prompted what Mercer (2007) terms a "greater degree of insiderness" (p. 4). This could include our shared views about aspects of our academic work; experiences and people in common; and, knowledge held by the more senior academics participating in the study about the functioning of the university.

I was fortunate to have a willing adviser on the issues connected with insider researcher. For instance, the process for participant selection was developed with her guidance. She also heightened my awareness that as I developed rapport and trust with the participants, certain factors might need to be taken into consideration: might participants behave in ways that they would not normally?; might my tacit knowledge lead me to misinterpret data or make assumptions, and miss potentially important information?; and, as already alluded to, there was the potential for further concerns to arise particularly if participants were to become apprehensive that their involvement in the study might affect their professional relationships with other staff or even their employment at the university. Despite assurances of confidentiality the potential for this had to be considered. I needed to be alert to such concerns at all times.

Conclusion

In Chapter Four the methodology, methods and analysis employed in this research were presented. Issues regarding ensuring the research's quality and ethical guidelines were discussed.

A qualitative constructivist in-depth narrative interview methodology was adopted to investigate the mentoring and teaching experiences of seven higher education teachers, with regard to the development of their pedagogical practice. I was the key facilitator as the participants' constructed, interpreted and made sense of their teaching and mentoring experiences and the influences of these on their practice.

This chapter has discussed the semi-structured narrative interview method used in this research. It has also described the restorying method which resulted from my reflection on the data and response to the need for increased rigour. The approach and processes used for data analysis have been described.

Attention has been given to ethical considerations with particular reference to the insider nature of the research. My positioning as researcher has been highlighted and the implications of insider research discussed.

In Chapter Five the research findings are presented.

CHAPTER FIVE: FINDINGS

Introduction

Chapter Five presents the findings of this study about higher education teachers' experiences of mentoring to support the development of their teaching pedagogy and practice. First to establish context and a sense of each participants' identity as an educator, the personal teaching and mentoring story of each participant has undergone restorying (or retelling). This approach was possible because of the participants' willingness to reveal their personal and professional selves during the narrative interviews. Although several stories were less revealing from a personal perspective, those participants still talked openly about their teaching and mentoring experiences in their prior and current education contexts thus, allowing for the restorying of their stories in light of these. Organised into a loose chronological sequence, the participants' stories are enriched with anecdotes that illustrate their experiences and their interpretations of them. More broadly, together the stories provide a sense of the participants' diversity and commonality as they continue to navigate their respective teaching journeys.

Following the personal teaching and mentoring stories, the four main interview questions provide the framework from which the themes are developed. These and the sub-themes that emerged during a thematic analysis of the interview transcripts have been reinforced by the subsequent re-storying of each participant's personal teaching and mentoring experiences. Here the interplay between personal and professional experiences becomes evident in the participants' accounts of the influences on their pedagogical practice.

Teaching and mentoring stories

> *At the heart of any story are the people and their lives. Human beings think in metaphors and learn through stories (Bateson, 1995, p. 17).*

In seeking to understand the mentoring experiences of higher education teachers and the implications of mentoring on the development of their pedagogical practice, conversations about the participants' beliefs about teaching and learning were deemed essential. As each participant drew their past experiences into the present the story of

how their pedagogical practice developed and the influence of mentoring on its development was revealed.

Lynne

Lynne is a senior academic with responsibility for the development of teaching and learning across her university. She teaches and researches in her science discipline and has a particular passion for teaching - supporting teachers, researching higher education teaching, and helping others to develop as teachers. This is exemplified in her having been the recipient of university and national excellence in teaching awards.

Lynne's mother immigrated to New Zealand from England in 1953. With a science degree from Oxford, she initially worked as a herd tester. When Lynne was fifteen, her mother decided to become a secondary school teacher. It was her way of teaching and commitment to it that influenced the formation of Lynne's beliefs about teaching.

Lynne's first experiences of teaching began with undergraduate laboratory demonstrations whilst she was working on her PhD. Subsequently, she applied for work in the area of her biology major but wasn't immediately successful. On discovering that a local high school was seeking an assistant biology teacher, Lynne's initial thought was, "… I can do that because I quite like teaching." She was successful with her application and during her first two years of full-time employment at the school, also completed a post-graduate teaching qualification. Importantly for Lynne, she was able to transfer credit from some of her undergraduate work having completed some education papers, "… just out of interest while I was doing my B. Sci." With four papers to complete each year while teaching full time Lynne found this a challenging but rewarding undertaking.

Over time Lynne observed that many students, especially those who were less academically motivated, needed interactive learning experiences that related to the topics they were interested in. This observation and understanding led her to reflect on her pedagogical practice and then to explore the different ways that teachers teach and students learn. Lynne recalls thinking about the Year 11 science curriculum and beginning to question why students would be interested in the content given her students had very little to, "hang their learning on." This led her to become more

innovative and to develop contextually relevant experiences for her students that stimulated their desire to learn. She accessed science textbooks and workbooks that weren't part of the prescribed curriculum but that provided her with guidance about "better ways to teach science." Coming to recognise and understand the importance of context in developing a learning centred environment contributed significantly to the formation of Lynne's beliefs about teaching and learning. In her current higher education context it has become embedded in her pedagogical practice.

After four years of teaching Lynne took time out after her son was born, although she continued with daily relief teaching. When her son was fifteen months old Lynne was asked to be a long term relief teacher at a secondary school, which due to staff illness resulted in her leading both the biology department and science faculty (while still a relief teacher).

After the birth of her daughter Lynne took up employment as a senior tutor with Massey University to teach first year science papers in the university's distance education programme. She then applied for a job as the head of science at Palmerston North Training College. In the meantime her husband had been successful in his application to lecture at Waikato University. They subsequently made the decision to move north where Lynne was first employed as a senior tutor by the university and sometime later, as a lecturer.

Lynne realised that her extensive teaching experience was unusual in her science faculty. For her, this was an advantage that enabled her to expand on her prior experience as a secondary school teacher and biology tutor. For instance, she was successful in developing connections with secondary schools and was involved in the development of a new science curriculum in the mid-90s. Lynne's ongoing involvement with secondary schools gave her insight and knowledge of first year students, particularly those who entered university directly from secondary school. She believed that knowing students' contexts, specifically their prior science curriculum experiences, gave lecturers an advantage with regard to their planning for teaching. A further advantage of Lynne's prior teaching experience was that she had developed a range of classroom strategies and techniques that that she could draw on, "… the students comment it's really noticeable that I handle things differently in a classroom." For Lynne, these experiences made an enormous difference to the development and

refinement of her higher education pedagogical practice - her confidence, pedagogical content knowledge and repertoire of teaching strategies and techniques.

In thinking about her teaching and what she considers to be a relatively smooth transition from one education sector to another, the main challenge hasn't been to Lynne's own practice rather the tensions that emerged as a result of her observations of and interactions with colleagues. Her aspiration for all higher education teachers is for them to be committed to effective teaching, "… persuading them that there are other ways of doing things that might have a potentially greater impact on student outcomes rather than the way we've always done it," led to her involvement in the university's teaching development programme. One of Lynne's aims for example, was for people to move away from giving lectures, "it is a big challenge for teachers in higher education. One because lecturers do not get to know students in large lecture room settings and two, most students only retain the information presented in lectures for a relatively short period … there are better ways to engage students in the learning content."

Lynne believes there is an urgent need for mentoring to support higher education teachers to develop their pedagogical practice. Her strong view is that mentoring has the potential to do so but impressed there cannot be a prescribed approach. Lynne's own approach to mentoring has led to what she describes as an open-door policy, "people knock on my door and ask to talk with me. Sometimes they have a specific teaching issue they want to talk through and at other times they just want to discuss a range of topics."

Lynne's commitment to mentoring is evident in the science faculty mentoring programme being designed by her at the time of our second interview. Being mentored herself and mentoring others is an important element of Lynne's thinking about ways to develop and enrich pedagogical practice in the higher education context. Having consulted with her colleagues and identified those interested in being mentors, Lynne was in the process of seeking formal recognition for the mentors' work to be incorporated into their workload as an important professional activity. Further to this, Lynne wanted to ensure that staff (both mentors and mentees) could continue to participate in university teaching development initiatives and not confined to faculty initiatives. This she felt would generate a greater sense of collaboration across the university with regard to sharing expertise and gaining access to different ideas.

Lynne's beliefs about mentoring align with her beliefs about teaching and learning. She asserted that the interpersonal relationship between a teacher and their students, between a mentor and mentee is crucial. For Lynne, reciprocity is a key element of these relationships in which all participants take responsibility for their learning.

Justin

Justin initially worked in the field of educational psychology. Working with students with challenging behaviours led Justin to undertake teacher education and begin a teaching career. He has been a principal in two schools – most recently in a small-town school and prior to that as the foundation principal in a school for special needs students. Justin's desire to contribute to the education of new teachers led him to seek an academic position in teacher education at the university. Now entering his third year, along with teaching and research Justin is also the leader of the undergraduate Initial Teacher Education (ITE) programme.

As a critically reflective practitioner Justin's higher education pedagogical practice has been profoundly influenced by his prior experiences, beliefs about teaching, and his higher education colleagues. Unlike his prior primary school teacher and principal experiences, Justin has found his teaching disjointed and at times unsatisfying. Due in part to the physical size of the lecture rooms and the student cohort, "the lecture format seems to be about just putting the knowledge out there," which he finds daunting the much smaller tutorial groups are more to his liking. This where he has had the opportunity to get to know his students, "… to sit alongside and guide them, and have the time to challenge their thinking." Because he is teaching students who want to be teachers he wants them to engage with the kinds of strategies they will use in the classroom and cites modelling as an strategy of effective teaching. Even so he has observed that many students, "just want the answers because…maybe it's a function of our education system, a function of the tertiary environment where they just want the information to be able to give the information back, tick the box, to pass." Justin finds that tutorials enable him to employ both humanistic and constructivist approaches to teaching. These he conveys, are central to his beliefs about effective teaching and learning. A strong belief that his key role is to, "generate change in students - their thinking about being a teacher, attitudes towards teaching, pedagogical practice … creating opportunities for learning … but those changes don't have to reflect my

thinking." The latter comment aligns with Justin's long held belief about learning - that it is his responsibility to create an environment in which questions can be asked and views safely aired , "Students can say, 'I don't think that's right, I think this' and you can work through that thinking with them." This Justin contends helps him to be 'better teacher'.

Justin is more confident in drawing on his prior primary school pedagogical practice. While he believes it is critical to co-construct knowledge and sense make with students, he also acknowledges that in a university context students view him as the expert; hence, his teaching must be research informed and he must be confident in being the expert. Initially this was a further point of disconnection because teaching in higher education seemed to be about, "imparting knowledge and research, and people soaking it up." Over time, Justin has become more confident in his higher education context and is now more able to facilitate the kind of discussion and challenge that are so central to his articulated teaching practice. He recognises that just as children do, higher education students need to know and understand the "bigger picture of what the learning is for and about" and why it's important. While some tensions remain, as Justin becomes more informed, confident and familiar with his relatively new environment, he has been able to make more sense of what they are and why they exist.

Despite no formal mentoring being available to him, Justin recognises the informal mentoring that has contributed to the development of his higher education pedagogical practice. When he thinks about the factors that have contributed to the development of his pedagogical practice in higher education, he refers to observing others in action, listening, and asking questions. While for Justin it has been important to work with people whose teaching beliefs align with his own, he also recognises the importance of challenging these. The people he identifies as informal mentors have been the most influential. Yet he asserts, "they probably don't realise that that's how I see them."

Although Justin's experiences have been largely positive, he offered and then reiterated his thoughts about the consequences of a formal mentoring programme. Acknowledging his own faculty's Colleague-in-Support (CiS) programme he points out that this is about being supported as an academic, not just teaching. While Justin's experiences of mentoring have therefore, been serendipitous to an extent, his greater familiarity and

confidence in the higher education teaching context have allowed him to know who to access for support.

In calling attention to the importance of mentoring to for teacher development Justin suggests that having an experienced effective higher education teacher as a mentor would be valuable, especially during the first year or two, "… maybe somebody who has been here just a few years longer than you … they are more likely to recall the transition process." In light of his own experience Justin strongly believes that, "someone to sit down with and run things by, and get some feedback from" would have eased his transition into higher education teaching. For this to be successful he asserts that both the mentor and mentee must have an understanding of the mentoring process, how to establish the relationship, and know of different mentoring approaches. He commented, "I think it helps that people coming into it have some understanding and clarity around what a mentor is and the role a mentor can play in a teacher's development." In particular, Justin considers the mentor-mentee relationship as being central to the process and favours a collegial mentoring approach in which the relationship is ongoing.

Alan

A senior academic, Alan has leadership responsibilities in his science discipline and for post-graduate studies in the science faculty. While he holds no formal teaching qualifications Alan's post-doctoral positions provided him with some higher education teaching experience during his PhD studies in New Zealand where he demonstrated and instructed in the laboratory, and at a private institution when he was working abroad. . These experiences gave him some confidence to teach in higher education. Teaching

When he first arrived at the university Alan taught Masters students. Able to draw on material he had been using for his teaching abroad, he felt confident and well prepared. Initially his classes were small with only three to five students although over time the number of classes and students has increased. At the time of our interview he was teaching both undergraduate and honours students.

Alan indicates that he finds it difficult to articulate his pedagogical practice but he does not find it difficult to provide examples with which to illustrate it. He comments that

some of the material he teaches can be, “horribly boring”. As a result, he endeavours to teach in ways that makes it less so. Alan ensures for instance that the content is clearly presented, that students understand why the content is important, and a clear rationale for assessment is provided. Being present in his teaching is important for Alan. He uses humour as a strategy to connect with his students. At times he tells jokes and “acts the goat” especially when he is trying to convey a complex concept or method to undergraduates - “There is nothing more off putting than seeing students with their heads in their desk, or leaving, or not turning up.” The latter highlights the importance of the relational elements of teaching for Alan. He wants students to know they’re not just “some impersonal number” and refers to the need to be sympathetic towards students in the different classes he may encounter, “you won’t get everyone who’s good at maths. In a very mixed crowd you have to be sympathetic to those people.” Alan also gains satisfaction when his students are getting good grades, especially when he can see from their answers that they’re not just rote learning, “they’re actually knowing and understanding.” For Alan monitoring grades is one of the few ways he believes he has of knowing if he’s contributing to students’ learning and importantly for him, making a difference.

Alan’s belief about mentoring is that it is about a, “senior person assigned to a person who’s really new. The mentoring should include discussions on a range of topics raised by the mentee at regular meetings, as well as be supported by a report or something written.” In Alan’s faculty mentors are assigned to new staff for induction and research but not for teaching, so when Alan arrived at the university there was no formal mentoring to develop his teaching available to him. During his time at the university to date, Alan has not specifically sought mentors for teaching, rather he “asks around” if he needs help and advice. While he was assigned a CiS, they didn’t give specific guidance or feedback on his teaching. Even though Alan had wanted to invite them to observe his lectures and tutorials, he discovered that his CiS “was the kind of person who leaves you to do your own thing.” To support his teaching Alan looks to colleagues he admires to emulate their good teaching. He finds it interesting that some colleagues are defensive about their teaching practice, “though not their research practice.” He thinks this may be because research has to be open to critique whereas teaching, “in my faculty anyway,” tends to be a more personal and private endeavour. Alan also points out, “what might work for some, may not for others. I mean if you do look at others that

are doing well, you might adapt what they do. But you can't be that person, it's impossible - you're a different personality."

In his present role as a department chair, Alan comments that he has often been called on to give advice but he hasn't been a formal mentor, "I have doled out lots of advice." Alan considers mentoring requires the building of rapport and relationships, in the same way that teaching does. He sees mentoring for teaching as giving advice about what good teaching is, sharing teaching notes and helping new teachers in particular to keep content, "logical especially in an area like science." Furthermore, Alan believes that when mentoring others it is important be sympathetic when appropriate, empathetic, clear and purposeful, "you shouldn't intimidate them. You have to let them have their own opinions and engage in dialogue not monologue and that kind of thing. That's important." It is clear that Alan recognises there are a variety of strategies for mentoring.

While Alan's beliefs about mentoring are centred on the importance of the relationship, he acknowledges that mentoring is not viewed in the same way by everyone, "it can be one sided with little reciprocity … the mentor's monologue dominates, that can be a bit negative." He knows from others' sharing of their experiences that such an approach can be intimidating, and has observed that they lose confidence in themselves. Alan therefore contends that mentors should engage in professional learning so they understand what mentoring is and its process. He holds views that both the mentor and mentee should benefit from the mentoring relationship and that mentoring should be linked to their teaching evaluations, promotion and professional goal setting. But he isn't sure how the latter could be enacted and sees some tensions inherent in such a formal approach especially with regard to the bureaucratic aspects.

Jemma

Jemma has taught in the secondary school and higher education sectors. Now a senior academic (she has worked at the university for 14 years) she provides individual support and mentoring for academics wanting to develop their teaching practice. For Jemma this aligns with her research in the areas of course design and assessment, academic leadership, mentoring, and teaching development.

Teaching has been at the heart of Jemma's life, although at different stages and in different ways. "I can't really think of myself as a person without thinking of myself as a teacher." Jemma comments that she never tires of her work, "the learning and the challenges. I keep being excited about it." While she misses teaching her academic discipline of English Literature, Jemma is committed to and motivated to effect change in the field of higher education teaching. Despite some frustration about changes to the higher education landscape that she considers are affecting higher education teachers' work and their ability to do it well, the satisfaction she gains from seeing teachers "grow and succeed" over-rides this.

Jemma's journey began in South Africa. Her parents had a business so when Jemma wasn't helping them, she was reading, "I've always loved reading. I've always had this thing about teaching English." Her mother – also a teacher – was a significant influence. She remembers that her mother had the "old fashioned charts with things stuck up on them" and that she and her siblings would play with them. Jemma recalls with a smile that she always wanted to play teachers, "every friend who came to play was dragged in to play schools, with me as the teacher of course." For Jemma becoming a teacher was what she always wanted to do but during her university years she became less certain having immersed herself in the disciplines of English and History. She began to think about a career as an academic, "I was not so fired up by ideas about teaching anymore but by my love of the discipline." For a time that became her goal but by the end of her undergraduate degree Jemma had "travelled full circle" and once again was committed to becoming a teacher as she recognised that "teaching English was really an extension of what I'd always done and loved. Reading books and talking about them."

After completing her graduate teaching diploma and teaching history for several years, Jemma returned to university to complete honours and masters qualifications in English. During that period, Jemma tutored undergraduate students and found it very rewarding, "I didn't even want to be a lecturer. I just wanted to tutor because I loved that interactive nature of tutoring, and seeing people grow and develop." Eventually Jemma was offered and accepted a part-time lecturing position at the university. This was an important time for her and she struggled with the shift from the secondary school sector and university tutoring, to university teaching, "because I'd done education and I'd done teaching I kind of thought - right, I'm a university teacher it must be different and

I sort of put all those ideas behind me." From Jemma's perspective she was not "a great university teacher at first" because her focus was solely on the discipline but also points out "this was the norm." Nor was there any formal support for the development of her teaching, again "the norm". Jemma learned through trial and error, gradually realising that she could draw on her prior teaching experiences to develop her higher education teaching. To illustrate Jemma tells the story of teaching English to 500 first year students in a large lecture theatre, "I thought I was doing a great job." She had her scripted lectures and the students laughed at her jokes but a key turning point came when the students submitted the first assignment. It was then that Jemma came to see that her perception of effective teaching and its translation to effective learning were not "one and the same." The realisation that her teaching had not brought about learning provided a number of critical insights for Jemma about effective teaching and its relationship with assessment, "… formative assessment and formative learning, and getting feedback because I did none of those things. I just walked in and pronounced, and when I saw the students' work it was one of the biggest shocks … I just thought, what is this? It just felt so unreal what I read. It was just so artificial."

It was during this time of reflection and insight that Jemma had become intensively involved in a programme designed to support disadvantaged students with their English, "seeing the struggles of learners was definitely a huge growth thing for me as a teacher." Through this work Jemma became more tuned into the students' learning needs, their learning styles, the challenges they faced and why. Always committed to being an effective teacher Jemma was more able to connect the discipline with teaching and learning because she "was more able to see the learner's perspective." In acknowledging that she had previously neglected to draw on what she knew about teaching and learning Jemma found it "deeply disturbing that I thought I had to be something else because I was an academic."

With the benefit of hindsight, Jemma now appreciates that she had "bought into" the not uncommon but erroneous view that there was a "mystique attached to academia" not found in other careers, "it wasn't really portrayed as a teaching job. It was portrayed as a kind of, your academic identity is everything, but not a teaching job." But after working with the disadvantaged students Jemma understood that she "needed to be switched on again. You know, once I'd gotten over this … what am I supposed to be

doing in this fancy place?" It was this kind of reflection that led Jemma to identify the need for change, "I can still see myself sitting with those piles of essays and feeling absolute shock, horror." This led to Jemma trying out different teaching approaches, and noticing that she had become interested in the teaching of her discipline. For her this was a very exciting time and crucial for her teacher development in higher education. In addition, Jemma now recognised the implications of her prior secondary school teaching experience for her higher education teaching, "if I had gone straight through into lecturing I might not have been so sensitive to that. I am always grateful for having that experience in the classroom."

Soon after these experiences Jemma emigrated to New Zealand. Pregnant with her first child she did some relief teaching in schools and marked scripts for a university, "… something of a nightmare because I was stuck in one place and I'd get all these envelopes full of assignments … ." But she also found the latter a key learning time. She learned a great deal about assessment, particularly as the distance students to whom she was giving feedback were undertaking university study for the first time. Jemma eventually became a regional tutor for the university, " … I was doing bits of teaching all over … most of the students who came to my class were adults and late-starters." It resurrected her interest teaching and learning, "… what is it that the student brings in and how does the university type of education meet that need?" and complemented the work she had been doing in South Africa.

When Jemma's daughter was three years old the family moved to Hamilton. Jemma considers herself fortunate to have gained part-time work as an academic developer and tutor in the area of teaching and teacher development at her current university. This was a critical learning experience for her own teacher development, "because I sat side by side with so many students battling their way through university education … some of those lessons really prompted me to do the research, to do the thinking." Increasingly, Jemma's thinking turned to the ways she could support higher education teachers to improve their practice. In doing so she acknowledged that her experiences working with disadvantaged and 'second chance' students had influenced her thinking, "… I suppose you know, my experience was a little bit skewed in that I was working with people on the margins which kind of dramatised the core issues." While working part-time in learning support Jemma was asked if she could also work with tutors. For Jemma that

became a springboard into full-time academic development work and she discovered that this was work she really wanted to do. At the start of this phase of her teaching journey Jemma openly acknowledges that her ideas were largely under-developed. Importantly it led her to engage in academic research about higher education teaching, "I started going to conferences, writing papers, meeting people in the field, really honing my skills … I became a professional in this field while on the job, I had to learn on the job."

Jemma holds strong views about higher education teachers who do not prioritise the development of their teaching practice but believes it is "tied into the way an institution values certain things. Regardless of the claims, I still believe … that the message still seems to be that research is more important." Academics she argues, should have to present evidence of the ways they have sought to develop their teaching. Moreover, effective teaching should be shared and celebrated at faculty meetings, formally addressed in annual performance reviews not just during the "teaching award season". Jemma contrasts her university's approach with the practice of some universities where the submission of a teaching portfolio, "talking about what you've been doing around your teaching, showing written and visual evidence of reflection and change," is a required component during performance reviews and for promotion applications.

