Intermediate Phase teachers' experiences of a mentoring programme in two selected schools in Metro Central Education District of the Cape Metro Municipality in the Western Cape.

BY

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Declaration of Originality

I, Loveness Mahwire, declare that the contents of this thesis represent my own unaided work, and that the thesis has not been previously submitted for the award of any other qualification. Furthermore, it represents my own opinions and not necessarily those of Cape Peninsula University of Technology.

Signature *L Mahwire* Date: 8 February 2021

Abstract

This is a qualitative study that explores the experiences of Intermediate Phase (IP) teachers during the Edufundi Mentoring Programme (EMP). The Edufundi mentoring programme aims to provide teachers with practical skills for effective teaching and learning in the Western Cape and other provinces. Six teachers from two schools participated in the study. The study discusses the benefits of mentoring and the factors that affect mentoring as perceived by IP teachers in selected schools in the Western Cape, South Africa. It uses semi-structured interviews to understand how the IP teachers experienced mentoring. Content analysis was used to analyse collected data.

Findings suggest that the IP teachers' experiences of the mentoring model used by Edufundi, support theory that is maintained by the literature while its practice, as evidenced by the teachers in this study, the potential to bring about sustainable change in teachers' practice of their pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), confidence and classroom management. IP teachers also highlighted that mentee selection, delivery mode of the professional development presented by EMP, and the qualities of the mentor may influence one's experience of mentoring.

Taking place in two selected schools in Metro Central Education District of the Cape Metro Municipality the Western Cape, the study contributes with information on the lived experiences of teachers in the context of the selected schools' school cultures in this district. More particularly, this study provides a window into the practice of mentoring as a professionally development strategy for teachers in under-resourced and low performing schools which has the potential to inform where there are existing gaps in teachers' subject content and pedagogical content knowledge.

Keywords:

Mentoring; mentees; mentor; professional development; beginner teachers.

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Dedication

To my late mother, Chipo Mahwire, to whom I humbly, gratefully, and posthumously dedicate this work which she initiated, but did not live long enough to behold its blossoming. To my husband Tendai Tatenda Brian; my daughter Nothando and my son Christopher.

List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
BED	Bachelor of Education Degree
CAPS	Curriculum Assessment Policy Statements
CPTD	Continuous Professional Training and Development
DBE	Department of Basic Education
DoE	Department of Education
EMP	Edufundi Mentoring Programme
GPK	General pedagogical knowledge
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Viruses
HRD	Human Resource Development
IP	Intermediate Phase
ITE	Initial Teacher Education
KOC	Knowledge of Context (KOC).
NQTs	Newly qualified teachers
PCK	Pedagogical content knowledge
PD	Professional Development
PEI	President's Education Initiative
PUQTs	Professionally unqualified teachers
RQ1	Research question 1

RQ2	Research Question 2
SACE	South African Council of Educators
SMK	Subject matter knowledge
TIMSS	Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study
WCED	Western Cape Education Department
NSC	National Senior Certificate

TABLE OF CONTENT

List of Figures

List of Tables

List of Appendices

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION TO THE RESEARCH STUDY

Introduction

This chapter is divided into 5 sections. The first section discusses the background of the study which reflects on mentoring and its merits thereof and is followed by the second section that highlights the rationale of the study. The third section gives the overview of the study and highlights the research questions and aims. The fourth section defines key concepts of the study, and the structure of the thesis is expanded in the fifth section.

1.1 Background

Globally, with ever-changing and conflicting professional demands, work-related stress, anxiety, burnout and increasing work–life imbalance teachers need mentoring (Kutsyuruba, Walker, Stroud & Al Makhamreh, 2019; Cherkowski & Walker, 2018). Working in different roles and at different levels of teaching practice and career stages, many teachers are rightfully concerned with the impact that well-being (or the degrees of its absence) can have on everyday functioning of learners in their classrooms or other learning environments (Daniszewski, 2013). Mentoring also recognises teachers' limited knowledge about how to develop environments conducive to learners thriving and flourishing (Daniszewski, 2013).

In South Africa, the Department of Basic Education generally is of the opinion that mentoring should take the form of constant and rigorous supervision to ensure that teachers deliver on the important objectives of their work (Parker, 2003). Teachers and unions on the other hand argue that education managers take a fault-finding role that makes teachers' work more difficult to implement (Bertram, Mthiyane & Mukeredzi, 2013). Although research has demonstrated that mentoring programmes which meet high- quality criteria may alter teaching skills and classroom practice, its acceptance is limited on a global scale (Achinstein, & Athanases, 2005). This has in turn affected the academic performance of students (Kraft, Blazar & Hogan, 2018).

Therefore, there is need to create a common understanding on the importance of mentoring.

At the start of this research in 2019 South Africa had just celebrated more than 24 years of full democratic rule. It celebrated more than 24 years of the dismantling of apartheid education, 'Bantu education', unequal rights and the separate provision of education services (schools, teacher training colleges and universities) for all public schools (Sayed, 2002: 381, 383). More than 24 years after the watershed of 1994, it would have been expected that South Africans would receive high quality and equal education in the post-apartheid era. The provision of quality education is one of the goals of the Department of Basic Education as expressed in its policy documents (DBE, 2018).

Post-1994, the South African government's education policies have placed a great deal of emphasis and attention on improving the capacity and quality of the education system. One of the keyways of doing that has been by building the capacity and quality of in-service teachers through mentoring (Quick & Siebörger, 2005). In South Africa, mentoring is recognized for its role in human capital development and has been used as a justification for government subsidies for education and job skills training (RSA, 2009). Human capital development is a critical driver of economic development (RSA, 2009) and mentoring can be an effective way of building a repository of teaching skills in the country.

The foregoing discussion of this study asserts that mentoring should be a critical requirement of teachers' work. This study explores the Intermediate Phase teachers' experiences of a mentoring programme named Edufundi. It is premised on the notion that mentoring is a fundamental component of any teacher education or continuous professional development, as this is where practical professional knowledge is acquired and nurtured (Bridge, 2016). The assumption is that on the mentoring programme, mentees will be supported and guided by competent and trained mentors.

Regarding the important issue of mentoring in education, the study aims to establish potential benefits and the factors that affect mentoring through Intermediate Phase (IP) teachers' experiences of a mentoring programme in selected schools in the Western Cape. The study also intends to contribute to and enhance the body of

literature pertaining to mentoring and its role in supporting the holistic well-being and on-going learning and development of teachers in schools.

As shown in my literature review, teacher mentoring is limited in most South African schools, more so in the IP and where it does occur, it is, to a large extent an informal exercise (Kraft, Blazer & Hogan 2018). In contribution to the debate on teacher This research explores the experiences of the Intermediate Phase teachers of a mentoring programme in two selected schools in the Metro Central Education District, in order to contribute to the debates on teacher mentoring.

1.2 Rationale of the study

In emerging economies such as South Africa, mentoring becomes critical, given that the government's main concern in education is to accelerate development and benefit the nation. This requires an education system staffed with teachers who are well equipped to discharge their roles effectively. In South Africa, the supply of competent teachers remains a challenge (Bertram, Mthiyane & Mukeredzi, 2013). This may be a consequence of the expansion of access to schooling, the restructuring of teacher education and the closure of teacher colleges after 1994, all of which created a severe demand for competent teachers that exceed supply (Parker, 2003).

Research indicates that mentoring programmes which meet high- quality criteria may alter teaching skills and positively impact classroom practice. Studies suggest that such changes, in turn, may affect the academic performance of students (Heckman, 2008; Kraft, Blazar & Hogan, 2018). Mentoring should thus be a critical requirement of teachers' work, particularly for IP teachers. IP teachers have deeper challenges stemming from the fact that many students find learning quite challenging, particularly when new concepts are introduced (Shakoor, 2011). This research seeks to explore ways and means through which teachers' mentoring experiences can be enriched for the benefit of teachers and ultimately for the learners.

Secondly, it is hoped that the information gathered from this research has the potential to inform policy makers and teacher professional development initiatives such as EMP on how mentoring can be inculcated and practiced in the primary and secondary schools to create change in teachers' competencies as well as to improve learner achievement once the in-service teachers undergo mentoring. Inadequately

trained teachers can have a huge impact on learners' performance, as achievement depends largely on the quality of instruction. According to McKinley (2017) approximately 50% of new teachers leave the profession within the first five years of teaching. Many teachers experience physical, mental, and emotional exhaustion, especially those who work in low-performing schools, where the demands are high, and the challenges are immense (McKinley, 2017). But even in high-performing schools, some teachers experience burnout or are simply not satisfied with the way things are going. Therefore, it is important to mentor new teachers.

Thirdly, a large part of the researcher's profession was spent as a mentor in the Edufundi mentoring programme; it was therefore an opportunity for the researcher to reflect on the experiences of teachers during mentoring.

1.3 Problem Statement

Although there is literature on the effectiveness of teacher mentoring programs, there is limited research on the perceptions teachers of a mentoring programme (Chesley & Jordan, 2012; Stock & Duncan, 2010). Although many schools offer mentoring programs, few studies have examined the perceptions of Intermediate Phase teachers about their mentoring programs. Many teachers find their first 3 years of teaching very challenging and often feel they need support from mentors, administrators, and the school (Chesley & Jordan, 2012; Jones, 2012).

Many education systems have programmes that support teachers, but these programs are not effective at preparing new teachers for the classrooms they help retain experienced teachers (Kutsyuruba, 2012). Sterrett and Imig (2011:69) state that the initial years of a teacher's career are "make or break years in terms of teacher retention". The education system is concerned about potentially losing more teachers because of the lack of support, isolation, and overwhelming load of the first few years of teaching responsibilities (Grossman & Davis, 2012). In Georgia, teachers began combating this problem in recent decades by providing teacher mentoring programmes (GaDOE, 2012). Research by Feiman-Nemser (2012) indicates that providing high levels of support for beginner teachers through mentoring programmes can lead to higher rates of retention.

Research supports the use of mentoring programmes for retaining teachers and simplifying their transition into teaching (Ingersoll & Strong, 2011). Teachers' commitment to teacher mentoring programmes is critical; educators could either support and promote the retention of beginner teachers or undermine the success of mentoring programmes and result in teacher attrition (Ingersoll & Strong, 2011). There is a real difference in longevity between beginner teachers who were mentored and those who were not mentored (Ingersoll & Strong, 2011). The GaDOE (2012:10) stated that it is "committed to having highly qualified teachers in every classroom"

1.4 Overview of study

This research explores the experiences of a mentoring programme of six IP teachers in two selected schools in the Western Cape. It further examines the benefits of the mentorship programme as perceived by IP teachers.

This study was located within an interpretative paradigm because it aims to explore IP teachers' experiences of a mentoring programme through a case study design which was found to be a suitable approach as it offers a systematic way of exploring issues, collecting data, analysis of information and presentation of results (Yin, 2013) (refer to chapter 4.1 for further details).

The primary research question of the study is as follows: **What are the Intermediate Phase (IP) teachers' experiences of a mentoring programme?** This following primary research question has been broken down into two sub-research questions will guide the study:

- What do IP teachers perceive as the benefits of mentoring?
- What do IP teachers perceive as factors that affect mentoring?

1.5 Definition of key concepts:

Experiences

Experience can be used as a noun. Experiences is a plural noun, and when used it in this form, you are talking about a particular incident or incidents that have affected you. Thus, for this study, experience is defined as observing, encountering, or undergoing of mentoring as it occurs in the course of time. Education and experiences allow the individual to build respect from other people for the teaching

that they do (Freeman, Garety, Fowler, Kuipers, Bebbington & Dunn, 2004). What one learns and experiences may dictate future decisions and in case of teachers, it can affect how teachers teach and how learners learn.

Professional development

Professional development (PD) is defined as activities that develop an individual's skills, knowledge, expertise, and other characteristics as a teacher. In this last case, development can be provided through mentoring, collaborative planning and teaching, and the sharing of good practices. Effective professional development is on-going, includes training, practice, and feedback, and provides adequate time and follow-up support (Schleicher, 2015).

Mentoring

In general, mentoring aims to build confidence, develop resilience, and character, or raise aspirations, rather than to develop specific academic skills or knowledge (Curtis & Taylor, 2018). Mentoring, for this study, is understood as a practice which involves listening and questioning with feedback mechanisms. It is also understood to be a developmental process where mentees take charge of their own learning and where attributes such as critical thinking, experimentation and an inquisitive mind are cultivated (Bridge, 2016).

Mentor

A mentor is a more experienced and trained teacher who is committed to the role of mentoring. For this study, a mentor is highly committed to the task of helping beginner teachers find success and gratification in their new work (Rowley,1999). A mentor is a more experienced or more knowledgeable teacher that helps to guide a less experienced or less knowledgeable teacher. The mentor may be older or younger than the person being mentored, but they must have a certain area of expertise.

Mentee

A mentee is someone who has identified a specific personal or professional goal and who believes that the guidance and help of a mentor could help him/her grow personally or professionally and is held accountable to the mentor who can help them achieve their goal. A mentee is sometimes referred to as a protégés, or someone

learning from the mentor, and has the advantages of having someone who makes their personal and professional growth a priority.

Beginner teachers

The definition of beginner/novice teachers varies from country to country. In some places novice teachers are referred to as Newly Qualified Teachers'(NQTs); meaning those who have recently graduated from higher education. Ingersoll & Strong (2011) uses the term 'beginner teachers' and asserts that in some places it refers to first year teachers only; in other countries it denotes teachers in their first two or three years as professional educators. In South Africa, the term 'beginner teachers' is referred to as novice teachers, comprising the NQTs who have been teaching for less than five years (Arendse & Phurutse, 2009)**.**

1.6 Structure of thesis

Chapter 1: Introduction, background, and rational of the study

Chapter 1 introduces the study by highlighting how apartheid has generated challenges and the implications these have had and continue to have regarding mentoring. It shows how teacher mentoring is key to bring about and enhance learner achievement. Furthermore, it points out a gap in the research on this area: very little research has been conducted in terms of the IP teacher's experiences in relation to mentoring, and how in-service teachers are benefiting or not from this endeavour.

Chapter 2: Context of the study

The chapter sets the context for the basis of this research. It discusses and highlights the political, social, economic context of South Africa generally, the South African education system, teacher education, what is happening in the Western Cape with regards to mentoring, and the Edufundi Mentoring Programme (EMP).

Chapter 3: Literature review

The chapter presents a review of the literature informing this study and is divided into four sections. The first section describes and reviews literature that pertains to the notion of mentoring globally, in South Africa and the Western Cape from the perspective of how the concept has been and is used, by whom, and in which contexts. The second section explores the teachers' experiences of mentoring across the globe. The third section establishes the factors that hinder mentoring. The fourth section

focuses on the benefits of mentoring as perceived by IP teachers. The chapter concludes with a visual summary of the conceptual framework used in the study.

Chapter 4: Research study methodology and design

The research methods and procedures used to collect the data are explained, together with the rationale for their use. The data collection instrument is detailed, including semi-structured interviews. The study limitations as well as the trustworthiness of the data that underpins the validity of the study are also discussed here.

Chapter 5: Findings and discussions

The findings are reported and written up according to the two interrelated research questions that has guided this study. Analysis and discussion of the findings are presented. These look at emerging themes based on the conceptual framework model that underpins the study.

Chapter 6: Study conclusions and recommendations

This chapter is the conclusion of the thesis. It provides a summary of the research, recommendations for future study and practice and contribution of the results.

Chapter 2 contextualises the study by highlighting key moments in South Africa's history and how this relates to the topic being discussed.

CHAPTER 2

CONTEXT CHAPTER

Introduction

This chapter provides a short historical overview of South Africa to contextualise the issues that this study explores, and in terms of which the research questions have been formulated. The chapter is divided into four sections. The first section discusses the and highlights the political, social, economic context of South Africa generally. The second section discusses the South African education system, and the third section deliberates the context of teacher education in South Africa. The fourth section examines the Edufundi Mentoring Programme.

2.1 Social, political, and economic context of South Africa

The democratic order that was ushered in South Africa was a result of political settlement between the African National Congress (ANC) and other liberation forces on the one hand, and the apartheid regime on the other. The main agenda for this negotiated settlement was the abolition of apartheid and its replacement by a new constitutional democracy marked by values, ideals and principles that recognized our humanity and sought to reconcile the nation (Sisk, 2017).

When the new, democratic government first took power following the 1994 elections, South Africa was characterized by centuries of state-reinforced divisions expressed through unrelenting political oppression on the one hand, and resistance on the other. Social and racial discrimination which permeated throughout general society; severe economic exploitation were also characteristics; inequalities and disparities; racialised state apparatus were situated on the brink of an economic melt-down.

The task of the newly elected democratic government in South Africa was thus to focus on the agenda of reconstruction and development within the context of real constraints, but also great social need and political pressure. Within these competing tensions, the agenda of government, defined broadly as that of the developmental state**,** required an approach, which, while acknowledging the need for fundamental

transformation of society and state, necessarily had to be achieved systematically but incrementally (Ottaway, 2010).

The Truth and Reconciliation Commission (TRC) allowed for an open, honest, and transparent process where former perpetrators of human rights and their victims could face each other in a spirit of forgiveness. By trading forgiveness for the truth, as a society, South Africans have been able to make a historic break with the past and overcome the dilemma of all postcolonial societies of incriminations and revenge stretching indefinitely into the future. The TRC has made an important contribution towards the rebuilding of the South African nation and fostering an ethos of national reconciliation (Sisk, 2017).

2.2 The South African education system

According to the Bill of Rights embedded in South Africa's Constitution, all South Africans have the right to a basic education, including adult basic education and access to further education (DBE, 2014). The state has an obligation, through reasonable measures, to progressively make this education available and accessible.

South Africa has one of the highest rates of public investment in education in the world. At about 7% of gross domestic product (GDP) and 20% of total state expenditure, the government spends more on education than on any other sector (National Treasury Budget, 2016). Government spending on basic education during 2015/16 is estimated at R203 468 billion (National Treasury Budget, 2016). Over the next three years, roughly R640 billion went towards basic education.

Since 2009, the national Department of Education has been split into two ministries: Basic Education, and Higher Education and Training (DBE, 2016). Each ministry is responsible for its level of education across the country, while each of the nine provinces has its own education department (DBE, 2018). At the time of writing, the South African Communist Party Secretary-general Blade Nzimande is the minister of Higher Education and Training, while former Gauteng Education MEC Angie Motshekga oversees the Ministry of Basic Education (DBE, 2018). The Ministry of Basic Education focuses on primary and secondary education, as well as early childhood development centres. The Ministry of Higher Education and Training is

responsible for tertiary education up to doctorate level, technical and vocational training and adult education and training (DBE, 2016).

The split also saw the Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETA's) move from the Department of Labour to Higher Education, aiming to foster a more co-operative approach to skills development (DBE, 2018).

Private schools and higher education institutions have a fair amount of autonomy but are expected to fall in line with certain government non-negotiables – no child may be excluded from a school on grounds of his or her race or religion (DBE, 2016). The Umalusi Council, which is appointed by the Minister of Higher Education, sets, and monitors standards for general and further education and training, while the Council of Higher Education keeps an eye on higher education and training, including accreditation and quality assurance (DBE, 2018).

School statistics

In South Africa in 2016, there were 29 749 established public and registered independent education institutions that submitted the survey forms. Of these, 25 574 were ordinary schools and 4 175 were other education institutions – namely, ECD centres and special schools (DBE, 2018). The 25 574 for ordinary schools comprised the following:

- 14 795 primary schools, with 6 929 834 learners and 203 139 teachers.
- 6 186 secondary schools, with 3 989 236 learners and 140 532 teachers; and
- 4 593 combined and intermediate schools, with 2 013 465 learners and 74 942 teachers (DBE, 2018)

Thus, 13 307 830 learners and students enrolled in all sectors of the basic education system in 2016, 12 342 283 (92.7%) were in ordinary public schools and 590 282 (4.4%) were in ordinary independent schools. Of the learners in other institutions, 255 862 (1.9%) were in ECD centres and 119 403 (0.9%) were in special schools DBE, 2018). In summary, there were 13 307 830 learners and students in the basic education system, who attended 29 749 education institutions and were served by 440 151 educators in 2016.

South Africa relies on the matric pass rate as a significant marker of performance. The matric pass rate, which was as low as 40% in the late 1990s, has improved considerably (DBE, 2016). In 2016, the overall national pass rate in the National Senior Certificate (NSC) examination was 72.5%. In all the provinces more females than males wrote the NSC examination. However, the national pass rate of male candidates (74.3%) was higher than the national pass rate of female candidates (71.1%). A similar trend was seen in all nine provinces. Furthermore, the overall pass rate, by province, varied from 88.2% in the Free State to 59.3% in the Eastern Cape.

Table 2.1: Comparing pass rates of the National Senior Certificate examination, by province, in 2015 and 2016.

Province	**2015 Pass rate (%)**	**2016 Pass rate (%)**
Easttern Cape	58.8	59.3
Free State	81.6	88.2
Gauteng	84.6	85.1
KwaZulu-Natal	60.7	66.4
Limpopo	65.9	62.5
Mpumalanga	78.6	77.1
Northern Cape	81.5	82.5
Nort West	69.4	78.7
Western Cape	84.7	85.9
South Africa	**70.7**	**72.5**

Source: DBE, 2018

Table 2.1 shows that the national pass rate of the NSC examination increased from 70.7% in 2015 to 72.5% in 2016. A similar increasing trend was seen in all provinces, albeit to different degrees.