While Jemma acknowledges that academics are appointed because of their discipline expertise not teaching, she points out it is mostly in the area of teaching that people "come unstuck … there's a big mental shift to recognise that there's another discipline that you're engaging in here and that this involves serious study, research and that there's a body of scholarship." She emphasises that she is not arguing against research, "it's very important but it's not the only thing." What she would really like to see is a shift in people's thinking about teaching so they stop viewing it as something they have to do, and "come to see teaching evaluations as offering developmental potential rather than compliance."

When Jemma talks about mentoring she recalls being mentored by one person during her undergraduate studies who taught in a way that had an impact on her, "My very first tutor is the person I remember better than anybody else because he communicated the importance of valuing each person." Jemma found him encouraging and positive and

remembers thinking it quite rare for a lecturer to be so engaged with all of their students and their learning.

Jemma was not formally mentored for the development of her higher education teaching practice, “nobody ever sat down and asked me what the things were that would work with adults in my teaching. I learned most from my mistakes.” For the most part Jemma drew on observations and prior experience to develop her teaching practice in higher education. Those who had taught her “well” were those who most influenced her practice. Even so, she was “left to my own devices in the department.” A problem that emerged for Jemma in her first higher education position was that the academics who had taught her as a student still taught at the university, “I had been their student and in a sense I still felt a little hemmed in by that.” In time, however, she became more confident and began to interact with her former teachers. Because she didn’t want them to think she didn’t know what she was doing, when they asked how things were going she would say she was fine even when she wasn’t.

While Jemma doesn’t recall being mentored for teaching, “people didn’t talk about teaching” she learned about teaching and assessment in ad hoc ways. For example, conversations about grading and the cross-marking at moderation meetings were helpful even if it was “more osmosis and informally picking it up.” Team teaching also proved beneficial and contributed to the development of her pedagogical practice. Jemma valued opportunities to “bounce ideas off colleagues” and observe them teaching, and to reflect on her teaching with others.

Jemma describes her first boss when appointed to her current position as a wonderful mentor, in that “he suited me, from my own perspective. That’s the big thing about mentoring, the way it works is that it’s got to work for that person.” She makes the point that while often a person’s line manager isn’t suitable as a mentor “for all sorts of reasons”, that was not the case here, “he was very good to me in my early years and opened some pathways, and being here for me because he kind of took me on trust and believed in me.” Describing his style as quite low key, nurturing and encouraging, Jemma indicates that her mentor modelled good practice and discussed her approaches to teaching and mentoring. This resulted in trust, communication and respect underpinning their relationship and gave Jemma the freedom to pursue her own learning pathway, and develop new approaches. Sharing ideas and giving advice were vital

elements of the mentor's practice but he also created an environment in which Jemma more often than not, led their mentoring conversations. She considered him an excellent model for effective mentoring.

When Jemma's mentor left the university and she became the acting director in his stead, not only was Jemma without a mentor she was overwhelmed by the work, "I had 13 in the team, never done any sort of managerial work, and suddenly I was in charge of the team." Struggling through this extraordinarily stressful period, Jemma came to realise how vital mentoring was, especially during times of transition and change. Although she endeavoured to self-mentor - "not recommended" – Jemma's management communication studies led her to become a more effective leader and manager, and to her interest in mediation and dialogue, "I guess one of the things about my whole history is that very often, and it would be true of most learners and teachers, when you don't know what to do, you go to the books." Even so, she says "a mentor would have been great at that time."

Jemma recognises that a core part of her work with higher education teachers is mentoring. After facilitating a pilot mentoring programme with one faculty, a university wide mentoring programme was established. Although not focused on teaching alone it has been well received and well used by those wanting to improve their teaching practice. The catalyst for this initiative was Jemma's own experience with her mentor and her subsequent experience managing a team.

At the same time that the mentoring programme was implemented, Jemma became an integral part of the team that designed then taught a Postgraduate Certificate for Tertiary Teaching at her university. Mentoring conversations were considered the key teaching and learning method with the key aim being for higher education teachers to engage in deep thinking about the process of teaching through conversation. The alignment between the teaching certificate and the mentoring programme has been very satisfying for Jemma. It has not only helped her to develop her craft as a mentor of teachers but to guide those she has mentored to mentor others.

Karen

Throughout her adult life Karen relished the opportunity to study. When her fourth child was a toddler, she began the journey of forging a career for herself. Karen's commitment to life-long learning drove her decision to become a primary school teacher. After four years as a classroom teacher Karen became the deputy principal of the small school in which she was teaching. During this, her connections with the university at which she had undertaken her teacher education remained strong. This led to her taking up the opportunity to work as a teaching fellow while working on a Master of Education qualification which resulted in her appointment to a teacher education lecturer position. Soon after Karen enrolled in doctoral study and has since graduated with a PhD.

Karen's "big belief" about teaching is that it is collaborative and collegial. This belief became more deeply embedded with increased teaching and leadership experiences. She believes her late entry into teaching had an impact on her early years in teaching. As a beginning teacher and in her first few years of teaching she acknowledges that she highly individual in her approach, "I think that was just how I thought things were to be done. It probably goes back to how I was taught." She states that her belief about the collaborative nature of teaching became more embedded when she moved into her leadership role. A key learning was discovering the empowering nature of working with others and recognising the implications of this for students' learning. For Karen this belief about collaboration was proven when as a teaching fellow she was required to teach in settings unfamiliar to her: an early childhood teacher education programme, online teaching, and teacher education for graduates programme. She not only discovered the benefits of collaboration to learn from and with her colleagues but to learn from and with her students.

Karen's beliefs about teaching - first and foremost teaching is collaborative and relational - align with the beliefs she holds about mentoring. She considers that the characteristics of an effective mentor are those of an effective teacher, "… those key components of maintaining and establishing good relationships, having a collective responsibility … and reciprocity in the relationship." The interesting parallels between teaching and mentoring suggest to Karen that when preparing to mentor for the

development of pedagogical practice there must be sound understandings of higher education teaching and of the mentoring process.

In reference to one informal long term mentoring relationship that had traversed the school and university context, Karen reflects on a colleague's comment at the meeting, "… you and him are like an old married couple." That perception Karen felt was because the collegial and reciprocal nature of the relationship had given rise to a complete confidence, trust and openness with each other. And indeed Karen and her mentor had moved to (sometimes) finishing each other's sentences. Most importantly the mentoring relationship and the mentoring process had remained robust and 'fit for purpose'. While her mentor was initially the senior academic and 'expert' in the relationship, Karen says there was never a time when he used these as any form of 'power over'. Rather their relationship was defined by an "… acknowledgment of each other's roles, a bouncing around of ideas and building on things for a common purpose." Thus, the reciprocity that emerged over time was a key characteristic of the relationship for Karen and her mentor.

Keri

Keri had only recently been appointed to a permanent academic position. Her teaching experience was gained through her primary teaching qualification although prior to embarking on her teaching qualification she had taught staff development programmes and worked with young people.

Keri sees her teaching story as, "probably quite brief really because I came to teacher education as a mature student and now I am working for the university." She recalls though that she had always wanted to be a teacher, "right from when I left school but various things took me down different roads, and I just changed my mind as you do when you are young." Keri remembers inviting her school friends home and "making them sit in my little play house while I harped on at them at the front about something." Even so Keri indicates she was "horrendously shy as a child, really never that confident unless it was something I knew I could do well. But I've always been quite motivated so my confidence has developed over the years. If I had gone into teaching straight out school or in my twenties I don't think I would have been successful … I think life experience has developed that stuff and provided the platform for how I am now."

In the second year of her teacher education programme Keri began to question its relevance for her, “I don’t know what it was, whether it was the structure of the programme in second year or the second year blues or whatever you want to call it but I sort of hit the point where I didn’t know if it was what I actually wanted to do.” Despite her discontent Keri made a commitment to complete her degree, which she ultimately did, “I thought this is not sparking for me, I’m actually not passionate about this. Added to that were suggestions from others that she enrol in postgraduate study - I just sort of followed my nose from there, so it was just opportunities that opened up at the right time.”

Important for Keri at this time was the realisation that while she did not want to teach in a primary school, she did want to teach adults in a higher education context, “I think when I lost the passion for working with children I didn’t completely lost the passion for teaching. I love teaching adults.” To that end, during her honours year Keri volunteered to mark assignments and help with the supervision of students in an outdoor education paper for several of her lecturers, “… that was really my foot in, in a sense … it opened up more possibilities.” Keri has since come to see how integral these people were to the decisions that she made to take a different pathway as an educator, although as she commented she didn’t know at the time that it would lead to an academic career. She credits those academics with providing direction, encouragement, and support, and highlights the importance of the conversations she had with them.

Keri’s strong sense of social justice has fuelled her desire to teach. She relishes opportunities to encourage others and to help them realise their potential. The principles of social justice underpin Keri’s teaching and are deeply embedded in her philosophy, “Everywhere I’ve been and every job I’ve done I’ve sort of had that element of I guess, bettering myself and helping others to better themselves.” Her firm view that everyone can be “shifted or improved or learn something in some way” is made in reference to the growing numbers of students for whom a university education may not have previously been accessible. Keri believes this has created a number of issues for higher education teachers because some students are not ready for the pace and challenges of university study. Rather than being a barrier, Keri sees the lack of readiness as a challenge, “the thing I challenge myself with is - they’re here and I’ve got them to work

with so how can I move them somewhere?" For Keri it's not just about teaching content.

When Keri thinks about her own developing pedagogical practice for higher education teaching she indicates that she has been challenged in both positive and negative ways by the practices of some higher education colleagues, "I have to say there were lecturers and tutors who challenged my philosophy of teaching a lot. And who is right or wrong is not the point but because you know it's more about a balance isn't it?" She does point to some practices that do not resonate with her, "most often this is to do with developing relationships with students … those lecturers who mollycoddle students who then don't become accountable or responsible for their learning." Keri has gained confidence as a higher education teacher, and become aware of shifts in the way students perceive her and believes it is due to her formalised position as an academic but also the way she teaches, "I thrive more on the cognitive stimulation, academic conversations and opportunities that challenge my own thinking and I like seeing students doing the same. I want them to achieve, experience success and build confidence. I like the challenge of finding the line between doing that and developing independence … while I'm really happy to guide you [student], and push you, and challenge you, and do the best that I can for you, there's an element where you let go of my hand and do things for yourself too." She is very aware, however, that each higher education teacher is influenced in different ways by different factors and the impact of these upon the formation of their philosophies and the development of their pedagogical practice.

Reciprocal trust and respect are central to Keri's relationships with her students. She has found it interesting too, that as her colleagues have observed her engagement with students and noticed their levels of achievement, they also appear to trust and respect her more. Understanding and developing the "relationship dynamic" is critical for Keri in her teaching, "… some people have written notes and given me cards. And the comments written on appraisals really get you because they're exactly what you need to hear in terms of the difference you've made in some people's lives. Little things."

Now nearing completion of her PhD, Keri sees a pathway opening up for her in higher education. Working with academics who taught her and who are now colleagues has been an advantage for her in honing and defining her pedagogical practice, "I guess you'd call them mentors." Keri now feels she is working at the same level as her

colleagues so is looking to them to advise, guide and support. Initially they offered organisational advice, “this is the way we do things around here and so on” but as Keri’s confidence has grown she has begun to seek professional mentoring from others, “It’s not that you stop learning from people but you need others to sort of add on.”

Keri is drawn to those whose teaching beliefs and practice align with her own, they are the people she seeks out for informal mentoring, “I watch what they do, take on board some of their practices and am learning from them.” She has observed that because people are busy ‘doing’ the teaching, they forget to have conversations about it, “which if there were more of them, would actually influence the ways they teach.” This is an aspect of higher education teaching that Keri would like to talk more about and take some action on.

Mentoring or the lack of it Keri indicates was a topic talked about in a recent department meeting, “there have been formal mentoring programmes but they seem to have disappeared.” It emerged too that some colleagues viewed mentoring as “one of those things they haven’t got time to add into their day … and they‘re tired” but Keri believes that mentoring is an approach with the capacity to change that mindset and make a difference. Keri considers that her department is committed to the idea of mentoring but there’s nothing formal in place, “I’ve got goal setting coming up and I want to think about my plan for the next five years. But who do I go to for that and are people willing to help me with that?” She believes this issue is not unique to her department and indicates that because it is in her nature to be proactive, she will most certainly access the support she needs. Although Keri currently sees her need for mentoring as being more to do with career advancement than teaching, she is adamant that mentoring for teaching needs to be formally recognised and implemented.

What sustains Keri is seeing the “fruits of her work … I have seen students move from year one and graduate and I’ve seen the journey they’ve taken through those three, four years … the progress they’ve made … that is what excites me. Key for her is seeing people progress and improve, and she includes herself in that, “ especially those who perhaps never believed in themselves and you know, who other people never believed in.”

Theresa

Theresa has been employed at her current university in a permanent academic position for almost three years. Prior to her appointment, while completing her doctoral study, Theresa was a teaching fellow working with online students enrolled in a sports science diploma. She has also been an aerobics instructor for some years. Theresa does not have a formal teaching qualification but is nearing completion of a postgraduate certificate in tertiary teaching. Soon to begin her new role as a mentor and facilitator of learning in a newly established doctoral programme, Theresa is looking forward to new challenges in a new organisation.

Upon becoming a higher education teacher Theresa did not have a sense of her teaching philosophy, nor could she articulate one. When preparing for her job interview at the university she was focused on her discipline until a colleague suggested that she needed to include her philosophy of teaching, "I had no idea what they were talking about but that was the first time I thought 'teaching? philosophy? Oh crikey' … I searched websites and picked bits out of this and that, and put it on a bit of paper. I thought, 'yeah, that sounds like me'." Despite her preparation, to Theresa's surprise, she was not asked about teaching philosophy at her interview but she didn't feel her preparation and research were wasted. Knowing and being able to articulate her beliefs about teaching became critical in helping her to develop and refine her teaching practice, and recognise that she needed support, When I reflect back on that, there was something innate that seemed to resonate with me for some reason but I didn't know why … at that stage."

Theresa found the transition to academia challenging, higher education teaching in particular. The requirement to teach subjects outside her field of expertise was a key factor, "when I started here, three weeks before lectures started, I had to plan for first and third-year papers on topics I knew nothing about." The lack of support from colleagues added to her feelings of inadequacy, "I guess there was this assumption that I knew (what to do). I felt that I should have known that sort of stuff and thought they wouldn't have employed me if I couldn't do the job." Although Theresa attended several teaching and learning development workshops at the start of her first year, because she felt she had "nothing to hang them on" they initially had little impact on teaching. As her feelings of isolation intensified Theresa became increasingly introspective. Symptoms of her stress were anxiety and fatigue and in her second year at

the university resulted in a diagnosis of depression. While there were other contributing factors, for Theresa the lack of teaching support and the volume of work were catalysts for her unwellness and eventual departure from the university.

Although Theresa attended teaching development workshops she found she had 'nothing to hang them on'. But her attendance at the teaching network sessions led to her connecting with Barbara (a teacher developer at the university), who initially helped her to develop paper outlines and deal with other teaching related administrative matters. Barbara also attended a number of Theresa's classes and together they identified that it was time for Theresa to come out from 'behind the lectern'. At Barbara's suggestion Theresa began to keep a journal. She found that this complemented the practical support she was receiving and that it helped her to make sense of her teaching during her conversations with Barbara, "I think that was why I was struggling because I didn't know if what I was doing was right, or what the students should know – I always seemed to be the one doing the talking."

Theresa had to choose a mentor from within her department, "I thought that kind of odd as I knew no one at that point … it turned out that the person I did choose was directive and generally unavailable." Because the challenges she was facing with regard to her teaching seemed insurmountable Theresa made contact with the university's teaching and learning development unit. She was quickly connected with a mentor who provided her with the support necessary to develop her pedagogical practice as well as the pastoral care she urgently required. The support from her mentor included small but important things such as writing confidently on the white board, accessing teaching materials, where to locate room keys and so on, to the larger tasks of developing course outlines, preparing lecture notes and presentations, and employing hitherto unknown teaching strategies to engage her students. In addition, Theresa's mentor regularly observed her teaching and provided feedback, which led her to enrol in a postgraduate certificate in tertiary teaching, "It was about my own professional development. I wasn't going to teach students without something like that, they deserve more than that."

As a confident, collaborative and invitational teacher, Theresa now takes pleasure in co-constructing learning with her students. She recalled that as an aerobics instructor she used to say "this is your class", and has come to think the same way with her university students. "It's their degree, it's their class … I need to be there for them and they should

have my input. I care about them." Theresa has become a research-informed higher education teacher who reflects in and on her practice. Drawing from her own experience - mentoring made it possible for Theresa to know and understand that her teaching practice is learner and learning centered - she firmly believes that mentoring is critical to support the development of higher education teachers' pedagogical practice.

NB: Theresa's personal story is somewhat shorter than others. This is due in part to her relative newness to the university compared to the other participants, but also to her short tenure. By our second interview Theresa had already decided to resign. She joined the study because she wanted to tell her story in a safe space. It is a story that differs to others' because it is mired in the kinds of challenges, unsafe spaces and isolation that the other participants did not experience or certainly not with the same intensity.

Summary

The participants' stories that emerged from a deeper analysis of the transcripts emphasised restorying as a valuable constructivist research approach. As a further iteration of the data analysis writing and the ensuing discussions with participants about their individually generated stories, restorying contributed significantly to the identification of the themes and developing an understanding of them. While no new data sources were used, the method enabled further conversations to be had with the participants and clarity to be sought. The restorying approach emphasised content that may not have been recognised in the first data analysis. Through this personal story, application of the restorying approach offered a viable 'extra' given my lack of satisfaction with depth and breadth of the initial data. Further, I had to consider how these personal professional, participant-generated, stories should be shared, reflected upon, revised, expanded upon, and possibly redeployed in the future.

In-depth narrative interviews

An account of the data generated by the two narrative semi-structured interviews conducted with each participant is provided. To begin the analysis, data were thematically organised around the four questions posed in the first interview. Once I was familiar with the data, I was able to assign preliminary colour codes to the data to

help describe the content. I then searched for themes in the codes across the seven interviews, and reviewed and named the themes.

In the first interview the participants were asked about the ways they considered their beliefs and theories about teaching and learning to be 'lived' in their teaching practice (Appendix D). They then shared the influences and experiences they considered had helped them understand, develop, improve, and enhance their teaching pedagogy and practice. Next they were asked to specifically consider whether mentoring had a role in their teaching development, and in what ways. In light of this, the participants were invited to reflect on and share the ways that mentoring had, if at all, influenced changes to their beliefs about teaching pedagogy and practice. In the second interview, each participant was invited to add to the their teaching and mentoring story by reflecting and expanding on specific points raised and identified during the first interview.

Research questions

The central research question was 'how have higher education teachers' experiences of being mentored or being a mentor contributed to and influenced their understanding and development of their teaching pedagogy?' This led to the development of two sub-questions, which provided the foundation for the four main questions (Appendix D) employed in the narrative interviews.

1. In what ways do higher education teachers see their beliefs about teaching and learning being 'lived' in their pedagogical practice?
2. Are there particular factors that higher education teachers believe have influenced their understandings and development of their pedagogical practice?

Interview questions

1. Do you consider that your beliefs about teaching are 'lived' in your practice? In what ways?
2. What are the influences and experiences that have helped you to understand, develop and enhance your pedagogical practice?
3. Has being mentored or being a mentor, contributed to your understanding and the development of your pedagogical practice? In what ways?

4. Have your beliefs about teaching changed as a result of being a mentor or being mentored? In what ways?

The first two questions gave structure to the first narrative interview, and the second two were employed to initiate conversation in the second interview. All were intended to facilitate the probing of the participants' perceptions, understandings and experiences of teaching/mentoring; their perceptions of the inter-relationship of mentoring with teaching; and, their thinking about mentoring as an approach to support teaching practice. Further to this, sub-themes identified from the first interview were expanded upon in the second, although a specific set of questions was not employed given the diversity of thinking about teaching and mentoring that had emerged among the participants. These sub-themes are presented next as five main themes: beliefs about teaching; the influence of experiences; learning theory; professional development for teaching; and, mentoring.

Beliefs about teaching

The first main theme emerged from conversations about the participants' teacher beliefs. The question about whether the participants' teacher beliefs were being lived in their pedagogical practice elicited a variety of responses during the first in-depth narrative interviews. Each participant revealed, albeit their teacher beliefs in different ways and talked about the impact on their pedagogical practice. Several revealed this was the first time they had acknowledged and explored their teacher beliefs, while others indicated they had not paused for conversation about their beliefs for some time.

It was noticeable that Justin and Karen (both with formal primary teaching qualifications) were more able to articulate their teacher beliefs and largely drew on their school experiences to do so. As a former primary school teacher and school principal, Justin emphasised that the co-construction of learning with his students was a fundamental teaching belief for him and claimed that university teachers who did not provide opportunities for learning together were not 'fulfilling their roles as educators'. Justin also referred to his belief that getting to know his students enhanced their educational experience. Anecdotal evidence from practice supported Justin's view that these beliefs were complementary and that both led to effective learning and promoted student achievement, "When I am sitting alongside students in a tutorial and we're

discussing a topic or concept, I also check in with them about how they are going with their studies, university life." Also with extensive experience as a primary school teacher and deputy principal, Karen articulated that one of her key teacher beliefs was that teaching is a collaborative endeavour. She referred to the evolutionary nature of this belief and that she had become more confident, knowledgeable and reflective about her practice, and that it had become more explicit after her promotion to a leadership position.

Despite their prior teaching experience, both Justin and Karen found their teacher beliefs and practices challenged upon becoming higher education teachers. As new academics they found that their teacher beliefs were often in conflict with teaching practices in their new university context, and for a time they were less confident in articulating their beliefs about higher education teaching. Hence, they resisted bringing them to their higher education teaching practice. Karen felt she was not true to herself as teacher and experienced diminished self-efficacy. Justin further reasoned that the diminished self-efficacy and internal conflict he was experiencing were because learning with others had always been important for him whereas higher education teaching often seemed to be about transmitting information and content.

The tensions described by Justin and Karen's tested their beliefs in unforeseen ways but both asserted they now recognise when this is occurring and are able to critically reflect (preferably with others) to identify what is causing the disquiet. They have both realised that they can resolve the conflict and discomfort they are experiencing. Karen for instance identified six beliefs she considered traversed both the educational contexts with which she is affiliated (primary school and higher education): knowing one's discipline; knowing and understanding the teaching content and what is important to be taught; being well prepared for teaching; developing engaging and meaningful learning experiences; co-constructing learning; and building positive professional relationships. Karen had not recognised at first that her beliefs spanned both contexts but conversations with and observations of others helped her to understand this was indeed the case. She discovered that her prior teaching experience not only complemented her developing higher education pedagogical practice, it was informed by it. As she tentatively reviewed and refined her beliefs about teaching and adapted her teaching strategies, Karen's satisfaction with and enjoyment of her higher education teaching

increased. Justin similarly recognised a teacher belief central to his practice, that teaching is responsive. Even though he felt he had been focusing on one of his great dilemmas – teaching content. Justin had come to see that the range of teaching strategies he employed were responsive in that they encouraged active learning such as discussion, questioning and provided experiences, "… so that students are not just accepting of the content they need to have discussion … they need opportunities to challenge and question, and have that bigger picture of learning." A key insight for him was the importance he placed on modelling. This was not just exposing his students to the modelling of effective teaching as they prepared to teach in primary school classrooms but the modelling of questioning, writing, conducting research, and dispositions for effective learning that he provided in his classes to help his students succeed in their teacher education studies. Justin wanted them to have the tools to improve and enhance their own learning.

Theresa, Jemma and Lynne hail from different higher education disciplines but have a strong interest in higher education teaching in common. Knowing and being able to articulate her teacher beliefs has become critical in helping Theresa as she continues to develop and refine her pedagogical practice. Although she initially commented that she was largely unaware of any teacher beliefs she held because of her limited teaching background she discovered during the interview that she had formed some important beliefs that were already evident in her practice. While she largely attributed this to the support she had received from the university's teaching and learning development unit, Theresa's independent research and reading the literature from the higher education teaching field suggests her commitment to her own professional growth had been a significant factor. Theresa realised that one of her core beliefs was the importance of being there for her students because she cared about their learning and indeed about them. This realisation which came from reflection, not only led Theresa to the belief that teaching is learner and learning centred but motivated her subsequent professional development with a mentor from the university's teaching and learning development unit. This has served to increase her confidence further and she has begun to experiment with different strategies, which includes moving more freely about the classroom rather than station herself behind a lectern. As Theresa has begun to ask more challenging questions of her students and co-construct knowledge with them, she recognises these

are critical elements of her central teacher belief that teaching is learner and learning centred.

Keri's teaching experiences were somewhat different to those of the other participants. While she has a primary teaching qualification Keri's teaching experiences have largely been in higher education, with her teaching beliefs largely forming in the higher education context. Keri recognised social justice as a central belief in her teaching philosophy and that was lived in her pedagogical practice. Her belief that "everyone can learn something in some way" was evident in her commitment to support students to develop learning independence. She also acknowledged the importance of being adaptive and taking a flexible approach to teaching in an increasingly diverse university environment, "… we are pulling in more and more people who would not have gone to university before. In some ways those people are not ready for university level study but they're here and I've got to work with them so how can I move them somewhere? For me it's a lot about moving thought processes and attitudes and stuff, and getting people to think and be more critically reflective … rather than teach them a whole lot of things."

In contrast to the other participants, despite Alan having taught in higher education for a number of years, he had not considered his teacher beliefs until his participation in this study. As one of two participants without a formal teaching qualification, Alan did not find it easy to articulate his beliefs at first but perhaps because of this seemed more concise. This may have been because he had not experienced the tensions of transitioning from one education context to another or was still grappling with the newness of higher education teaching. But he was curious about exploring his teacher beliefs. Important to Alan was his belief that it was his responsibility to help students achieve and enjoy their learning by teaching in creative and innovative ways. Acknowledging the challenges of 'living' that belief in his practice in light of the crucial content he had to cover in his science discipline, Alan wanted to convey that sentiment to his students. His commitment to teaching in ways that helped students achieve good grades was one of the aspects of his teaching that he found the most fulfilling and that motivated him to create a learning environment in which robust learning occurred. Alan also highlighted the importance of paying attention to the needs of students at the various stages of their studies, and of varying his approach depending on the year level.

He wanted to ensure that challenging content was clear and that students understood it. To do that he tried to be entertaining as he considered students became easily bored. To counter this he aimed to provide good notes, keep to time, and be enthusiastic. In part this was because he had found students commented on these things in their teaching evaluations. Injecting humour into his teaching was also important to Alan, "… it helps to lighten the atmosphere given the area I teach is not the most popular subject." As Alan shared examples from his practice to illustrate his teacher beliefs, it was clear that using a range of effective teaching approaches to engage students in their learning was very important to him.

When talking about their teacher beliefs the participants seemed more able to talk about them through stories rather than less tangible concepts of teaching. They wove their responses into stories rather than specific talk about beliefs. Not surprisingly this necessitated prompting by me, and seeking clarification and extension of ideas. Moreover I wanted to be sure the participants would not be misrepresented in the study.

Establishing relationships with students

Establishing positive professional relationships with students was a teacher belief all of the participants referred to as a key factor that contributed to effective teaching. It includes knowing students' names, getting to know their students and being responsive to their learning needs. Their thinking about relationships also aligns with their beliefs about learner centeredness, collaboration and co-construction of learning.

Alan's belief that relationships built in the context of good teaching create connections between students and their HE teacher highlights his awareness of connecting with students while acknowledging the challenges of relationship building when student numbers are high. Despite this Alan considers that simply knowing students' names is a key relationship builder even when class sizes are sometimes a barrier. He finds that Moodle is helpful in this regard, "because you can flick down the list and identify faces and names … You're not some number, you're not some impersonal number." He also considers that in his department he can be more in touch with the students because of smaller class sizes.

Also alluding to getting to know her students, Karen comments on the importance of being authentic as a person and in one's practice, "You have to be who you are and let them [students] get to know you." Drawing on research about relationship building has helped Karen to establish professional relationships with her students. She is aware that unlike higher education teachers in other disciplines, as a teacher educator she is more able to focus on building relationships with her teacher education students because relationship building was a topic in their programme, and she spent time with them in schools and at the university. Even so, Karen has found that establishing relationships with university students can be fraught and is certainly more complex than with primary school children, "sometimes people (students) aren't happy when you think they are. You think things are boxing along nicely and then they withdraw … and you're like, I didn't see that coming. … I don't think I really acknowledged that adult students are a bit harder to read." She points out that merely articulating a belief about relationship building is inadequate. The belief holder needs to know what a positive professional relationship 'looks like'. In her online teaching Karen has become even more aware of the importance of relationships, "when a student appears apathetic perhaps they're not, perhaps that's just a message they're giving." Now she steps back a little more and reflects on what has been written before she responds and believes that she has "… grown, enhanced my toolbox I suppose, of teaching."

Relationships with students are similarly considered by Theresa, Keri and Lynne to be integral to, and generated by effective teaching. Lynne believes that the complexities of relationship building can be addressed to a significant extent in this way, which she contends generates good relationships and vice versa, " if you are a good teacher you are going to develop quite a strong interpersonal relationship with students not on the level of friend or anything … and you learn from your students." This thinking about relationships is a deeply embedded and central belief held by Lynne that is illustrated in her practice through her welcoming of challenge and questions from students. A higher education teacher she says can, " ... pick up a hell of a lot from what students ask in class … and they know they are going to be treated respectfully."

Theresa wants students to 'feel comfortable to come to her for advice because the relational side of teaching is highly important to her. She indicates that when the relationship with students is positive she is more motivated to make her teaching

interesting and include elements of co-inquiry and co-construction, “then good classroom discussions happen and their thinking can be challenged.” And when it came to relationship building, Keri preferred to work with small groups because through them she felt trust and respect could be gained. Moreover she found that students achieved well in such a setting. She also noticed that when her colleagues observed these good results, her relationships with them also improved.

While negotiating and developing relationships with students was emphasised by all participants, Lynne commented that it could be challenging to traverse students’ expectations when it came to being friendly and being a friend, “you’re not their friend but you can be friendly which is a really difficult one for first year students to get their heads around … because you’re friendly they think you’re their friend.” This was also illustrated by Theresa who had found in her new role, that there was a tension between being a friend and being friendly. This was an aspect of her practice she had frequently navigated. It is worth noting too that Theresa recognised pastoral care to be an important element in her belief about relationships. This meant that she sometimes created a greater workload for herself because she wanted her students to feel comfortable and confident to make contact with her about their learning.

In acknowledging relationships as one of their important teacher beliefs, each of the participants indicated how and why it was important. Their shared view that when relationships were established in the teaching setting they not only contributed to the continuous improvement and enhancement of their pedagogical practice but to students’ achievement.

Influence of experiences on the development of pedagogical practice

As the participants settled into the first narrative interview they articulated and expanded on the influence of prior experience on the development of their pedagogical practice. For several it provided them with an opportunity to explore the interaction between them and their students, the learning environment and the learning experiences (Murphy, 2008) not previously thought about or talked about and they appreciated the opportunity to do so.

In response to the question about the influence of prior experience on the development of their pedagogical practice, the participants drew on various events to illustrate the factors that had contributed to it. While diverse, each participant's experiences were clearly meaningful to them and provoked an emotional response from several.

Childhood experiences

Several of the participants talked about the influence of their childhood experiences on the development of their pedagogical practice. Their recognition of the intricate nature of the relationship between the personal and the professional was tangible.

The influence of the childhood experiences of Jemma, Lynne, Keri, and Karen were significant. Jemma's mother had been a teacher, which she attributed to her decision to become a school teacher. She became quite emotional as she pointed out that teaching had been right at the heart of her whole teaching journey, "… for me it has been my life you know?" She couldn't really think of herself as a person without thinking of herself as a teacher. "The journey started a long time ago when I was a very small child … I remember that I always wanted to play schools so it was always something I wanted to do." Although Lynne didn't 'play schools' as a child and was not initially drawn to teaching, she credits her mother as a key influence, "the way that she taught influenced a lot of my own sort of attitudes to it."

Keri was not influenced by a teacher parent but she does remember playing schools as a child, "… making them sit in my little playhouse while I harped on at them from the front about something." It was Keri's early school experiences, highly effective teachers in particular, that led to her desire to be in 'school mode' as much as she could. Karen's childhood primary school experiences also had a significant influence on the development of her pedagogical practice, "it probably goes back to how I was taught you know?" She recalled kind and nurturing teachers who provided stimulating and positive learning experiences in learning centred environments. They took time to get to know their students and were adept at 'tailor making' learning to meet students' needs. Notably, both Karen and Keri indicated that they felt important, valued and understood during their school years.

University experiences

Three participants pointed to the influence of their university student experiences on the development of their own higher education pedagogical practice. Reference was made by Jemma and Karen to the ways that research and literature had been influential during the course of their teacher education study and later during their postgraduate studies. For Jemma, reading literature not only supported and informed her practice, she enjoyed sharing her learning with others. She recalled the strong influence of an English tutor during her undergraduate study, and that it was the only time of the week where she felt she had something personal as in his interactions the lecturer always communicated that he valued each person. For Jemma, this lecturer made the discipline intellectually exciting.

Somewhat differently to the other participants, Keri transitioned from student teacher to postgraduate student to higher education teacher. She recognised the impact of her student experiences on taking this pathway as she went from undergraduate to honours study. She came to recognise that she wasn't really passionate about working in a classroom so volunteered to mark and tutor for some of her lecturers. Keri enjoyed working with people she knew and it changed her ideas from being a school teacher to being a university teacher.

Less than half the participants talked explicitly about the ways their university student experiences had influenced the development of their pedagogical practice. There appeared to be tacit evidence of such influence among the remaining participants, although this was not explored further with them.

Collegial experiences

Working alongside and observing colleagues in the university has had a significant influence on the development of Alan's pedagogical practice. Initially he received good support from his peers, "When I came here they were quite kind … I was put into a masters class and I'd prepared for that already because it was the same material I was teaching in Japan, and it was just a matter of adapting my lectures." This collegial support motivated Alan to continue to seek ways to improve and enhance his practice and in time, he was able to offer support to others. Lynne's university colleagues were influential in comparable ways. She felt extremely well supported by her senior

colleagues, head of department and faculty dean, and they recognised what she was aiming to do with her teaching. Important for Lynne was being able to sit down with them and have conversations about what she was doing.

The influence of colleagues has, however, not been consistently positive. Theresa illustrated this with several examples from her own experiences. One was when her department mentor rather than modelling and teaching would proscribe elements of her teaching preparation, “I’d prepare my paper outline and show him. He’d go through and cross things out … I had no idea why he was doing this and that and the next thing.” A second example came from a professional goal setting session soon after Theresa’s arrival at the university. The same colleague attempted to dissuade her from engaging in professional development to improve her teaching despite one of Theresa’s professional development goals being to enrol in a postgraduate certificate of tertiary teaching. She recalls the disparaging tone of her mentor who commented, “Why have you put that down as goal?” but also her response, “because I don’t have a teaching qualification and I’m here teaching students so I kind of think, well isn't that what you should be doing?” Theresa was not dissuaded and successfully pursued her goal.

Keri felt equally disheartened as several colleagues actively discouraged her from engaging in the innovative and relational practices that were central to her teacher beliefs and practice, “They said to me, ‘there’s other people to do that, there’s support services’. And to students they’ll say, ‘here is my office hour’ and that’s it for the week … then I’ve seen the other side where people pretty much disempower students by mollycoddling them taking their sense of ability away.”

While their experiences of being negatively influenced by colleagues have been challenging for Keri and Theresa, they both indicated they had also helped them to make decisions about ‘what not to do’. These experiences also encouraged them to actively seek out colleagues they could ‘learn with and from’.

For the most part the development of the participants’ pedagogical practice was positively related to positive interaction with colleagues.

Prior teaching experience

Prior teaching experience appeared to influence the development of some participants' pedagogical practice.

Karen believed that her commitment to teaching was what sustained her, and that her prior experiences as a primary teacher had positively influenced the development of her higher education pedagogical practice. She brought deeply embedded beliefs about teaching to the higher education context indicating the influence of her years as a primary school teacher followed by a school leadership role. Karen considered these had given her greater insight into her beliefs and become more aware of those held by others. She also indicated that staying true to her teacher self and sharing that with students were critical to the development of her higher education teaching practice. Karen also attributed the opportunity to teach students enrolled in a university programme outside of her area of expertise as a significant influence that led her to adapt her pedagogical practice while teaching in an online early childhood education graduate programme. Intentional and critical reflection on her teaching practice and her teacher beliefs increased Karen's confidence, which led to further self-reflection and reflection with others, "It has made me more aware of things like when a student appears apathetic perhaps they're not apathetic, perhaps that's just a message that they're unintentionally giving and it's up to me to work that through with them."

Lynne's prior teaching experience has been an advantage. It helped her to be prepared for higher education teaching. Describing herself as an 'intuitive teacher' particularly with regard to developing relationships with students, Lynne considers that her prior teaching experience has helped her to develop a kind of "teaching wisdom" that was supported by her teaching philosophy and knowledge of pedagogical practice. Moreover, once embedded in the higher education setting her practice was further enhanced by her research into higher education teaching in the science discipline. Jemma and Keri similarly considered that their prior teaching experiences had contributed positively to the development of their pedagogical practice in higher education. So too did Justin, although it took him some time to see that this was so. His feeling of disconnect between two contexts when he transitioned from his primary school context to higher education prevailed for a considerable time. It had prevented

him from recognising the value of his prior experiences and the teaching expertise he brough to higher education.

Understandings of learning theory

A third theme emerged from the participants' references to learning theory. Tacit in the participants' talk about specific influences on the development of their pedagogical practice, those participants with formal teaching qualifications were more likely to use terminology associated with learning theories such as scaffolded, co-construction, interaction, active learning, collaborative learning, modelling, relational, co-operation and so on. None referred to their practice being influenced or underpinned by learning theories, even when illustrating their teacher beliefs and aspects of their practice with examples. While all talked about building positive relationships to enhance students' learning and talked about creating learning environments in which students felt safe to share ideas, ask questions and challenge they did not connect this to specific learning theories. A great example of this tacit theorising was evident in Justin's articulation of his teacher beliefs and his approach in the higher education classroom, "Learning together is important. We need to have discussion and challenge so that they are not just accepting, we need to question as well to help them have that bigger picture of learning."

Those with teaching backgrounds (primary and secondary school) felt strongly about employing interactive approaches that challenged students to think critically and scaffolded their learning. They referred to the co-construction of learning and collaborative learning as being critical in higher education and commented on the ways they sought to facilitate this with their students so they engaged with and had ownership of their learning.

It was clear that all of the participants were committed to making students' learning relevant and interesting, and when possible, experience-based. For Karen, collaborative learning and modelling underpinned the decisions she made when planning for teaching. With one of her teacher beliefs being that teaching and learning are collaborative endeavours, Karen aimed to make this explicit to her students by employing collaborative learning strategies in the classroom saying, "I want to work alongside my students, and for them to work alongside each other. I tell them that."

For teacher educators Justin and Karen there was an ongoing tension because of the need to adhere to the prescribed curriculum of teacher education. Nevertheless they were adamant that co-construction and collaborative learning were critical, and were determined to continue to find ways to implement these and other active learning approaches. Justin's view was that students must be active partners in their learning, "When we work together, my students will sometimes say, 'you just raised more questions for us'. That comes back to my beliefs about teaching, that it's a two-way thing. They make me think and read more about the topic as well, which hopefully makes me a better teacher, which impacts on their learning." Justin also employed a wide range of strategies to enhance students' learning. He would ask them how they would like to proceed on their learning journey together and once the parameters were established he would sit alongside, offer guidance, challenge the students to encourage deep thinking, and help them construct their understanding of what was being learned. Notably Justin commented, "it doesn't have to reflect my own thinking." He also talked about modelling. This was an aspect of Justin's teaching practice that he considered critical for the development of his student teachers' own pedagogical practice, "I want to model the kinds of strategies and techniques that they will use in the classroom.

In contrast, Alan was alone in his view that teaching is content led. That does not mean he was not interested in students' learning or that it prevented him from thinking carefully about the kinds of strategies that would make learning interesting. But Alan was comfortable and confident with the content focused nature of his teaching given how critical it was in his science field. He was also very aware that engaged and motivated students achieved better, "I try, and well I want to make sure I teach so that it's not horribly boring but unfortunately it can be that with way with some of the material I teach. I want to make sure it's clear, that they understand it." For Alan, the best indicator of effective teaching was student grades. For him this was one of the most fulfilling aspects of his teaching, "if they get a good grade and you can see from their answers that they're not just rote learning, they're actually knowing and understanding."

While Alan pointed out the importance of learning facts about which he considered there could be no discussion, he tempered this perspective and explained that students also needed to know 'what and why' they were learning, and that it was not just being 'done to them'. Although his focus was largely on grades as an indicator of good

learning, he also employed approaches that could be said to align with a constructivist approach to teaching and learning. This was particularly apparent in Alan's comments about the importance of students 'knowing and understanding' and needing to 'know how they're being assessed', and his earlier comments about the importance of 'getting to know' students and making time to work with them one to one when they found the content difficult.

Alternatively, the notion of 'content first' was something of an issue for Lynne despite it being the prevailing approach in her science faculty. That is not to say Lynne was arguing for less importance to be place on content in her discipline, rather she acknowledged her preference for an integrated approach that encompassed effective teaching and the subject matter. Lynne emphasised that when quality teaching occurs, quality learning happens.

Only Keri and Jemma referred to adult learning but not from a theoretical perspective. This was evident in Keri's articulation of her commitment to higher education teaching, "I love teaching adults…for me it's about getting people to think more critically rather than teaching them a whole lot of things … I thrive and want them to as well, on those academic conversations … if I can get people to experience some sort of success they can feel more confident about going and doing things outside of here." Jemma too emphasised that adult learners want and need to be accountable and responsible for their own learning. She believed that teaching approaches should reflect that and that readiness was a critical factor, "I build the notion of teacher readiness into my thinking now. I used to get really upset that we'd agreed on something and people couldn't implement it …then I realised there's a huge gap between taking it on cognitively and implementing it. In a way, my work has to sit in that space … the space between the intellectual acquisition of the knowledge and the performative ability - so I can help build bridges across that."

That is not to say talk about adult learning was not present in others' talk albeit in different ways. Justin for instance, highlighted the importance of creating opportunities for discussion in which learning was problem rather than content centred. And Lynne and Karen talked about the applicability of experience as a basis for learning in their classes. Both considered 'hands-on' experiences critical for learning. A further example can be found in Theresa's experience of learning to teach when she drew on more

diverse strategies and had conversations with her students about how they wanted to learn. A turning point for her (and her students) was a conversation generated by her students' lack of engagement in their learning. As she talked with them about their expectations of her as teacher and themselves as learners given the majority were not engaging with the readings, a student commented *'*I just come along and hear what you have to say and then I know it*'*. Others nodded in agreement. This perspective did not 'sit well' with Theresa's developing teacher beliefs, in particular that teaching and learning is reciprocal. She chose to ponder the student's comment for a few days before responding, "I don't see myself as the expert. You have expertise, I can learn from you and you can learn from me – we can learn off each other. By not doing the readings you are making me go right against my teaching philosophy … I feel I have to transmit this information to you so that we can get on with the tutorial." Her response led to a robust conversation with the students about expectations. Importantly for her it also led to greater clarity about the kind of teacher she wanted to be.

While the principles and strategies of different learning theories were evident as the participants talked about their teacher beliefs and the influence of experiences on their pedagogical practice for most, they were not explicitly linked with specific learning theories.

Professional development for teaching

The influence of the professional development theme was highlighted by some of the participants. It was embedded in their talk about teaching along with their expectations that it should be available. Even though some commented this was not the prevailing view of some of their colleagues, none was inactive with regard to their teaching development. The participants all conveyed a firm commitment to being effective teachers, which had led them to take responsibility for their own professional development, albeit in a variety of ways. This ranged from formal approaches such as being involved with their university's teaching network, enrolment in a tertiary teaching qualification and participation in higher education teaching associations and conferences to more informal approaches, such as conversation and observation.

Formal professional development

While Lynne attended and often facilitated teaching network events at the university, among the other participants only Theresa had sought formal support for teaching through her university's teaching network and her eventual enrolment in a postgraduate tertiary teaching certificate. In light of the challenges faced early in her academic career, Theresa considered that taking a formal approach to her teaching development was essential. With her pedagogical practice developing and encouraged by increasing success in the classroom, Theresa enrolled in a post-graduate certificate for tertiary teaching. She found that the research focus helped her to gain confidence in herself despite everything else that was going on, "It was then that I truly came out from behind the lectern."

More informal types of professional development tended to influence the development of the other participants' pedagogical practice. Notably, it was their realisation of the need for such development that motivated them to initiate professional development opportunities such as those that follow.

Professional conversations

Integral for all of the participants were the professional conversations they sought out to develop, improve, enhance, and make sense of their pedagogical practice. Lynne viewed these conversations as a vital influence, and recalled the many positive conversations she had over time with her head of department and faculty dean. Being able to talk with them about her practice and seek advice about teaching related matters. In citing the conversations had with her head of department soon after her arrival at the university, Lynne emphasised that for her the important conversations were more about how she fitted in with how she saw herself, and with how people saw her. Lynne's experiences led to her view that in learning to teach, especially when there is a reluctance to engage in formal learning about teaching, conversation can be a powerful and empowering tool that can lead to action taking. For Jemma, the conversations with her line manager led to developing greater confidence in her own teaching and a willingness to experiment. Jemma highlighted that in the conversations with her manager he would sometimes give advice but more often he gave what she described as, "a freedom to pursue my own path and let me set the conversation."