Table 2.2**:** Number of learners, teachers, and schools in the ordinary public school sector, by province, in 2016.

Province	Learners	Teachers	Schools
Easttern Cape	1 898 723	58 372	5 468
Free State	671 712	22 465	1 214
Gauteng	2 048 558	63 092	2 083
KwaZulu-Natal	2 808 207	84 810	5 895
Limpopo	1 706 725	51 650	3 867
Mpumalanga	1 046 234	34 034	1 725
Northern Cape	287 435	8 841	544
Nort West	811 340	24 876	1 472
Western Cape	1 063 349	33 254	1 450
South Africa	**12 342283**	**381 394**	**23 718**

Source: DBE, 2018

Table 2.3: Number of learners, teachers, and schools in the ordinary independent school sector, by province, in 2016.

Province	Learners	Teachers	Schools
Easttern Cape	62 824	3 257	208
Free State	16 637	1 058	68
Gauteng	278 026	18 986	730
KwaZulu-Natal	69 337	4 989	247
Limpopo	58 836	2 768	157
Mpumalanga	28 118	370	122
Northern Cape	4 082	295	30
Nort West	19 207	1 232	63
Western Cape	53 223	4 264	327
South Africa	**590 282**	**37 219**	**1 856**

Source: DBE, 2018

Tables 2.2 and 2.3 reflect, respectively, the number of ordinary public and ordinary independent schools with their learner and teacher numbers, in 2016. In 2016, there were 25 574 ordinary schools in South Africa. KwaZulu-Natal (6 142, or 24.0% of the

national total) and the Eastern Cape (5 676, or 22.2% of the national total) had the highest and second highest number of ordinary schools, while the Northern Cape (574, or 2.2% of the national total) had the lowest number of the 25 574 schools in the country,1856 (7.3%) were independent schools (DBE, 2018).

In 2016, there were 12 932 565 learners in ordinary schools in the country. Three provinces namely, the Free State, the Northern Cape and North West, showed less than a million learners in ordinary schools. In Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal more than two million learners were enrolled in ordinary schools, comprising, respectively, 18.0% and 22.3% of the national total. Of the 12 932 565 learners in the country, 590 282 (4.6%) were in independent schools (DBE, 2018). There were 418 613 teachers in ordinary schools in South Africa in 2016. KwaZulu-Natal (89 799, or 21.5% of the national total) had the highest number of teachers in ordinary schools, while three provinces, namely, the Free State, the Northern Cape and North West, had fewer than 30 000 teachers each. Of the 418 613 teachers in the country, 37 219 (8.9%) were employed in the independent school funding type (DBE, 2018).

In 2016, the national average learner teacher ratio in ordinary schools in the country was 30.9:1, ranging from 29.3:1 in the Free State to 32.4:1 in Limpopo. The national average learner school rate in ordinary schools in South Africa was 506:1 in 2016, ranging from 346:1 in the Eastern Cape to 827:1 in Gauteng. In six provinces (The Free State, Gauteng, Mpumalanga, the Northern Cape, North West and the Western Cape), the ratio was higher than the national average. In 2016, the national average teacher school ratio in ordinary schools in the country was 16.4:1, ranging from 10.9:1 in the Eastern Cape to 29.2:1 in Gauteng.

Teacher attrition and retention

Employee retention can be defined as the interventions implemented by an organisation to build an atmosphere that will encourage employees to stay for a longer period and thereby discourage qualified and experienced employees from exiting the organisation (Mohammad, 2015; Sandhya & Kumar, 2014). When employees leave an organisation, it may be detrimental for the organisation's performance and success (Mohammad, 2015; Sandhya & Kumar, 2014). Hence, it is critical that organisations motivate employees to remain by endorsing policies and practices that satisfy

employees' various needs (Mahalakshmi & Rao, 2012). Retention factors can be defined as the human resource (HR) practices those organisations introduce to attract and motivate employees to stay with the organisation (Coetzee, Oosthuizen, & Stoltz 2016; Kumar & Santhosh, 2014, Shibiti, 2017). Retention factors enhance employees' performance (Kumar & Santhosh, 2014; Van Dyk, Coetzee, & Takawira, 2013) and influence employees' turnover intentions.

Education plays a key role in the development of any society. The quality of education is influenced by the engagement, well-being, retention, and performance of teachers. Literature shows that teachers are exiting the teaching profession at an alarming rate (Fouché, Rothmann, & Van der Vyver, 2017) .

South Africa is nearing the end of the third decade since its first democratic election. Despite great progress in education and political transformation, its education system faces serious objective difficulties, which have presented significant challenges in meeting the high expectations of the population and those of the poor and disadvantaged (DBE, 2016). Literature (DBE, 2014, Simkins, 2015) suggests that South Africa teacher requirement between 2019 and 2022 will be approximately 459 645, and between 2022 and 2025, teacher requirement will be approximately 455 723, thus making the teacher requirement less between 2022 -2025 than between 2019-2022 as shown on below table. However, in recent years, the rate of teachers leaving teaching owing to retirement, medical incapacity and death has increased steadily (DBE, 2018).

Table 2.4 Projected teacher requirement

	2013	**2016**	**2019**	**2022**	**2025**
Lower Primary	132872	137610	135112	131514	129081
Higher Primary	118621	131069	139026	136263	134426

Secondary	174497	168749	174320	189642	192216
Total	**425989**	**437428**	**448458**	**459646**	**455723**

Note: The number of teachers in 2013 is a requirement, not an estimate of actual employment (Simkins, 2015). The projected numbers of educators are calculated by applying the assumed learner: educator ratio (31.2 for primary and 26.2 for secondary to the projections of learners (Simkins, 2015).

According to Simkins (2015) the Persal and Annual School Survey (ASS) data lead to substantially different conclusions about teacher attrition as shown below.

Table 2.5 Gross and net attrition rates of teachers

	Gross	**Net**
Persal	**5.37%**	**2.73%**
Annual school survey	**8.31%**	**3.37%**

Gross attrition is the number of leavers divided by employed teachers. Net attrition subtracts returning joiners from leavers (Simkins, 2015). The PERSAL net attrition rate seems too low, since it implies very long average periods of completed service (36 years as opposed to 30 on the ASS estimates) (Simkins, 2015). While the PERSAL attrition rate seems too low, the ASS estimates may be too high. The reason is that imperfection in the data means that matching teachers in 2012 and 2013 is less than complete, though every effort has been made to limit this error (Simkins, 2015). This implies that some teachers will be counted as joiners or leavers, whereas they were in fact stayers (Simkins, 2015).

Teachers are the largest single occupational group and profession in the country, numbering close to 390 000 in public and private schools (DoE, 2014). They work in extremely complex conditions, largely due to the pervasive legacies of apartheid, but

also because of the new policies needed to bring about change in education (DBE, 2016).

The basic education system needs around 25 000–30 000 teachers annually. The tertiary system, on the other hand, only supplies around 10 000 teachers annually (Miya, 2017).

The high turnover among teachers has resulted in thousands of teachers losing their jobs annually (Hugo, 2018). Many of them choose to move to other countries. The perception of the teaching profession in the country has also led to many teachers leaving the profession (Mafukuta & Mudau, 2016). The high number of teachers who leave the profession due to the lack of skilled teachers undermines the government's efforts to improve the teaching profession (Hugo, 2018). This is contrary to the Department of Basic Education's stance that the number of newly qualified teachers has recently tripled, and more teachers remain in the public education system (Citizen, 2018)

According to Furuta (2015), teachers are motivated to remain with their current school if their contributions are acknowledged, and if they feel that they have made a positive contribution to the social circumstance of the school, such as having a good relationship with learners, colleagues, and administrators. Nevertheless, the reasons for encouraging teachers to vacate their positions are many and interlinked (Mafukata & Mudau, 2016. Teachers with certain characteristics may be more likely to leave, compared to other teachers (Pitsoe,2015). Therefore, it is critical to implement measures that will improve the retention of teachers with highly needed competencies to meet the demand in public schools.

Spending and challenges

Compared with most other countries, education gets a very large slice of the public pie – around 20% of total state expenditure. It receives the largest share of government spending (DBE, 2014).

More money is always needed to address the huge backlogs left by 40 years of apartheid education. Under that system, white South African children received a high-

quality schooling virtually for free, while their black counterparts had only “Bantu education”, a keystone of the overall apartheid system (DBE, 2016).

Although today’s government is working to rectify the imbalances in education, the apartheid legacy remains. Illiteracy rates currently stand at around 18% of adults over 15 years old (about 9-million adults are not functionally literate), and teachers in township schools are poorly trained (DBE, 2018).

Despite the challenges, much has been achieved since apartheid legislation was scrapped. For example, in 1993 nearly half of all students in higher education institutions were white, but since 1994, black African enrolments have nearly doubled, growing by 91% (or 4.4% a year) and overall enrolments have grown by 41% (or 2.3% a year) (DBE, 2014).

Equity has yet to be achieved: almost 58.5% of whites and around 51% of Indians enter higher education. The rate for coloureds is 14.3%, while blacks are even lower at 12%. The reason for this is generally understood to be poor quality primary and secondary schooling, which is a priority for the current government (DBE, 2016).

The greatest challenges for schooling lie in the poorer, rural provinces such as the Eastern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal. Schools are generally better resourced in the more affluent provinces such as Gauteng and the Western Cape (DBE, 2014).

Action Plan to 2014

The government’s most recent strategy for improving the provision of education is known as “Action Plan to 2014: Towards the Realisation of Schooling 2025”, which aims to improve learning and the work of teachers (DBE, 2018).

With a new curriculum at its heart, the focus is on literacy and numeracy, known as the national Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS), the new curriculum provides very specific guidelines to streamline what is taught in schools with the aim to close the divide between well-resourced and poor schools. Curriculum implementation is supported through the national educational portal, Thutong (Setswana, meaning “place of learning”) (DBE, 2016).

Other measures include the introduction of standardised assessments of grade three, six and nine to better track progress; an emphasis on early child development and universal access to Grade R; ensuring learners have access to good quality textbooks; and improving school infrastructure and strengthening school management (DBE, 2014). The education of the poorest of the poor remains a priority and includes two notable programmes. One is no-fee schools, institutions that receive all their required funding from the state and so do not have to charge school fees. These have been carefully identified in the country's most poverty-stricken areas (DBE, 2018).

2.3 The context of teacher education in South Africa

The complexity of teaching in-service teachers lies in the fact that it is the single largest occupational group and profession in the country, numbering close to 390 000 in public and private schools (DBE, 2014). Their role has strategic importance for the intellectual, moral, and cultural preparation of our young people.

The apartheid legacy

During apartheid Initial Teacher Education (ITE), although a facet of higher education, fell under the responsibility of the provinces and was aligned according to the same racial structures adhered to by schools (CHE, 2010:7; DoE, 2011:18-19): pre-service teachers of different races received separate training. Moreover, there was no coherent policy guiding ITE programmes.

The way ITE was structured under apartheid, therefore, produced many unfavourable outcomes, such as the growing number of teacher colleges that were over producing primary school teachers despite the demand for high school teachers trained in mathematics, science, and languages (Hofmeyr & Hall 1995 cited in DoE & DHET, 2011:20). This was especially the case in the black rural areas (Parker 2003 cited in DoE & DHET, 2011:19). By the end of the 1980s there were more than 127 teacher training colleges (CHE, 2010:8), in addition to the numerous universities, technikons, private colleges, distance learning institutions, as well as organisations and institutes that were also offering ITE programmes (CHE, 2010:10). In addition, different levels, and types of ITE qualifications and standards were produced (CHE, 2010:8).

Before independence of South Africa, teachers received their professional education and entered teaching when education was an integral part of the apartheid project and

organised in racially and ethnically divided sub-systems (CHE, 2010). The post-independence generation of teachers is the first to experience the new non-racial, democratic transformation of the education system (DBE, 2018). Since 1994 they have had to cope with the rationalisation of the teaching community into a single national system, the introduction of new curricula (CAPS), which emphasises greater professional autonomy and requires teachers to have new knowledge and applied competences, including the use of new technologies, and radical change in the demographic, cultural and linguistic composition of our classrooms (DBE, 2016).

In 1995 the Ministry of Education commissioned the first-ever National Teacher Education Audit (CHE, 2010). The audit report highlighted the fragmented provision of teacher education, a mismatch between teacher supply and demand, and high numbers of unqualified and under-qualified teachers.

White Paper "1995" envisioned major modifications to both the governance and curriculum components of teacher education as these were considered essential to bring about redress, equity, efficiency, and quality to teachers in post-apartheid schools (CHE, 2010: 9).

The White Paper of 1995 "articulated how the training of teachers could be achieved with regard to quality" (Sayed & Kanjee, 2013:22) and how this might lead to the democratic and unified country the ANC envisioned. It recognised teachers as important pillars of a national human resource development strategy and emphasised their need to be trained as self-confident professionals (Sayed & Kanjee, 2013:22). In turn this called for more changes, such as the re-structuring of teacher education qualifications, the requirements, and course content of teacher education. Course content had to prepare the potential teacher for Curriculum 2005 and for democratic teaching methods (CHE, 2010:9; Sayed & Kanjee, 2013:22). The re-structured teacher education programmes had to also embed the values, goals, and principles of the ANC (CHE, 2010: 9; Sayed & Kanjee, 2013:22). All of this, the many teacher training colleges, universities, and technikons were now made responsible for re-designing and implementing (CHE, 2010:9; Sayed & Kanjee, 2013:22).

At the same time, the National Commission on Higher Education (NCHE) was established and "charged with the task of proposing policies for the transformation of higher education in South Africa" (Naidoo, 1998:369 cited in Sayed et al., 2016:184).

The NCHE proposed that teacher training colleges be incorporated into universities, arguing that this would be more cost-effective, would reduce the number of primary school teachers, and in turn, more qualified subject specialist teachers would be the outcome, all of which would imply both efficiency and equity (Sayed et al., 2016:184). In response, the provinces began slowly rationalizing and reconstructing their teacher education colleges (Sayed et al., 2016:184-185). Furthermore, higher education institutions, excluding teacher training colleges, were being classified based on the type of qualifications offered, government funding, and the reputation as well as the performance of the institution in terms of teaching, learning and research (Bunting & Cloete, 2010:24). The three classifications are as follows: traditional universities, universities of technology and comprehensive universities (Bunting & Cloete, 2010:2).

By December 2000, 23 teacher training colleges were subdivisions of the different universities and technikons (DoE 2011: 21). The teacher training colleges that were not merged were retained by the province and became campuses of Further Education Training (FET) colleges, teacher development institutions, education resource centres, high schools, provincial education offices, or were used by other governmental departments (DoE, 2011: 21; Robinson & Lewin, 2006). Following this process was a series of incorporations and mergers that occurred between 32 universities and technikons, leaving a total of 23 traditional universities, comprehensive universities, and universities of technologies. Of the 23 higher education institutions, only 21 offered initial teacher education programmes (DoE, 2011: 21).

The merged institutions brought together teacher educators who differed in many aspects, such as demographics, academic qualifications, pedagogical perspectives, and dispositions, as well as different institutional cultures and organizational structures, all of which made working together extremely challenging. One of the major challenges was that of creating integrated and coherent ITE programmes (Gordon, 2009:10-109).

In helping teacher providers re-structure ITE programmes so that they aligned with the new school curriculum, values and approaches, the Norms and Standards for Educators (NSE) was gazetted in 2000 by the Department of Education (DoE). A team referred to as the Committee on Teacher Education (COTEP) had been formed in 1994 and was now made responsible for formulating the norms and standards for

teacher education (Sedibe, 1998:275), which were primarily intended to replace the diverse range of college curricula inherited under NP rule (Kruss, 2009:20).

After much research and discussion, COTEP "proposed a shift from an input-and-product-based curriculum to a process-and-competence based curriculum" (Sedibe, 1998:275). The new 'competency' approach entailed three competencies, namely practical competence, foundational competence, and reflexive competence. These competencies were to be used to create a new conception of the role and identity of the teacher (CHE, 2010:14), reflecting the teacher's new role that "encompass[ed] all personnel with an educational role to play" (OECD, 2009:296). In addition, the NSE began using the word 'educator' rather than 'teacher' to show this new change.

The NSE listed seven roles, and each role was broken down into the three competencies that a "competent" teacher had to be trained to perform, including the "learning mediator" and the "community, citizenship and pastoral role" (DoE, 2000: 65) roles. These two roles are particularly important to point out in terms of indicating the kind of agencies the NSE envisioned future teachers would be trained in and would work to restore justice and rebuild a fractured South Africa.
In a teacher's role as learning mediator, the teacher would:

> *"… mediate learning in a manner which is sensitive to the diverse needs of learners, including those with barriers to learning; construct learning environments that are appropriately contextualised and inspirational; communicate effectively showing recognition of and respect for the differences of others. In addition, an educator will demonstrate sound knowledge of subject content and various principles, strategies and resources appropriate to teaching in a South African context."* (DoE, 2000:65).

While the above role may at the time have appeared fitting in terms of helping to combat post-apartheid issues, teacher educators were not familiar with the new knowledge, values, pedagogies, skill set or experience of a transformed curriculum system aimed at providing pre-service teachers with the required training and values (OECD, 2009:295). Kruss (2009) notes that teacher education providers throughout South Africa were at that time "grappling with these kinds of curriculum debates" (2009:19). The OECD (2009:296) describes these challenges presented to teacher educators by the NSE:

> "This elaborate competency framework was very new to South Africa, involving concepts and terminology with which most teacher educators and teachers had no

> familiarity or experience. The teaching force available at the time had been trained in a very different tradition and, in some cases in training institutions that suffered from serious deficiencies in quality." (OECD, 2009:296)

Many teacher educators "did not understand or take ownership of the concepts involved" (OECD, 2009:295), which resulted in ITE programmes being re-circulated on a continuous basis to develop new curricula that had to prepare the pre-service teacher for their roles in post-apartheid South Africa (Gordon, 2009:116).

In 2009 the DoE, which was responsible for basic education and higher education, split (Bailey 2014:6). The new Department of Basic Education (DBE) focused on school curricula, whereas the new Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET) focused specifically on higher education, which included initial teacher education. One of DHET's responsibilities was and is supporting tertiary institutes to meet policy requirements as well as monitoring and evaluating the quality of teachers that were produced (Sayed et al., 2016).

With regards to professional development, the basic competencies include:

> "Newly qualified teachers must understand diversity in the South African context to teach in a manner that includes all learners. They must also be able to identify learning or social problems and work in partnership with professional service providers to address these.
>
> Newly qualified teachers must be able to manage classrooms effectively across diverse contexts to ensure a conducive learning environment.
>
> Newly qualified teachers must have a positive work ethic, display appropriate values and conduct themselves in a manner that befits, enhances and develops the teaching profession.
>
> Newly qualified teachers must be able to reflect critically on their own practice, in theoretically informed ways and in conjunction with their professional community of colleagues to constantly improve and adapt to evolving circumstances." (DHET, 2015: 64).

Notwithstanding the improved qualification profile of the teaching force, most reports on South African education indicate that most teachers have not yet been sufficiently equipped to meet the education needs of a growing democracy in a 21st century global

environment. Taylor & Vinjevold (1999) stated that the President's Education Initiative (PEI) research project in its findings concluded that the most critical challenge for teacher education in South Africa was the limited conceptual knowledge of many teachers. This includes poor grasp of their subjects, as evidenced by a range of factual errors made in content and concepts during lessons. Teachers' poor conceptual and content knowledge contributes to low levels of learner achievement.

The government's Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development (ISPFTED) in South Africa 2011-2025 focuses on mentoring in teacher education. However, full scale implementation is still limited while mentoring of teachers in other countries has become a dominant practice in the quest for improving education quality although it is implemented differently in various contexts (Avalos, 2011).

Circuit managers and curriculum/subject advisors

Teachers require support as they try to find their feet in the profession; make sense of reform initiatives; and implement policy (CDE, 2015). Systemic changes bring with them myriad challenges that teachers cannot face without support.

In South Africa, the need for support became apparent after a consistent theme of confusion and implementation difficulties emerged among educators as they tried to make sense of and deliver a new curriculum in the aftermath of apartheid (CDE, 2015). The political transformation that took place in 1994 in South Africa saw the introduction of a new legislative framework for education, including new statutory bodies and a range of new national policies (Centre for Development and Enterprise (CDE), 2015:5). For example, the Employment of Educators Act (EEA) 76 of 1998 (Republic of South Africa (RSA), 1998) stipulates that employer (office-based educators) have the right to concern themselves with the quality of the work of employees (school-based teachers).

Similarly, the Foundations for Learning (FFL) Campaign (DoE, 2008:22) specifies that "education district officials are obliged to visit all schools within the district at least once per term, with more frequent visits to schools requiring stronger support for monitoring, guidance, assist schools to improve their performance and work towards the agreed targets." In addition, Goal Number 27 of the Action Plan to 2014 (DBE, 2011:9) states that the objective of the DBE is to "improve the frequency and quality of the monitoring

and support services provided by district offices to schools." The National Policy on the Organisation, Roles and Responsibilities of Education Districts (National Education Evaluation & Development Unit, 2013:15) prescribes that education districts and circuit offices are required to conduct "school visits, classroom observation, consultation, cluster meetings, suitable feedback reports and other means; provide an enabling environment and organise provision and support for the professional development of managers, educators and administrative staff members; and holding education institutions in a district area to account for their performance." Legislation and policy, however, simply provide a framework and communicate intent (CDE, 2015). The reality of providing and receiving support seems to be far removed from legislation and policy, as suggested by available literature (De Clercq, 2007; Jansen, 1998; Van der Berg, Spaull, Wills, Gustafsson & Kotzé, 2016). Thus, the primary aim of the authors was to explore the provision of support to primary school teachers and how they experience support from internal and external sources.

According to Kowalski, McCord, Petersen, Young & Ellerson (2011), the role of the circuit manager has evolved over time. Kowalski et al, (2011) states that in the early years, duties of the circuit managers included observing classes, employing teachers, conducting faculty meetings, assisting with textbook selection, disciplining children, and conducting meetings with parents and teachers. The current view of the circuit manager is to play many roles in the function of a school district community leader, financial manager, district manager- but no role is more important than that of instructional leader (Crankshaw, 2011). The circuit manager can be regarded as a teacher both in and out of the classroom, guiding staff to new understandings and strategies for improvement (Mthembu, 2014). In addition, circuit managers may use their managerial role to support or influence curriculum and the instructional programme if that is the role that they will assume, but he or she must create a culture for establishing a shared vision, common goals and encouraging leadership throughout the organisation (Mthembu, 2014).

According to the DoE (2012: 11), subject advisors are specialist office-based teachers in a district office or circuit office whose function is to facilitate curriculum implementation and improve the environment and process of learning and teaching by visiting schools, consulting with, and advising school principals and teachers on curriculum matters. Subject/curriculum advisors are strategically placed by the DoE to

contribute to the development of district planning that focuses on the provision of curriculum support to schools with the intention to deliver progressively high-quality education to learners.

The Western Cape Education Department (WCED) has eight education districts, divided into 49 circuits with 49 circuit managers, following a redesign process in 2006/07. The districts include four rural districts (West Coast, Cape Winelands, Eden and Karoo, and Overberg), and four urban districts (Metro North, Metro South, Metro East and Metro Central, on which this research is focused on (DoE, 2013).

Rural district boundaries are based on municipal boundaries, while urban district boundaries are based on those of city wards. The boundaries also allow for an equitable distribution of schools and resources across education districts and circuits. Key district services include advice and coordination on curriculum, education for learners with special needs, and institutional management and governance (IMG) (DBE, 2018).

The WCED is in the process of building the capacity of the 49 circuit teams to provide specialised support where this support is needed the most (DoE, 2013). Typical circuit teams will include advisors responsible for IMG at schools, school administration, general education, and training (General Education and Training (GET), Foundation, Intermediate and Senior phases), and special needs, including school psychologists, social workers and learning support advisors. Curriculum advisors for Further Education and Training (FET) will operate at the district level (DoE, 2013).

Mentoring in the Western Cape

Firstly, In the Western Cape, there is the Western Cape Primary Science Programme (PSP) that initiated a collaborative partnership with a Higher Education Institution (HEI), the Mathematics Education Primary Programme (MEPP), and the Western Cape Education Department (WCED) in 2012 to create the Joint Mentorship Project (JMP) (Dharsey, 2012). The JMP is committed to assisting over 20 graduates who are beginning their careers as local primary school teachers. The JMP provides mentoring in class, innovative workshops, and general teaching support through mentors.

This mentorship project focuses on assisting beginner teachers with curriculum implementation, classroom management and discipline, understanding the culture of

the schools involved, managing administrative tasks, and continuous professional development. The JMP is a collaborative support system and a helping hand for these teachers, trying to overcome the obstacles and challenges that come with being a novice teacher (Dharsey, 2017). The project responds to a pattern in South Africa of new teachers leaving the occupation within their first few years of teaching, often due to being overwhelmed by the challenges and realities of the classroom.

The JMP aims to bridge the gap between the theoretical training they have received at university or teacher training institutions and the realities of classroom practice and managing workloads, to encourage more confident, knowledgeable, and better-equipped teachers. Each first-time teacher (FTT) enrolled in the project is assigned a mentor who will mentor and support them over a period of two years. The mentor visits the teacher in their school to discuss the challenges and difficulties they face, and a tailored plan of integrated support is drawn up. The mentor also joins the FTT in their classroom to observe how they teach (Dharsey, 2017).

Secondly there is the Edufundi Mentoring Programme that equips teachers with practical skills for effective teaching and learning in the Western Cape and other provinces (refer to details below).

2.4 The Edufundi Mentoring Programme

The Edufundi Mentoring Programme (EMP) is a national non-governmental Organisation (NGO) formed in 1997 by the South African Textile Workers Union which has partnered with the Department of Education to mentor in-service teachers in low performing primary schools (EMP, 2018). The Department of Education (DoE) of each province identifies the schools that EMP should support. The EMP took 21 techniques out of the 62 techniques and contextualised them to the South African context. EMP believes that these 21 techniques are enough to equip teachers in the classroom. The 21 techniques are subdivided into three sub-division, making each sub-division for each for first three terms (EMP, 2018).

Term 1 they focus on techniques on Behaviour and culture tthat are intended to enhance a conducive learning environment that enhances learner participation and classroom management. In term 2, EMP focuses on Academic Ethos that focuses on how to plan a learner centred lesson with engaging activities. In term 3, EMP focuses on Culture of Error and Checking for Understanding (CFU). Basically, these

techniques (Culture of Error and CFU) are believed to enhance teachers' skills of checking for understanding when they are teaching, allowing learners to make mistakes and learn from them and circulating around the class, making sure that all learners are engaged and doing what they are supposed to do. EMP does not go into schools in the 4th term as schools will be busy with their end of year exams (EMP, 2018). All the 21 techniques are expected to guide teachers on lesson planning, lesson delivery, classroom management and discipline, learner interaction, feedback, and reflection (EMP, 2018).

Each school selected is given two experienced and trained mentors who have not less than 10 years teaching experience (Foundation Phase and Intermediate Phase) and the school then identifies and selects 3 mentees (teachers) in each phase per school (EMP, 2018). Each selected mentee should voluntarily and actively participate in the mentoring programme for a full year and must be visited at least 21 times by the mentor to get 45 South African Council of Educators (SACE) Professional Development (PD) points (EMP, 2018). The principals and the School Management Team selects the mentees for the programme based on their School Improvement Plan or teacher's needs. The EMP has no say in the selection process (EMP, 2018). Thus, the mentorship programme is a one-on one model that uses the mechanism of modelling lessons, co-teaching, observing, reflecting, and giving feedback. The mentees should also attend 3 one and a half hours workshops after contact time to get an extra 5 SACE PD points. The mentee should reflect in his/her journal after each visit (EMP, 2018). The two mentors stay at the school for 4 years and then leave the school for other schools in disadvantaged communities (EMP, 2018).

2.4.1 Selection of schools

The schools selected for the EMP are those that applied for the mentoring programme and the under-performing schools from previously disadvantaged communities (EMP, 2018). On the basis that if the schools have applied to be on the programme, the teachers, and School Management Teams (SMT) would be motivated to work with the mentors. This assumption has proved accurate, but additional problems have been evident: the schools that applied for the programme did so because they were struggling particularly in their Mathematics and English departments (EMP 2018). This is because most of the teachers are unqualified to teach subjects such as Mathematics and totally unsuitable for the post they are in (EMP, 2018).

EMP made the most progress with the schools that had been nominated due to its performance (EMP, 2018). It is evident that many senior teachers, Heads of Department and even Principals at the “previously disadvantaged” schools have very limited success in their jobs, not because they cannot do so or do not wish to, but because they are not entirely sure of what the job description entails (Fricke, Horak, Meyer, van Lingen, 2008). Hence these teachers, SMTs do not know how to support beginner teachers as they come to their schools. In fact, induction only takes place and not mentoring.

2.4.2. Classroom observations & feedback

The mentor and mentee should schedule a time for the classroom observation within the time- table (EMP, 2018). It is vital that the mentor observes the teacher while teaching, to adequately assess his or her mastery of the content, implementation of the mentor’s advice, teaching skills and classroom interactions (EMP, 2018). These also afford excellent opportunities to identify teachers’ needs. These lessons should not be tailor made for the mentor but for the learners (EMP, 2018).

After the mentor has observed the mentee, again according to scheduled time (especially admin periods/tea break), the mentor and mentee should have a 15-minute feedback time, reflecting on the lesson that was observed (EMP, 2018). Here the mentor makes it conducive for the mentee to reflect on his/her own mistakes, what he/she can do better in her next lesson, and then agree on the focus area on which the mentee will be expected to work during the week before the next visit/observation (EMP, 2018). It is significant that EMP teachers by and large are happy to receive mentors into their classes and frequently request that they observe them teaching, understanding this to be informative and have great potential for their further professional development (EMP, 2018).

The mentors on the one hand they must be constantly supportive and non- judgmental of the mentee whilst assisting them with their teaching (EMP, 2018). However, they are obliged to help the mentee see their own weaknesses so that they can be addressed to help the mentee to become more professional and ultimately the learners (EMP, 2018). The mentors only rarely and only on request teach small portions of lessons to demonstrate to teachers how to introduce new sections or how to apply a new methodology (EMP, 2018).

2.4.3. Mentee workshops

The advantage of an on-site support programme such as the EMP, and using workshops as an add-on strategy, is that the mentors provide regular one and a half hour workshops that are compulsory during their scheduled meetings with the teachers after teaching time, thus ensuring that new methods and techniques are understood and will be implemented correctly (EMP, 2018).

The workshops are held three times per year (one for each term), the content of which will dictated by the teachers' needs as identified by the mentors and introduce them to new techniques (EMP, 2018). The mentors present the workshops in a safe and conducive environment where there is no judgement, fear, or intimidation and where the mentees freely share their challenges and experiences that they face in their classes (EMP, 2018).

2.4.4 Programme assessment

Various strategies are used to assess the programme itself and teachers' progress with the programme. Teachers are required to report in their reflective journals to the mentors on a weekly basis (incorporating a tool for self-reflection and a tool for mentor reflection (see Appendix D). Furthermore, the teachers and mentors are expected to evaluate and reflect in the teacher journals at the end of each term of the progress made in the term (refer to Appendix D).

2.4.5 Collaboration with DBE

Full cooperation with the DoBE has ensured that district officials support the EMP programme. However, observations of some school organisational problems indicate that extensive assistance is required from the district IDS (Institutional Development and Support) officials (EMP, 2018). These problems include timetable issues, teacher allocation to classes and classrooms, and poor use of school facilities and resources (EMP, 2018). Unfortunately, IDS officials have many schools in their portfolios and do not appear to have time to identify and then attend to all the schools' problems. In addition, district subject advisers (SA) seldom have time to assist (EMP, 2018).

EMP sees it as vital to liaise with district officials regularly and maintain open lines of communication with them as they can support requests to the schools, thus creating a greater likelihood of school cooperation (EMP, 2018). One of the most vital aspects

is for the DoE to ensure continuity of teachers within their teaching posts, to monitor teachers' progress and provide them with positive support (DoE, 2014).

2.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter provided an historical overview of South African education, including teacher education, from 1948 to the present day, showing the statistics of teacher attrition and retention that the South African education system, has inherited. Through policies and regulatory bodies established in post-apartheid, it detailed how change was envisioned. However, up until this date the issue of teacher attrition and retention has not been resolved completely although mentoring programmes such as Edufundi envisage to improve teacher attrition and retention as well as equip teachers with the necessary skills to enhance teaching and learning.

The next chapter 3, a literature review will be presented.

CHAPTER THREE

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

Having set the context for this research in chapter two, this chapter presents a detailed literature review consisting of several interconnected parts. The first part provides a historical overview of the term mentoring and the different definitions of mentoring and beginner teachers. The section also looks at the importance of mentoring.

The second part of this chapter focuses on the benefits of mentoring, which is sub-divided into four parts. The first sub-division focuses on the benefits of mentoring beginner teachers. The second sub-division focuses on how mentoring enhances teachers; content and pedagogical knowledge. The third sub-division focuses on how mentoring promotes teachers' confidence and motivation. The fourth sub-division focuses on how mentoring enhances classroom management of teachers in schools.

The third part focuses on the factors that affect mentoring of teachers and is sub-divided into three sub-divisions. The first sub-division looks on how mentee selection effects mentoring. The second sub- division looks at how the delivery mode of mentoring affects mentoring. The third-sub-division looks at the qualities of a mentor and how it affects mentoring.

Lastly, the conceptual framework that underpins the study is explained.

3.1 The history of mentoring in teaching

According to Colley, (2002) the word "mentor" first appeared in English print in 1750 and then mentoring in 1778. The teacher's mentor, an article by Fitch, Huntington and Buckham was one of the earliest books on guiding teachers on mentoring with more articles appearing between 1884 and 1918. Colley (2002) asserts that the actualisation of mentoring only occurred in the late 20th century.

By the mid-1980s, the term mentoring had come of age. Thus, 1980 was probably the most important turning point as far as the growth and evaluation of mentoring research outputs in professional journals is concerned. Many universities, colleges and other institutions of higher learning and organisations of varying sizes started to adopt

mentoring programmes of one type or another (Mullen, 2016). By 1994, journals dedicated specifically for mentoring of teachers started to appear. From the 1990s until now, mentoring has been growing steadily into a recognised practice in the teaching profession (Hobson, 2016). However, mentoring of teachers occurs more in developed countries than in developing countries (Lai, 2010).

Historically, mentoring was as an art through which older and more skilled individuals assisted younger individuals to become the next generation of wise people (Rapuleng, 2002:57). In teacher education, mentors are referred to as experienced and skilled teachers who actively engage with inexperienced teachers to enable the latter to obtain the required professional skills (Tomlinson, 1995:20). Mentoring is a method utilised to assist a mentee to understand and learn comprehensively from their daily experience (Hamilton, 2003:21). Effective mentoring can reduce professional isolation and provides assistance and feedback regarding mentees' performance and cultivates confidence and motivation within the mentee (Mohono-Mahlatsi & Van Tonder, 2006:387).

3.2 Definition of mentoring

Bridge (2016) defines mentoring as on-going support where experience is critical and specialised advice is given in a relationship that is characterised by a partnership between the mentor and the mentee. Murray & Owen (1991) agree that mentoring is the pairing of a more skilled and experienced teacher with a less experienced teacher with the goal of developing specific competencies for teaching. Malderez (2009) views mentoring as a two-way process that changes both the mentor's and mentee's mind-set and skill set as an effective form of in-service training for teachers.

Mentoring, for this study, is understood as a practice which involves listening and questioning with feedback mechanisms. It is also understood to be a developmental process where the mentee takes charge of their own learning and where attributes such as critical thinking, experimentation and an inquisitive mind are cultivated (Bridge, 2016). Roberts (2000) describes mentoring as a complex, social and psychological phenomenon.

A definition of mentoring may include the following aspects: a deliberate, conscious, voluntary relationship that occurs between an experienced, employed, or retired person (the mentor) and one or more other persons (the partners/mentees); who are generally not in a direct, hierarchical or supervisory chain-of-command; and typically focused on interpersonal support, guidance, mutual exchange, sharing of wisdom, coaching, and role modelling, and with benefit to the community within which the mentoring takes place (Portner in Mohono-Mahlatsi et al, 2007, 384). Portner (in Mohono-Mahlatsi et al, 2007, 384) claims that the four major functions of effective mentoring are relating, assessing, coaching, and guiding.

Mentoring from a global perspective presents teacher education and development in various forms and from different angles but themes that are central to it are how teachers learn, how they apply their knowledge in practice and the challenges of doing so (Kraft, Blazar & Hogan, 2018). A teacher's work is also presented as an attempt to balance students' needs, expectations of teachers' employers, and communities, and the need to suit the prevailing socio-economic contexts in which schools operate. This observation implies that teacher education (both pre-service and during service) should be tailored to address the varied expectations of their constituents. According to Avalos (2011), effective professional development in the form of mentoring impacts on teachers' knowledge and practices and more importantly learners' benefit from the teaching processes. Mentoring brings in enhanced cognition and new improved beliefs and teaching practices (Avalos, 2011).

The concept of a wise and trusted apprentice has evolved over centuries of knowledge and skills transfer between generations (Bridge, 2016). Within the teacher development context, 'mentorship' is a recognised feature of most systems of teacher education globally. It is problematic to come up with simple and agreed definitions of mentoring. Therefore, the meaning of mentoring may be derived from the context that it operates in.

Teacher mentoring should be viewed as a process towards building professional capital and it should concern all stakeholders, including teachers, government administrators, schools, communities as well as other relevant partners (Patton, Parker & Tannehill, 2015).

Mentoring as professional development, according to the National Policy Framework for Teacher Education (NPFT) in South Africa (2007) is broadly viewed as the growth of individual teachers in their profession. This understanding suggests mentoring as a long-term process that includes regular opportunities and experiences planned systematically to promote growth and development in the profession. Thus, centrality of the learner in learning and the continuous nature of that learning imply a link between teachers as learners, teachers in practice, and teachers in student learning. Hence, being a teacher implies on-going professional development. This is particularly true for South African teachers where learner performance generally lags by international standards (Parker &Tannehill, 2015).

Although it is hard to define, mentoring is traditionally seen as a process by which a more experienced person (the mentor) gives support to a less experienced person (the mentee) across a wide range of issues relevant to work and professional development (D'Souza, 2014; Sakamoto & Tamanyu, 2014; Hobson & Malderez, 2013; Kutsyuruba, 2012). Whilst some definitions of mentoring do not explicitly refer to the mentee as having less experience than the mentor, the general notion of mentoring is seen as a developmental partnering of two professionals, in which one individual is sharing his or her knowledge and expertise to inform or support the professional learning and career development of another (Parylo, Zepeda & Bengtson, 2012: 121). Thus, mentoring should be viewed as a learning partnership between a mentor and a mentee (Searby, 2014).

3.2.1 Definition of beginner teachers

The definition of beginner teachers varies from country to country. In some places beginner teachers are referred to as Newly Qualified Teachers' (NQTs); meaning those who have recently graduated from higher education. Ingersoll & Strong (2011) uses the term 'beginner teachers' and asserts that in some places it refers to first year teachers only; in other countries it denotes teachers in their first two or three years as professional educators.

In South Africa, the term 'beginner teachers' is referred to as novice teachers, it constitutes the NQTs who have been teaching for less than five (5) years (Arendse & Phurutse, 2009). This reveals that there are two dominant terms for NQTs: one based on years of service and, the other upon the date on which qualifications were attained.

This study considered NQTs in terms of experience of less than five years.

3.3 Importance of mentoring

Findings from different literature indicates that there is a constant need for teachers to continuously learn through discussions, studying, experiments and reflections on their work through mentoring (Avalos, 2011). Reflection is particularly emphasised by most scholars as central in the process of analysing problems, needs and processes in teaching and learning. Mentoring as a platform for professional reflection is therefore an important tool for change and improvement in teacher education (Hobson et al., 2009). Mentoring is a long- held concept with the overall purpose of offering personal and professional guidance from an experienced and learned veteran to a new professional. This process occurs in many forms and across different environments including businesses, industries, universities, and school systems (Gehrke & Kay, 1984).

Teacher professional development activities such as mentoring are important because "Teacher satisfaction increases in relation to professional development activities and contribute to the improvement of curricular understanding and self-efficacy" (Avalos, 2011: 10). Teachers also generally have much to learn from each other and teacher education and professional development should encourage co-learning.

While teacher mentoring should be cornerstone for the provision of quality teaching and learning in the education system of any country, the challenge however is that few professional development initiatives investigate teachers mentoring experiences in a constructive and systematic manner (Shulman, 1986). This then leads to the lack of teachers' effectiveness in professional development programmes such as mentoring. On the contrary, professional development programmes such as mentoring are successful and that they positively impact on the work of teachers, both in and out of the classroom (International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP), 2013). It is especially true when considering that a significant number of teachers throughout the world are underprepared for their profession (IIEP, 2013, Kraft, Blazer & Hogan, 2018). The need for relevant professional development has never been as essential as it is today because teachers need to be highly qualified to improve student achievement (Benton & Benton, 2011).

The retention of quality teachers in the South African education system, in which demand continues to outweigh supply, is a key priority. Among other factors, teacher attrition has been identified as playing a pivotal role in their work (Bridge, 2016). Mentorship can provide on-going support to teachers to help them cope and develop with their work. Hayley van der Haar in the Mail & Guardian (2016) argues that support and guidance over time by a mentor can inspire a "growing independence and confidence as well as the development of a sense of pride, self-confidence and self-reliance" in teachers.

Mentoring of teachers has become a dominant practice in the quest for improving education quality globally although it is implemented differently in various contexts. Van Louw & Waghid (2008: 208) argue that "real life experiences of mentoring as a professional development strategy could contribute significantly to the conceptualization of mentoring in South Africa". Literature has demonstrated that traditional teaching and mentoring models are giving way to more modern teaching methods which place emphasis on experiential learning where mentees are taught and encouraged to engage and reflect (Benton & Benton, 2011). Experiential learning though is just beginning to take root in African continent, its acceptance is growing (Benton & Benton, 2011).