Despite being an experienced educator in the primary school sector, Karen initially found her move to higher education teaching both challenging and isolating. She commented, “I don’t know that I transferred who I was and my being, and how I saw myself and my self-efficacy and confidence and all that.” Although relatively comfortable in the privacy of her own classroom, Karen’s confidence was more widely affected by other factors that impacted on her sense of teacher self, “really important things to me, like having a sense of belonging and feeling okay in the staffroom.” But her desire to ‘fit in’ led her to identify the kind of professional support she needed. For Karen it was connecting with colleagues through conversation, “talking to other people and sharing ideas, having conversations about all sorts of things.”

Peer observation

Another professional development strategy referred to by the participants was peer observation. Inspired by her former head of department who was open to observation of his teaching Lynne became more alert to and reflective in and on her practice, “I would go and sit in on his classes … he just had this voluminous knowledge… that’s seen me in the end start giving those lectures and I’ve been very pleased with how I’ve done it. But I couldn’t have, if I hadn’t watched him … Picking up some of the things, some of what he did, the little tricks and displays.” Lynne’s view that peer observation of ‘good’ teachers in action had added to her own teaching repertoire led her to employ a similar invitational approach. She willingly welcomed colleagues into her classes but believed too that peer observation should be reciprocal, “… if someone wants me to sit in on their class that’s fine but they should also want to come in and sit in on mine.”

Karen similarly viewed opportunities to observe others as essential to developing her practice. Her primary teaching background meant she had regularly been observed for appraisal purposes, so soon after her appointment to the university when she became aware that observation was not a feature of higher education teacher development she asked her head of department if somebody would be observe her teach and lecture, “He looked at me as if he’d seen a pig go flying through the sky.” Realising that observation was not a formal component of performance appraisal, Karen initiated feedback through peer observation for herself, “I asked R if he would come and observe me, give me written feedback on a lecture on a particular day. Which he did. We met afterwards and he pointed out that I said ‘gonna’ about three million times in that one lecture, and some

other things as well. They seem like small things but it was so powerful and I was really needing it. Just confirmation that I was doing an okay job." The experience of inviting a colleague to observe her teaching led Karen to realise that peer observation had been a 'lived experience' when she was a primary school teacher and that it had been a significant influence on her professional development.

Alan also modelled his teaching on those he had identified as good teachers. He found that observations of his peers helped him to improve his practice. Although Theresa lacked the confidence to invite peers into her teaching space she had found observations by her mentor - a teaching developer - extremely valuable. These observations facilitated professional conversations and led to several different inquiries into her practice. Eventually, she shared the results of her self-studies at several conferences with likeminded peers.

It seemd that most participants found peer observation to be a powerful and effective form of professional development, especially when accompanied and/or followed by professional conversations. Initiated in varying ways, peer observation was largely self-facilitated and informal.

Mentoring

The fifth theme to emerge from the first narrative interview was the contribution of mentoring to understanding and developing pedagogical practice.

Being a mentee

Formal mentoring for the development of their pedagogical practice was not available to any of the participants when they began their academic careers. Rather it was informal and often self-initiated. For Alan, Lynne and Jemma who had been employed at the university the longest, the term mentoring had not even been a part of the teaching development discourse when they began. Interestingly, Karen, Justin, Keri and Theresa also commented on the lack of a formal mentoring programme. With the latter more recent arrivals to the university, they talked of their need to employ 'survival strategies' and of the 'culture shock' they experienced, especially in the first two years. Their belief was that being mentored would have been beneficial. To clarify, this view

pertained not just to teaching but their research, service and administrative work. All four were surprised by the lack of formal support available to them.

Despite feeling confident with her teaching (and perhaps because of it) Lynne immediately sought mentoring from her head of department on her appointment at the university over 20 years ago. She had quickly recognised that her new context required something different despite her experience as a secondary school science teacher. Lynne's head of department became a mentor significantly influenced her pedagogical practice in higher education. Engaging with him over a substantial period created opportunities for her to explore, experiment and consolidate her pedagogical practice in diverse teaching settings.

Similar to Lynne, Alan was not provided with a mentor when he first began teaching but unlike her, he did not seek one out. He recalled that while a 'colleague in support' (CiS) was assigned to him that person largely left him to his own devices. Nonetheless, on occasion Alan sought guidance from his colleagues although it was not always specifically for teaching support.

Karen's expectations were quite different. Mentored throughout her primary teaching career, since her appointment to the university she had not been formally or informally mentored for teaching. Some of that she attributed to her having been a teaching fellow for several years prior. The expectation appeared to be that she could do the work, "… but it's different when you move to a lecturer's position – the expectations are higher but the support isn't there to help you meet them." Working in teaching teams that ranged in size from two to seven faculty, Karen was regularly exposed to different teaching styles and approaches. While she received planning and assessment support, and support to develop and understand content from her teaching teams, she also recognised the importance of being proactive, "I ask questions, watch others, and get feedback on my teaching." Justin similarly talked about the lack of mentoring for teaching. Fortunately, with his prior primary school principal and teaching background he had a foundation from which to grow his higher education teaching, and was confident in asking questions and seeking support from his colleagues. Also important for Justin was being able to observe others. He found that along with asking questions, observation and listening in on professional conversations helped him to develop his understandings about HE teaching, " … especially when you align with people who

think the same way as you about teaching." While Justin identified that some of those he aligned himself with were not always the most expert people in the team, establishing and sustaining professional relationships was crucial for him and he enjoyed, "the challenge of working things out with others."

Both Karen and Justin were members of teaching teams that helped them to develop their higher education pedagogical practice. Justin recognised that he had been informally mentored, "there hasn't been a formal sense of that (mentoring) but a lot of informal. People most probably don't realise that's how I see them." And Karen recognised the teaching team as a vital conduit for informal mentoring, "… teaching in teams where you can see different people (teach), make connections and have time to think about and reflect on it." With regard to the CiS programme also referred to by Alan, Justin was surprised that his CiS did not discuss teaching with him rather the emphasis was on administration, research and other aspects of university life. He did find this useful for introducing him to the university's wider networks, which in turn helped him to know who to 'shoulder tap' for support. Justin also talked about what his reaction might have been had he been assigned a mentor with no consultation. He suspected that in light of his previous teaching background he would have questioned being assigned a mentor with whom he had not developed a professional relationship or had the opportunity to agree on the parameters of the relationship.

Quite differently to the other participants, Keri's pathway to becoming an academic had started with her time as a postgraduate student and part-time tutor. Upon completion of her PhD Keri gained a permanent lecturer position at the university. As a student and tutor Keri had been mentored informally and considered this had mitigated her induction into higher education teaching. From her perspective, informal mentoring along with her prior experience had enabled her to align with other colleagues whose ways of teaching resonated with her own and gain in confidence as she developed her own teaching philosophy and style, "As I've travelled along those relationships have changed a bit … as you catch up to the level your colleagues are working at you find you need other people to shift you somewhere else. So the relationships along the way have changed slightly and not in a bad way. I mean, it's just the whole journey." Even so, Keri occasionally found herself in receipt of what she described as "unwanted mentoring". Although a dilemma for her at the time, subsequent reflection has led Keri

to recognise that these experiences heightened her awareness of what mentoring 'isn't' (for her at least), and that informed consideration must be given to the matching of mentors and mentees. While the other participants did not allude to experiences with or intimate that multiple mentors could play a part in their higher education teaching development, Keri conveyed her belief that one mentor was insufficient, "While the connection with a mentor is really important, I feel like there need to be more and different people to work with … to mentor me … there's lots of advice and guidance they can give."

For Jemma, being mentored was crucial to her development as both a secondary school teacher and higher education teacher. Jemma raised the importance of being matched with a mentor, "I think from my own perspective that is a big thing about mentoring, the way it works. It's got to work with that person (the mentor)." She drew on the example of a mentor with whom she had developed a strong professional relationship over a number of years, "His style was quite low key and it wasn't him telling … it was conversation and encouraging me to try things out." Theresa also indicated that her mentor's style was similar to that of Jemma's. Her mentor had provided crucial teaching development support in parallel with pastoral care during her first two years at the university, "One of my things around the teaching was developing co-inquiry learning … I would go to Barbara and say, 'I've got this great idea'. And she would say, 'Well, maybe you could think about it in this way'. I like that she's not in my department so I can vent about the things that I see happening from a teaching aspect that I don't like or don't understand, I can get things off my chest so they don't fester." For Theresa, like Keri, connecting with her mentor was vital, "I like Barbara – we click for whatever reason. She's got huge knowledge about teaching. She knows the teaching literature and she can just kind of make sense of what I've been trying to say."

The participants affirmed the need for mentoring to develop their pedagogical practice in the higher education context but they also conveyed the limited nature of it in drawing from their own experiences. There is evidence that informal mentoring has contributed to the development of the participants' pedagogical practice albeit in diverse ways. Each participant alluded to the opportunities they had been given or self-initiated to talk with others about teaching practice, to teach alongside them, and to be guided by them. Several indicated there had been mentors who had been influential over a longer

period of time whereas others took a kind of 'pick 'n' mix' approach depending on their needs. Being able to choose a mentor was important for most. As Keri pointed out, "mentees should have a voice with regards to who they are partnered with." While only Keri articulated that multiple mentors would be more effective than one, there was evidence to indicate other participants had experienced multiple mentors.

Being a mentor

Whatever their motivation for being a mentor, each participant welcomed opportunities to share their expertise, offer guidance and advice, and be a sounding board for colleagues seeking to develop their pedagogical practice. While their understandings of mentoring varied, most understood mentoring to be an experienced person providing support to someone less experienced. Alan was more of an outlier with his interpretation of mentoring, which he viewed as being more intermittent in nature, and comprising telling and showing. The participants also valued the opportunity being a mentor afforded them to develop their own practice (a hoped for, if not intended, consequence of being a mentor). Despite the limited nature or absence of mentoring in their own experience, they were not deterred from being a mentor, in fact for some it motivated them to do so. While explicit in some participants' thinking but more inherent in others, the notion of 'paying it forward' was specifically raised by Keri, "I've always been a bit of an encourager…everywhere I've been and every job I've done I've sort of had that element of bettering myself and wanting that for others. People have opened up possibilities for me so it's a kind of natural wanting to pay it forward."

Although not specifically referred to by Lynne, the notion of 'paying it forward' had become embedded in her thinking about being a mentor. She held strong views about the need for mentoring higher education teachers, which had been reinforced by her own positive experiences. Jemma held the same strong views. Like Lynne, her experiences of being mentored had also motivated her to support others to develop their pedagogical practice. She indicated that she increasingly thought about how to support teachers to enhance their practice and students' learning experiences. To do that she believed that teachers needed to look at their teaching and seek to improve it. For Jemma, excitement about her work was not only for the learners but for the teachers

themselves, “In particular, the joy in what they do, their excitement about it, but changing it seems to be very, very slow.”

The desire to ‘pay it forward’ was evident among all of the participants. In light of Lynne’s advocacy for mentoring, her faculty dean had encouraged her to pursue and design a formal mentoring programme. Despite this encouragement and support Lynne faced a number of challenges, “… the challenge has been to persuade people there are better ways to do things from a teaching and learning perspective … and that’s tricky because you know, your average lecturer comes in and doesn’t get any teaching development support unless they voluntarily go and get it. There has been a lot of encouragement for people to do so but, if not, they basically come in and either teach the way they were taught or the way they wish they had been taught.” While Lynne believed that every higher education teacher should be learning and working with a mentor, she also believed that not everyone could or should be a mentor.

As a mentor, Lynne considered that her role was to empower the academics who participated in her mentoring sessions and to help them scrutinise their teaching from different perspectives. Jemma also articulated her unequivocal belief in and commitment to the empowering nature of mentoring. She considered an inquiry approach to be the most beneficial, “By using a mentoring model of inquiry we’re actually doing inquiry-based development and in doing so, thinking through the whole journey.”

Jemma’s strong view was that ‘conversational spaces’ were critical. While at times she felt compelled to give mentees the answers (or mentees compelled her to do so), she was committed to the inquiry approach, “after all these years in teaching there’s sometimes this impulse to say, ‘come on, do this’… I’m trying to be much more by allowing myself to work with them, to help them set things up and use a lot of questions ... use inquiry learning.”

For Jemma mentoring has been the most effective form of inquiry-based teacher development, even though employing an inquiry stance for teaching and mentoring has been a labour intensive approach, “Because it’s frequently one-to-one. You and they are starting wherever they’re at, and the learning grows out of that. If it’s an assessment issue, instead of saying, “Read all of these things about assessment,” we begin with the

problem and build the literature and the practice up around that." She pointed out that this intensity is mitigated by the long term gains, "We have a planned meeting with their agenda, which is usually based on their research. I also give them space if things have come up and they want to talk … sometimes in our conversations people want what I didn't have when I was a teacher. Someone to talk to about teaching, learning and being an academic."

Others did not believe they had been or were mentors but as they examined their experiences further, they came to see this was not the case. For several, their mentoring work had begun through their course/paper convenors and programme leader roles. For example, as a course/paper convenor, Karen had become more aware of the importance of being a mentor for a new academic, especially in light of the limited nature of her own experiences. This kind of informal mentoring was also alluded to by Alan. Interestingly, Justin considered that a mentor did not necessarily have to have a formal teaching qualification but they needed to have an understanding of teaching and learning, and of mentoring, "I think there are some very good mentors without an educational background but they are excellent teachers and know how to support others."

Keri had informally mentored several colleagues and found her prior experiences valuable, "I'm starting to have sessional assistants working with me which is what I used to do with others, so knowing where those gaps were I think it's been easier for me to know what I need to give those people and how I perhaps need to guide them." Remembering 'what it was like' for her has motivated Keri to give extra time and guidance, which has also reinforced her belief that reassurance is a vital aspect of mentoring new higher education teachers, "Because you know people shifting into new roles is, well, it's always actually, well not necessarily a challenge but it is. It's an unfamiliar space so making that transition into that space a bit easier." Being able to bring her insights to mentoring has therefore been important for Keri. Realising she could make a difference in the short term and potentially the long term was an important aspect of her thinking about the purpose of mentoring, "I'm into contributing to development in a supportive environment in every sense of the word – my colleagues, with my students in my class, so that everyone gets the opportunity to enhance. I think everyone's better off including me. For me, it's strategic – that sense of togetherness

because lots of heads are better than one." Like Jemma, Keri didn't want mentoring to just be about giving information or creating dependence, rather she saw it as helping others to empower themselves, "In a university context it needs to be about developing the whole person – the teacher and the researcher – you can be strategic at the same time. One doesn't diminish the other."

Interestingly and not raised by others, Keri identified a difference between mentoring and advice giving. She commented that there could be a reluctance to use the term mentoring because for some it connoted a need for help, "I think we tend not to say we are mentoring new colleagues instead we more subtly offer advice with support and guidance - not usually explicitly." But for Keri, mentoring was more than advice giving it was about change (including self-initiated change), relationships and networking.

All participants viewed being a mentor for the development of pedagogical practice as an important element of their academic work. Stemming from their own experiences – both positive and negative - their desire has been to support higher education teachers to develop, improve and enhance their pedagogical practice while also examining their own practice.

The influence of mentoring on teacher beliefs

The impact of mentoring on the participants' beliefs about teaching was largely implicit, due in part to most having not specifically examined their higher education teacher beliefs prior to participating in this study (referred to in Part 1). Accordingly, this aspect of the second interview required careful probing and prompting for the participants to explore it whilst I had to be careful not to 'put words in their mouths'.

Karen held the belief that for teacher beliefs to be impacted upon, a reciprocal mentoring relationship was key, "It's not about the mentor having all the knowledge, or the mentee just receiving it. For her mentoring was more influential when the relationship was not transactional rather one where, "you jump in and out of because you don't need feedback or mentoring constantly but it should be for however long you need it." She also declared that for her mentoring was effective when it was a reciprocal endeavour. Like Karen she considered that the relationship should be reciprocal, "I think when people are respectful of each other and their journeys they can offer each

other different things regardless of what stages they are at. Then you move forward together … you enhance your practice together and you improve together."

For Jemma too, reciprocity underpinned the nature of the mentoring relationship. She considered it to be especially empowering for both parties when the role of mentor and mentee were fluid and dynamic. This was evident in her mentoring work with a new higher education teacher, as Jemma had grappled with unfamiliar teaching content, "So it became that I was the learner, she was the teacher, then I was her teacher." She believed that both teaching and mentoring have similar purposes, " … they create the space between the intellectual acquisition of the knowledge and the performative ability … mentoring and teaching help build bridges across that." As she had delved more deeply into developing her knowledge and understanding of mentoring, she had become a more effective mentor. In addition, articulating her strongly held view about the importance of being ready to teach had led Jemma to recognise that being ready to mentor and be mentored were critical, "While people may seem cognitively ready to teach, once in the reality of the classroom, it is challenging to put all of the elements that comprise effective teaching into practice. The same is true for mentoring*."* Justin similarly believed that a mentor for higher education teaching needed to have knowledge of the mentoring process and be an effective higher education teacher. His own experience of informal mentoring had led him to recognise that while vast teaching experience was unnecessary for a mentor, being an effective teacher was critical. And that they should know about mentoring.

Those participants who viewed themselves as mentors were more able to respond to the question about the influence of mentoring on their teacher beliefs, but it wasn't easy for them. In essence, it became a kind of sense-making exercise that led the participants to not only consider the influence of mentoring on their beliefs but to recognise the interconnected nature of these with their beliefs (still developing for most) about mentoring.

Participants' concepts of mentoring

All of the participants conceptualised mentoring as being relational and about learning first and foremost. All considered it to be when an experienced person helped them develop their knowledge, understanding and skills about teaching. Their expectations

were that in the context of the mentoring relationship, conversation, modelling, observation and other relevant learning approaches would give them opportunities to critically examine, reflect on and adapt their teaching practice.

For mentoring to become a more widely used approach for developing pedagogical practice, Justin suggested that the learning of mentoring skills was obligatory, "It takes time but you can learn to mentor and you can learn the skills – questioning, conversation, listening … you enhance your practice through the learning."

For Jemma, developing her knowledge about mentoring had been 'evolutionary', "It takes time … while I say to people the real learning process is in the conversations, they are often more interested in the final product. I have found I need to brief people on the mentoring process before we begin." In more recent times, as Jemma's knowledge of and understanding about higher education teaching has developed, a greater awareness of the interconnection between mentoring and teaching has emerged, "I see teaching and mentoring happening in that conversational space … ownership of learning is shared in that space." Over time Jemma has come to view mentoring as complex and has been able to draw on her growing knowledge and understanding to mentor with a clear purpose. She offered several examples to illustrate this stance. With reference to one mentee seeking guidance, "What she is looking for is someone who will help her to map out her priorities and time frames, and deadlines more systematically. She has a very practical target and really just wants some guidance." A second mentee required pastoral care, "it came down to care of the person, mostly listening. Inevitably they chatted about their children and those kinds of things before we could get to the care of their work. I recognise the care work … I don't think that anyone working with teachers can ignore the personal dimensions." Even so, Jemma acknowledged that not all mentees want the 'personal side' of mentoring. She indicated that this was where a mentor's knowledge of mentoring and the mentoring relationship was vital to be able to differentiate mentoring, "I do get that some people don't want the personal and nurturing side of mentoring – they can feel smothered … I do say, 'here's another person you can talk to who has been in your situation'." Notably, Jemma was committed to the idea of mentoring being invitational and conversational. She enjoyed inviting mentees into what she termed the conversational space which was where she believed the most effective mentoring could take place. Here she claimed thinking could

be problematised and provoked in a climate where trust and respect had been developed. Moreover, she firmly believed that the mentee's voice needed to be heard the most although she also indicated that could be challenging when a mentee was wanting a quick solution.

Like Jemma, Lynne believed that knowledge of mentoring was important. She emphasised the notion of ownership of the learning, "If you're a good teacher you're going to develop interpersonal relationships with your students and it's the same with people you are mentoring. There's a lot of give and take, and you learn from your students. That's what a good mentoring relationship is about as well."

During the participants' sense-making process about being mentored and being a mentor, it was clear that knowing about and understanding mentoring was an important element in being able to identify how mentoring had influenced their teaching beliefs.

Participants' perceptions of the role of the mentor

The participants perceived the role of the mentor in similar ways, although some more than others viewed the mentor's role as an expert who has the solutions to problems. Others perceived it to be an experienced person giving psychosocial support. Jemma was the most aware and more able to comment articulately on the role of the mentor. This could be largely attributed to mentoring being an integral element of her teacher development work. It was evident that Jemma's understanding of the role of the mentor underpinned the way she worked with mentees.

Jemma conveyed that understanding the mentor's role was necessary for the mentoring relationship to work effectively, and expounded that greater clarity was needed about the mentor's role in the higher education context. She understood that in her role as a mentor she needed to mentor in a variety of ways based on mentees' needs. Emphasising that the mentoring role was not easy, Jemma articulated, "I am with them in that in-between terrain until they can sort of put a foot more into the water and another foot … with my support they can keep rehearsing it." By creating a space for higher education teachers to focus on their teaching with mentoring support, Jemma has sought to facilitate mentoring conversations around teaching. This was illustrated by her example of an academic new to the university who had received little support, "she was in a terrible state … it was that sort of that typical, everybody's office door was closed

… didn't have anyone to ask how to do things and why." Although Jemma believed the onus was on her to facilitate and maintain it, trust became integral in their relationship. This allowed both to be frank and open in the mentoring relationship, "She (the teacher) would say, 'look I'm thinking of doing that part like this' and I realised that perhaps this is something that's missing for people. You know, in the teaching, actually talking aloud? Because there was trust I could ask challenging questions and make suggestions that did not cause offence." Likewise, Justin contended the mentor's role was about 'being there' for the mentee and that encompassed trust, "In terms of the mentor, I think that it is very important they are someone initially that you (the mentee) can sit down and talk with because it is a big shift adapting to working with adults." This led him to talk further about the mentor's role. He articulated that when good mentors continually examine and reflect on their own practice, they develop a comfortableness in their role and identity as a mentor who see their mentees as contributors and equals.

Although some participants did not make specific reference to the role of a mentor, most alluded to it with their references to advice giving, encouraging, caring, giving feedback, and challenging the mentee.

Mentoring as a professional approach for teaching development

A determined advocate for a formal mentoring programme for higher education teachers, Jemma asserted the need for people to have a space, "a personal space in which they feel that their development, their well-being as teachers is the focus." She considered that kind of approach did not happen a lot and that it was, "usually tied in with managers and heads of department, and about performance." Different to other participants this stemmed from her experiences and well-formed understandings and beliefs about mentoring, "What a dedicated mentoring space can do, which is quite distinctive, is without anyone weighing you up and assessing you it can simply provide support and offer a vision for improvement."

While the participants' knowledge and understandings about mentoring, and their experiences and practice of it varied, all indicated mentoring was an approach that should be employed for the development of higher education teachers' pedagogical practice. According to most, mentoring should be employed to prepare and help academics to teach. It should not be overestimated.

They suggested too that the quality of mentoring and its frequency, consistency and availability for those new to higher education teaching (and for more experienced teachers) influenced teachers' professional competence, and that this included their overall well-being. Although Alan's own experiences of higher education teaching had been largely positive, he believed that mentoring to help higher education teachers to develop good teaching practice was essential, "I think you need it more than ever. I guess in the old days people assumed that staff came here with certain skills, or they just had to pick them up, or they had a better background … but education has changed … I think it's (mentoring) maybe more needed to ensure you're getting someone who is going to be delivering good teaching."