In South Africa, mentoring has been patchy, limited, and uncoordinated (Bridge, 2016). Post 1994 South African schools have seen mentoring in schools through various non-governmental programs such as Edufundi and Western Cape Primary Science Programme.

Robert & Floden (2009) points out that there is a support gap that exists for beginner teachers, especially those who teach in schools of poverty (Johnson, Kardos, Kauffman, Liu, & Donaldson, 2004). Because teacher quality can make an enormous difference in educational opportunities for children (Sanders & Rivers, 1996), beginner teachers need targeted support to overcome the many challenges of learning to teach. In high-poverty districts where turnover is highest, the quality of school cohesion and performance is affected when teachers leave (Ingersoll, 2004).

Those responsible for school leadership and policy often do not realize that creating a quality mentoring programmes for beginner teachers can make a tremendous difference in teacher satisfaction, growth, retention, and impact on students (Robert &

Floden, 2009). Only 1% of beginner teachers participate in sustained, comprehensive mentoring programmes (Ingersoll & Smith, 2004). Although the public expects beginner teachers' performance to resemble that of experienced teachers, novices without adequate support need 3 to 7 years of teaching to reach their maximum impact on learners' achievement (Robert & Floden, 2009). Comprehensive mentoring programmes are a way to accelerate this process and minimize the amount of time it takes for a beginner teacher to be most effective in promoting student learning (Alliance for Excellent Education, 2008; Villar, 2004).

Schools face serious challenges as beginner teachers leave before they can develop fully as high-quality teachers. As many as 14% of teachers quit after the 1st year, with numbers rising as high as 50% leaving within 5 years of taking their first teaching position (Alliance for Excellent Education, 2008). At the point when a teacher is ready to make a major impact on student achievement, he or she is likely to have left the profession (Alliance for Excellent Education, 2008). Strong mentoring programmes that provide opportunities for teachers to be involved in decision-making and that offer strong administrative support, together with support to develop strong classroom management, can keep teachers in the profession (Ingersoll & Smith, 2004). Such programmes support organizational and instructional conditions that can help novices develop as high-quality teachers early in their career. To combat high attrition rates and improve teacher quality, researchers have begun to define the qualities and components of comprehensive mentoring programmes that make a difference in the lives of teachers and learners (Alliance for Excellent Education, 2008; Britton, Paine, Pimm, & Raizen, 2003; Fletcher, Strong, & Villar, 2005; Ingersoll, 2001; Stanulis, 2006)

The first few years of teaching is a critical time for professional growth and teacher development, requiring emotional and pedagogical support from an experienced mentor. To serve this need, many school districts and counties across the globe have developed mentoring programmes for beginner teachers. Beginner teachers' mentoring requires reconsideration in the changing education sector (Callahan, 2016). Beginner teachers encounter numerous challenges and demands when beginning their teaching careers in unfamiliar schools. Each school presents a myriad of new relationships to foster, i.e., staff, students, parents, and administrators, which can be

overwhelming. Unique concerns facing new teachers often contribute to their sense of failure and in some cases cause them to exit the profession.

Schools are important agents of positive change in any society including their immediate communities (Ajani, 2018). A teacher's practice can be considered a micro-society and the wider community a macro one with the two influencing each other. This means therefore that any beginner teacher's mentoring intervention should offer participants opportunities for self-empowerment (Achinstein & Athanases, 2005). Even where teacher education has been successful in preparing students for their future profession, the reality can differ greatly in the classroom. Many beginner teachers therefore find the transition from student teacher to in-service teacher overwhelming (Lindgren, 2005).

Study by Smit & Du Toit, (2016) found that mentoring provides a suitable and much needed platform for beginner teachers to acquire some of the most needed skills for their jobs, including lesson planning and delivery as well as handling disciplinary issues. So critical is the need for mentoring for beginner teachers that if they are left alone without it, it can spell disaster for their budding careers (Marthur, Gehrke & Kim, 2013). Many developing and the developed countries have recognised the enormous benefits of mentoring and have adopted it into their education systems. Countries such as the United States, South Korea, Britain, and Albania are some of the countries globally known for vibrant mentoring programmes (Ping, Schellings & Beijaard, 2018).

Beginner teachers are considered as novices when they are in their first five years of practice (Callahan, 2016). The mentoring of beginner teachers and that of more experienced practicing teachers usually assumes different departure points as well as different operational objectives (Lai, 2010; Marthur, Gehrke & Kim, 2013; Ajani, 2018). While mentoring is generally a critical requirement for all teachers, beginner teachers tend to have greater needs for it. This is precisely because novice teachers can easily be overwhelmed by the enormous demands of school teaching. Teaching by nature has many deliverables, and hence demands the ability to multi-task but it is not always easy to evenly spread one's effort and attention across the various demands. It is essential for all teachers to develop the skill of multitasking and that ability is the mark of a true teacher, which unfortunately, does not occur naturally (Ajani, 2018).

Accordingly, mentoring has been widely recognized as an important aspect of the professional preparation of beginner teachers (Smit & Du Toit, 2016). Mentoring however, is varied from one country to the other (Callahan, 2016). It is presented as more important for beginner teachers than it is for more experienced practicing teachers though it is also important for the latter's improvement of professional competences (Gotian, 2016; Sutcher, Darling-Hammond & Carver-Thomas, 2016). How mentoring is viewed bears important implications for how mentoring is to be practiced and experienced.

Whilst it is not the aim of any mentoring programme to solve all problems that the mentee encounters as a teacher, mentoring programmes should be structured flexibly to meet the personal and professional needs of the mentee (Van Wyk & Daniels, 2004:365). Rose (2005:91) concurs that mentees need to be led through and challenged within an unfamiliar journey that will assist in defining them professionally and personally at the end of their initial training.

Mentoring of teachers has been found to be a key initiative in raising standards in South African schools (Avalos, 2011; Luneta, 2012). As demonstrated by the study of Kempen & Steyn (2017) that establishes the value of mentoring on beginner teachers' learning, learners' outcomes, and whole school change in six special schools in South Africa. The focus was on the adaptation of 'Learn Not to Burn', a fire safety programme, and teacher and learner support materials for an inclusive classroom. The study proved that mentoring in the specific context of special education can bring about significant social capital gain particularly in teachers' professional capacity, learner outcomes and whole school improvement (Kempen & Steyn (2017).

A more clearly defined knowledge base is essential for the work of all teachers. Just like their learners, teachers learn from different kinds of learning activities and they too need both extrinsic and intrinsic motivation (Kempen & Steyn, 2017). Mentors need to appreciate that a teacher, as a mentee needs to be motivated by the approaches or effectiveness of the mentoring process so that they obtain maximum benefit from the mentoring exercises (Avalos, 2011; Mathur, Gehrke & Kim, 2013). It is envisaged that the implementation of mentorship programmes at schools will positively influence the development of beginner and experienced teachers and their practice.

Manwa, Mukeredzi & Manwa, (2016) investigated the mentoring experiences of 'beginner' teachers in rural primary schools in Masvingo District of Zimbabwe through a qualitative research study. Their findings indicated that most experienced teachers had not experienced mentoring and consequently had no smooth transitions from student-hood to teacher status. They had no professional guidance to navigate their new work environment. Their experiences seemingly impacted negatively on their career prospects as some indicated interest in careers outside the teaching profession. This diversion of interest to other careers maybe viewed as a result of frustration with the teaching profession. The education system needs to offer on-going in-service mentoring, thereby preparing teachers for professional guidance. This promotes professional learning and development, adding qualitative commitment and competence to the growth trajectory of both novice and practicing teachers. This in turn, may motivate new teachers to stay in the profession (Manwa, Mukeredzi & Manwa, 2016).

Mentoring is seen as self- empowerment by scholars such as Mullen (2016). The specific focus of this study is on the self as teacher 'own practice', the mentor, and mentorship. With this clearly in mind, action research that allows one to take responsibility for one's own professional development and transforming one's teaching practice is considered an appropriate approach, entailing the enactment of the role of transformative leader (Smit & Du Toit, 2016).

Mentoring as professional development is considered an essential mechanism to deepen teachers' subject knowledge and to transform their teaching practice (Kempen & Steyn, 2017: Ajani, 2018). However, the same expectations or aspects the mentees struggle with were perceived then and are still present today; classroom management, motivation of learners, dealing with individual differences among learners, assessing learner work and relations with parents (Kempen & Steyn, 2017). It was also established by an international study that in countries such as China, New Zealand and Switzerland teachers experience the same problems. Dealing with individual differences among learners was taken as essential phenomenon to explore under experienced teachers' collective scholarly lens (Kempen & Steyn, 2017).

While teacher mentoring should be a cornerstone for the provision of quality teaching and learning in the education system of any country, the challenge however is that many professional development initiatives rarely investigate teachers mentoring

experiences (Ping, Scheillings & Beijaard, 2018). This then leads to the lack of teachers' effectiveness in professional development programmes (Edwards, 2018). However, other evidence demonstrates that mentoring programmes are successful and that they positively impact on the work of teachers, both in and out of the classroom (Gotian, 2016). The preceding observation is especially true when considering that a significant number of teachers throughout the world are underprepared for their profession, so mentoring has never been as essential as it is today because teachers need to be highly qualified in order increase in student achievement (Luneta, 2012)

3.4 The benefits of mentoring

Trained mentors help beginner teachers plan lessons, assist them in gathering information about best practices, observe the new teachers' classes, and provide feedback. The beginner teachers reflect on their practice and apply what they have learned to future lessons.

3.4.1 Mentoring and teachers' pedagogical and content knowledge.

Globalization has brought changes in education which requires teachers to be knowledgeable and competent to prepare students for an increasingly competitive society.

It has been demonstrated that teacher mentoring programmes which meet high-quality criteria may alter teacher capabilities and classroom practices (Avalos, 2011). Prior studies on teachers' adjustment to the school environment in South Korea have shown that many beginner teachers adopt the teaching practices of existing experienced teachers (Shin, 2012). Studies suggest that such changes, in turn, may affect the academic performance of students (Ajani, 2018; Kraft, Blazar & Hogan, 2018). Teaching is a complex activity that calls for emphasis on both content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge. This need has given rise to the current calls for Technological Pedagogical and Content Knowledge (TPACK) a growing professional requirement for all teachers. Aside from the individual satisfaction or financial gain that teachers may obtain because of participating in professional development opportunities such as mentoring, the process of professional development has a significantly positive impact on teachers' beliefs and

practices, students' learning, and the implementation of educational reforms (Heckman, 2008).

The lack of pedagogical preparation has been identified as a problem among teachers in Malaysia (See, 2014). To address this challenge, See (2014) proposes that one-to-one mentoring with experienced teachers will help in developing the pedagogical and content knowledge (Shulman, 1987) of teachers. The study investigated the influence of mentoring empirically on three domains of pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) which are subject matter knowledge (SMK), general pedagogical knowledge (GPK) and knowledge of context (KOC). The findings reveal that there is significant relationship between mentoring and SMK, mentoring and GPK and mentoring and KOC. Mentoring exerts the most influence on KOC, then GPK and SMK respectively (See, 2014). Overall, there is a significant relationship between mentoring and PCK of teachers.

Mashau, Mutshaeni & Kone (2017) observe that content knowledge gaps and inadequate pedagogical knowledge for teaching seems to contribute to poor learner results in South African schools. In the closing section of their chapter, they conclude that the subject knowledge base of most South African teachers is simply inadequate to provide learners with a sufficient understanding of the subject. Sayed, Motala & Hoffman (2017) argue that content knowledge, while necessary, is not sufficient for coherent teaching. While this understanding can lead to questions about why the emphasis on content knowledge continues, emphasis on fundamental content knowledge remains very important within the South African context.

Gu & Gu (2016) examined how mathematics teaching research specialists mentor practicing teachers during post-lesson debriefs of a lesson study in China. This study revealed that the Chinese teaching research specialists pay a great deal of attention to practical knowledge. Practical knowledge in this case consists of setting students' learning goals, designing instructional tasks, formative assessment of students' learning and improving instructional behaviours. Less attention was paid to mathematics content knowledge and general pedagogical knowledge. Meanwhile, the teaching research specialists tended to comment on lessons in general and address anticipated problems based on their previous experience and paid less

attention to addressing issues raised by the teachers or to engaging in a dynamic dialogue with them.

Mena, Garcia, Clarke & Barkatsas (2016) explored the knowledge that teachers articulate in mentoring conversations under three different post-lesson approaches to mentoring: dialogue journaling, regular conferences, and stimulated-recall conferences. The results indicated that dialogue journaling demonstrated more appraisals of practice, regular conferences emphasised rules and artefacts, and stimulated recall favoured more precision in the type of the arguments stated. The three mentoring styles favour different but complementary understandings of practice and knowledge sharing.

The central concern in South Africa remains that a significant proportion of teachers lack pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) (Ajani, 2018). Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) plays an important role in classroom instruction. In the teaching and learning process, a PCK involves teachers' competence in delivering the conceptual approach, relational understanding, and adaptive reasoning of the subject matter (Shulman, 1986). Shulmans (1986) pedagogical content knowledge conceptualises teachers' expert knowledge as an amalgam of various teachers' expertise. Teachers construct versions of reality that fit the experience of the context. Pedagogical content knowledge is knowledge that is constructed from knowledge of environmental contexts, knowledge of learners, knowledge of pedagogy and of subject matter. It is knowledge that has been specifically crafted by teachers for fitness of purpose for enabling leaners to understand (Shulman, 1986). PCK of teachers can thus be enhanced through professional development initiatives such as mentoring.

3.4.2 Mentoring and teachers' confidence and motivation

Shapira-Lishchinsky & Levy-Gazenfrantz (2016) investigated mentees' perceptions regarding the persons they viewed as their influential mentors. The study was intended to find out whether they regarded them as authentic leaders and whether these mentors affected the development of mentees' emotional intelligence (EI). Using a sample of 62 mentees from different school levels and different sectors in Israel, semi-structured interviews were conducted to explore participants' perceptions of the mentoring processes that had influenced them professionally. Findings revealed that the influential mentors were perceived as authentic leaders, acting within different

dimensions of authentic leadership (AL) at different levels. In addition, it was found that mentees perceived their influential mentors as contributing to their own development as mentees' of EI, including different relationships between the various dimensions of AL and the different dimensions of EI. The findings support this critical review of mentoring and encourage educational leaders to focus on professional development programmes such as mentoring. This is precisely because mentoring helps to develop different dimensions of mentees' EI as well as general teacher competency.

Tahir, Haruzuan Mohd Said, Daud, Vazhathodi & Khan (2016) examined a mentoring programme for novice head teachers and its perceived purposes, and constraints in Malaysian schools. Using a survey research design, they analysed responses from 200 newly appointed headteachers. The headteachers revealed that mentoring had significantly improved their professional values as school leaders. It was also found out that mentoring had led to the creation of a knowledge sharing culture that boosted their confidence and improved their practical knowledge of school leadership. However, the headteachers also revealed that time constraints negatively impacted on the effective implementation of mentoring.

Peters-Burton, Merz, Ramirez & Saroughi (2015) investigated the effects of a one-year mentoring programme of in-service teachers on self-sufficiency and motivation. The study utilized a cognitive apprenticeship model to shape both scientific thinking and inquiry instruction with 19 in-service teachers. Results of the study indicated that in-service science teachers changed their perceptions of inquiry and maintained high motivation.

Umigiraneza, Bansilal & North (2016) studied teachers' confidence in teaching mathematics. The research reported results for profiling a group of 75 mathematics teachers, from Grade 4 upwards, from schools in the province of KwaZulu-Natal in South Africa. The research investigated confidence levels of teachers regarding the teaching of various mathematics topics. A survey instrument was constructed, and subsequent feedback revealed that teachers displayed low confidence in teaching some of the content topics. The teachers also expressed lower confidence about engaging in critical debate about mathematical and statistical statements in social media. They recommended that teacher in-service programmes such as mentoring provide opportunities for teachers to engage in activities which require critical

examination of the ways in which mathematics is taught in schools by first enhancing teachers' confidence.

Durksen, Klassen & Daniels (2017) hypothesised and tested 253 practicing teachers through structural equation modelling to discover the motivation and collaboration of teachers. Their study revealed that there is a positive relationship between motivation and professional learning, specifically when learning is collaborative.

Motivational strategies such as mentoring may achieve quality assurance in the educational system (Onjoro, Orogo & Embewe, 2015). Thus, any government recognition of teachers' motivational needs such as mentoring may promote teachers' efficiency, productivity, and performance for quality outcomes. Most research findings indicate that there is a significant relationship between motivation and confidence on teachers' performance and mentoring.

3.4.3 Mentoring and classroom management strategies

Mentoring plays a critical role in supporting mentees to develop their classroom management strategies (Kurobasa, 2017). It is becoming increasingly recognised, that the benefits of high-quality mentoring can ensure a successful and positive transition for the beginner teacher into teaching and continue to make a substantial contribution to their professional development through their careers (Kurobosa, 2017).

Stanulis & Floden (2009) found that mentoring resulted in excellent classroom management that engaged learners and created thoughtfully planned routines during the day, including morning meetings, transitions, and routines for group and independent work creating environments that stimulated curiosity, and learners absorbed in their work; planning for time that was well managed, and pacing that was effective for the learners' learning. Closure was included in lessons, and much time for interaction, questioning, and discussion is planned.

In Turkey, Yirci (2017) found that beginner teachers thought that their mentoring programme was beneficial in terms of classroom management. The primary purpose of this research was to find out what novice teachers in Turkey thought about a new mentoring programme introduced by the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) in February 2016. To collect more detailed data and gain a deep insight regarding

research problem, qualitative research methods were preferred. The study group consisted of 22 newly appointed teachers during the 2016 academic term. A semi-structured interview form was used as data collection instrument. According to the results, novice teachers thought that the new mentoring programme was beneficial in terms of classroom management, communication skills, professional efficacy, extending network and gaining experience. As for the disadvantages of the program, the beginner teachers stated that they cannot choose their mentor teachers, and the mentor teachers did not know the programme in detail as it has been implemented for the first time.

Beginner teachers were concerned with the understanding of the 'actions' of teaching, that is, how and where to stand in the classroom, learner entrance and exit, voice and pitch, controlling the class (Kurobasa, 2017). Although, crucially important for preparing for constructive learning to take place, the mentee might not fully understand why or what they were teaching. This is not surprising because classrooms themselves are complex and dynamic environments and for the novice this can be overwhelming (Kurobasa, 2017). The mentor, as an experienced teacher, could 'think' and consider learner progress and intuitively identify learning in a lesson because they were 'unconsciously competent' in managing the classroom environment (Kurubosa, 2017).

Teacher mentoring programmes have a positive effect on beginner teachers' in managing their classrooms (Hellsten, Prytula, Ebanks & Lai, 2013). Janikula (2017) states that teachers' feel more prepared for classroom activity through participation in a mentoring programme. Janikula (2017) researched the effect a teacher mentoring programme would have on teacher's classroom preparedness at a public Middle and High school in the rural Midwest in Rwanda. Teachers were interviewed regarding aspects of the mentorship program and how it had affected their level of preparedness for the classroom. The results suggest that teacher mentoring does have a small effect on preparing new teachers. Teachers in the study indicated that the programme was helpful in their development as teachers.

3.5 Factors that affect mentoring

While mentoring has the potential to promote teacher success and professional development, mentoring programmes have factors that may hinder mentoring in schools. The study will focus only on the following factors that affect mentoring and these include mentee selection, delivery mode and the quality of an ideal mentor.

3.5.1 Mentee selection

Achinstein & Barret (2004) assert that if mentors are carefully selected, and the rationale of a mentoring programme is explained fully, mentoring will contribute to teacher development. A good administrator (principal) strives for parity in her or his treatment of the teaching staff; beginner teachers need additional nurturing as they acclimate to the profession (Weasmer & Wood, 2000). The principal often makes the selection of mentee; making the mentor his/her supervisor of the mentee is crucial. In the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) (1999) survey in America, 55% of first-year teachers agreed strongly that they felt supported by the administration and 37% agreed somewhat.

Firstly, an initial task that informs planning is to gather data by conducting a needs assessment. A needs assessment helps with identifying potential gaps in existing support of professional development in an organisation such as a school (Weinberger, 2005). It is critical to collect data from all stakeholders and consider their voices, for example, teachers, HODs and principals at the planning stage (Portwood & Ayers, 2005). Input and buy-in from each stakeholder will ensure that the program operates smoothly and is adequately supported.

Beyond an initial needs' assessment, forming an advisory council with school staff members is also recommended (Weinberger, 2005). Inviting input from key stakeholders is crucial to fully understand the context to make certain that the selected teachers are appropriate for the mentoring programme. Ensuring that it is a good fit with the environment involves preparing the school for the programme, which will aid in successfully implementing and sustaining it (Godber, 2008). Furthermore, the success of the programme is contingent on the school's support, as is the success of a programme evaluation (Portwood & Ayers, 2005).

While there is a lack of research on the motivations of school-based mentoring, research has investigated volunteering for mentoring in general. Clary & Synder.

(1999) empirically derived six functions served by volunteering for mentoring and labelled these as values, understanding, social, career, protective, and enhancement. These functions can be both motivations to volunteer and benefits received from volunteering to be mentored. Individuals volunteer to express important values, such as humanitarian concern and altruism. Understanding addresses the need for individuals to seek learning experiences that will help them better understand themselves and others. The social function suggests that volunteering to be mentored allows a mentee to be with one's friends (mentor) and engage in activities viewed favourably by important others (Clary & Synder, 1999). Teachers motivated by the career function volunteer to gain career-related experience.

Volunteering can be protective, as it enables the individual to reduce negative feelings such as anxiety, loneliness, and guilt. Finally, enhancement helps the teacher to feel useful, to increase self-esteem, or to maintain positive emotions. Clary & Snyder (1999) found values and understanding to be the strongest motivations of volunteers to be on mentoring programme, and the desire to enhance career to be more important to younger than to more experienced teachers. Clary & Snyder (1999) also found that volunteers tended to be more satisfied with their experience and have greater intentions of volunteering again in future professional development when their initial motivations were fulfilled. According to Clary & Snyder (1999) the volunteers in their study were satisfied with their mentoring experience) and expressed intentions of being mentored again in the future.

School-based mentoring (SBM) programs, in which volunteer mentees meet regularly with mentors on school grounds, are an increasingly popular option. As of 2005, SBM was the fastest-growing form of mentoring in the United States in schools as part of one formal program or another (MENTOR, 2006). Volunteering to be on SBM is to provide teachers facing adversity with one-to-one relationships that change their lives for the better.

Thus, key players and partners will need to be identified and engaged prior to the implementation of a mentoring programme. Communicating explicit roles and responsibilities early on will help to determine which key players are able to make the necessary commitment. Co-operating teachers play a vital role in their own professional development. Although they serve as mentees, however, most teachers do not receive comprehensive or coordinated preparation for their role as effective

mentees (Russell & Russell, 2011). Studies demonstrate that mentees need to be more informed about the needs of mentoring (Iancu-Haddad & Oplatka, 2009).

3.5.2 Delivery mode

Two broad views of teaching have been clarified by Fish (1995) as a set of competences that the teacher must learn, and mentor should advise and assess, namely the technical rational: (TR) view and/or a complex social activity which is dynamic and has a moral dimension (reflective practitioner view). For the latter viewpoint, the mentor must understand and recognise his/her own personal base of practice and that of the teacher being mentored and understand how such beliefs and values impact on practice whilst assisting the mentee to engage in new approaches. The reflective approach is acknowledged as being more demanding and requiring insight, intellect, and energy, as it endeavours to help the teacher to be a member of the teaching profession, establishing principled practice more than merely "learning to be a proficient classroom practitioner" (Fish 1995:94).

The principal's crucial role is helping to find time for the mentor and mentee to collaborate in the success of mentoring. Feiman-Nemser (1996) described insufficient time (time to mentor and time to learn to mentor) as the biggest deterrent to a productive mentoring relationship. Maddex (1993) indicated in a survey of 366 mentors and mentees that the lack of release time to observe, have conferences, or collaborate was a significant detriment to the relationship between the mentor and mentee.

Duncombe & Armour (2004: 141) summarise the research of numerous others and recommend that effective professional development such as mentoring is school-based, active, collaborative, progressive and focused closely on teachers' learning, and that there is a need for subject-specific continuing professional development (CPD), which should be focused on individual teacher needs. Rogan (2006:9) agree that there is a need for mentoring to be in-school, that both content knowledge and teaching strategies should be encompassed. These ideas are evident in the ideals and implementation of the mentoring programme in that the teacher support takes place at the teacher's school during the school day; with on-going individual contact with a mentor who deals with the specific needs of each teacher; whilst focusing on the ultimate need to improve the learner's potential to learn and succeed at school through improved teaching.

Such individual interaction between an inexperienced teacher and one who is more experienced (possibly a mentee and mentor respectively) allows the latter to better understand the mentee's actual and potential developmental level and hence help her to achieve her personal zone of proximal development (Duncombe & Armour, 2004:149). The zone of proximal development (ZPD) is offered as the distance between the mentee's actual development level (what the teacher can do on his own) and potential development level (what can be achieved through the help of others).

Rogan (2006:6) states that implementation of a mentoring programme is an attempt to understand and express the extent to which the ideals of professional development such as mentoring are being put into practice, i.e. how mentoring is being implemented. There should be an attempt to recognise current reality and then build on the strengths of various components of the educational system (Rogan & Grayson, 2003:1176) as opposed to identifying weaknesses and remediate them.

However, Duncombe & Armour (2004:143) saw that unsuccessful mentoring occurs away from the school, not providing the teachers the opportunity to see the course usefulness in their own context and seldom providing follow-up. In addition, teachers are simply receiving knowledge at courses (Duncombe & Arthur, 2004:148) and not having active involvement with it. Hence the primary focus of such mentoring programmes is that the teacher upgrades with the intention to convey facts, skills, and knowledge, whilst not measuring what was learned and subsequently implemented in the class by the teachers (Duncombe & Armour, 2004:156).

A different study of Zhang, Krajcik, Sutherland, Wang, Wu, & Qian (2004:498) states nthat there is no further follow-up to evaluate the impact of the mentoring and on the teachers' practice. However, Zhang et al (2004) recognise that the teachers, while enthusiastic about mentoring, faced real barriers to its implementation. The teachers in Rogan's study (Rogan, 2006:22) were positive about workshops they had received, but still wished for school-based mentoring.

Lamie (2002: 138) posits that the key aspects in the process of implementing a mentoring programme is relevance and feasibility, compatibility, knowledge, awareness of external factors, discussion and collaboration and adequate support and training. In emphasising the final point, she observes that imposed change will be unsuccessful unless teachers are willing to undergo personal change and are

supported in this endeavour. Lamie (2002: 150) emphasizes giving teachers the opportunity to teach in practice sessions, building up their confidence and awareness, and allowing them to learn through the process of their teaching. Lamie highlights impact areas (or external / internal issues) that have a potential negative impact on teacher implementation of the mentoring such as teachers' confidence and teacher awareness of responsibility for their own professional development.

3.5.3 Qualities of an ideal mentor

The mentoring process is not always clearly understood in education. Researchers are becoming increasingly cognizant of its complexity. Head, Reiman & Thies-Sprinthall (1992) state that the "heart and soul" of mentoring grows out of belief in the value and worth of people and an attitude toward education that focuses upon passing the torch to the next generation of teachers by the mentor. The mentoring process extends far beyond supporting the induction of new teachers into the school system through professional guidance and encouragement. Shadio (1996) believes that the heart of mentorship comes from a commitment to education, a hope for its future, and a respect for those who enter its community.

The qualities of an ideal mentor although interrelated, will be discussed in this study in the following sections: section 3.5.3.1 will discuss the mentor and mentee having mutual respect; section 3.5.3.2 will discuss the mentor having the ability to be an active listener. Section 3.5.3.3 will discuss the mentor's ability to inspire the mentee and section 3.5.3.4 will discuss the collaborative mentor/mentee relationship.

3.5.3.1 Mutual respect

In general, an effective mentor is characterised by mutual respect with the mentee, trust, honesty, understanding and empathy. Good mentors try to share their life experiences, wisdom, and technical expertise with their mentees. They also try to know, accept, and respect the goals and interests of their mentees.

According to Scott (2012) one of the most important elements in mentoring is mutual respect between the mentor and the mentee. Mutual respect is not something that comes quickly or easily and instead requires time and patience to build. Trust is the substance of all successful mentoring (Scott, 2012). It is often linked to openness, mutual reliance, and trust, as well as the willingness to be vulnerable in some way.

Without mutual respect, mentoring become tense and people become self-protective. Successful mentoring absolutely depends on it (Scott, 2012).

Scott (2012) offers the following suggestions for mentors to create mutual respect with their mentees:

- Give your mentee voice and choice in deciding on activities.
- Let the mentee have control over what you talk about and how you talk about it. Be sensitive to their cues. Do not push your mentee for information or hit them with rapid-fire questioning.
- Most importantly, respect the trust your mentee places in you. Respond to them in ways that show you see their side of things, giving advice sparingly.

By allowing a mentee to have a say in the mentoring relationship and allowing them to share without fear of being lectured or judged, the mentor will set the tone for a positive relationship (Scott, 2012). Whether they show it or not, the mentee looks for an outlet for their thoughts, experiences, and feelings. When the mentor and mentee have established mutual respect, both would have proven to each other that they are dependable and that is the beginning of growth (Scott, 2012).

Straus, Johnson, Marquez, & Feldman (2013) concur that mentoring relationships are characterized by reciprocity, mutual respect, clear expectations, personal connection, and shared values. Schmidt (2008) agrees that if there is mutual trust between the mentee and mentor, mentoring becomes mutually beneficial and can see new-found knowledge and skills growing in their teaching. Hudson (2016) found that positive relationships required the achievement of trust and respect by sharing information, resources, and expectations and by being professional, enthusiastic, and supportive with collaborative problem-solving in mentoring.

Abell, Dillon, Hopkins, McInerney, & O'Brien (1995) found that mentors and mentee jointly construct mutual respect; these relationships are guided by the respect and trust the two individuals have for each other. Furthermore, mentees appear to need mentors who first and foremost support them as fledgling teachers (Abell et al., 1995). Mentees also need mentors who assume flexible roles and who adapt their roles based on mentees' needs (Abell et al., 1995).

3.5.3.2 Active deep listening

Good mentors should be good listeners. They should hear exactly what the mentee is trying to say without first interpreting or judgement. The mentor should pay attention to the subtext and undertones of the mentee's words, including, tone, attitude, and body language (Scharmer, 2007). When the mentor thinks that he or she has understood the point, it is helpful to repeat it to the mentee and ask whether the mentor has understood correctly (Scharmer, 2007).

Through careful listening, the mentor conveys empathy for the mentee and understanding of the mentee's challenges. When a mentee feels this empathy, he or she will be open to communication and more effective mentoring (Scharmer, 2007). Scharmer (2007), after a decade of observing people's interactions in organisations, describes four types of listening: downloading listening; factual listening; empathetic listening and generative listening.

The first type of listening is downloading according to Scharmer (2007). Listening by reconfirming habitual judgments like "Yes, I know that already." When two mentors are in a situation where everything that happens confirms what they already know, they are listening by downloading.

The second type of listening is factual listening also called object focused. This type of listening is paying attention to facts and to novel or disconfirming data. In this type of listening, the mentor should focus on what differs from what they already know. According to Scharmer (2007) factual listening must switch from attending to the inner voice of judgment to attending to the data right in front of one. Object-focused or factual listening is the basic mode of good science. The mentor asks questions, and carefully observe the responses that data gives them.

The third, yet deeper level of listening, according to Scharmer (2007) is empathic listening. When the mentor and mentee are engaged in real dialogue, they can, when paying attention, become aware of a profound shift in the place from which their listening originates. If mentors operate from the first two types of listening mentioned above, their listening originates from within the boundaries of their mental or cognitive

organization (Scharmer, 2007). When mentors listen empathically, their perception shifts. They will move from staring at the objective world of things, figures, and facts into considering the story of a living being, a living system, and self (Scharmer, 2007). To do so, mentors must activate and tune a special instrument which is the open heart, that is, the empathic capacity to connect directly with another person or living system. If that happens, they feel a profound switch; they forget about your own agenda and begin to see how the world unfolds through someone else's eyes (Scharmer, 2007).

When operating in this mode, the mentor usually feels what the mentee wants to say before the words take form. And then they may recognize whether the mentee chooses the right word or the wrong one to express something. That judgment is possible only when the mentor has a direct sense of what someone wants to say before they analyse what she or he says. Empathic listening according to Scharmer (2007) is a skill that can be cultivated and developed, just like any other human relations skill. It is a skill that requires mentors to activate a different source of intelligence, that is the intelligence of the heart.

> "I can't express what I experience in words. My whole being has slowed down. I feel quieter and more present and more like my authentic self. I am connected to something larger than myself." (Scharmer, 2007).

This above expression, according to Scharmer (2007) is the fourth level of listening. It moves beyond the current field and connects to a still deeper realm of emergence. Scharmer calls this level of listening generative listening. That is, listening from the emerging field of the future. This level of listening requires mentors to access their open heart and open will and their capacity to connect to the highest future possibility that wants to emerge (Scharmer, 2007). On this level mentors' work focuses on getting their (old) self out of the way to open a space, a clearing, that allows for a different sense of presence to manifest. They no longer look for something outside. In this case they no longer empathize with someone in front of them.

They are in an altered state maybe "communion" or "grace" is the word that comes closest to the texture of this experience that refuses to be dragged onto the surface of words. This fourth level of listening differs in texture and outcomes from the others

(Scharmer, 2007). Mentors knows that they have been operating on the fourth level when, at the end of the conversation, they realize that they are no longer the same they were when they started the conversation. They would have gone through a subtle but profound change. The mentor would have connected to a deeper source with their emerging authentic self.

3.5.3.3 Inspiration of the mentee by the mentor

Mentors provide inspiration, protection, challenge, exposure, visibility, counselling, acceptance, and confirmation to their mentees (Green and Bauer, 1995). Mentors have a large impact on mentees' perceptions of the quality of their experience (Luna & Cullen, 1998). Overall, the two most important things mentors can do for mentees are to communicate clearly and effectively and to provide honest feedback (Rose, 2003). Beyond these two central components, the qualities that make someone an ideal mentor will differ depending upon what the mentee asked. While it is known that mentoring in education means different things to different people (Rose, 2003; Wilde and Schau, 1991), it is unclear to what extent the definition of the ideal mentor also varies according to demographic or academic variables relevant to the school systems.

Tinto (1993) suggests that mentoring is an aspect of professional and personal development. Levinson et al. (1978:97) also emphasise the importance of forming a mentor relationship in early adulthood by stating that "the mentor relationship is one of the most complex and developmentally important aspect to have in the early years of one's career". Mentors provide inspiration, protection, challenge, exposure, visibility, counselling, acceptance, confirmation to their mentees (Green and Bauer, 1995). Mentors have a large impact on mentees' perceptions of the quality of their experience (Luna &Cullen, 1998).

Assuming that the mentee has had excellent support and guidance toward achieving academic success, it will translate their education into professional work (Johnson-Baily & Tisdell, 1998). 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 mentee owns both the goals and the process. Feedback comes from within the mentees, the mentors helps them to

develop insight and understanding through intrinsic observation, that is, becoming more aware of their own experiences and potential (Johnson, 2002)The mentor is a facilitator who works with an individual over an extended period. Mentoring seeks to build wisdom – the ability to apply skills, knowledge and experience to new situations and processes (Johnson, 2002). The mentor may thus establish an environment in which the mentee's accomplishment is not limited only by the extent of his or her talent.

3.5.3.4 Collaborative mentor/mentee relationship

One key quality to successful mentoring appears to be the mentor/mentee relationship itself (Gray & Gray, 1985). For the purposes of this study, a mentee is a teacher with a maximum of 5 years teaching experience receive the services of induction and on-going guidance from a mentor. The mentor/mentee relationship includes the interactions and activities between the mentor and mentee, both professional and personal. Mentor/mentee relationships were first documented in the ancient world. In Homer's epic poem, Odyssey, the wise old sea captain named Mentor gives guidance to Odysseus' son, Telemachus, in how to cope with his father's long absence. Galvez-Hornevik (1986) described the ancient mentor as a trusted guide and counsellor who engages in deep, meaningful, voluntary association with a mentee.

Mentoring relationships in business mentoring evolved in the business world as proven executives "mentored" and assisted young promising administrators. The relationships were primarily informal unlike the formal structure of a school system mentoring programme in which mentors are most often assigned to work with a mentee.

Kram (1983) was an instrumental researcher in the arena of business mentoring. She studied 18 developmental pairs of relationships among corporate managers in north-eastern public utility. Data gathering consisted primarily of interviews to ascertain personal perceptions of the relationships. Kram (1983) found that successful mentoring relationships fulfil five career functions: (a) exposure to new opportunities; (b) coaching; (c) sponsoring; (d) protection; and (e) providing challenge. Mentoring in relationships also fulfilled four psychosocial functions: (a) role-model; (b) counsel; (c) confirmation; and (d) friend.

Like the stages of teacher professional development, researchers have identified stages in the mentoring relationship. Phillips (1977), in her doctoral dissertation, noted a progression of six stages in mentoring relationship from (a) "initiation, to (b) "the

sparkle" (presenting one's best self to produce mutual admiration); (c) "development" (discussion focusing on organizational politics and how to attain career plans); (d) "disillusionment" (realization that little more can be gained by the relationship; (e) "parting" (becoming independent), and (f) "transformation" (becoming a peer, friend, and equal). Kram (1983) compressed Phillip's six stages to four: (a) "initiation" (fantasies becoming realistic expectations); (b) "cultivation" (mentor providing career and psychosocial functions); (c) "separation" (becoming competent and independent), and (d) "redefinition" (supportive friendship or bitterness).

Several factors have been found to affect both the quality of the mentoring relationship and programme outcomes (Grossman & Rhodes, 2002). Programme components, including the training and supervision of mentors, have been found to directly affect mentor retention and mentee-related outcomes (Karcher, Davis, & Powell, 2002). Principal involvement also has been shown to contribute positively to mentoring processes and outcomes (DuBois et al., 2002; Karcher et al., 2002; Rhodes, Grossman, & Resch, 2000). Finally, both the mentors' self-efficacy as mentors and the degree to which the mentees seek support from their mentors (e.g., to address personal and academic problems) also have been found to affect the quality of the mentoring relationship (DuBois & Neville, 1997; Freedman, 1993; Morrow & Styles, 1995). However, researchers have not examined all these characteristics simultaneously.

No research has examined the relative roles of programme quality, principal involvement, mentor self-efficacy, and mentee support seeking on perceived quality of the mentoring relationship; nor has the influence of mentees' risk status/disposition on mentors' perceptions of the mentoring relationship been examined visa-vise these other characteristics (Morrow & Styles, 1995). Therefore, it remains unknown which of these characteristics, both individually and in combination with other variables, has the greatest impact on how mentors and mentees perceive the mentoring relationship.

One study focusing on mentor/mentee relationships in the school setting was done by Tauer (1996) who examined perceptions of 10 pairs of mentor/mentee relationships using case study methodology. Her research was thorough, including multiple interviews during the year, observations in the workplace, and attendance at mentor meetings. Tauer (1996) found that the mentee/mentor relationship is very "idiosyncratic" and unpredictable in its nature, and that the context of the relationship

was extremely important in shaping its dimensions. Tauer (1996) identified three variables in that context: (a) personalities of the participants; (b) structure of the mentor programme itself; and (c) community, district, and school environment. This study is significant because of its educational setting, its focus on the mentor/mentee relationship, and identification of domains that define that relationship.

While the importance of the mentor/mentee relationship is well documented, the nature of that relationship in the school setting is not well developed (Karcher, Davis, & Powell, 2002). Very little describes what happens to teachers mentoring teachers and, specifically, experienced teachers mentoring novices. Research has uncovered many variables that affect mentoring (Grossman & Rhodes, 2002). These lie within three domains: the mentor programme variables, the school environment variables, and the participant profile variables. What is unclear is how these variables affect the mentor/mentee relationship itself (Karcher, Davis, & Powell, 2002).

In education, mentoring is a complex and multi-dimensional process of guiding, teaching, influencing, and supporting beginner teachers. Thus, it is generally accepted that a mentor leads, guides, and advises another teacher more junior in experience in a work situation characterized by mutual trust and belief (Feiman-Nemser, Parker, & Zeichner, 1993). Typically, mentoring programmes pair beginner teachers with more experienced teachers who can explain school policies, regulations, and procedures; share methods, materials, and other resources; help solve problems in teaching and learning; provide personal and professional support; and guide the growth of the new teacher through reflection, collaboration, and shared inquiry (Feiman-Nemser, Parker, & Zeichner, 1993).

The benefit one receives from mentoring seems to be an important variable in the success of that relationship. This is often reflected by the degree to which the mentor feels a sense of professionalism in helping another teacher. While research has substantiated the benefits of mentoring for beginner teachers (Feiman-Nemser, 1996; Ganser, 1992; Little, 1990), there are also many benefits for the mentors. Mentoring can generate as much, if not more professional development for the mentor as it does for the beginner teachers (Freiberg, Zhibowski, & Ganser, 1996).

Freiberg et al (1996) on five full-time mentors revealed their increased sense of professionalism, their confidence in working with other adults, and a more clearly

defined set of beliefs about their own teaching. Only one-fifth of the exiting mentors chose to go back to the classroom, thus illustrating that mentoring is a stage in career development for mentors. In a related study, Ganser (1997) surveyed 94 teachers who had been mentors in seven school districts in Wisconsin. The mentors emphasized that their career as a teacher had been affected by these roles in four ways: (a) source of pride; (b) expanded view of teaching; (c) enhancement of own knowledge and skills; and (d) professional rejuvenation.

In propounding the desired attributes of mentors and their roles, Edwards & Collison (1995: 9) suggest that mentoring consists of a set of skills that must be learnt and that good practitioners should not be expected to mentor others as simply another one of their professional school tasks, as “mentoring is not an instinctive activity”. However, Fish (1995: viii) notes that quality mentoring can be achieved dialectically and empirically, not by decree and that mentors need to recognise their own strengths and uncertainties and remain open-minded in debating new ways forward from a “thought-through position”. Fish (1995:30) lists desired competences for mentors as including consideration of government and legal matters, rights and responsibilities of teachers, relationship of theory and practice, various teaching practice strategies and assessment of teacher competences and issues relating to teachers, the school and professionalism.