For mentoring to be employed as a teaching development approach Lynne and Jemma asserted the need for a clear alignment between the university's and the individual's goals. Lynne noted that this could be both complex and problematic to enact, "The organisation must respect individual goals and acknowledge and prioritise teaching but that is not always the case." Adding to this discourse, Karen indicated that a potential problem was the number of higher education teachers in part-time or contract positions. She thought this contributed to the university's limited commitment to mentoring for the development of pedagogical practice, and a lack of 'buy-in' by staff, "Maybe people who've been here longer think "oh, do I really want to be bothered mentoring this person?" And the new person is thinking, 'am I going to be here very long?' "

This thinking led Karen to suggest what she termed 'formalised mentoring' rather than formal mentoring programmes. Although unsure what form this could take she was adamant that mentoring needed to be intentional and purposeful, although not always individualised. An example of a course/paper convenor having a formalised responsibility to provide mentoring was used to illustrate this. Karen thought that the entire teaching team should be mentored so that everyone benefitted, rather than someone new being specifically targeted. This she contended would create a team culture of mentoring, "rather that it seeming like it's something we do to new people." She emphasised that a strategic approach was vital and that any mentoring – formalised or a formal programme should not be linked to performance review.

Jemma also firmly believed that mentoring should be a formal requirement for all higher education teachers, not just those who were new. Furthermore, that it should

occur in a way that ensured access to mentoring opportunities appropriate to higher education teachers' diverse developmental stages and needs. Unlike Karen, Jemma thought that mentoring could align with performance review but did argue that if mentoring was intended to be a formative process performance review should also be viewed in that light. In this setting she suggested, that with their mentors higher education teachers would engage in deliberate and reflective conversations to support the development of their pedagogical practice. Jemma hastened to add there was a danger that requirements for written reports could be introduced and result in the mentee feeling they had no ownership of the process, potentially affecting the building of trust in the relationship.

Several of the participants articulated a view that if a formal mentoring programme were to be established an alignment between the goals of the university and the individual would be crucial. Both Lynne and Jemma firmly believed that formal learner centred mentoring programmes were needed to support teaching development in higher education. Others were less sure of this. Justin felt that a formal mentoring programme could reduce choice and result in mentoring being ' a done to' approach. He considered a formal university-wide mentoring programme could generate more tensions than one implemented on a faculty-based scale. In addition, Justin worried that a formal university programme could be imposed on people, potentially resulting in a mismatch of mentor and mentee, and confusion about goals and purpose, "If you are going to introduce a programme you have to start small but it would be about culture change as well…Therefore, you would have the right people in the mentor roles to bring about culture change as well."

Justin talked not just about a shared understanding of mentoring for a programme to be successful but about a shared understanding of effective higher education teaching. He pointed out, there was little value in mentoring for teaching development if this was lacking, "There needs to be a common or shared framework for understanding what effective tertiary teaching practice looks like. You might have some people who are highly regarded in their research field but their teaching knowledge and understanding might be limited." Given some of their own less positive experiences, Keri and Theresa both indicated a preference for an informal approach to mentoring that would enable

them to select a mentor for a specific purpose. As Theresa had found, being matched with a mentor who 'dictated' and didn't value teaching was not useful at all.

Lynne who valued teaching highly, had sought to establish a mentoring programme in her science faculty. While her aim was to promote teaching to be on an equal footing to research - become 'the way we do things around here'- Lynne had also identified a number of barriers, especially the resources of time and people with a desire to participate. She believed there was no point in starting a programme if they weren't available.

A point about mentoring experienced academics was made by Karen. She that she would be an effective mentor for those wanting to develop and enhance their teaching because of her prior teaching background and experience. But she queried whether a more senior person would want to be mentored by her, "We need to think about different ways of supporting people to develop their teaching so people feel we are all in this together." There was an alignment here with Jemma's perspectives. She was favourably inclined to mentoring across disciplines in the university. Her opinion that this could strengthen the mentoring relationship and the mentoring experience stemmed from her involvement as a facilitator of the university's tertiary teaching postgraduate certificate. Jemma pointed out that the participants were from all faculties in the university and had a range of experience. Also that the focus on higher education teaching had led those in the various cohorts to seek mentoring from each other based on how well they connected rather than years of experience or discipline, "We ask them to look at what has influenced them, what has been formative in their growth as a teacher. Many report this being a moment of understanding for themselves. Not infrequently, it leads to them seeking mentoring among each other."

Whether formal or informal, for any kind of mentoring programme to be established and sustained the participants conveyed a clearly articulated and common goal was imperative so that the individual was neither overshadowed or driven by the university's goals. They considered too that any kind of university-wide programme should encompass a range of activities for a range of purposes, and there must be choice.

Conclusion

In this study, the participants shared their understandings about the development of their pedagogical practice and the influence of mentoring upon it. Each drew on their individual experiences during the in-depth narrative semi-structured interviews to reveal important insights and common perspectives, that then led to the subsequent development of their individual stories. The findings from the data of the in-depth narrative interviews found that five main themes had emerged (with associated sub-themes), and that these main themes were: beliefs about teaching; the influence of experiences; understandings of learning theory; professional development for teaching; and mentoring.

In the first interview all of the participants talked about their apprehensions when they began teaching in higher education. These apprehensions were not just the domain of the participants who had little or no prior or formal teaching experience. While each person talked about a decrease in their confidence at different points, they also talked about how their engagement in learning about higher education teaching through formal programmes or more informal approaches, had helped them to become more confident in their practice and know 'who they were' as a teacher. This resulted in them being more likely to experiment with new ideas in the classroom, re-examine their beliefs, and adapt their pedagogical practice.

The participants' experiences, knowledge and understandings of mentoring in the higher education context are varied. Whatever their level of knowledge and experience all willingly and enthusiastically explored mentoring for the duration of the second interview. Those with greater knowledge and more firmly shaped views and opinions were informed by research, and their own experiences of teaching and mentoring. But all participants were outward looking. They are committed to the development of higher education teachers' pedagogical practice and view mentoring as an effective approach to support this. For those relatively new to higher education, their views and commitment to teaching and mentoring will be critical in the ongoing development of mentoring programmes in their university.

At times the participants moved the interview conversations towards the problems they had faced (and that some continued to face), rather than responding to my probes about

developing pedagogical practice and their related experiences of mentoring. This was significant because it appeared to indicate that while all participants espoused the importance of teaching, it was frequently subordinated by other academic work that was considered to be more important in the wider university context. While some were resigned to this being the 'way things are' there was also evidence of their desire to contribute to their own and others' teaching development. Moreover, they viewed mentoring as an effective approach to do so.

The findings indicate a commitment by the participants to the development of their pedagogical practice. Illustrated through an examination of their teacher beliefs and the influences of these and other factors on their teaching, each participants' story conveyed the ways in which their pedagogical practice had developed over time. Embedded in each story – though not always explicitly articulated - were the participants' conceptions of teaching and mentoring in their higher education context. They agreed that their largely constructivist concepts of teaching align with their concepts of mentoring. While some participants' experiences of mentoring - being mentored and being a mentor - were limited, they conveyed what they believed mentoring in the higher education context should comprise and to an extent their understanding of it. Several others brought a clearer understanding due to their greater mentoring experience. The factors described in this chapter have brought knowledge and understanding about teaching and mentoring to the forefront for discussion in Chapter 6. Other factors such as learning theories and notions of mentoring as having an inquiry orientation are tacit but have nevertheless, been a catalyst for discussion and certain conclusions to made.

CHAPTER SIX: DISCUSSION

Introduction

Chapter Six begins with a brief discussion about the influence of the research design on the participants' engagement in the study. This is followed by a section on the broader discourse of teaching in higher education to revisit the study's context in light of the findings and their alignment with the literature. Although brief, this section serves as a reminder of the perspectives that currently impact upon higher education teaching and comprises a significant part of the backdrop that led to conducting this study.

The ways that the pedagogical practice of higher education teachers is formed and impacted upon by certain influences: teacher beliefs, the tacit influences of learning theories with particular reference to adult learning theory (specifically constructivism) and prior experiences. Following this, the participants' experiences of and thinking about professional development are captured in a discussion that includes the influence of reflection and issues of power that can arise in professional development settings. This discussion leads into and frames the subsequent focus on mentoring.

In the mentoring section of the chapter, understandings of mentoring and the mentoring relationship are discussed. Key ideas about mentoring for the development of higher education teachers' pedagogical practice that were consolidated by the study's findings are discussed. Additionally, the importance of bridging the gap between mentoring theory and practice is emphasised. Then, the ways that mentoring manifests in higher education teaching are examined with specific attention paid to the implementation of mentoring as a professional development approach. Considerations about the design and implementation of 'fit for purpose' mentoring programmes are discussed. The focus then moves to inquiry mentoring as an approach that the study's participants and the literature have indicated are well suited for higher education teachers' professional development.

Influence of the research design

The constructivist epistemology adopted for this study influenced the overall research design and created opportunities for a deep examination with the participants of their

teaching and mentoring stories, and for further alignment with relevant literature. By keeping the research questions in mind at all times I was able to make sound decisions about the research process prior to, during and after the data generation phases. Crucial to this were my own assumptions, beliefs, and understandings with regard to the topic and the participants. Furthermore, the focus on teacher beliefs required careful consideration. I had to contend with my own teacher beliefs and how they may differ from others' beliefs. The reader is referred to Chapter 4 where I have indicated my knowledge of the nature of beliefs and belief systems, and conveyed how my understandings have informed the research (Pajares, 1992).

The in-depth narrative interviews proved most effective in facilitating the participants' capacity to identify these influences but helped them to develop a greater cognisance as they made sense of and reflected on the impact of these influences and the associated experiences (Schön, 1987; Zeichner & Liston, 1996). Subsequently, the study's constructivist design allowed 'lines of interest' to be followed up on during the data generation and data analysis phases. Moreover, it encouraged me, the researcher, and the participants to continue to build our knowledge and understanding of teaching and mentoring in the higher education context.

Evidenced in this study – both through the literature and the interviews- is that the majority of higher education teachers want to provide their students with positive learning experiences. In recent times an increased focus on the development of higher education teaching, particularly as teachers themselves have become more interested in developing their pedagogical practice, has emerged (Bruhlmeier, 2010; Day, Pope, & Denicolo, 1990). Mentoring in particular has been identified as a professional development approach that can support and empower teachers (Hudson, 2013; Irby, Lynch, Boswell & Kappler Hewitt, 2017; Richmond, Dershimer, Ferreira, Maylone, & Kubitskey, 2017; Robertson-Welsh et al., 2009; Wass, Rogers, Howell, Hartung, & McIntyre, 2019).

Influences on the development of teachers' pedagogical practice

Higher education teaching is often learned about through informal approaches that include teachers' own student experiences, prior teaching experience in other contexts

and interactions with their colleagues, which tend to focus on teaching content rather than pedagogical practice (Dunkin, 1995; McKeachie, 1997).

In this study the participants' desire to be effective and pedagogically adept teachers was discernible in their talk about the influences on the development of their pedagogical practice. It was found that the pedagogical practice of the participants was subject to certain influences – personal and contextual - and some more so than others. Although the impact of these influences varied for each participant, the majority were common to all. Previously unrecognised as influences during the in-depth narrative interviews, the participants talked about how and why they taught in a particular way; the impact of their teaching and learning culture at their university; attempt to articulate their teacher beliefs, and share personal stories and prior experiences (Zukas & Malcolm, 2002) as they explored the ways that these contributed to enacting their pedagogical practice. Notably, their commitment to being effective teachers stood out. The influences on teachers' pedagogical practice that emerged from the findings are discussed next. They are positioned under the headings of: teacher beliefs, prior experiences, professional development (formal and informal), influences of theories of learning and mentoring. Following this part of the discussion and informed by the findings and the literature, inquiry mentoring is presented as an approach that would be well suited to the development of higher education teachers' practice.

Teacher beliefs

The importance of higher education teachers examining and being aware of their beliefs was highlighted by the study. It has been well documented that teacher beliefs affect and influence teachers' pedagogical practice (e.g. Calderhead, 1996; Kagan, 1992), despite Pajres' (1992) conjecture that beliefs do not easily lend themselves to empirical investigation. Having become the subject of "legitimate inquiry" researchers have, however, learned enough about beliefs to make their "exploration feasible and useful" in education contexts (Pajares, 1992, p. 308). While not the main focus of this study, being able to explore, conceptualise and articulate their beliefs provided impetus for the participants' further exploration of teacher beliefs as a crucial influence on their pedagogical practice. It became evident that teacher beliefs were pivotal influences in the development and implementation of the participants' pedagogical practice although they had not recognised this most prior to the study. Having an opportunity to

acknowledge, identify, reflect and talk about their teacher beliefs led the participants to not only become more confident in talking about teaching but to recognise the influence on it.

What is known about the relationship between beliefs, assumptions, theories-in-use, theories-in-action and practice has proven to be a greater predictor for effective teaching than knowledge about teaching (Kagan, 1992; Pajares, 1992). As the participants articulated their teacher beliefs through an examination of their practice for example, this was evident in their own theories-in-action (what they 'do'), and their theories-in-use (what they said about their actions) (Argyris, Putnam, & McLain Smith, 1985; Bright, 1992; Kane et al., 2002).

In their endeavours to identify, understand and reflect on the factors that have influenced their practice (e.g. Dunkin, 2002; Hativa & Goodyear, 2002) the participants' teacher beliefs became a more important aspect of this study than expected. While there appeared to be few differences among their beliefs with regard to their respective disciplines, where differences were evident they seemed to relate more to departmental systems and expectations than disciplinary pedagogy (Gibbs, 2017).

Teacher beliefs have been characterised as developing from episodic and affective processes (Pajares, 1992; van Driel, Bulte, & Verloop, 2007). Evident in the study's in-depth narrative interview conversations, episodic memory was a significant contributor to the forming of the participants' teacher beliefs. In their descriptions of their teaching practice, the participants recollected prior experiences and past events. In doing so they identified and articulated the influence of various positive and negative factors on their teacher beliefs, making specific reference to past events. For some, the episodes were vivid with affective processes coming into play, especially when they shared how they had felt in response to some experiences (Connors & Halligan, 2015). Placing their experiences and other memories from different points in time into the meaningful context of higher education brought the influence of contextual factors to the fore in each participant's story (Connors & Halligan, 2015; Nespor, 1987; Kagan, 1992). The teacher participants recognised that their teacher beliefs had formed or had started to form in contexts other than higher education. Contexts such as school teaching, tutoring, family, and their own educational experiences were key influences on their higher education teacher beliefs. The memories specific to each participant enabled them to

engage in the interpretation and evaluation of their respective experiences with me. This not only highlighted the suitability of the study's constructivist epistemology and in-depth narrative methodology, but my role as a facilitator of sense-making.

The idiosyncratic nature of their belief systems was apparent as each participant revealed their teacher beliefs. While it was evident they had adapted their beliefs to their respective disciplines they had been influenced by similar factors (Connors & Halligan, 2014; Converse, 2006; Norton et al., 2005). Thus, a number of commonly held beliefs about what comprised effective higher education teaching were held by the participants. Moreover, the 'unbounded' (Nespor, 1987) nature of their teacher beliefs proved a positive attribute that enabled flexible teaching approaches to be employed. These 'unbounded beliefs' proved advantageous for most of the participants, enabling them to implement robust, deliberate and diverse approaches in their teaching. This was illustrated by several examples. One commonly held belief was that to stimulate deep learning, learning should be active. A second was that learning should be scaffolded and interactive, and a third that students should take responsibility for their learning. Each was interpreted differently though the participants' diverse lenses. Different approaches to enact these teacher beliefs were employed in light of their discipline, their students' needs and that suited their teaching style. And although their approaches differed, all believed that building relationships was critical to enhance students' learning. Where a pastoral care approach was a belief held by several participants (Laws & Fiedler, 2012), others were motivated to build relationships focused on academic achievement (Cassidy & Eachus, 2000; Kember, Jamieson, Pomfret, & Wong, 1995; Rugutt & Chemosit, 2005).

Those without formal teaching qualifications or a great deal of prior teaching experience held more traditional beliefs about teaching. This resulted in more didactic instructional practices being evident in their talk about teaching (Applefield, Huber, & Moallem, 2001; Niederhauser, Salem, & Fields, 1999). Over time these participants had made changes to their teacher beliefs as opportunities for professional development arose, highlighting the influential nature of engagement in formal professional development where teacher beliefs are examined . A number of the participants had also noticed a change to their teacher beliefs when they engaged in reflection to examine their practice, especially if students were not fully engaged in their learning. When they

varied their strategies, they were able to motivate and encourage engagement. While mostly informal, these behaviours are representative of the ways the participants' teacher beliefs were added to, adapted and sometimes changed (Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992; Rokeach, 1968).

In summary, the intentional practical application of research about teacher beliefs to improve teaching effectiveness in professional development settings is critical (Kane et al., 2002). When appropriately designed and deliberately facilitated, professional development can support teachers in their examination of their pedagogical beliefs (Applefield et al., 2001). As Pajares (1992) states, "little will have been accomplished if research into educational beliefs fails to provide insights into the relationship between beliefs … and teacher practices, teacher knowledge, and student outcomes" (p. 327).

When beliefs are sufficiently revisited and reviewed through reflection, collaborative practices and different forms of professional development, teachers are more able to engage in sense-making (Weick, 1995), and become more open to honest examination of their beliefs and belief change. Strategies that encourage teachers to elucidate their beliefs and question their adequacy with respect to their pedagogical practice is critical (Nespor 1987; Pajares 1992). The potential to illuminate and explain their beliefs and for belief change to occur appears to become greater. In this study it was clear that the participants' teacher beliefs were grounded on their personal and professional experiences, and in contrast to some assertions in the research they were open to change (Block & Hazelip, 1995; Norton et al., 2005).

Tacit influence of theories

A number of perspectives such as context, culture, purpose, and philosophical and psychological impact upon teachers' theories-in-use and their theories-in-action (Palmer, 1998). Foreshadowed in the literature review, this was a theme that emerged from the findings. As discussed above, teacher beliefs, prior experiences, colleagues and other factors not only influence the development of teachers' pedagogical practice, they facilitate the construction of the personal theories that inform their teaching (Powell, 1992; Zukas & Malcolm, 2002). While the influence of theories of learning was less obvious, the participants did refer to the 'common-sense theories of teaching' that

Ramsden (2003) has claimed are prevalent among higher education teachers, that is their implicit or tacit theories of learning.

Having a theoretical understanding of teaching and learning, however, is well documented as supporting higher education teachers to articulate and reflect on their teacher beliefs and their knowledge about teaching. Knowles (1990) assertion that a "good theory should provide both explanations of phenomena and guidelines for action" (p. 2) suggests that when teachers are able to articulate their theories-in-use and demonstrate their theories-in-action, they are better positioned to implement effective and appropriate strategies that promote deep learning in their students. Although the participants' individual understandings of teaching and learning theories were not specifically explored during the in-depth narrative interviews (in large part because the participants did not raise them as influences) but they were evident in the examples of practice that they shared.

The participants strived to work in a pedagogical practice paradigm that stimulated students' learning through a variety of learning approaches. The participants also recognised that the pedagogical practices they employed had implications for their own learning about teaching. Their practices (unknowingly it seemed) were founded on the core principles of constructivist and adult learning theories (Alexander, 2001). This comprised emphases on learning to learn, experiential learning, shared and negotiated learning, self-directed learning, group work, guided discovery, and reflective practice (Ashworth, Brennan, Egan, Hamilton, & Sáenz, 2004). Embedded in their practice and their thinking about effective higher education teaching it was not clear which had come first. It seemed to me that for most it was the development of practice first and that as their respective interests in developing their teaching grew, they became more reflective and responsive. As Knowles (1990) declared, "the better you understand various theories … the better decisions you will be able to make regarding learning experiences that will achieve the ends you wish to achieve" (p. 2).

Although the participants could not put a name to them, they tacitly conveyed the learning theories that underpinned their practice. They indicated that learning-centred approaches were critical to their practice and understood learning to be an active process. They recognised too that as their students experienced learning in different ways they required teaching resources that were versatile and flexible. Making time in

tutorials for students' to ask questions, facilitating open discussion to optimise students' learning, inviting students to participate in the planning process, being responsive to students' needs, seeking feedback on the effectiveness of teaching were several strategies considered essential for good learning to happen. One participant equated good teaching with good content and had no issue with 'knowledge transmission' (Gow & Kember, 1993) but also acknowledged a preference for learning- centred approaches so that students had ownership of their learning, remained engaged. Despite Gibbs' (1995) assertion that this kind of teacher is "happier to work at the level of changing strategy and method rather than changing themselves" (p. 15), that was not so for this participant. Time was always made for question asking, follow-up meetings with students who needed a little more time, and slowing the pace of a lecture when more challenging concepts were being presented. The participants endeavoured to take students' learning styles, skills and knowledge into account and employ appropriate active learning strategies to do so (Gibbs & Coffey, 2004; Grenham, Wade, & Kelly, 1999 as cited in Zukas & Malcom, 2010).).

Examples of co-constructing teaching content with their students, the formative nature of the assessment approaches, and 'hands-on' activities provided a strong indication that constructivist and co-constructivist theories were both theories-in-use and theories-in-action. Also encapsulated in the participants' talk about their pedagogical practice were the principles of adult learning theory. While tacit, learning was clearly viewed as a process in which their teacher role was to support students to make meaning, 'come to grips' with content, and engage in their learning by providing them with opportunities to interact with each other to construct understanding and knowledge. They asked questions of students and encouraged them to reciprocate. And they created opportunities for students to explore, analyse, research, experiment, problem-solve and evaluate (Twomey Fosnot & Perry, 2005). A critical aspect of their practice with regard to adult learning theory was providing students with clear explanations about what was being taught and why; taking students' diverse backgrounds and experiences into account; and, employing approaches to encourage students to self-direct their learning (Knowles, 1984; Merriam, Cafarella, & Baumgartner, 2007).

Of note in the study was the participants' recognition that they could fluctuate from traditional teaching approaches to broader, more flexible and 'teachable moment'

approaches. It allowed for a more personalised approach (Orison, & Jordan, 2005; Wilson & Peterson, 2006). This had confirmed that a learning-centred paradigm was a critical element of their practice. Notably too, they saw themselves as learning guides and facilitators.

An interesting 'noticing' that came after my initial engagement with the data was the intuitive grasp of the theories-in-use that informed each participant's pedagogical practice. Perhaps it could be more fittingly described as 'intuition-in-action', a concept identified by Johansson and Kroksmark (2004) as a key dimension of primary and secondary school teachers' work. These researchers showed intuition to be a 'necessary and integrated connection to teachers' work' and that intuition-in-action broadened and enhanced teachers' understanding of their pedagogical practice. While more of a hunch at present, research to capture higher education teachers' theories of learning by exploring their 'intuition-in-action' could help gain a greater understanding of how higher education teachers think about theory and practice to inform professional development initiatives.

Prior experiences

Higher education teachers tend to unaware of the ways that prior experience has influenced the development of their implicit theories of teaching that influence their pedagogical practice. Most do not refer to learning theory (implicit or explicit) when they talk about the influences on their teaching (Astin, 1984; Fry et al., 2009; Light et al., 2009; Zukas & Malcolm, 2002). While true of the participants in this study, the research conversations revealed that their implicit theoretical perspectives of teaching had developed from their prior experiences (mostly educational) and had influenced their pedagogical practice.