Mentoring programme variables that affect the mentor/mentee relationship include purpose/goals, guidelines, and mentor training. Very little research has explored the mentor program purpose, goals, and guidelines. However, one of the most important variables of a mentoring programme noted by researchers is the training of the mentor and the quality of that training (Ballantyne & Hansford, 1995; Evertson & Smithey, 2000; Feiman-Nemser, 1996; Ganser, 2000). Mentor training is often a part of the mentoring programme, yet many mentors do not regularly receive training and many training programmes do not focus on the important skills of supervision and coaching (Gratch, 1998; Sweeny, 2000). These skills greatly impact the mentor/mentee relationship. Evertson & Smithey (2000) studied the effects of mentor training on the mentee. Their methodology included an experimental design. with two groups of mentors. One group received a full four-day workshop conducted by a local university; one group received only a one-day orientation by the district.

Topics of the four-day workshop included the mentoring role, concerns of beginning teachers, supervision skills, creating learning environments, and developing action plans. Videotaped conferences of mentors talking with their beginner teachers throughout the year revealed that trained mentors applied conferencing skills,and active listening, and probed with follow-up questions (Evertson & Smithey, 2000). This was not true of the untrained mentors. Weekly summaries also indicated that trained mentors were more likely than untrained mentors to assist the beginner teacher with specific strategies for developing discipline plans, pacing lessons, and changing to learner-centred pedagogy (Evertson & Smithey, 2000). Preparing mentors for their task does enable them to be more successful if success is defined as supporting the mentees' success (Evertson & Smithey, 2000). Evertson & Smithey (2000) found, in addition, that training of mentors not only strengthened the mentees' teaching but also the achievement of the learners in their classrooms.

Beginner teachers working with trained mentors rated significantly higher during classroom observations on managing instruction, arranging the physical setting, establishing routines, motivating students, managing student behaviour, and classroom climate, all expressed as beginner teacher needs by Fuller (1969) and Veenman (1984). What is most encouraging is that the students in the classes of beginner teachers with trained mentors rated higher on academic success, student behaviour, and task engagement. Clearly, the training the mentors received appeared to make a difference.

Matching of the mentor and mentee is critical to the relationship. In most mentoring programmes a mentor is assigned to work one-on-one with a beginner teacher. Sometimes, however, a mentor is chosen by the beginner teacher himself or herself. The selection procedure elicits different interpretations by different researchers. Feiman-Nemser (1996) raised the issue of whether a mentoring relationship can be established into a programme and whether the mentor should be chosen by the mentee rather than the principal or third-party individual. Regardless of the method of selection, Gold (1996) stressed the need for establishing consistent selection criteria for mentees.

Many opinions have been mooted as to the characteristics, roles, and functions of mentors in teacher development programmes. Feiman-Nemser (1996: 3) cautions that enthusiasm for mentoring has not been matched by clarity about the purposes of

mentoring; that lack of rigorous empirical scrutiny makes it unclear to what mentors should do, what they do, and what beginner teachers learn as a result, and if mentors promote conventional norms and practices, thus limiting reform. However, Feiman-Nemser (1996) advocates that a mentee should be placed with mentors who are already reformers in their schools and that the mentoring strategy of reform should be linked to a vision of good teaching, guided by an understanding of teacher learning, and supported by a professional culture that favours collaboration and inquiry. This approach is echoed by Mohono-Mahlatsi & van Tonder (2007:387) who refer to mentors as skilled teachers who actively assist less experienced teachers to obtain the expected experience and skills.

The question of whether mentors should be chosen or assigned is acknowledged as difficult, as mentoring relationships are bound to be unpredictable (Feiman-Nemser, 1996: 3). Attempts at optimal matches should be avoided for optimal conditions in which mentoring may take place. Whilst some mentor training may take place before mentoring duties commence, many mentors are untrained, albeit more experienced teachers and are more likely to develop their practice as mentors in the course of their work with beginner teachers (Feiman-Nemser, 1996:3). In their study of mentors, Mohono-Mahlatsi & van Tonder (2007: 384) point out that they have a role in promoting discussion and guiding responses. In contrast to a lecture-type approach, this approach challenges the mentored individual to ponder on and verbalise his/her thoughts on teaching practice and issues.

Although mentoring pairs are often surrounded by external parties who observe and interact with the dyads on a regular basis, these parties are rarely used as informants regarding the quality of the mentoring relationships; rather, assessments are usually based on mentor or mentee self-reports (Evertson & Smithey 2000). In New Zealand, reports of relationship quality from nine mentor-mentee dyads in a school-based mentoring programme, as well as reports from the programme staff who supervised them (Evertson & Smithey, 2000). Using a descriptive case study approach that combined multiple methods, their study found that while program staff perceptions of relationship quality converged with mentor and mentee survey results for the most part, there was also divergence across perspectives (Evertson & Smithey, 2000)

3.6 Is teacher mentoring worth it?

A body of literature has reported negative outcomes associated with mentoring programmes. These negative outcomes underlie what Duck (1994) and Long (1997) have referred to as the "darker side" of mentoring. In relation to educational contexts, many studies have painted a less than auspicious picture of mentoring programmes. FeimanNemser, Parker, & Zeichner (1992) for example, were critical of what they observed while investigating the quality and character of mentoring in a large urban school district in the United States. The authors questioned whether the programmes facilitated the understanding of teaching and pedagogical thinking among beginner teachers and claimed that the rhetoric of mentoring did not match the reality. Furthermore, they suggested that the training of mentors had been such that there was a risk of deskilling the mentors. They reported that the mentors "never probed anything…. structured the conferences and dominated talk. They asked all the questions, made all the statements, offered all the suggestions" (Ehrich et al, 2004)).

Tensions between mentors and mentees were observed by Graham (1997) in her study of mentors and student mentees in six Georgia schools. Graham (1997:514) revealed that the most divisive tensions stemmed from philosophical differences and "different tolerance levels for uncertainty". These tensions were exacerbated by the context of the relationship, in this case, a school district "tangled in highly charged political conflicts" (Graham 1997:525). In their study of mentor teachers in the Teachers for Chicago Program, Knauth & Kamin (1994) found that there was little opportunity for role modelling. This reduced the likelihood of mentors acting as instructional leaders for the beginner teachers. Mentors in this study also commented that they "spent far more time than they expected helping the mentees with paperwork and other logistics" (Ehrich, 2004).

Negative outcomes can also be experienced by mentees. In their Australian study, Ballantyne, Hansford & Packer (1995) noted that pre-service education students could be disadvantaged when mentors were "out of touch with or antagonistic towards the progressive techniques that (students) had learned during their pre-service education" (Ballantyne et al, 1995:303). Similarly, several new teachers in Freiberg, Zbikowski & Ganser's (1994) United States investigation, found their mentors to be unhelpful, unsupportive, and at times, intrusive. It was apparent from their preliminary investigation that the variability of findings from studies into mentoring hindered the

making of valid inferences about mentoring programmes. Ragins, Cotton & Miller (2000) sum up these variable results in the following manner, “mentoring relationships fall along a continuum, and although many mentoring relationships are highly satisfying, some may be marginally dissatisfying, or even at the very extreme end of the continuum, dysfunctional, or harmful” (Ragins et al, 2000:1178).

3.7 Conceptual Framework

Reviewing the literature helped the researcher to design a conceptual framework for this study. The figure below presents a visual summary of the conceptual framework underpinning this research study. As explained in Chapter 1, this study is interested in exploring experiences of IP teachers of a mentoring programme in selected schools the Western Cape.

In defining mentoring for this study, Bridge’s (2016) definition is used, which describes mentoring as a practice that involves listening, questioning and feedback that is a developmental process where the mentee and mentor takes charge of their own learning and from which attributes such as critical thinking, experimentation and an inquisitive mind are cultivated.

This study is based on theories surrounding mentoring programmes leading to job retention and their transition to becoming experienced and equipped teachers. It is grounded in the conceptual framework of Bandura’s social cognitive theory, socio-cultural theory, and Knowles’s adult learning theory. Mentoring programmes have been well-documented in educational research (Roff, 2012). Mentoring programmes help beginner teachers deal with the everyday challenges of the classroom and school environment (Roff, 2012). A mentoring program increases a beginner teacher’s learning and supports professional growth. To investigate how the existing literature contributes to the study, I discuss three theories. These theories show the way in which adults (beginner teachers) learn. These theories help in the investigation of teachers’ perceptions on a mentoring programme

According to Bandura’s (1977) social cognitive theory people learn by observing others in action. In social cognitive theory, Bandura emphasise how people learn from others. The focus of this theory is observation. People learn from seeing other people in social settings and that learning involves a relationship between people and their environment. For example, when beginner teachers observe experienced teachers,

beginner teachers will learn from their observations. Bandura believed that most human behaviour is learned by observing and modelling. A key component of a mentoring program is that mentees and their mentors learn by observing and modelling.

Another theory associated with this study is the socio-cultural theory, where individuals (beginner teachers) learn from each other through interactions. Vygotsky (1978) believed that the accumulation of knowledge is not an isolated experience. He explained that knowledge is not just transferred from one person to another, but rather is socially constructed through interactions with others. Thus, cooperative learning is the focus of this theory. Beginner teachers can engage in cooperative learning. In Vygotsky's concept of the zone of proximal development he emphasized peer collaboration (mentee and mentor) and proposed that adults are motivated to learn when encouraged and supported. Beginner teachers are found to be more motivated to learn when they receive support from more experienced teachers who have experience and knowledge to share (Clark & Byrnes, 2012). In the zone of proximal development, a teacher and learner (mentor and beginner teacher) work together on various tasks that the learner could not otherwise perform alone. In addition, Vygotsky (1978) proposed that learning is a social process, aided by others who are more capable. His social constructivist perspective and the concept of the zone of proximal development can be used to describe the interactions between mentors and their mentee (Vygotsky, 1978). Vygotsky argued that social interactions transform learning experiences. New teachers acquire knowledge over time while working closely with their mentors (Clark & Byrnes, 2012).

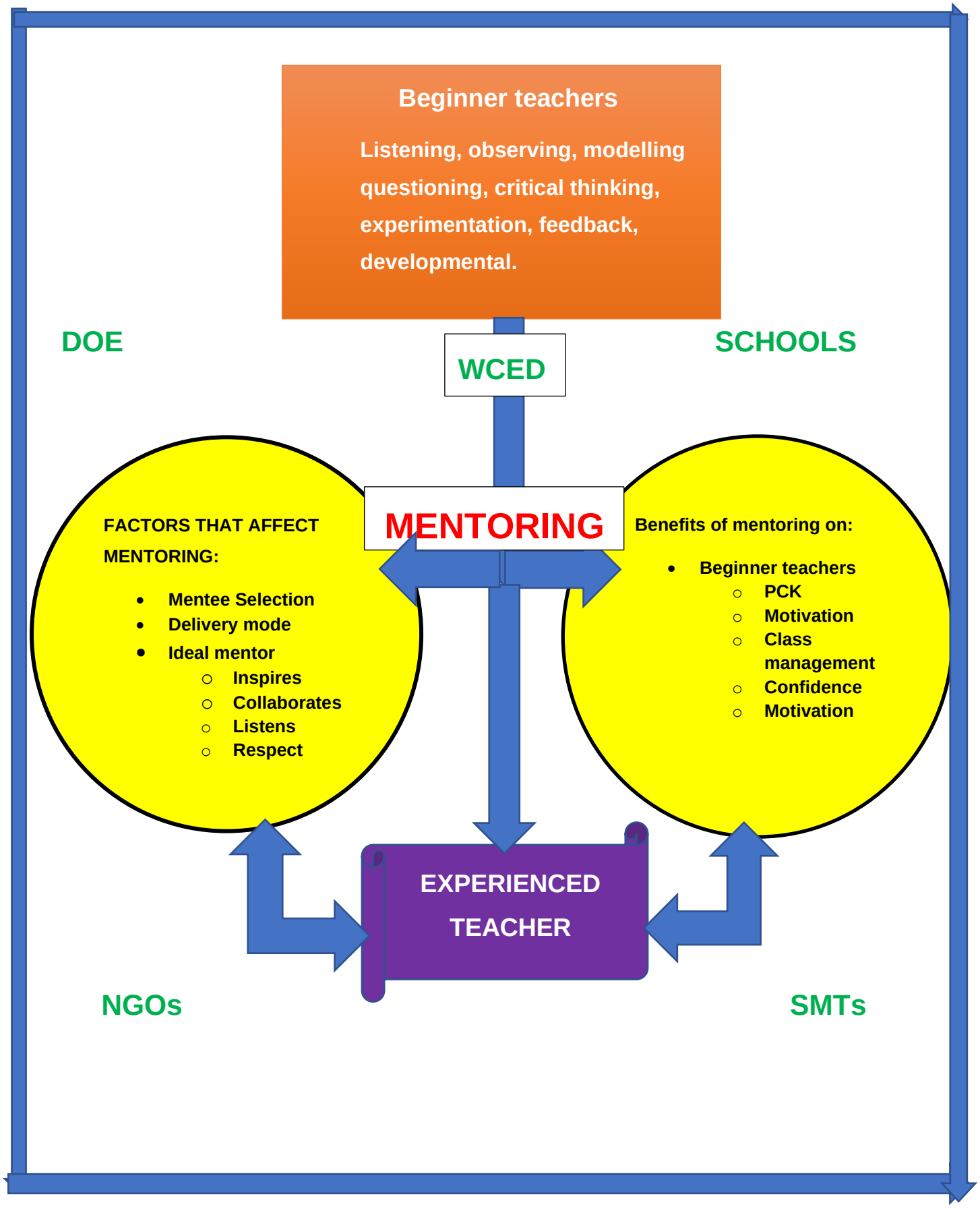
The final theory that created a foundation for this study was Knowles's adult learning theory (Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 2011). Adults (beginner teachers) must have a working knowledge of how they learn. Mentoring programmes are designed to improve instructional practices, which is the method or practice of helping adults learn (Knowles et al., 2011). This adult theory makes a beginner teacher's experiences meaningful. Knowles et al. (2011) determine that adults need to be involved in planning and evaluating their learning. Adults are self-directed and autonomous and have accumulated experiences upon which they create new knowledge (Knowles et al., 2011). Andragogy provides insight into the learning acquisition of adults. Andragogy uses problem-based and collaborative approaches to learning (Knowles et al., 2011).

Teacher mentoring programmes are grounded in adult learning theory. A mentee's experiences provide a basis for learning. It is important to understand what motivates adults (beginner teachers) to grow and learn. Knowles et al, (2011) views of the andragogical model are connected to teacher mentoring programmes. The mentee and mentor are coming together to share experiences, knowledge, and strategies to improve student achievement. Although each of the previously mentioned theories is described independently, they can be combined to develop, maintain, and sustain a successful teacher mentoring program. These theories provide a conceptual understanding of beginner teachers' perceptions on the strengths and weaknesses of their teacher mentoring programme.

This conceptual framework includes the aspects of mentoring within the contexts of the schools. These are the factors that affect mentoring and the benefits of mentoring. This helps to capture how the policies of DBE and schools affects mentoring and learning and influences the teaching practices adopted by the teachers in schools.

The framework unpacks and highlights the benefits of mentoring where beginner teachers benefit the most. The benefits of mentoring develop teachers' pedagogical and content knowledge, confidence and motivation, and management of their classrooms to enhance teaching and learning. Mentoring is seen as practice which involves listening and questioning with feedback mechanisms (Jones, Tones & Foulkes, 2018).

Finally, the framework illustrates how mentoring is viewed in teaching and the role players as summarised below. This enabled the researcher to justify the various factors that affect mentoring and the benefits thereof. It also illustrated that a beginner teacher needs mentoring to gain the required skill set and mindset in teaching to become an experienced teacher later.


Beginner teachers
Listening, observing, modelling questioning, critical thinking, experimentation, feedback, developmental.
DOE
WCED
SCHOOLS
MENTORING
FACTORS THAT AFFECT MENTORING:
Mentee Selection
Delivery mode
Ideal mentor
Inspires
Collaborates
Listens
Respect
Benefits of mentoring on:
Beginner teachers
PCK
Motivation
Class management
Confidence
Motivation
EXPERIENCED TEACHER
NGOs
SMTs

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter sets out to explain the conceptualisation, design and application of the research methodology and methods that were used to generate data for this study.

The research study explores IP teachers' experiences during a mentoring programme. The objective of this study is to explore the experiences of teachers during a mentoring programme and to highlight the benefits of a mentoring programme and factors that affect mentoring as perceived by the IP teachers.

The chapter begins by explaining why the interpretive paradigm is employed. This is flowed by outlining the ontological and epistemological assumption of the research, as this is what frames the study. The researcher further articulates her reasoning behind using the constructivist approach with a case study approach evaluation. This is followed by a discussion on how data was recorded and transcribed. The chapter then concludes with identifying ethical considerations and limitations relating to the study.

The purpose of this the methodology is to elaborate and substantiate how it relates to the research question "What are the Intermediate Phase (IP) teachers' experiences of a mentoring programme?"

4.1 Research philosophy

According to Parren & Ram (2004: 95), positioning a research project within a paradigmatic framework is a worthwhile task that will lead researchers to reflect upon the broader epistemological and philosophical consequences of their perspective. Each research paradigm has certain assumptions, strategies, methods, and limitations. Therefore, researchers must choose the paradigms which they will be working on, understand the nature of their chosen paradigm and document their paradigmatic choice in their research (De Vos, Strydom, Fouché & Delport, 2011: 41).

Baipai (2011) posits that research philosophy deals with nature, source, and development of knowledge. In other words, a research philosophy is credence about how data about a phenomenon should be collected, analysed, and used.

Positivists approaches cannot account for the subjective realities of individuals being studied; however, in contrast, interpretivist researchers understand the world of human experience (Cohen & Manion, 2013: 36). Interpretivism contends that knowledge is build up by and on our conceptual constructions and continues to adapt to the experiential world we encounter (Cohen et al, 2013). Wills (2007) agrees that interpretivism usually seeks to understand a particular context and the core belief of the interpretive paradigm is that reality is socially constructed. Qualitative research may be conducted in an interpretive way that relies on multiple types of subjective data and investigates people in particular situations in their natural environments (Christensen, Johnson & Turner, 2011). The genesis of the research questions during the study is congruent with qualitative criteria research given its focus on exploring phenomena (Christensen et al. 2011).

This study is located within an interpretive paradigm which explores the IP teachers' experiences of a mentorship programme. In adopting an interpretative stance, this study evokes an overtly subjective appreciation of information gathering. These are great endeavours to get inside the person and to understand the person from within (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2013). An interpretive design enables a "researcher to gain new insights about a particular phenomenon, develop new concepts or theoretical perspectives about the phenomenon and discover the problems that exist within the phenomenon" (Cohen et al., 2013). Choosing an interpretive paradigm was pertinent to this study which seeks to establish, interpret, and reflect upon, the experiences of IP teachers during a mentorship programme.

Situations were examined through the lens of IP teachers, and they had the opportunity to talk about their actions based on their experiences. Harrison et al. (2017) points out that an interpretive position views reality as multiple and subjective, based on meanings and understanding. Knowledge generated from the research process is relative to the time and context of the study.

Interpretivist paradigms study "individuals who possess many characteristics, different human behaviours, opinions, and attitudes" (Cohen et al., 2013). The primary focus of qualitative methods is on the evidence that enhances the understanding of a researcher about the issues under study. By adopting and adapting an interpretive paradigm, this study can perceive a situation from different perspectives and seek solutions to problems in multifaceted ways (Cohen et al., 2013). The purpose of

epistemology in an interpretive paradigm is to gain new knowledge; by exploring the phenomena from different angles. In this important respect the social context is unlike that of natural science (Cohen et al., 2013). The philosophical viewpoint of this study is aligned with interpretivist epistemology, subjectivist or constructionist ontology and qualitative methodology, which were used to produce and analyse narrative forms of data as they arose during examination and compilation of the literature review and formulation of research questions (Christensen et al., 2013).

In the process of attempting to answer the research question, the researcher was motivated by the need to interpret and construct an understanding of teacher professional development through mentoring. The researcher further aimed to identify the factors that affected the mentoring programme and simultaneously to probe its benefits. When we seek reality (answers) to our research questions, we are referring to knowledge that exists external to the researcher.

Interpretivism is based on a life-world ontology that argues all observation is both theory-and value-laden and investigation of the social world is not, and cannot be, the pursuit of a detached objective truth (Leitch, Hill & Harrison, 2010). Ontology is concerned with identifying the overall nature that exists of a particular phenomenon. When researchers seek answers to their research questions, they are referring to a particular type of knowledge that exists external to the researcher (Leitch et al., 2010).

Interpretivism is an ontological position where social phenomena and their meanings are continually being changed and revised through social interaction, for example, the researchers' own accounts of the social world where nothing is definitive as the versions evolve with experience (truth only happens in the moment) (Byron, 2001). This study thus presents the researcher's interpretation of the participants' actions and meanings they made from their ways of understanding during the experiences of the mentoring programme.

Researchers observe that the constructivists/interpretivist paradigm predominantly uses qualitative methods (Nind & Todd, 2011). Qualitative approaches often give rich reports that are necessary for interpretivists to fully understand contexts (Willies, 2007). Creswell (2014:4) states that qualitative research is a means of exploring and understanding the meaning individuals ascribe to a human or social problem. Thus, in educational research, if a researcher seeks understanding and experiences of a group

of learners or teachers, qualitative methods are most likely to be the most suitable. In the interpretive paradigm, to get in-depth and in-sight information is a crucial purpose for researchers.

According to Khan (2014) qualitative research is an inquiry process of understanding based on distinct methodological traditions of inquiry that explore a social or human problem. The researcher builds a complex, holistic picture, analyses words, reports details of informants, and conducts the study in a natural setting. Qualitative research is based upon the observations and interpretations of people's perception of different events, and it takes a snapshot of participants' perceptions in a natural setting (Guba, 1990; Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Newman, 1994).

Qualitative research focuses on innovative ways of collecting and analysing qualitative data collected in natural settings (Berg, 2009: 2). Berg (2009: 3) further explains that qualitative research refers to the meanings, concepts, definitions, characteristics, metaphors, symbols, and description of things. Qualitative researchers want those who are studied to speak for themselves and provide perspectives in words and actions. Qualitative research is multimethod in focus, which involves an interpretive and naturalistic approach to its subject matter. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings attempting to make sense of or interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994: 2). Therefore, qualitative research is an interactive process in which the persons studied teach the researcher about their lives.

Researchers take note of all the meanings, beliefs, symbols, and emotions aligned with events/objects and relating to research subjects in the study environment (Bailey et al., 2007). Thus, the methodology of choice becomes qualitative research. Since qualitative researchers analyse the context to find and make sense of ways in which subjects make meaning of their lives, they also interpret it and make meanings the subject make.

4.2 Research design

A research design is a logic that links the data to be collected and the conclusions to be drawn to the initial questions of a study that ensures coherence (Rowley, 2002). Rowley (2002: 18) states that another way of viewing a research design is to see it as

an action plan designed to get from the questions to conclusions. It should ensure that there is a clear view of what is to be achieved by the case study.

In this study a case study was understood as

> An in-depth exploration from multiple perspectives of the complexity and uniqueness of a particular project, policy, institution, programme, or system in a 'real life' context. It is research-based, inclusive of different methods and is evidence-led. The primary purpose is to generate in-depth understanding of a specific topic (as in a thesis), programme, policy, institution or system to generate knowledge and/or inform policy development, professional practice and civil or community action." (Simons, 2009: 21 cited in Thomas, 2011:10*).*

Due to the interpretive nature of the research and aim of this study, the case study design was found to be a suitable approach as it offers a systematic way of exploring issues, collecting data, analysing of information, and presenting results (Yin, 2013). A case study focuses on the experiential knowledge of the participants and the impact of social and contextual influence (Yin, 2013). A case study also offers a broader approach that allows an insight not only into human influences on phenomena but also looks at other influences such as critical events and institutional factors as well (Yin, 2013). Thus, it helps the researcher to understand the experiential knowledge and brings the readers as close as possible to the experience being explored holistically and meaningfully (Yin, 2017). A case study exploits opportunities to explore significant phenomena under rare or extreme circumstances (Yin, 2017).

Case study research uses a variety of evidence from different sources such as documents, artefacts, interviews, and observations (Yin, 1994). This goes beyond the range of sources of evidence that might be available in historical study. It is also useful when how and why questions are being asked about a contemporary set of events over which the investigator has little or no control (Yin, 1994: 8).

A case study gives the researcher an option to study multiple cases; however, for this research: a single case study was opted for namely: IP Mentees in a selected district in the Western Cape undergoing a specific mentoring programme. The rational for the researcher opting for a single case study was to focus time and resources on one specific context to gain an in-depth understanding of IP teachers' experiences of a mentorship programme. Choosing a single case study should provide a context that provides answers to research questions (Bryman, 2016).

This study uses a case study research design to explore the experiences of IP teachers' during a mentorship programme in the Western Cape (one bounded system) over a period of 12 months. Therefore, this case study seeks to provide a holistic in-depth analysis of IP teachers' experiences of a mentorship programme and at the same time help to answer the study's research questions. The next section describes the study site setting and selection of the participants.

4.3 Sampling

Probability sampling is any sampling scheme in which the probability of choosing anyone is the same (or at least known, so it can be readjusted mathematically (Sharma, 2017). These are also called random sampling. They require more work but are much more accurate. Non-probability sampling technique is totally based on judgement (Sharma, 2017). Thus, the difference between probability and non-probability sampling is that non-probability sampling does not involve random selection whereas probability sampling does (Sharma, 2017). This indicates that non-probability samples cannot be dependent on the rationale of probability theory. In the case of non-probability samples, the sample may or may not represent the population well (Sharma, 2017).

Non-probability sampling methods can be apportioned into two broad types: convenience and purposive sampling. Most sampling methods are purposive in nature because researchers usually approach the sampling problem with a specific plan in mind. Purposive sampling also known as non-probability or selective sampling is a form of sampling in which researchers rely on their own judgment when choosing members of a population to participate in their study (Walliman, 2011). According to Cresswell (2009:125), purposive sampling is a method of intentionally selecting participants based on their experience with the topic under study. The "inquirer selects individuals and sites for the study because they can purposively inform an understanding of the research problem and central phenomenon on the study. It is used to access 'knowledgeable people', that is, those who have in-depth knowledge about particular issues, maybe by virtue of their professional role, power, access to networks, expertise or experience" (Cohen & Manion, 2007). This implies that it is often used when working with very small samples such as in case study research and

when one wishes to select cases that are particularly informative (Neuman, 2005). A careful and thoughtful exclusion or inclusion criteria precedes the selection process.

The researcher made use of purposive sampling technique. Purposive sampling is a non-probability sampling method that selects participants from a population based on specific characteristics that meets the objective of the study (Elfi & Negida, 2011).

Purposive sampling was chosen for this study as it provided information-rich participants who afforded an in-depth data collection and analysis. Cohen, Manion & Morrison (2013) emphasises that purposive sampling assumes that the researcher wants to understand and gain insight, therefore must select a sample from which the most can be learned. All six participating mentees had not received mentoring before.

4.3.1. Research site

The research was conducted at two selected schools in Metro Central Education District of the Cape Metro Municipality the Western Cape where EMP is currently mentoring. Two schools were purposively selected within a radius of 10km from Cape Peninsula University of Technology (CPUT) to allow for easy access, and this selection was influenced by where the EMP is based. Although there are many schools within this radius where the mentoring programme is being implemented, only two schools were purposively selected to ensure that they have the same social-economic status, quintile number, environment, and the same mentor. *O*ne of the biggest challenges for the mentoring field is the often-large gap in socio-economic status of schools as this disparity can have a substantial impact on the experiences, development, and implementation of mentoring (Garcia & Weiss, 2017). In fact, this wide socio-economic gap is cited as being one of the main factors in mentors and mentees ending their relationships prematurely (Garcia & Weiss, 2017).

4.3.2 Sampling of participants

The researcher chose the 2019 EMP cohort to get six teachers from two primary schools in the Metro Central Education District in the Western Cape who had undergone and completed the Edufundi mentoring programme, as those who were currently being mentored does not have the complete experience and those who were mentored before 2019 might have left the schools.

These mentees were involved in the Edufundi Mentoring Programme in 2019 and comprised the 2019 cohort of Edufundi: two grade 4 teachers, two grade 5 teachers

and two grade 6 teachers. The researcher purposively selected the whole cohort (3 teachers from each school and one teacher from each IP grade) to gain access to in-depth experience from the same grades but different schools (see Table 4.1).

Grade 4 and 5 mentees were classroom-based teachers, responsible for teaching all learning areas of CAPS. The grade 6 teachers were subject teachers with one teaching English and Economical Management Sciences and the other teaching Mathematics and Natural Sciences. Participants were taken from the full 2019 cohort of IP mentees to gain access to in-depth experiences and a cross-section of mentoring across all grades from the two schools of a mentoring programme.

Since the IP teachers' perceptions, challenges and concerns changed over the grade that they were teaching, the 2019 cohort teachers were used to study the mentoring experiences (Deacon, 2012:30). By using the 2019 cohort of the IP teachers from two different schools, the researcher could best examine whether and how their background knowledge and existing dispositions were shifting or had shifted their experiences and perceptions of the mentoring programme.

Using purposive sampling enriched the research study by helping select IP mentees across IP so that the data collected would be relevant to the aspects of this study. The mentees offered first-hand information based on their weekly interaction with the phenomena of interest hereby contributing to the trustworthiness of the data collected and analysed. The use of mentees across the IP was to provide a holistic view and in-depth exploration of their experiences and how these influenced their practice. In the table below, participants' demographics are detailed.

Table 4.1 Teacher participants' demographics

	Race	Sex	Teaching Experience	Qualification	Subjects	Grade	School
Mentee 1	Coloured	F	4	BEd	All	4	Ballpark Primary School Fee paying Quintile 5
Mentee 2	Coloured	F	3	BEd	All	4	Alpha Primary School Fee-paying school

							Quintile 5
Mentee 3	Coloured	F	2	BEd	All	5	Ballpark Primary School Fee-paying school Quintile 5
Mentee 4	Coloured	F	1	BEd	All	5	Alpha Primary School Fee-paying school Quintile 5
Mentee 5	Coloured	F	5	BEd	Maths	6	Ballpark Primary School Fee-paying school Quintile 5
Mentee 6	Coloured	F	0	BEd	Maths	6	Alpha Primary School Fee-paying school Quintile 5

4.3.2.1 Background of the research site and research participants

Table 4.1 above highlights IP mentee's profiles that shows the qualifications, years of teaching experience and year that they started teaching at the school in which they were teaching during the mentoring programme. The table further show the grades that the teachers taught. It also highlights the subject specialisation of each participating mentee. Lastly, the table highlights the schools in which the participants were based, as well as the quintile numbers of the schools. This data provided the researcher an insight into the demographic profile of the mentees, although it was not used for any analysis.

At the time of the research, the six teachers who participated in the study were selected from two different primary schools within the Western Cape. Both schools (Ballpark Primary and Alpha Primary) and all the six participants made themselves available and agreed to participate in the research. Both schools are quintile 5, and therefore fee-paying schools.

All the participants held a bachelor's degree in education (BEd) degree, all were female and were not Heads of Department (HoDs) at the schools. The participants at both schools were involved in the Intermediate Phase. Mentee 1 had four years teaching experience and is responsible for teaching all subjects in grade 4 at Ballpark Primary. Mentee 2 had three years teaching experience and was responsible for teaching all subjects in grade 4 at Alpha Primary.

Mentee 3 had two years teaching experience and was responsible for teaching all subjects in grade 5 at Ballpark Primary. Mentee 4 had one-year teaching experience and was responsible for teaching all subjects in grade 5 at Alpha Primary. Mentee 5 had 5 years teaching experience and was responsible for teaching grade 6 Mathematics at Ballpark Primary. Lastly, Mentee 6 had less than one year teaching experience as 2019 was her first year of teaching and was responsible for teaching grade 6 Mathematics at Alpha Primary.

Therefore, all the mentees held a BEd degree, were female and had one participant from each grade in the IP from both schools and had teaching experiences that varied from 0 – 5 years. The grade 6 teachers at both schools both were responsible for teaching mathematics (Mentees 5 and 6), leaving the rest of the participants teaching all subjects in their grades.

4.4 Data collection instruments

As indicated earlier, the study sought to explore and establish the IP teachers' experiences of a mentoring programme, how it identified and addressed gaps in their teaching and how it may have influenced their practice. The study used one data collection instrument. The primary data collection instrument selected was semi-structured interviews. This section discusses in detail the method for gathering information for the study and why it was used. The research method is separately explored in the following sections.

4.4.1 Data collection and instruments

This section presents the data collection method and method used to help solicit data from participants. The rational for the instrument used will also be discussed. The choice of data collection instrument in this study was guided mainly by the research

questions, the case study design, and the research paradigm. A case study typically uses data collection instruments such as semi-structured interviews.

4.4.1.1 Semi-structured Interviews

An interview is a qualitative technique that is a valuable method of gaining insight into people's perceptions, understanding and experiences of a given phenomenon and can as well contribute to an in-depth data collection (Jackson, 2013). Using interviews is a movement away from obtaining knowledge through external means towards information by engaging with the participants to better understand them (Baxter, 2010). Yin (2017) states that interviews are an essential source of information in case studies. Interviews are classified into three main structures: structured, semi-structured and unstructured.

An interview "is a powerful tool for eliciting rich data on people's views, attitudes and the meanings that underpin their lives and behaviours" (Gray, 2009: 370). It is for this reason that interviews, more specifically semi-structured interviews, were chosen. These allowed the researcher the opportunity not only to capture views, understandings, dispositions, and contradictions with regards to experiences of mentoring of IP teachers, but to examine more deeply by asking the participant to clarify and to expand on their answers (Gray, 2009:373; Maree, 2010:87).

Semi –structured interviews consist of key questions that allow the interviewer to probe and make follow-up questions to seek clarification on an issue (Cropley, 2015). Semi –structured interviews are flexible and are open in that both the interviewer and interviewee can engage in conversation to elaborate issues of interest (Cohen et al., 2011). This flexibility allows for in-depth data collection as the interviewer can explore the view and experiences that are important to the study. Semi-structured interviews were used because the researcher sought to retain some control of the direction of the interviews without limiting responses. The main purpose of the one-on-one interview was for the researcher to achieve detailed exploration and establishment of IP teachers' experiences during a mentoring programme and how it might have influenced their practice.

Face to face (F2F) semi-structured interviews were conducted with six IP mentees from Metro Central Education District in the Western Cape. During the interview body languages which could be recorded and used for data analysis and interpretation was

observed and noted in writing. During the semi-structured interviews, the researcher asked questions and/or adjusted them in response to observed demeanours. Before conducting the interviews, a cordial relationship was built between the interviewer and interviewee. This involved explaining the key features of the research and outlining the broad issues addressed in the interview and the time needed to complete the interview. The interviewees were asked to sign a consent form to participate in the study before the commencement of the interview (see Appendix F). Ethical considerations are discussed in detail in the section below**.**

On-on-one interviews were conducted in this study to seek information on the lived experiences of IP teachers during a mentoring programme.

Interviews were conducted in English and were carried out in participants' workplaces at a time convenient to the interviewee for an average length of thirty minutes and were audio recorded. The mentees were provided with a consent form and an interview guide. Permission to audio-record the interviews was sought before the interview started. The audio-recorded interviews were transcribed verbatim for analysis. During the interview, the researcher made systemic observations of body language and other non-verbal gestures, which were used during the interpretation of data. The interview gave the researcher an insight on the mentees thought process as well as the experiences and social influences on which the thought process were built on.

The next section presents how the researcher organised, interpreted, and identified patterns in the collected data in line with the research questions.

Table 4.2 The data collection methods used to answer research questions.

Research Question	**Research Method**
1.1 What do IP teachers perceive as the benefits of mentoring?	Interviews
1.2 What do IP teachers perceive as factors that affect mentoring?	Interviews

4.5 Data analysis

Culen (2010), states that data analysis is a messy, ambiguous and time -consuming process, yet, essential and fascinating. Qualitative data analysis is the systematic and rigorous “process of bringing order, structure and meaning to the mass of data” (De Vos, Strydom, Fouchè & Delport, 2011, cited in Bezuidenhout & Cronje, 2014:232). Several different methods for analysing qualitative data exist, such as content analysis, discourse analysis, conversational analysis, multimodal conversational analysis, and semiotics (Bezuidenhout & Cronje, 2014:228).

In this study, data collected from the mentees (semi-structured interviews) was analysed using a content analysis method. Stemler (2001) defines content analysis as “a systematic, replicable technique for compressing many words or text into fewer content categories based on explicit rules of coding”. Since content analysis involves working with text, transcribed data is a necessary constituent for categorisation to occur and to determine meaning (Bezuidenhout & Cronje, 2014: 232). Transcribed data refers to “copy[ing] and convert[ing] information into written or visual format so that... [it] can [be]... analys[ed]... using a systematic method” (Bezuidenhout & Cronje, 2014:233). Data collected in this study was thus first transcribed verbatim by the researcher and recorded onto observation sheets for the purpose of content analysis. Subsequently transcribed interviews were sent back to the respective participant to check if what had been recorded and transcribed was accurate.

Analysing qualitative data is a challenging task, because qualitative methods generate large volumes of data, which can be overwhelming and difficult to navigate through. To circumvent from these challenges, data analysis for this study was started early, as the data collection was an on-going process (Thomas, 2010). The researcher listened to the audio-recordings and transcribed each interview, focussing on the most pertinent information that answered the research questions (Bryman, 2016).

Identifying the unit of analysis was critical to determine the scope of data analysis and define the boundaries in which data is collected, organised, and interpreted. In a case study a unit of analysis can be an individual, a programme, an institution or community whereby the researcher is interested in contextual analysis of an event, conditions,

and their relationships (Patton, Parker and Tunnehill, 2015). For this study, the unit of analysis was mentees experiences of a mentoring programme.

Bezuidenhout and Cronje (2014:234) explain the use of content analysis as a method "to explore and identify overt and covert themes and patterns embedded in a particular text". Content analysis is described as "inductive" and "deductive" in terms of how the analysis is conducted (Bezuidenhout & Cronje, 2014:234). A deductive content analysis approach involves the researcher using "a conceptual framework from applicable theories (the general) to identify[ing] several specific codes within the text which are grouped into several specific themes (the specific)" (Bezuidenhout & Cronje, 2014:234). Inductive content analysis develops themes and categories based on what emerges from the transcribed data rather than using a pre-conceived conceptual framework as a deductive content analysis would (Bezuidenhout & Cronje, 2014:234).

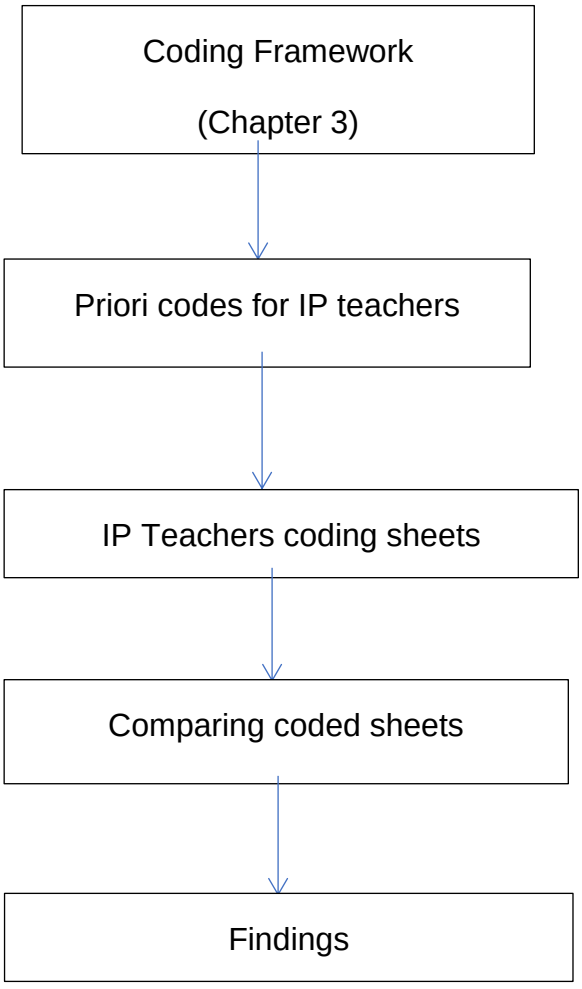
Inductive and deductive approaches were employed for data analysis to completely understand the data collected. Deductive data analysis is the breaking down of raw data based on a predetermined structure formulated by the researcher (Bryman, 2016). This structure is typically based on the research questions of the research study. Inductive analysis on the other hand, is the organisation of data that does not follow a pre-determined structure (Bryman, 2016). This is how the researcher arranged collected data that was not anticipated into meaningful categories. The conceptual framework guided the researcher to identify codes that were used to arrange the data as it was collected. The researcher kept an open mind of all unanticipated themes that emerged from the research. The advice of John-Steiner & Holbrook (1996) that themes that do not fit in the conceptual framework and reviewed literature are possible sources of new data was taken. The following sections gives details how each data set was collected using each technique employed and was analysed.

Themes (categories) in which data was organised based on the research questions and the conceptual framework constructs was formulated. These are categories that the researcher anticipated to obtain data from the semi-structured interviews. The interview data analysis process involved: (1) transcribing verbatim; (2) reading and re-reading; (3) initial noting; (4) developing emerging themes; (5) searching for connections across segment themes; and (6) interpreting data. The audio-recorded interviews were transcribed verbatim, and the researcher listened and re-listened to the audio recordings. To anonymise participants' identity, the terms interviewer and

interviewee were used on the transcripts. The original transcripts were securely kept in password protected files.

During the process of simultaneously re-reading the transcripts and listening to recordings, the researcher made notes and summaries from the transcripts before putting them into themes (Jori, 2014). Selecting and coding, annotating and comparison of noteworthy text segments was done. The researcher worked closely and intensively with the text, annotating the participants' experiences of a mentoring programme making descriptive comments. Each participant's response was analysed word by word and sentence by sentence to afford a deep understanding of what the participants were directly or indirectly communicating as illustrated below.