The childhood, school and university experiences of many higher education teachers, along with other influences, contribute to the forming of their pedagogical practice (Grossman, 1990; Powell, 1992). While some studies point to teachers' prior experience being a potential constraint on learning to teach and that it can be challenging to overcome its often powerful effect (Hockings, Cooke, McGinty, & Bowl, 2009; van Lankveld, Schoonenboom, Volman, Croiset, & Beishuizen, 2016), the participants' stories have suggested otherwise. They are considered a strong and credible finding in

this study. Even so, relating teachers' prior experiences to their teaching practice is a complex endeavour. More research is needed with regard to the higher education context. Having said that, as the participants in the study accessed their diverse prior experiences they were more able to recognise and articulate the influence of prior experience.

Childhood and school experiences

Childhood and school experiences have been shown to have an impact on teachers' beliefs and identity; hence, their pedagogical practice (Beijaard, Verloop, & Vermunt, 2004; Connelly & Clandinin, 1990; Meijer, Korthagen, & Vasalos, 2009; Olsen, 2008). Experiences from childhood have clearly influenced the pedagogical practice of a number of the participants. In their talk about the influence of their those experiences, they referred to the impact of their mothers' 'love of learning' and shared stories about the influence of school and school teachers. Although not all of their experiences with regard to the latter had been positive they had long since made sense of them and employed the experiences to improve their own teaching.

University experience

Another aspect considered in proper experiences was that of university experiences. It has long been accepted that university students become more engaged and motivated when they are exposed to effective teaching and motivated teachers (Biggs & Tang, 2011; Ramsden, 2003; Skelton, 2005). This was illustrated in the emphasis some participants placed on the influence of their university student experience. They referred to the ways that higher education teachers' commitment to their learning had motivated them to become engaged and motivated learners. Notably, the experiences of several had influenced the development of several participants' transmissive style of higher education teaching. This pedagogical model suited them well at the start of their careers as initially it had allowed them to be in control of teaching knowledge and content. As they became more confident teachers, they were able to adapt their pedagogical practice to better meet the needs of their students. This kind of 'open to learning' disposition enabled them to notice that they had been able to draw on their prior less positive experiences to influence their teacher development.

Prior teaching experience

For those embarking on a career in higher education after working in the school sector, their prior teaching experiences proved a significant influence but also resulted in some tensions. The latter appeared more prevalent for those who had significant school teaching and school leadership experience and were academics in teacher education. Used to open dialogue about teaching, engaging in professional learning and reflective practice to improve their teaching, they were surprised at the lack of attention paid to 'good' teaching in their new context. They also found their prior experiences were not as 'useful' in light of the content and assessment driven curriculum encountered. Even so, they proved able to navigate their new terrain relatively quickly. They were able to adapt their school teacher knowledge of evidence-based practice and use of evidence to the university context whereas those less experienced faced greater challenges (Diery, Vogel, Knogler, & Seidel, 2020).

In summary, understanding the influence of prior experience on their pedagogical practice would be useful for higher education teachers (Dow, n.d.; Yero, 2002). For this understanding to be utilised by teachers in the development of their practice, professional development programmes could support teachers to explore the influence of their prior experiences.

Professional development

Higher education teachers' knowledge about and understanding of teaching is important for them to be able to develop, improve and enhance their pedagogical practice. In addition, it enhances the learning experiences and achievement of their students. While there is no shortage of research to show that professional development is vital to improving and enhancing teachers' pedagogical practice (Fry et al., 2009; Gibbs & Coffey, 2004; Pill, 2005; Sharpe, 2004), this study's findings seem to suggest a somewhat inconsistent and even a little haphazard approach to professional development in the participants' university setting, whether formal or informal.

Formal professional development opportunities

Formal professional development opportunities for new and experienced higher education teachers were available for the study's participants to take advantage of. That only three of the seven participants had availed themselves of these was interesting. It raises an important question for higher education teachers, teaching/teacher developers and university leaders about any barriers that may be impacting upon this (see below).

Increasingly, universities are making a commitment to support academics to become more effective teachers through the provision of professional development. Depending on context, experience, learner's needs and the university's agenda for teacher development, professional development programmes offer opportunities to learn about theories of teaching and learning; share, model and practice strategies for teaching; and provide access to relevant resources. These and other approaches can all contribute to teachers' existing knowledge, beliefs and practices (Johnson & Golombek, 2002). Having said that, professional development programmes as well as 'one off' opportunities must be 'fit for purpose'. It must be cautioned too, that professional development initiatives are often successful for their limited duration. The evidence suggests that once an initiative has concluded, participants tend to return to their prior ways of teaching (O'Connor & Ertmer, 2006). This is a crucial point, as while professional development is acknowledged to be a key influence on teachers' development there cannot be a 'one size fits all' approach.

It is important then that universities intentionally facilitate professional development programmes for higher education teachers to participate in having collaboratively identified their learning needs. When rigorously based on 'good' practice, programmes can directly benefit individual teacher's reflective practice; their engagement with the scholarship of teaching and learning; develop and enhance collegial practice; and, have an effect on departmental culture.

In the study, as stated above, three participants had engaged in formal professional development for the development of their pedagogical practice. While others could have accessed opportunities to participate in teaching development workshops and conferences, they had not taken advantage of them. A common rationale was the busyness of their academic work – the balancing of their time between teaching,

research, and service. Notably, the three who were engaged in formal professional development reported a positive impact on their practice and ultimately on their students' achievement.

As well as the individual challenges noted by the participants, barriers of a global nature may also be in play. These must be address by universities themselves. The university context has been acknowledged as a precarious one, and for academics in light of the multi-faceted nature of their work, it becomes more so, for when for their workload intensifies, fast paced change occurs, and expectations of research outputs increase. Difficult conditions can be key barriers to professional development (Burns, 2015) with teacher identity, efficacy and professionalism threatened and teachers' capacity to engage in professional development impacted upon.

Professional development for the development of higher education teaching can take many forms: from self-directed and team learning to the more formal programmes referred to above (Caffarella & Zinn, 1999). In a university setting, professional development should be complemented by the principles of adult learning (Bowgren & Sever, 2010). As such differentiated approaches are needed for teachers to remain self-directed, motivated, critically reflective, and engaged in their learning about teaching. It has been well documented that when adult learners collaborate on what, how and why they learn, they learn more effectively (Herman & Mandell, 2004; Kasl & Yorks, 2002). For the development of higher education teachers' pedagogical practice whilst not discounting the universities goals, professional development must first and foremost focus on the teacher's development (Franey, 2015).

Informal professional development opportunities

Some informal types of professional development indicated in the study are examined next. These are: collegiality, collegial support, professional conversations and peer observation.

Critical to the growth of academics engaged in higher education teaching is collegiality. Not only are collegial practices valuable sources of learning that provide support to higher education teachers, they have the capacity to enhance teachers' resourcefulness and belief in themselves (Pithouse-Morgan, Naicker, Pillay, Masinger, & Hlao, 2016).

Research has consistently underlined the contribution of collegiality and importantly of strong collegial relationships for teachers' and educational organisations' improvement (Barth, 2006; Goddard, Goddard, & Tschannen-Moran, 2007). As teachers in schools increasingly move towards greater collegiality and collaboration (Shah, 2013), it remained less evident in the higher education context (Bruffee, 1999) until relatively recently. Given that the majority of academics learn about teaching whilst 'on the job', this was something of a surprise. In the study, however, the participants raised collegiality as an influence on their pedagogical practice but less so on their research endeavours. It became evident that collegiality and collegial networks were crucial to support these higher education teachers' learning about teaching.

Fundamental to discussions about the structure, purpose and practice of collegial relationships is the understanding that professional development takes place as a result of individuals working together. In formal settings, it is expected that an institution will also benefit but assumptions are often made that the structures to facilitate collegiality are in place, that it is understood, and will transpire with little support. As Ayo and Fraser (2008) have argued, there is a "definitional ambiguity about institutional and personal parameters of operation which can make implementation challenging (p. 58).

The role of collegiality in teacher professional development in the higher education context has frequently been related to criteria for the evaluation of academics' practice (Hatfield, 2006) but with no knowledge of this, the participants 'came at it' from a relational perspective. For them there was no need to identify what collegiality was (Hartle, 2004) or explore the changing nature of collegiality in higher education (Tapper, 2017). Collegiality was as Ayo and Fraser (2008) defined it: "the professional interactions which arise from on-going communication between two or more individuals who share the same workplace, or work interests" (p. 58). Representative of the participants' perspectives and experiences of collegiality and collegial relationships, the relationship element was the most crucial for the participants.

The view that people perform better when working together professionally is well supported by organisational theory (Senge, Kleiner, Roberts, Ross, & Smith, 2011). If collegiality is not supported and encouraged, higher education teachers can become isolated and disenchanted with their work. But it cannot be coincidental, it needs to be made explicit as a concept that frames the way higher education teachers work and

professional development opportunities offered to learn strategies and how to develop collegial relationships.

Collegiality should be considered an essential characteristic of higher education teachers' interaction. Regularly sharing their ideas, goals, experience, and expertise in a range of settings will not only help them develop a shared understanding of effective higher education teaching and gain a greater knowledge and understanding of teaching, but connect with the wider teaching goals of their university.

Most participants relayed positive stories of informal collegial support. In particular they indicated what they admired and found useful about colleagues' teaching and how these colleagues had supported them in specific ways. While there were some stories about the effect of colleagues' negative attitudes on their goals to develop and improve their teaching, these experiences had been used as examples of 'what not to do'.

The experiences of the other participants were not those of Theresa and Keri, although they had also sought teaching support from their colleagues soon after their appointments to the university but had continued to do so even as they moved into various leadership roles. Lynne and Jemma were the most experienced university teachers among the participants and were vociferous in their praise of the colleagues who had supported and invited them to learn together. Newer to higher education teaching, Justin and Karen reported fewer experiences of collegial support initially. Largely because they did not know who to ask, at times they felt isolated in a new and unfamiliar environment. Karen questioned whether the competitive and individualised nature of academics research could be a factor but maintained this was not a reason to abandon or overlook early career higher education teachers.

This study's findings have confirmed that collegial support plays a significant part in fostering the development of higher education teachers' pedagogical practice even though some participants did not experience it as they expected to. It was clear that a lack of collegial support had repercussions for some of the participants' programme delivery, student learning, power distribution, academics' learning, satisfaction and retention, and wellbeing. For others, collegiality had played a vital role in expanding their professional development, satisfaction with their work, organisational and

professional commitment, career development, and their commitment to students' learning (Shah, 2012).

The study validates the notion that collegiality, as strategy and relationship, needs to be regarded as a vital support for the development and strengthening of higher education teachers' pedagogical practice (Hargreaves, 1997; Shah, 2012). As the participants talked, it was clear that for them that included in the support from colleagues were professional conversations and peer observation. They were the aspects of collegiality that most had experienced.

Inferred from the study's findings is that higher education teachers are cognisant of the influence of professional conversations. Moreover, they recognised the need to be more intentional about having professional conversations and the way they conduct them. Professional conversations were alluded by the participants as an influence on their pedagogical practice, albeit in different ways. Professional conversations are an important influence on the development of higher education teachers' pedagogical practice (Haigh, 2005). Although it has been contended that in higher education conversations often tend to centre on content and structure (Gow & Kember, 1993), the study's participants quite frequently engaged in professional conversations with their colleagues about pedagogical practice. The prevailing mindset appeared to be that to teach effectively, as well as enjoy and gain satisfaction from their teaching, conversation was a strategy that helped them do that. For the participants in this study, spontaneous and deliberate professional conversations were important influences on their teacher and teaching development.

Conversations occurred in the more formal settings of the university's teaching and learning development programmes, in teaching team meetings and more informally in staffrooms, cafés, by the photocopier, in colleagues' offices, during lunch-time walks and so on. Based on a specific need or topic, they sometimes involved reflection. In their conversations the participants sought to solve problems of practice and explored ways to improve practice. There were also conversations in which feedback from peer observation the focus.

Professional conversations are critical for the development of effective teachers and effective teaching. Learning how to have conversations that are intentional, purposeful

and empowering is crucial (Timperley, 2011). It would make sense then to create a space for higher education teachers to practice professional conversations so they become a rigorous component of their learning about teaching. Ongoing opportunities for practice, can develop and refine teachers' conversation skills to the point that they become familiar and natural (Morrison & Ferrier-Kerr, 2015). The more that intentional and invitational conversations are practiced, the more likely it is that positive results from conversations will be experienced. Conversations can open up a space for reflection, understanding other's viewpoints, and providing feedback. They can also create a desire for action. And when conversations are focused on making a difference for and to teachers' practice, students also benefit.

Peer observation

Observation is a recognised albeit inconsistently used strategy to improve and develop higher education teaching (Chappell, 2007; Compton, 2016; Hendry, Bell, & Thomson, 2014; Millis, 1992). Often considered a data gathering approach to complement student evaluations in formal peer review of teaching processes it can also be a strategy for learning about teaching (Bell & Mladenovic, 2008; van Chism, 2007).

The recognised benefits of peer observation are the insights into personal practice that can be gained from being the observer as well as from being observed (Martin & Double, 1998). Despite this, higher education teachers are more likely to go along with peer observation as a "sort of obligation, rather than from enthusiasm for the prospect of re-examining their teaching (Martin & Double, 1998, p. 167). Further to this, and certainly representative of the views of several of the study's participants is that peer observation initiatives tend to place more demand on teachers' already significant workloads.

There was no suggestion or evidence that any kind of formal peer observation had occurred among the study's participants but there was good evidence of informal, self-initiated peer observation. It was claimed these informal arrangements not only facilitated the development of effective teaching practice but led to a desire to 'pay it forward'.

As a strategy for developing higher education teachers' practice the concept of formative and constructive observation rather than a more formal approach was considered by the participants to be more powerful for gaining feedback and promoting good teaching practice. Research has shown too, though not referred to by the participants, that this kind of informal approach can foster reflective practice through the creation of a culture of reflection, evaluation and critique (Yiend, Weller, & Kinchin, 2012). While a few studies suggest higher education teachers are unconvinced that formative observation of their teaching can contribute to the development of their pedagogical practice (Martin & Double, 1998; Yiend et al., 2012), in this study the aspirations of the participants to employ it more frequently does appear to contradict this perspective. It is likely this stems from their articulated intentions to be effective teachers. They have already sought colleagues out to give feedback and to mentor them. These are the higher education teachers who are already committed to the development of their pedagogical practice, and who have the capacity to facilitate the development of others through the largely unchartered territory of peer observation.

Peer observation can take a number of forms and has different purposes (Gosling, 2002; Milis, 1992). The observation process can provide valuable insights for those involved especially when employed formatively rather than as an evaluation of teaching performance (Brew & Boud, 1995; Martin & Double, 1998). Whether the arrangement is formal or informal, observation of colleagues' teaching can be of benefit to the observer. As well as helping teachers to identify areas for their further development, skilful observers will be able to 'see' through the teachers' 'eyes' and help them to gain insights into their teaching (Wass et al., 2019). When peer observation has a clear purpose there is 'buy-in' by the participants. Peer observation can be a highly effective approach for the development of teachers' pedagogical practice (Compton, 2016; Hendry et al., 2014).

Influence of reflection

Although not foreshadowed in the literature review or strong in the findings, the ability to reflect is considered an important attribute of an effective teacher. Reflection on teaching practice was not talked about by most of the participants as an aspect of their practice. But as they talked about it in the context of the in-depth narrative interviews it became evident that reflection on practice was occurring. Reflection was most evident

in the action-taking examples provided during the narrative interviews. These highlighted each participant's skill and ability to reflect constructively as well as their understanding of reflection as another tool that could help them to improve the quality and effectiveness of their teaching. On more than one occasion a participant responded to a question from me with, 'I had not thought about that, let me think for a minute'; 'I need to go away and think about that'; and 'you've put me on the spot'. It seemed that while the interviews had provided a platform for reflection, it cannot be assumed that reflection was an intentional element of the participants' practice. It is on the premise that reflection was occurring during the in-depth narrative interviews that this section has been developed in light of the lack of comment about reflection in and on practice.

Whether reflection was an influence on the development of the participants' pedagogical practice cannot be confirmed. There was evidence of reflection in and on action, in the ways problems of teaching were identified, action taken to improve practice, and awareness of the consequences of their action taking (Zeichner, 1992). It was clear that reflection often occurred in response to immediate problems such as how to: engage students; teach large classes; work better with colleagues; and, select strategies to more effectively meet their students' learning needs. It appeared more as self-reflection after practice rather than as an approach to dig more deeply into practice. Those participants engaged in formal professional learning about teaching indicated that they took a more robust self and collaborative reflective approach. They often asked: 'what's working and not working?'; 'what's next?'; 'why am I doing this?'; 'why am I feeling this way?'. These kinds of questions they claimed helped them to improve and enhance their teaching practice. These participants' capacity and propensity for reflection emanated from their interest in teaching and desire to be highly effective teachers. Given their involvement in higher education teaching development activities and events, and teaching research they were well placed to develop as reflective practitioners and support others to do so.

Initially the participants did not appear to purposefully reflect in or on their teaching (Schön, 1987) but as the number of 'aha moments' generated by the in-depth narrative interviews increased, it was clear they had the capacity to do so. Examples provided from practice suggested that reflection had led to the further development and improvement of their teaching practice. As different higher education teaching

experiences were drawn upon, the participants conveyed it was they, who in difficult situations, had to 'work out' how to approach then navigate the complex and conflicting demands of higher education teaching. This included: their relationships and interactions with colleagues; accessing collegial support; designing programmes; making decisions about course content and assessment; meeting students' needs; remaining pedagogically current; and, navigating university systems. It seemed that those with prior teaching experience were more able to reflect on their teaching and implement strategies for their ongoing development. They also came to recognise that they could not conquer every problem through self-reflection and recognised the benefits of reflecting with others.

Although reflection is challenging given that the personal beliefs and assumptions underpinning teachers' actions are often too 'close to see and examine', self-reflection and reflection with others should not be avoided. When reflection on practice takes place with one other or with multiple others it affords a number of benefits to those involved. Others will ask more challenging questions for instance than a person will ask of themselves and they will challenge in different ways (Brookfield, 1995).

Issues of power

If there is any possibility of power in a mentoring relationship, the mentor and mentee will likely resist connecting. Several participants found themselves traversing such challenging territory at times. Their natural inclination to work collegially resulted in surprise at the disinterest of their colleagues. Furthermore, at times they were not included in their colleagues' interactions. Despite this, they navigated their initial feelings of discomfort and isolation, which eventually proved serendipitous as it led them to formal learning about teaching and opportunities to work collegially and be collegially supported.

These kinds of experiences raise issues of power, although power was not explicitly referred to by any of the participants. Several participants articulated that their mentors were not as interested in teaching as they were but they did not see this as a limitation on the development of collegiality. Rather it was to do with the distribution of power within their respective faculties as their mentors were also senior colleagues and in one instance the faculty chair. Largely left to their own devices as new academics these

participants were surprised to find that while required to 'find their own way' they might also be criticised for 'getting things wrong'. While the reality of this unequal power distribution could have affected the development of collegial relationships (Karlberg, 2004) (initially at least) and the development of their teaching and research practices, these participants chose to be informally mentored by colleagues they trusted, respected and already had a rapport with.

It is important to note that these participants were not suggesting their experiences were connected to the formal distribution of power at their university (Christie, 2014). Their experiences largely went unnoticed. Rather they were referring to the informal distribution of power created by long-standing relationships, unwillingness to change and be challenged; and, a fondness for the status quo. Nevertheless, Christie's (2014) observations are worth taking note of, especially for those designing, implementing and participating in university mentoring programmes. It is vital Christie (2014) has pointed out, that the "dynamics of power and control, which are intrinsic to the mentoring process" (p. 955) are explored before, during and after mentoring programmes are put in place.

Power is a key concept that permeates mentoring (Garvey, Stokes, & Megginson, 2014). While power has been defined by Jackson and Carter (2000) as the "ability to get someone to do someone to do something that they do not particularly want to do" (p. 76), in the mentoring context this does not offer an ideal starting point, especially when mentoring is considered to be a learning relationship first and foremost. That is not to say that the mentoring relationship does not start with an implicit power context but awareness of it and the intention to navigate it should be of the utmost concern. This is a challenge of relational mentoring – it highlights the role of power in mentoring interactions (Ragins & Kram, 2007). If, however, an emphasis is placed on the mutuality and reciprocity of mentoring, then power can be articulated as 'power with' (Ragins & Kram, 2007).

It is generally true that the mentor brings more work and life experience to the relationship, meaning it can be easy for the mentor to become the problem solver and solution finder. Because this can lead one or both to think that the influence of a mentor is actually power, conversations about the difference between power and influence are critical at the start of a mentoring relationship. Here, mentors and mentees must contest

what their "minds perceive to be power and look deeper into the authenticity of the mentoring relationship" (Walke, 2022, para. 4). Most importantly, both the mentor and mentee must be aware of the power they bring to the relationship and

Mentoring: A professional development approach

Mentoring is a professional approach that is well suited to supporting the development of teachers' pedagogical practice in higher education. In this study an investigation of higher education teachers' experiences of being mentored and being a mentor has provided insights about and practical approaches for the ways that mentoring can support higher education teachers.

There is good evidence that university leaders increasingly recognise how much teaching matters (OECD Institutional Management in Higher Education, 2009), the majority of higher education teachers already know the effect they have on student outcomes and that students want good quality teaching (Gibbs, 2010). Higher education teachers' participation in a learning culture of critique, critical discussion and reflection about their teaching should therefore be expected and valued by their organisation, their colleagues and the students they teach.

Many higher education teachers, especially those without a formal teaching qualification or little teaching experience, need support to be able to understand and expand upon the theoretical perspectives they may have of teaching. The university context in which higher education teachers work and the various challenges they face highlight the importance of mentoring. The capacity of mentoring to contribute to the development of higher education teachers' pedagogical practice is under-explored but its effectiveness as a deliberate professional development approach in the university context has been demonstrated (Bresnahan, 2011). Most importantly, 'fit for purpose' mentoring has been identified as essential for teachers' motivation and commitment to developing their pedagogical practice to be sustained. The deliberate adoption of differentiated mentoring approaches can therefore help teachers own the direction and shape of their own professional development (Wildman, Magliero, Niles, & Niles, 1992).

The participants in the study indicated that mentoring had contributed to the development of their pedagogical practice in different ways. They held strong views about mentoring being a way to improve their own pedagogical practice, and a way to support others. Overall, the participants were in agreement that mentoring could make important contributions to the development of their pedagogical practice.

Mentoring was viewed as a separate activity to the other informal types of professional development discussed above. This may have been because I introduced it into our conversations as a specific topic whereas the other types emanated from them in the interviews. Or perhaps it was because their experiences had led to a view of mentoring as a more formal, 'stand-alone' approach that could sometimes be uninvited or imposed (Rockquemore, 2015). There was resistance to the establishment of formal mentoring programmes, which can create challenges for the mentor and mentee relationship and affect reaching the desired outcome (Clutterbuck, 2014; Klasen, 2001; Roets, van Rensberg & Lubbe, 2019). Moreover, from an organisational perspective formal mentoring programmes require considerable investment and resources.

Of interest were the references made to mentoring as an influence on the development of their pedagogical practice. For most of the participants mentoring had largely been a positive experience, and it was welcomed as an approach that could support teaching development (Zachary & Fischler, 2012). Even so they signalled that while mentors had influenced them at various times during their higher education teaching careers it was largely informal and at times, haphazard with regard to the regularity of meetings, consistency of style and commitment (by both parties).

Notably the newer academics commented that it had not been not easy for them to access mentoring, formal or informal, for their teaching. In part they didn't know who to approach but there was also a sense that they should 'get on with it' (Rockquemore, 2011). Some felt there was some kind of "secret knowledge" they didn't know about and that it was at times deliberately withheld given the difficulties experienced in getting clear answers to their questions. They commented that once they identified who they felt they could trust and develop a relationship with, they quickly sought them out as mentors. The more experienced academics talked explicitly about being mentored by experienced others throughout their teaching careers. Mentoring had become a

deliberate act for them and was illustrated by their seeking to be skilled mentors who could facilitate others' growth and development (Zachary, 2012a).

Conceptualising mentoring

The majority of the participants had not experienced any formal kind of mentoring at their university but referred to various kinds of informal mentoring as an approach that had helped them to develop their pedagogical practice. Sometimes they had recognised with hindsight that mentoring had occurred – sometimes they were the mentor and at others the mentee (Boutselis, 2014). Despite identifying learning as active, constructivist, relational, and a dynamic process in which they were facilitators, the participants did not initially conceptualise mentoring in the same way. It was surmised this was due to their relatively limited experience of mentoring whereas teaching comprised a significant part of their academic life. They conceptualised mentoring as an expert mentoring a novice. This included advice giving and an apprenticeship style 'follow me' and 'do as I do' approach. Although they recognised the context specific and time-bound nature of this kind of mentoring where the agenda was determined by the mentor, it was also evident they were not au fait with other kinds of mentoring. That they were not able to easily conceptualise mentoring was not especially surprising in light of the challenges indicated by those working in the field (Bozeman & Feeneny, 2007; Clutterbuck, 2014; Colley, 2002; Ragins & Kram, 2007).

As the second in-depth narrative interviews proceeded and when prompted about their understanding of and beliefs about mentoring, most identified an alignment with their understanding about teaching and their teacher beliefs. Thus, the participants began to articulate their beliefs about mentoring as being learning-centred. As they continued to examine their own mentoring experiences, the principles of adult learning and constructivism became evident. They articulated that a collaborative learning relationship was key for effective mentoring, that the goals should be owned by the mentee; and that the mentor was a facilitator (Zachary, 2012a). It was not surprising that concepts and theories of mentoring, and the mentoring process were not referred to given the participants' informal experiences of mentoring and that they had not engaged in any formal learning about it. As with their talk about teaching they referred instead to the mentoring practices they had experienced and talked about the quality of different mentoring relationships.

With regard to their teaching, of particular importance was having opportunities to examine, reflect on and validate their teaching practice with a mentor (Knowles, 1980; Zachary, 2002, 2012a; Zachary & Fischler, 2009). Specifically, the participants wanted to be able to own and direct their learning about teaching, for mentors to listen, advise and work alongside but not tell; to be able to select their own pace and approaches for developing their practice with mentors as facilitators; and, to have flexible support when needed rather than imposed.

The mentoring relationship

There is ample evidence that formal mentoring relationships have a clear purpose, provide a practical framework for support and offer ongoing review (Clutterbuck, 2014) but increasingly the evidence points to informal relationships being more effective. This suggests that the participants have 'got it right' given their stated preference to work in informal mentoring contexts.

The participants acknowledged the importance of mentors and mentees, and recognised that mentoring relationships vary in effectiveness (Ragins, 2007). Critical for all was the quality of the mentoring relationship. This was especially so for those whose mentoring relationships had foundered. Their affective responses to their experiences had meant they were less inclined to seek out new mentoring relationships.. These experiences also highlighted the importance of mentors being emotionally intelligent and the importance of them having an understanding of mentoring and the nuances of the mentoring relationship. As Zachary (2012a) has pointed out, "… an emotionally intelligent (EI) mentor is easy to relate to, and always makes her mentees feel comfortable even when her own workload is demanding" (p. 5). But it goes both ways, some mentees also lack EI that can at times be at the root of the issues or challenges they have sought mentoring for. This suggests that professional development for mentors should not only include learning about mentoring but practicing EI.

Rapport, trust and reciprocity in the mentoring relationship

As with most types of close relationships mentoring relationships have positive and negative aspects (Ensher & Murphy, 2011). For individuals in higher education who are working with a mentor, rapport, mutual trust and reciprocity are integral for mentoring

to be effective (Taylor & Boser, 2006). Informal relationships can take longer to establish but they tend to last longer (Clutterbuck, 2014). A key reason mooted for this is that most mentors are in the relationship because they want to be and have the self-belief and confidence necessary. All of these were borne out in the various mentoring relationships for their teaching development. Each relationship grew from an initial rapport between mentor and mentee that was enhanced as trust grew (Hudson, 2010; Tabbron, Macaulay, & Cook, 1997).

Two participants considered that when a mentor and mentee chose to be in the relationship together it was more likely to be founded on trust. They recognised too that mentors and mentees can cause relationship problems by betraying trust (Eby & Allen, 2007). Several factors related to the establishment of trust were evident in other participants' talk. Although they did not dwell on the topic for long, their own "propensity to trust and their perception of the trustworthiness" (Leck & Orser, 2013, p. 413) of the mentor were critical for them. From Leck and Orser's (2013) three factors that comprise trustworthiness, "the perceived ability or technical competence of the trustee; the perceived benevolence of the trustee toward the trustor; and the perceived integrity of the trustee" (p. 413) it was the latter that appeared most critical for the participants. They needed to know the mentor was alongside them because they wanted to be, that they would be confidential, that they would have their best interests to the fore, and that they would be reliable and consistent.

Reciprocity in the relationship was barely raised in regard to the learning aspects of the relationship. While the participants had commented on the importance of learning together with their students they did not indicate they sought it in their mentoring relationships. But as trust develops reciprocity evolves, so reciprocal mentoring often just happens (Megginson & Clutterbuck, 2005). While not yet experienced by the participants they may find reciprocity as their mentoring relationships evolve.

It should be a common practice for higher education teachers to work with mentors to unearth their thinking about teaching to inform their practice and enhance students' learning (Loughran & Menter, 2019). It is important though, to recognise that mentoring cannot be a "panacea for a variety of organisational ills" and it has the potential to 'over-promise and under-deliver' (DeVries, 2011, p. 3). Nonetheless, mentoring is

effective when ‘done well’ (Lofthouse, 2019). Being learning focused is what matters most.

It is vital therefore, that mentoring for the development of higher education teaching becomes a priority for universities. Brandenburg and Wilson (2013) state that it is “ultimately through teaching that the university derives its *raison d’etre*” (p. 1). For this to eventuate there must be a willingness from teachers to develop innovative practices, engage in professional conversations and participate in pedagogical research. And it is mentoring that can support this.

In light of the study’s findings, my own reading, observations and conversations with colleagues from the school and university sectors, I believe that employing an inquiry mentoring approach as represented in Figure 1 below could have significant implications for the development, improvement and enhancement of teachers' pedagogical practice.

Inquiry mentoring

Inquiry mentoring has the potential to facilitate reflective practices which support higher education teachers to disentangle their beliefs, preconceptions and assumptions about teaching (Ragins, 2016). It has the potential to support higher education teachers to conceptualise the complexities and deepen their understandings of teaching and also of mentoring itself. And when enacted as inquiry, mentoring can lead to significant change in a teacher’s practice (Cranton, 1996).

Through the mutually constituted processes of learning and mentoring (Megginson & Clutterbuck, 2005) it is an approach that can support the critical examination of teaching practice using self and collaborative reflection, and exploration of different ways of teaching. When effectively facilitated by the mentor and co-created with the mentee (Merriam et al., 2007; Millwater & Yarrow, 1997; Zachary, 2012a) rich opportunities can be offered for mentors and mentees to scaffold their learning. And by drawing on their respective experiences both can collaboratively explore teaching topics, issues, and problems using a variety of strategies like skilful and intentional conversations; focused inquiries into teaching; co-construction of goals and solutions; and, collaborative reflection. In the higher education teaching context, mentoring as inquiry also has the

potential to help the mentor strengthen their own mentoring and teaching practices (Yendol-Hoppey, 2009).

Ripple representation

The inquiry mentoring approach that has begun to emerge from this study, my own beliefs about mentoring and the literature about the development of higher education teachers' pedagogical practice utilises a constructivist lens (Greyling & du Toit, 2008; Meijers & Wardekker, 2005). Represented as a ripple, it is proposed that mentoring for the development of a mentee's pedagogical practice requires the mentor and mentee to engage in intentional inquiry. The word intentional is frequently used in the mentoring field but it may have different connotations depending on context and/or purpose. For example, Schuler et al. (2021) use intentional with a specific focus in mind: that of intentional mentoring for under-represented mentees, such as those individuals who belong to minority racial, ethnic and gender identity groups in the Science, Technology, Engineering, Mathematics and Medicine (STEMM) field. But it is their argument that intentional mentoring is a 'superpower action' that is needed to not just develop harmony but understand the purpose and value of the mentor/mentee relationship. This perspective certainly resonates with the use of the word with regard to the inquiry mentoring process that is proposed here. As Packard and Fortenberry (2016) and Hinton et al. (2020) point out, intentionality is essential for every type of mentoring relationship. When a mentor personalises their mentoring approach based on their mentee's needs, they become an intentional mentor. And when intentional mentoring is to do with making informed decisions and taking the appropriate actions to meet established goals between mentor and mentee, the exploratory and emergent nature of mentoring is able to occur. I believe the ripple representation and the accompanying described elements convey the intended intentionality of mentoring that 'makes room' for exploration and emergent ideas, practice, and action.

Depicting mentoring as having a ripple effect is not a new idea. A ripple effect was implied in Ambrosino's (2009) exploration of mentors and mentees as 'fellow travelers'. In Moerer-Urdahl and Creswell's (2004) phenomenological study the 'ripple effect' of a leadership mentoring programme was examined while another study explored the impact and ripple effects of mentoring upon the degree completion of PhD educational leadership students (Bukko, Cardenas, & Colleto, 2019). The work of

educator Richard Ruiz motivated Wink, Putney, Scott, Wink, and Wienk (2019) to employ a ripple effect metaphor in their exploration of their personal stories about teaching and mentoring.

Using a ripple to represent inquiry mentoring does, however, appear to be an innovation of this study. It was inspired by the participants' stories because even those more experienced were still learning about higher education teaching, and they were all finding their way with mentoring. The ripples they were creating through this work and in their personal lives were clearly having an impact upon their colleagues, students, families and importantly, themselves. Knowing that ripples can ripple not just a long way but for a long time, as expressed in the mentor stories in Chapter Two and the participants' stories in Chapter Five, led to the formation of the ripple representation for inquiry mentoring. Ultimately, the intention is for this ripple to be more than a representation but a framework that can offer guidance to the mentors and mentees who might adopt an inquiry mentoring stance. It is intended that it be a dynamic pragmatic tool, which helps every decision, every reflection, every problem set, and every action taken to be intentional. Further, as sense is made, problems set, reflections embarked upon, and actions taken, the ripples will diminish in size because effective, timely and purposeful mentoring conversations will support the mentee's focus on a specific aspect of their teaching. The ripple effect will be generated again as new topics and issues emerge and arise.

Through the interaction and processes of the four elements - sensemaking, problem-setting, reflection and action taking - it is anticipated that the mentor and mentee will focus on the development of the mentee's pedagogical practice. There will be opportunities to sense make with regard to ideas and experiences, pose questions and problem set, share insights and reflect on, in and for practice, and to take action.

The efficacy of the mentoring relationship will be dependent on the interaction between the mentor and mentee. When mentors and mentees approach the mentoring as learners the relationship between the mentor and mentee will become more productive, rigorous and meaningful. It is then that a collaborative relationship in which learning is the "fundamental process and the primary purpose" will become central (Zachary, 2000, p. 1).

Intentional mentoring conversations

Although not yet evident in the representation, the conversations between the mentor and the mentee are intended to wrap around this inquiry mentoring approach. The quality of these conversations will undoubtedly impact upon a mentee's engagement, motivation and development' hence, they are critical. Vitally, a mentee's openness to learning can be maintained by continuing professional conversations during inquiry mentoring. Intentional professional conversations can not only lead to thinking about things in an entirely different way but to the generation of new knowledge about teaching and new ways of teaching (Timperley, 2011). Relevant here too, will be the context dependent nature of the mentoring discourse. Because the mentoring conversations will involve situational knowledge for authentic communication to take place, it will be critical that the semantics employed are understood by both the mentor and mentee (Bloor & Bloor, 2013). A mentoring conversation about semantics may well ensue.

Importantly, because mentoring is intended to engender multiple, interwoven conversations, the mentor must focus and guide the mentee for the learning (Brewer, 2016). In inquiry mentoring, the mentor will facilitate learning by initiating and guiding professional conversations throughout. Given the mentoring conversation is a specific skill in itself, the mentor and mentee will need to be prepared for each conversation. This will not only help the mentee to evaluate and analyse issues but decide what is needed, what is important and what actions to take (Clutterbuck, 2018). Integral to inquiry mentoring, the mentoring conversations will also be embedded in each of the four elements that comprise the inquiry mentoring approach.

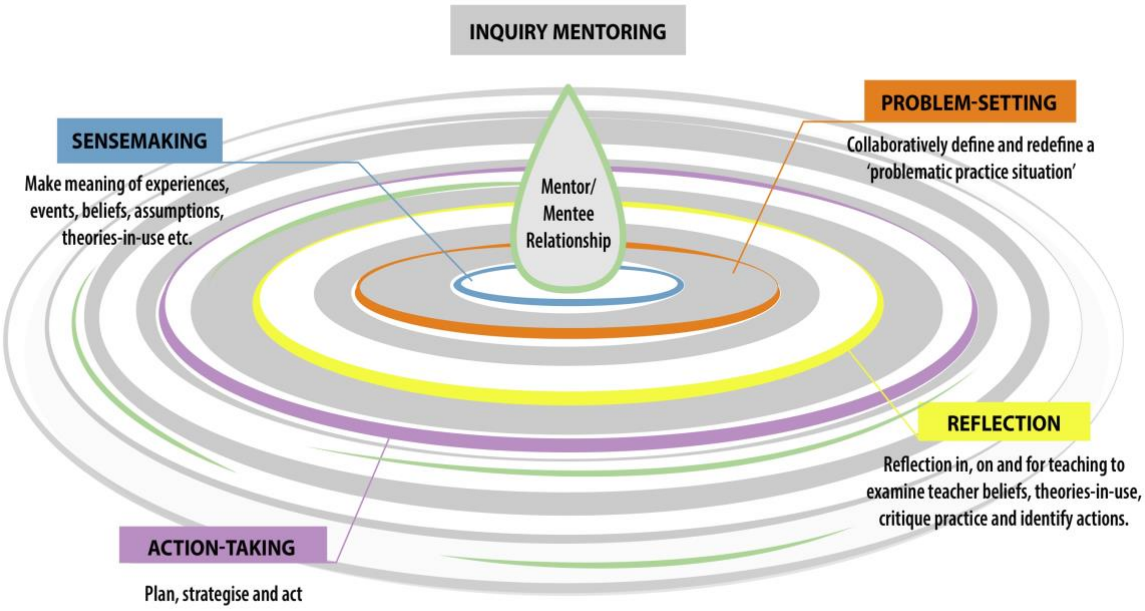

Figure 1: Inquiry mentoring

The four elements comprising the representation of inquiry mentoring are discussed next.

Sensemaking

The element of sensemaking will be mostly focused on the collaborative construction of meaning through conversation. It will employ an interpretive and constructivist perspective (Kramer, 2017). It will involve the mentor and the mentee in having professional conversations that enable them to make meaning of, and come to understandings about the mentee's individual and collective experiences (and sometimes the mentor's). Because mentees will interpret their experiences in multiple ways, sensemaking as an element of the mentoring process will help them to understand and create order from the beliefs, assumptions, theories, experiences, events and interactions they contend with on a daily basis. It will be crucial that the mentee is not 'thrown' into a sensemaking conversation (Weick, 1995). Importantly, they will need to be cognisant that while they engaging in sensemaking with a mentor, they are also 'learning about' it. Essentially a "frame of mind about frames of mind" that Weick (1995) says is "best treated as a set of heuristics rather than an algorithm" (p. xii). Mentors will actively guide sensemaking conversations by paying attention to the

"subtle twists and turns of questions, prompts, feedback and challenges" that Lofthouse (2010, p. 30) refers to.

A key aim of the sensemaking element is that the mentor will assist the mentee to make sense of the various topics, issues and/or problems raised in their ongoing mentoring conversations. Here for instance, attention might be called to the relationship between the mentee's theories-of-action and theories-in-use with regard to aspects of their pedagogical practice. They may for example espouse an active learning approach despite student feedback and peer observations suggesting otherwise. With their mentor they can examine the dichotomy: how it has come about?; why there are differing points of view?

It is important to point out that it is not intended for sensemaking to occur in isolation or 'just once' during inquiry mentoring. Because this element is fundamental to the integrated and interactive intent of inquiry mentoring, the process of intentional, continuous and collaborative sensemaking must be allowed to unfold (Weick & Roberts, 1993).

Problem-setting

The decision to include problem-setting rather than problem-solving was influenced by Schön's (1983) advocation of it and its compatibility with constructivist approaches. Whereas problem-solving is the approach teachers use to apply solutions based on what has worked in the past, problem-setting requires them to conceptualise and implement a process in which they collaboratively identify the 'things' to focus on, then frame the context in which they will do so (Schön, 1983). Problem-setting then is the process by which the decision to be made will be defined, the ends to be achieved identified, and the means with which to do so selected (Schön, 1995). To convert a problematic situation to a problem, the mentee must be supported to "make sense of an uncertain situation that initially makes no sense" (Schön, 1995).

With regard to the inquiry mentoring approach, problem-setting will lead to and embed reflective and reflexive professional behaviours and attitudes. Crucially, it will require the mentee and mentor to collaboratively define and redefine the 'problematic practice situation' (Schön, 1983). A key problem of problem-setting, however, is that teachers

do not necessarily know what they should focus on. A mentee may for instance be experiencing issues with student engagement in the first year adult learning class they are teaching for the first time. But with their mentor they can begin to unpack the complexities of the issue to identify what their focus needs to be. Both will need to be mindful of the multiple layers of the context: for example, the course content, student diversity, readiness to learn.

The professional conversation will be a critical strategy for this element to ensure that the topic or issue to be focused on and its context are clearly framed (Schön, 1995). Through conversation, problem-setting can be collaboratively expedited by the mentee and mentor.

Reflection

When teachers reflect 'in' and 'on' their teaching actions they are already engaging in a form of inquiry (Schön, 1983). Inquiry mentoring will result in deliberate and purposeful reflection that will empower teachers and build agency. Reflection will be about sensemaking, growth and action taking. With the support of their mentor, the mentee may for example employ reflection to measure their teacher actions against their beliefs and values. Moreover, reflection will be a means of achieving greater awareness of not just what the mentee does but why. In addition, during reflection the mentoring relationship and the mentee's and mentor's roles could from time to time be under "reflexive review" (Bolton, 2001, p. 33).

When co-constructed with a mentor, reflection will become a kind of 'through the looking glass' activity (Bolton, 2001). Here the mentor and mentee will engage in constructing knowledge and understanding collaboratively but based on the mentee's agenda. Not only will it allow for the sharing of learning and perspectives, it will encourage the mentee to make a commitment to action. It will nuture a kind of learning community with the capacity to 'boost further reflection' (Brookfield, 1995; Smith, 2002; Larrivee, 2000; Timperley, Kaser, & Halbert, 2014). It could also be extended by bringing others in to contribute at the mutual discretion of the mentor and mentee.

In inquiry mentoring a mentor's role will be to skilfully draw out their mentee's 'knowing-in-action'. They might ask the mentee to reflect on their use of a specific

teaching strategy; on the ethical implications and consequences of an aspect of their teaching practice their teacher beliefs and values; or their assumptions about teaching and learning (perhaps as they relate to students) (Larrivee, 2000). There should also be time for self-reflection given the important role it can play in the ongoing development of a teacher's practice but I must be remembered that reflection with an 'other' tends to offer a more rigorous approach that enhances and enriches a teacher's teaching and learning experiences (Larrivee, 2000; Brookfield, 1995).

As a retrospective contemplation of practice, reflection-on-action will be employed to unearth knowledge used in a particular situation. In analysing and interpreting the information recalled a mentor can support their mentee to contemplate and hypothesise how they might have handled a situation differently, what other knowledge would have been helpful and how they might prepare for a similar future situation (Burns & Bulman, 2000). The latter is a further and useful aspect of reflection proposed for use in the reflection element that can lead to reflection-for-action. A concept proposed by Schön (1983), if it were to be employed as an inquiry mentoring strategy, mentees might be asked to think about their action taking and focus on improving or changing their practice (Olteanu, 2016). To illustrate, mentees might reflect with their mentor on their prior experiences to predict what might occur during teaching in a particular class (Farrell, 2013). Similar to problem-setting, examples from practice could be drawn upon when employing reflection-for-action (Leinhardt, 2001; Meijer & Wardekker, 2005; Knippelmeyer & Torraco, 2007).

Action-taking

The action-taking element has been informed by the fifth phase of Timperley, Kaser, and Halbert's (2014) Spiral of Inquiry. A key expectation of this element is that mentees will self-direct their learning (Cranton, 1996). This will depend in part on their motivation to improve or change their practice (McLaughlin**,** 1987, 1990) but the deep learning facilitated during the sensemaking, problem-setting and reflection elements are intended to generate a sense of urgency with regard to action-taking. While in some inquiry learning cycles action taking is seen as a concluding stage, it is not deemed to be so for this inquiry mentoring approach. Similar to Timperley et al's (2014) spiral of inquiry, the action-taking element is part of an informed and critical process in which mentors and mentees take account of their contextual knowledge, and the complex

relationships between teaching and learning. Additionally, it requires that changes to practice be analysed, evaluated, made sense of and reflected upon to understand the impact of the action(s) taken. Further problem-setting and reflection for action should then occur.

Action-taking is therefore an intentional and critical element of this inquiry mentoring approach. The mentee's context will be taken account of: their discipline, their teaching context, university culture, and how the mentee currently understands and navigates the complex relationship between higher education teaching and learning. While a mentee may have been individually experimenting with new and/or different actions, with a mentor they will be better equipped to inquire and experiment. This will help them to avoid getting into "unproductive cycles of experimentation, disillusionment and abandonment, only to jump to the next thing that may or may not work" (Timperley et al., 2014, p. 17). It will be crucial for action-taking to occur after considerable inquiry during which the mentor supports and guides.

Summary

In this chapter, the influences on the development of higher education teachers' pedagogical practice that were identified in the study have been discussed. Teacher beliefs, learning theories, prior experiences, professional development and reflection have been identified as being a significant influence on the development of higher education teachers' pedagogical practice. One influence that strongly supported the development of higher education teachers' pedagogical practice was mentoring. In light of this, the participants' experiences of mentoring have provided the foundation for a discussion about the role of mentoring on their teaching development. Inquiry mentoring has been promoted as having the most potential to be a highly effective approach for facilitating higher education teachers' deep learning about teaching for their university context and to for the development of their pedagogical practice. The emphasis on mentoring is learning-focused and constructivist in nature, thus leading to the development of the ripple representation - an inquiry mentoring approach considered 'fit for purpose' in the higher education context. The four main elements that comprise the representation and what they might look like in practice were also discussed.

CHAPTER SEVEN: CONCLUSION

In this Chapter Seven the key points of the study are summarised. The research methodology is revisited and after thoughts about the study are presented. Implications for higher education teachers and universities, and recommendations for action and future research are presented.

The study

This study investigated the mentoring experiences of seven higher education teachers. Central to the investigation were the conversations about teaching and mentoring that occurred in the context of the in-depth narrative interviews. As the participants identified and explored the factors that influenced the development of their pedagogical practice their diverse stories emerged.

The participants' experiences and conceptual understandings of teaching and mentoring in the unique context in which they work and the various challenges they face were revealed in this study's findings. Although there were a number of influences that impacted upon higher education teachers' pedagogical development and practice, it became evident that mentoring was the influence most conducive to the development of their pedagogical practice. This study, along with its visual representation of inquiry mentoring could potentially advance teachers' understanding of the influence of mentoring as an effective and 'fit for purpose' approach to support the development of their pedagogical practice in the higher education context. Through this approach higher higher education leaders may well come to see the benefits of making critical decisions about investing in mentoring.

Mentoring can be conducive to developing practice with its capacity to engender a shared purpose about teaching development in the higher education context and grow a sense of community (Light et al., 2009). When conducted in an atmosphere of mutuality, effective and fit for purpose mentoring can enable and sustain higher education teachers' motivation and commitment to the ongoing development of their pedagogical practice. Mentoring should focus on helping a mentee achieve their learning goals with regard to teaching in a mentoring environment characterised by respect, reciprocity, learning, conversation, and listening.

Not only do these stories offer insights into the participants' experiences of mentoring and teaching in higher education, they have implications for the provision of professional learning for the development of higher education teachers' pedagogical practice.

Methodology

Adopting a constructivist epistemological position enabled the participants' beliefs about teaching and experiences of mentoring, with a particular emphasis on its influence on the development of their pedagogical practice to be explored and interpreted. The qualitative constructivist in-depth narrative interview methodology selected to generate data lent itself to a constructivist approach well suited to the semi-structured interview method and vice versa. Both led to a better understanding of the experiences, attitudes, opinions, beliefs, and feelings of the participants on the topics of higher education teaching and mentoring.

The main findings of the research have confirmed the considerable capacity of mentoring to engender a shared purpose about teaching development in the higher education context and grow a sense of community (Light et al., 2009). A main aim was to identify the participants' mentoring experiences of these teachers to give an in-depth account of the impact of these upon their pedagogical practice to contribute to the discourse about mentoring for teaching development in higher education.

After thoughts

There are some limitations that may have affected the conducting and results of this study but many can also be identified as strengths. While this was a small qualitative study involving seven higher education teachers from the same university (albeit from three disciplines) the sample size also meant that the participants' stories could be told in a personal manner that emphasised their individuality and the contributions they were making to higher education teaching in their university. It could be argued that the sample size and the personalised in-depth narrative approach limited the generalisations that could be made, but they do not preclude interested parties from drawing their own conclusions and applying the findings to other contexts. Nor does it preclude the

researcher from viewing this as a kind of pilot study, and expanding upon it in future postdoctoral research.

The setting for this research could be said to have limited the breadth and depth of the data generated. It is likely that a lack of diversity among the participants – academics in the same university, similar ethnicity and cultural backgrounds, comparable perceptions of good teaching and of mentoring had an impact. It could be predicted that the inclusion of participants from other universities would have revealed additional and alternative perceptions along with further challenges and tensions thus, validating the triangulation of the participants' stories and the in-depth narrative semi-structured interview data.

Finally, the insider nature of the research could also have been a limiting factor, although it did not appear to be. Because the researcher was known to several of the participants and known of by most others, trust and rapport were quite quickly established. In light of this it is likely that the seven participants shared more of their stories than they may have otherwise done.

Research contribution

Research and the literature about higher education teaching and the ways that mentoring can improve and enhance it is increasing. The findings of a number of studies were corroborated in this study. This study has the potential to advance the discourse about the impact that mentoring can have on developing higher education teachers' pedagogical practice. In addition, it may help higher education leaders to recognise the benefits of mentoring and make critical decisions about investing in it.

It is evident that mentoring as a type of professional development can effectively facilitate the development of higher teachers' pedagogical practice along with other learning about higher education teaching. Although being mentored and being a mentor have become essential elements of academics' professional work, they still need to be more consistently and deliberately employed for teacher development. Moreover, for mentoring to be implemented in a way that ultimately helps higher education teachers own the direction and shape of their professional development (Wildman et al., 1992), there is no one way or best way to mentor but there are 'best ways'. This perspective

was exemplified in the varying views held about mentoring by the seven participants in the study.

A key intention of this study was to highlight mentoring as an authentic and rigorous approach for the ongoing professional development of higher education teachers. An exploration of the participants' stories and of the literature identified that the pedagogical practice of higher education teachers is shaped by certain influences and mentoring can be employed to help them make sense of these and adapt their practice accordingly; that mentoring is an approach that can support higher education teachers to develop and enhance their pedagogical practice but it needs to be 'fit for purpose'; and, that inquiry mentoring has the potential to be a robust, theory and research informed professional development approach that can support the development of higher education teachers' pedagogical practice.

Influences on teachers' pedagogical practice

It has long been recognised that there are numerous influences on why and how teachers teach as they do, and indeed there were certain influences on higher education teachers' pedagogical practice that emerged during the study. This was not surprising given the literature has identified that these can have a significant on teachers' work but it was surprising to most of the participants. They had not previously taken the time to explore the back stories to their teacher development; hence, considerable time was spent listening to their stories and occasionally prompting with questions.

During the course of the study it became clear that helping teachers unpack and make sense of the influences on their pedagogical practice could deepen their understandings of their practice. The influences on higher education teachers' practice could be intentionally explored through mentoring, given what is known about the significant impact of these influences upon how and why teachers teach as they do. This could be achieved through the merging of mentoring approaches.

Merging mentoring approaches

Rather than comprising a formal programme or being a part of an appraisal process, the merging of structured mentoring (Klasen, 2001) with informal mentoring approaches seems well suited to the university context. Merging mentoring approaches would not

only be more authentic (Roet et al., 2019), mentors and mentees would be able to bring their individual styles to the mentoring relationship (Clutterbuck, 2014). Although this could contribute to the complexities of implementation, with a shared commitment to the development of understandings of mentoring and the mentoring relationship, and clear articulation by all stakeholders, formal, informal and individualised approaches could be merged and implemented.

Whatever forms of mentoring are adopted, adapted or created, the benefits, barriers to implementation, means for successful implementation, and the alignment of mentoring practice with theory must be considered (Knippelmeyer & Torraco, 2007). First and foremost in the university setting, mentoring must be acknowledged as an interpersonal relationship that is intended to support a mentee's professional development. While some have argued little is known about mentoring in higher education – by individuals or the organisation itself - this study does seem to suggest otherwise. Mentoring is 'happening' for various reasons in various places. What must be identified and harnessed are the theories, knowledge, the practices, the expertise and so on that comprise effective mentoring. As Marsick and Watkins (2001) have stated, "Informal and incidental learning is at the heart of adult education because of its learner-centered focus and the lessons that can be learned from life experience" (p. 25).

The intentional implementation of informal learning through mentoring in a structured environment has the potential to be a dynamic and pragmatic strategic teacher development approach. When underpinned by theory and evidence-based research it can be easily accessible to all higher education teachers. The development of a mentoring culture would therefore be critical. First and foremost, the organisational culture and goals of the university would need to be understood, for "mentoring requires a culture to support its implementation and fully integrate into the organization" (Zachary, 2005, p. 7). Through mentoring, effective teaching can become a goal for all higher education teachers, with the scholarship of teaching and learning more explicitly promoted (Haigh, 2011). A strategic plan for mentoring would therefore, ensure consistency of a university's expectations about effective teaching and provide guidance for continuing professional development.

Inquiry mentoring

Neither inquiry teaching nor inquiry mentoring were explicitly alluded to by the participants. That said, it was manifest in their talk about both mentoring and teaching, and conveyed in their desire to teach in ways that motivated students to engage in deep learning. The concept of inquiry was evident in the language used and the examples provided. Inquiry mentoring would undoubtedly have considerable merit as a means to support the development of higher education teachers' pedagogical practice. Opportunities for mentees and their mentors to engage in collaborative and reciprocal learning about teaching would be created although it would be crucial to have the necessary resources, knowledge and understanding about both the inquiry process and mentoring. For learners to engage in the kind of inquiry mentoring discussed in Chapter Six, an understanding of what is meant by inquiry mentoring would be essential for its effective implementation and importantly, its longevity.

Such an approach would require teachers to turn their intuition, judgements, assumptions and beliefs about teaching into structured inquiry. In their inquiry they could examine and make sense of the relationship between their espoused and actual practice, explore the implications for students' learning; make use of evidence-based research to stimulate new ways of thinking about teaching; and, try out new ideas to evaluate the impact of improvements and changes to their practice.

Universities' implementation of inquiry mentoring to support the development of teachers' pedagogical practice would extend opportunities for teachers to undertake in-depth thinking and reflection about their teaching practice. With new insights gained, teachers would become more able to reflect and make changes to their teaching. Enacted as inquiry, mentoring has the potential to be a robust learning and learner centred professional development approach to support the development of higher education teachers' pedagogical practice.

Recommendations

While this study may only have a small impact upon this prevailing climate, it does not mean that recommendations for action should not be made. Three recommendations for action that have been drawn from the concluding discussion above are made:

1. That the influences on higher education teachers' practice should be intentionally explored in a professional learning setting given the significant impact they have upon how and why teachers teach as they do.
2. That mentoring be adopted as an effective and 'fit for purpose' deliberate professional learning approach to support and sustain higher education teachers' motivation and commitment to the ongoing development of their pedagogical practice.
3. That grounded on constructivist theory, inquiry mentoring should be employed to help higher education teachers own and shape the direction of their professional development.

Future research

In light of the pace of change in the university context where the pressures on academics to teach well, research well, publish well, lead well, and administrate well are unrelenting, there is a need for greater attention to be paid to the development of effective teaching. While the growing research and literature appear supportive of this, there is a need for the impetus to be generated and sustained in universities. While research about teaching and mentoring will continue to make a significant contribution to the higher education teaching and mentoring fields, taking action is now critical.

The teachers who participated in this study shared their beliefs that mentoring can bring them to a deeper understanding and knowledge of their teacher selves, and in doing so enhance their pedagogical practice. A commitment to mentoring for the development of higher education teachers' pedagogical practice therefore needs to become a higher priority in the university context. Further action could also focus on the development of mentors' and mentees' knowledge and understandings of mentoring.

Participatory action research to investigate the impact of inquiry mentoring upon teaching practice and generate empirical evidence could prove valuable. Such an approach would align with the collaborative and reciprocal learning nature of inquiry and could be conducted in parallel. As teachers conducted an inquiry into their practice they could also inquire into their mentoring relationship and the mentoring activities they were participating in.

Final thoughts

The teachers who participated in this study did so because they are motivated, committed and caring teachers. In many ways this study became a story about the social constructs of the 'good' teacher and the 'good' mentor. An exploration by the participants of their personal and professional experiences of teaching and mentoring revealed the complex nature of higher education teaching. It became clear that higher education teachers want to be agents for the development of their pedagogical practice (Doring, 2002). Moreover, the study's participants conveyed their strong sense of responsibility and openness to being mentored and to be mentors.

Within the complexity of higher education teaching, factors that influence higher education teachers' practice were identified. Among these, mentoring was characterised as an approach that has the capacity to empower both the mentee and mentee. But for mentoring to guide and stimulate individual development and change for higher education teachers, there must be recognition and commitment by the university.

In the university context, mentoring for the development of pedagogical practice needs to occur in an environment where teachers can confidently and safely engage in learning about teaching. While the mentoring must be research informed, intentionally planned for, developed, supported, and promoted it must also be learning focused.

With mentoring being a complex and demanding endeavour, just as teaching is, an inquiry approach could prove a 'good fit' for higher education teachers seeking to develop their pedagogical practice. Its promise, potential and productivity may well lie in the capacity of both the mentor and mentee to foster an inquiry stance toward teaching and mentoring. Based on a relationship of trust and collegiality it could prove a unique and useful informal approach to mentoring.

When I return to my original thinking about my concept of mentoring, that mentoring is about empowering the other and about presence, I also see in light of the inquiry mentoring representation that evolved during the study that three mentoring beliefs now populate it. Mentoring is indeed about empowering the other and about presence - it is also constructivist, relational and inquiry oriented.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Jenny Ferrier-Kerr

PhD Candidate

Professional Studies in Education

Faculty of Education

University of Waikato

28 February 2013

To University of Waikato academics

The purpose of this email is to invite academics who have a teaching role at the university to participate in a PhD study about their experiences of being a mentor or being mentored for tertiary pedagogy. The study is titled: *Mentoring for tertiary teaching pedagogy: Tertiary educators' experiences of mentoring and being mentored.* There is a growing recognition of the importance of mentoring for sustained professional development in higher education contexts. Research is showing that mentoring encourages teachers to shape the direction of their own professional development and also that mentors benefit from mentoring as opportunities arise for them to reflect on their own performance and career directions through the sharing of ideas and supporting others.

The study requires ten participants to be involved in two face to face interviews. The first round of interviews is scheduled for April/May 2013 and the second round for October/November 2013.

If you are interested in knowing more about the study and think you would like to participate, please email the researcher, Jenny Ferrier-Kerr (jfk@waikato.ac.nz). Contact will then be made to arrange a face to face meeting at which time the study will be explained in greater detail and your questions answered.

Your consideration of this invitation is appreciated.

Jenny Ferrier-Kerr, PhD Candidate/Researcher (jfk@waikato.ac.nz)

Associate Professor Beverley Bell, Chief Supervisor (beebell@waikato.ac.nz)

Dr Rachel McNae, Supervisor (r.mcnae@waikato.ac.nz)

Appendix B

Jenny Ferrier-Kerr
Faculty of Education
Private Bag 3105
Hamilton 3216
NEW ZEALAND

….. 2013

Dear (prospective research participant)

The purpose of this letter is to invite you to participate in a study about your experiences of being a mentor or being mentored for tertiary teaching. The study is titled: *Mentoring for tertiary teaching pedagogy: Tertiary educators' experiences of mentoring and being mentored.* The data will contribute to my PhD thesis but is also intended to contribute to the growing international discourse about the role of mentoring in developing and enhancing tertiary teaching pedagogy.

The study will require your participation in two semi-structured interviews of up to approximately 80 minutes duration (April/May 2013 and November/December 2013). Each interview will be digitally recorded. The information shared will be treated with the utmost confidentiality. Pseudonyms will be used to protect the identity of all participants. While total anonymity cannot be guaranteed, you are assured that all steps will be taken to ensure your confidentiality and privacy.

Once you have given your formal written consent you will be contacted to arrange a day and time for the first interview. You can exercise your right to withdraw from the study up to the end of the data generation. It would be appreciated if you could advise me of your intent to withdraw.

The first interview in April or May will focus on your background; prior teaching experience; beliefs about learning and teaching; understandings of teaching pedagogy; past and current experiences of mentoring or being mentored for teaching pedagogy; and current aspirations and goals for their tertiary teaching practice. The structure of the second interview will be developed from the first and will comprise further conversation about your mentoring experiences.

Each interview will be transcribed and returned to you within 6-8 weeks. The researcher will ask to be notified of any changes or adaptations within 3 weeks of its receipt. A summary report will be written once both interviews are completed and participants will have the opportunity to respond. Any changes or other comments should be notified within 3 weeks of receipt of the summary report.

It is anticipated that data gathering will commence in April/May 2013 and conclude in November/December 2013. Any questions or concerns regarding the project can be directed to me and/or my supervisors. Our details are below:

Jenny Ferrier-Kerr Phone: 8384466 extn: 6665
Professional Studies in Education Department Email: jfk@waikato.ac.nz
Faculty of Education
Private Bag 3105
Hamilton

Associate Professor Beverley Bell Phone: 8384466 extn:4101
Chief Supervisor Email: beebell@waikato.ac.nz
Professional Studies in Education Department
Faculty of Education
Private Bag 310
Hamilton

Dr Rachel McNae Phone: 8384466 extn. 7731
Second Supervisor Email: r.mcnae@waikato.ac.nz
Faculty of Education
Professional Studies in Education Department
Private Bag 3105
Hamilton

If you are willing to participate, please complete the attached consent form and return to me at the above address. Thank you for your consideration of this request.

Kind regards

Jenny Ferrier-Kerr

Appendix C

Consent Form

I, _____ (*print your full name*), have been fully informed about the study and consent to participate.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I may withdraw from the study up to the end of the data generation. I will advise the researcher in writing (by email or letter) of my intent to withdraw should I decide to do so. Following notification of my decision to withdraw, any information pertaining to my involvement to that point will be destroyed.

I understand that while no absolute guarantee of anonymity can be given, the researcher will make every effort to protect my identity and privacy through the use of pseudonyms. All information shared by me will be treated as confidential. I understand that at the conclusion of the study the researcher will destroy any personal details which might enable the identification of any participants.

I understand that I will participate in two digitally recorded interviews of approximately 80 minutes duration. Ownership of the analysed data and any subsequent publications will be the property of the researcher.

I am aware that I have the right to express any concerns about the research process or other matters to the researcher and/or her doctoral supervisors. If these concerns are not resolved to my satisfaction I may withdraw from the project and make a formal complaint to the Human Research Ethics Committee at the University of Waikato as described in Section 24 of the *Ethical Conduct in Human Research and Related Activities Regulations 2008.*

Participant's name: _____

Participant's signature: _____

Date: _____

Phone: _____

Email: _____

Appendix D

Questions for the first interview

1. In what ways do you consider that your beliefs and espoused theories about teaching and learning are ‘lived’ in your practice?
2. Are there particular experiences that you believe have helped you to understand, develop, and enhance your teaching pedagogy?
3. Has being mentored or being a mentor contributed to your understanding of, and the development of your teaching pedagogy? In what ways?
4. In what ways have your beliefs about teaching changed through being a mentor or being mentored?

Appendix E

Jenny Ferrier-Kerr

Faculty of Education

Private Bag 3105

Hamilton 3216

NEW ZEALAND

16 December 2015

Dear (research participant)

In 2013 you participated in a study about your experiences of being a mentor or being mentored for tertiary teaching. The data generated for my PhD thesis is also intended to contribute to the growing international discourse about the role of mentoring in developing and enhancing tertiary teaching teaching pedagogy.

The study required your participation in two semi-structured interviews. After considering the quality and nature of the data generated and analysed thus far, and as the research has evolved it is my view that the inclusion of a narrative for each participant would add further depth and robustness to the findings and discussion. In addition, this has the capacity to create a more longitudinal aspect in the study given the dynamic nature of teaching and mentoring and that each participant may, two years on, wish to add further to a narrative.

In this letter, with the support of my supervisors (see below), I am seeking your consent to:

- write a narrative drawn from the data of the first two interviews that will include reference to your specific professional context;
- request that you read and review your narrative, and engage in further conversation with me if necessary;
- include the narrative in the thesis.

Any new conversations will be digitally recorded. The information shared will be treated with the utmost confidentiality. Pseudonyms will continue to be used to protect the identity of all participants. While total anonymity cannot be guaranteed, you are assured that all steps will be taken to ensure your confidentiality and privacy. If you have concerns that the narrative does not ensure your confidentiality and privacy, it will not be used in the thesis.

Any questions or concerns regarding this further development of the project can be directed to me and/or my supervisors. Our details are below:

Jenny Ferrier-Kerr Phone: 8384466 extn: 6665
Te Whiringa School of Leadership and Policy Email: jfk@waikato.ac.nz
Faculty of Education
Private Bag 3105
Hamilton

Professor Brian Findsen Phone: 8384466 extn 8257
Chief Supervisor Email: bfindsen@waikato.ac.nz
Te Whiringa School of Leadership and Policy
Faculty of Education
Private Bag 310
Hamilton

Associate Professor Rachel McNae Phone: 8384466 extn 7731
Second Supervisor Email: r.mcnae@waikato.ac.nz
Faculty of Education
Te Whiringa School of Leadership and Policy
Private Bag 3105
Hamilton

If you are willing to participate in this further research conversation, please complete the attached consent form and return to me at the above address.

Thank you for your consideration of this request.

Kind regards

Jenny Ferrier-Kerr

Appendix F

Consent Form

I, _____ (*print your full name*), have been fully informed about the study and consent to the further activities as outlined in the letter and as follows:

- For the researcher to write a narrative drawn from the data of the first two interviews that will include reference to my specific professional context;
- That I will read and review my narrative, and engage in further conversation with the researcher if necessary;
- Consent to the inclusion of the narrative in the thesis.

I understand that this further participation in the study is voluntary. I understand that while no absolute guarantee of anonymity can be given, the researcher will make every effort to protect my identity and privacy through the use of pseudonyms. All information shared by me will be treated as confidential. I understand that at the conclusion of the study the researcher will destroy any personal details which might enable the identification of any participants. If I express concern that the narrative does not ensure my confidentiality and privacy, it will not be used in the thesis.

I understand that any further conversations with the researcher will be digitally recorded. Ownership of the analysed data and any subsequent publications will be the property of the researcher.

I am aware that I have the right to express any concerns about the research process or other matters to the researcher and/or her doctoral supervisors. If these concerns are not resolved to my satisfaction I may withdraw from the project and make a formal complaint to the Human Research Ethics Committee at the University of Waikato as described in Section 24 of the *Ethical Conduct in Human Research and Related Activities Regulations 2008.*

Participant's name: _____

Participant's signature: _____

Date: _____

Phone: _____

Email: _____

Appendix G

MEMO TO THE FACULTY OF EDUCATION ETHICS COMMITTEE

Re: Doctoral Research

Date: 13 October, 2015

Background: Ethical approval for my doctoral research was granted in November 2012. To date the research process has progressed as described in my ethics application (attached).

Ethics issue: After considering the quality and nature of the data generated and analysed thus far, and as the research has evolved I believe that the inclusion of a narrative for each participant would add further depth and robustness to the findings and discussion. In addition, this has the capacity to create a more longitudinal aspect in the study given the dynamic nature of teaching and mentoring and that the participants may two years on, wish to add something further to a narrative.

In this memo, with the support of my supervisors (see below) I am seeking approval from the ethics committee to make contact with each participant to:

- gain permission to write their narrative;
- read and review their narrative, and engage in further conversation if necessary;
- give permission to present it in the thesis.

Jenny Ferrier-Kerr

Doctoral Candidate

Te Whiringa School of Educational Leadership and Policy

Faculty of Education

Chief supervisor: Professor Brian Findsen

Supervisor: Associate Professor Rachael McNae