Figure 4.2



4.6 Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness in qualitative studies is a way of establishing the credibility, conformability, dependability, and transferability of the findings (Drost, 2011).

Trustworthiness in this qualitative research was demonstrated by the researcher's reflexivity, the use of appropriate methodology and data collection instrument (Leung, 2015).

4.6.1 Credibility

Korstjens & Moser (2018) define credibility as the researcher's success in describing the phenomenon under study accurately representing data.

For this study, the researcher ensured data credibility by intensively exposing herself to the unit of analysis. The prolonged duration of study and the position of the researcher allowed the researcher to spend enough time engaging with the participants and phenomenon itself. The semi-structured interviews also supported detailed data collection by giving the researcher room to probe further and not restrict participant's responses on an issue or opinion under study. The measures worked collectively towards achieving an in-depth understanding of the unit of analysis which in turn assisted the researcher to make sense of and interpret the data.

4.6.2 Confirmability

The researchers' ability to ensure that the interpretations of the findings' match the data is called conformability (Drost, 2011). The researcher substantiated claims grounding them on evidence from the data collected whilst presenting the findings of the research study (refer to chapter 4 and 5). To further substantiate claims a clear link was made to frameworks and existing literature in interpreting and explaining findings or data.

4.6.3 Dependability

Dependability is achieved if the researcher's presentation of their methodology, data collection process and instruments enable others to collect data in similar context or conditions (Cohen et al., 2011). In this study, the researcher elaborated the method, process, and instruments of choice. The rationale for the selection of each was presented by highlighting how it contributed to the study.

4.6.4 Transferability

Transferability reflects the need to be aware of and to describe the scope of one's qualitative study so that its applicability to different contexts can be readily discerned (Given & Saumure, 2008). This study ensured transferability by clearly identifying unit

of analysis. This directs other researchers to the scope in which data was collected and interpreted.

4.6.5 Reflexivity

As a practicing mentor, the researcher was an insider and “as an insider a researcher who is gathering data through observation is so familiar with it that she or he may take some things for granted instead of ‘standing back’ and analysing these through a more objective, theoretical lens” (Saunders, 2016: 390). Fortunately, most challenges were avoided by being thoughtful and using wording which is precise (Ragin, 2014). In this study, thoughtful planning and careful purposive sampling helped to locate cooperative research participants

4.7. The researchers’ positionality

In qualitative research, the role of the researcher as the ‘research instrument’ in the data gathering process is critical (Maree, 2010). Social sciences researchers are considered to have their own beliefs, understandings, philosophies, and personal views that may affect how they interpret or present collected data (Jackson, 2013). However, these aspects were acknowledged and strategies that counter them were put in place by the researcher’s flexibility and self- reflective measures.

In this study, the researcher served as an instrument (mentor) in the same district in the Western Cape which made it easier for her to understand the context of the research. Emphasis of the importance of researchers being mindful of their position was adopted by questioning their pre-existing views and values on the phenomenon being studied (Cousin, 2010). This, therefore, suggests that the researcher’s working as a mentor for many years for the Edufundi mentoring programme made it necessary to ensure against any bias or corrupted understanding of the participants and their context. In response to that, the researcher used mentees who were being mentored by another mentor in a different district.

4.8 Ethical considerations

Ethics determine the difference between acceptable and unacceptable behaviours whilst conducting a research study. Many of the inherent difficulties in qualitative research can be overcome by the awareness and use of well-established ethical

principles (Maxwell, 2014). The following are some ethical concerns that should be considered while carrying out qualitative research: anonymity, confidentiality, and informed consent (Maxwell, 2014). Eynden and Brett (2010) states that informed consent and the protection of the research participant's identity are two important guidelines of research ethics. Any research participants always have the right to insist on confidentiality and anonymity.

In this study, anonymity was ensured to participating mentees by not using their names and identifying them using codes such as Mentee 1/2/3. The researcher further explained to the participants that codes will be used to keep them anonymous. To further protect their identity as the research was conducted in a closely knit environment.

To conform to the Cape Peninsula University of Technology research ethical codes, the research proposal was submitted to the Ethics and Higher Degrees Committees for ethical clearance. The purpose of the ethical clearance is to ensure that the research process does not cause any harm to the participants and that it protects their dignity. To reach the targeted participants, permission was sought from the Western Cape Department of Education, Edufundi and the schools who facilitated the researcher's access to the mentees (refer to Appendix D). The completed research will also be made available to them.

The study purpose, scope and what the results would be used for was another set of measures taken in accordance with ethical conduct. Participants were informed of their right to withdraw from the study at any time and their rights to voluntarily accept or refuse to participate in the study. All six mentees willingly participated throughout as reported in this study.

Ethical standards prevent against falsifying or fabrication of data and promote the pursuit of knowledge and knowledge which is the primary goal of the research. To curtail the former, participants were given the transcribed interviews to approve that the correct details had been captured. Thus, participants were made aware of their rights to elaborate or prohibit the use of information shared. To further safeguard the collected raw data (notes and recordings) and transcriptions, the data was kept in password protected folders to which only the researcher had access (Eynden & Brett, 2010), and made accessible to researcher's supervisor throughout the process.

As a researcher, it was vital to commit to protect the rights of the participants and the institution by ensuring that no one was exposed to any harm, in terms of reputation or otherwise, because of this study. The researcher therefore made the necessary effort and commitment to maintain the informant's privacy, confidentiality and general research ethics principles were followed during data collection and compilation of this study that will be published on the university's repository.

The next section discusses the limitation and challenges of the study.

4.9 Limitations of the study

Lynch (2013) defines the limitation of a study as those characteristics of design or methodology that influenced the interpretation of the findings from the research. As discussed earlier, critics of the case study design argue its restrictive nature in that its approach is context- dependent. However, researchers using case study research design should understand that each case is unique and stands on its own merits (Yin, 2017). They should also be aware of the nature of challenges which arise from the choice of the case study as a research strategy such as being absorbed into the context of the research which may lead to loss of objectivity (Yin, 2013; Yin, 2017). Case studies are also inductive in nature, therefore in-depth observation of a small case can work its way to examining related issues (Flyvberg, 2006). While it may be challenging to generalize findings to other contexts researcher may however have a platform to formulate assumptions. This study, therefore, offers an in-depth analysis of the mentoring programme phenomenon. Hence, it is expected that researchers working with similar phenomena and contexts can relate to the findings of this study and expand on terms in future studies.

Another limitation is the number of participants in the study. The challenge of case study research is that its findings are not always generalizable (Yin, 2017). The participating six mentees could be viewed as not representing the entire cohort of mentees undergoing mentoring through EMP. However, this study only used participants who volunteered and were willing to participate. Therefore, this could impede the generalisability of conclusions about the broader population of mentees. To address this concern, the participants consisted of mentees from two different schools. However, since the study was carried out with six teachers, it can be argued that a bigger sample could have given a more reliable conclusion. The research was

also carried out in one year repeating the investigation over several years would produce more reliable results.

4.10 Summary of the chapter

This chapter discussed the methodology employed to collect and analyse data for the study. The chapter has also discussed how participants were selected, data collection instrument and analysis procedures. An account of the ethical issues was given, and strategies taken to ensure validity and reliability were also discussed. The chapter concluded with discussions of trustworthiness, ethical considerations, and limitations of the study.

The next chapter presents the findings from the one-to-one interviews, which answered the research question: What are IP teachers experiences during a mentoring programme.

In chapter five, the research findings are presented and analysed.

CHAPTER 5

PRESENTATIONS AND DISCUSSIONS OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

Introduction

This chapter is a presentation of findings and discussions based on the research methodologies employed that are detailed in chapter 4. The chapter also comments on the key themes emerging from the findings. The study sought to establish IP teachers' experiences of the Edufundi Mentoring Programme (EMP). The presentation in this chapter draws upon data collected from interviews and teacher journals, as guided by two research sub-questions:

1. What do IP teachers perceive as the benefits of mentoring?
2. What do IP teachers perceive as factors that affect mentoring?

The chapter is structured in the following sections and report findings of the IP teachers' experiences of a mentoring programme at selected schools in the Western Cape. The chapter concludes with a summary of how the outcomes discussed in the various sections impacted on the study.

The first section presents the findings related to the research sub-question 1 regarding teachers' perceptions on the benefits of mentoring for; (1) pedagogical and content knowledge (2) teachers' confidence and motivation; and (3) classroom management. To allow the researcher preliminary insight into and understanding of the benefits of mentoring, initial interview questions were posed to formulate a conception of the benefits of mentoring. After these questions, the researcher then preceded with interview questions to explore and establish findings on the research sub-question 1 that enquired, "What are the benefits of mentoring as perceived by IP teachers?"

In the second section, the interview questions set the backdrop of research sub-question 2 by presenting findings on the participants' understanding of how they perceived the following as factors that affect mentoring: (1) mentee selection; (2) delivery mode; and (3) qualities of an ideal mentor.

The final section offers an overview or summary of the findings that is directly related to the research questions of this study.

5.1 Benefits of mentoring as perceived by IP teachers.

Throughout the world, there is an impending crisis as the number of teachers available does not match the required number of teachers. Today education and teaching are in a state of crisis in South Africa and around the world. Mentoring is a powerful and useful tool in helping the teachers develop professionally (South African Institute of Race Relations, 2018: 116). Research shows that mentoring provides what it is reasonable to expect that teachers will be able to do, that is to adapt, adopt, and master the new strategies they have learnt during mentoring for an increase in learner success (DBE, 2014).

The benefits of mentoring come in all shapes and sizes and can be structured for any teacher at any point in their career. Depending on the needs of different teachers, the benefits may vary. Whatever the situation, every teacher needs the pedagogical and emotional support that mentoring brings and should find ways to make those relationships a reality (DBE, 2014). For this study, the following benefits will be highlighted that were the common themes to emerge from the data collected: pedagogical and content knowledge; teacher's motivation and confidence; and classroom management.

5.1.1 Mentoring and pedagogical content knowledge

There is a public expectation that the success of all learners in today's classrooms is due to teachers possessing content knowledge and teaching skills. However, due to lack of proper training, teachers are deprived of teaching skills and teaching methodologies. They are lacking in pedagogical skills and instructional technology (Agbenyega & Deku, 2011). Pedagogical competence for this research refers to the teacher's ability related to their theoretical mastery and its application in teaching (Prasetyo, 2019). This ability can be obtained through professional development processes such as mentoring. The pedagogical knowledge in this study is the knowledge of teacher competencies related to the processes and practices involved in teaching and learning to achieve overall educational goals (Prasetyo, 2019).

Findings reveal that most of the mentees' pedagogical and content knowledge was enhanced during the mentoring programme. Five out of the six participants reported

that they had content and pedagogical challenges before the mentoring programme. They mentioned on how the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) was a nightmare to cover and keep up with. In other words, the five out of six mentees mentioned that the workload of CAPS was unmanageable before the mentorship programme. The five mentees also mentioned that their content knowledge in some of the subjects that they taught needed some support, especially in Mathematics and Natural Sciences. The mentees reported that they had not specialised in these subjects at university but were expected to teach. Mentee 2 attested that:

> "… I have a Bachelors' degree but was not very good in mathematics but was asked to teach it at this school. The content itself was a challenge. My mentor helped me to open my eyes on how to unpack the content and my mentor taught me on some topics that I was struggling with together with how to teach them."

From the above statement, Mentee 2 shows that her content and pedagogical knowledge was enhanced through mentoring even though she is a holder of a bachelors' degree. The mentor helped Mentee 2 to unpack the content that was a huge challenge to her, especially the topics she was struggling with. This shows that the mentee taught group activities and made the lessons more learner- centred as opposed to teacher centred.

Gu & Gu (2016) state that mentoring pays a great deal of attention to practical knowledge. Practical knowledge in this case consists of setting students' learning goals, designing instructional tasks, formative assessment of students' learning and improving instructional behaviours (Gu & Gu, 2016). The lack of pedagogical preparation has been identified as a problem among teachers (See, 2014). To address this challenge, See (2014) proposes that one-to-one mentoring with experienced teachers will help in developing the pedagogical and content knowledge (Shulman, 1987) of teachers.

Mentee 1 said that:

> "Mentoring helped me a lot to say there should be interaction. My learners are now voluntarily and regularly participating in class. This has also helped in my learners achievement as they are now performing satisfactorily"

The statement above shows that mentoring helped the mentee to interact with learners. While Mentee 1 acknowledged that mentoring helped her to deal with the

grades that she was teaching and with the implementation of CAPS, she describes her learners' interaction with her as being more voluntary and regular. The improvement that mentoring created in the teachers' interaction with learners reflects in part her improved content knowledge and presentation of the content, thus improving her conceptual knowledge and giving her the confidence to engage learners at more challenging level and undertake more adventurous learning tasks (Taylor & Vinjevold, 1999: 161).

The central concern in South Africa remains that a significant proportion of teachers lack the content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge as well as confidence and motivation required to provide access to the disciplinary ideas of the subjects that they teach (Ajani, 2018). Teachers need to master knowledge about the interaction between pedagogy and content to implement strategies that help learners to understand the learning material (Prasetyo, 2019).

The findings show that most of the IP teachers lacked content and pedagogical knowledge in most of the subject(s) that they taught. Unpacking the CAPS syllabus was mentioned more frequently in the journals, and making teaching and learning more learner engaged, fun and centred was another problem that the teachers were facing before the mentoring process. Mentee 3 revealed that:

> "…before I started the mentoring programme, I used to just use lecture method and did not know how engage the learners during my teaching and learning. Mentoring has greatly helped me to start to use a variety of teaching methods that suits my learners and content"

Mentee 3 narrative shows that she lacked pedagogical knowledge before the mentoring as she would only use one teaching method. The influence of mentoring is exerted on three domains of pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), namely subject matter knowledge (SMK), general pedagogical knowledge (GPK), and knowledge of context (KOC). Many studies reveal that there is significant relationship between SMK, and GPK and KOC. Mentoring exerts the most influence on KOC and then GPK and SMK respectively (See, 2014)**.** Overall, there is a significant relationship between mentoring and teachers' PCK.

Mentee 4 explain that:

> "…if you don't plan it, it can go out of hand…"

A teacher with deep pedagogical knowledge will understand how to build students' knowledge, skills acquisition, and positive thinking habits towards learning (Prasetyo, 2019). Thus, pedagogical knowledge requires an understanding of cognitive, social, and learning theories and the way to apply them in classroom. The teachers who have pedagogical knowledge will be able to design and carry out appropriate learning procedures.

Mentee 5 stated that:

> "The Edufundi mentoring programme has helped me to improve the way I teach. Now I can engage my learners in a meaningful and constructive way and see my learners happy as they do most of the talking than me."

Mentee 5 attest that the Edufundi mentoring programme has helped her to improve the way she teaches. She further states that she learns a more democratic way of teaching, giving learners the opportunity to take more responsibility for their own learning in the classroom. Lai (2010) states that mentoring plays an important role in improving the competence of teachers and provides opportunities for mastering pedagogical knowledge, especially mastery of learning strategies as an important part of creating learner involvement into exploring knowledge independently (Arnyana, 2007). Pedagogical knowledge should be taught systematically through mentoring to improve teacher skills in managing the learning process, learning plans and evaluations.

5.1.2 Mentoring and confidence and motivation

It has been argued that teachers resist change because they lack motivation and confidence (Tahir et al., 2016). For this study confidence is defined in terms of how teachers: (1) conceptualize the development of practical skills; (2) increase their affective characteristics, such as resilience, confidence, and efficacy; and (3) critically value and form a disposition toward adaptability (Stahl, Sharplin & Kehrwald, 2016). The teachers' ownership of their craft is theorized as directly related to their identity as teachers. Shapira-Lishchinsky & Levy-Gazenfrantz (2016) revealed that the influential mentors were perceived as authentic leaders (AL). In addition, they found that mentees perceived their influential mentors as contributing to their own development as teachers. The study by Shapira-Lishchinsky & Levy-Gazenfrantz (2016) was intended to determine whether the authors regarded mentors as authentic leaders and whether these mentors affected the development of mentees' emotional intelligence

(EI). Their findings support this critical review of mentoring and encourage educational leaders to focus on professional development programmes such as mentoring.

Mentee 1 stated that:

> "I did not have the confidence and motivation teaching the subjects that I did not specialise in at tertiary level. After the mentoring programme, I now have confidence and motivation to teach any subject in the IP." (confidently smiling).

And Mentee 3 reported that:

> "The mentoring programme has boosted my confidence in myself and my teaching. I can now involve learners in group activities with confidence…"

Mentee 1 stated that she did not have any confidence and motivation to teach the subjects that she had not specialised in at tertiary level. Mentee 1 further stated that she now had confidence in teaching any subject in IP. Mentee 3 felt that the mentoring boosted her confidence in her teaching as she could now confidently let her learners do groupwork. From the above two quotations, it is evident that mentoring does influence teachers' confidence and motivation even in subject in which they did not major at university. Tahir et al. (2016) agree that mentoring significantly improve teachers' professional values.

Mentee 2 stated that:

> "When I started teaching, I did not have the confidence to stand in front of my learners and teach, hence resorted to giving them individual work to keep them occupied. Now I have the confidence in my teaching and feel motivated to come to work every day. I miss my learners during weekends and holidays."

Mentee 2 alludes to the fact that when she started teaching, she did not have the confidence that she now has, and it used to affect learner's learning by being given as much individual work as possible to keep them occupied. Mentee 2 further stated that because of the confidence she gained through mentoring, she was motivated to come to work and missed her learners during weekends and holidays. Peters-Burton, Merz, Ramirez & Saroughi (2015) found that mentoring programs of in-service teachers

changed their perceptions of inquiry and maintained high motivation. Motivational strategies such as mentoring may achieve quality assurance in the educational system (Onjoro, Orogo & Embewe, 2015). Thus, any government recognition of teachers' motivational needs such as mentoring may promote teachers' efficiency, productivity, and performance for quality outcomes.

In this case study, the Edufundi Mentoring Programme showed that it has the capacity to positively influence teachers' confidence and foster a sense of ownership while influencing affective attributes such as motivation, and a disposition toward continual improvement.

5.1.3 Mentoring and classroom management

Mentoring plays a critical role in supporting mentees to develop their classroom management strategies (Kurobasa, 2017).

> "…I can now manage my learners very well after the mentoring programme…"

Mentee 2 revealed that the mentoring programme helped her to manage her class well. The above statement shows that she had problems in managing her class before the mentoring programme. However, after the mentoring programme, she could now manage her class better. In agreement, Mentee 4 reported that:

> "I used to struggle to control my learners to an extent that the teacher next door will always come as my learners will be disturbing them. However, after the mentoring programme, my learners line outside quietly, get inside the class, and starts working on their do now quietly. The same teacher who used to be annoyed with my learners is now very surprised and astonished on the change in my class and how I handle my class…" (smiling).

Mentee 4 stated that she used to struggle to control her learners in her class to the extent that the teacher next door would always complain of the disturbance. She however, further said that after the mentoring programme, her learners will line outside quietly, get inside the class, and starts working on their do now quietly. She also stated that the same teacher who used to be annoyed and disturbed with her class is surprised and astonished on the change in her class and how she is now handling her learners. This shows that the mentee felt that the mentoring programme brought in a

routine that comforted her learners before the start of teaching which made it easier to control them throughout the day/ session.

A teacher's identity is influence think that by sense of purpose, self-efficacy, motivation, commitment, and effectiveness (Akinbode, 2013). Yirci (2017) discovered in her study that beginner teachers think that mentoring is beneficial to classroom management. Beginner teachers are more concerned with the understanding of the act of teaching, that is how and where to stand in the classroom, learner entrance and exit, and voice and pitch control in class (Kurubosa, 2017).

Although, important for preparing for constructive learning to take place, the mentee may not be fully understanding why or what they are doing it for. This is not surprising because classrooms themselves are complex and dynamic environments and for the novice teacher this can be overwhelming (Kurobasa, 2017). The mentor, as an experienced teacher, can 'think' and consider learner progress and intuitively identify learning in a lesson because they are 'unconsciously competent' in managing the classroom environment (Kurobasa, 2017).

Mentee 3 stated that:

> "I feel more confident in preparing classroom activities and implementing them with my learners after mentoring than I did before being mentored. I couldn't be more happier and satisfied"

Mentee 3 felt that her confidence in preparing classroom activities had improved after mentoring than before being mentored. According to Janikula (2017), teachers' feel more prepared for classroom activity through participation in a mentoring programmes. Mentoring from the data show that it has influence on teachers and is helpful in their development to manage their classrooms.

5.2 What IP teachers perceive as factors that affect mentoring

This question looks at what the IP teachers perceive as factors that affect mentoring. The findings are presented according to three different factors that affect mentoring as perceived by IP teachers.

This will be discussed according to the following sub-themes that were common in their interviews: (1) mentee selection; (2) delivery mode; and (3) qualities of an ideal

mentor. The later will be further subdivided into 4 sub-sections: (i) mutual respect; (ii)active listening (iii) Inspiring the mentee; (iv)collaborative mentor/mentee relationship.

5.2.1 Mentoring and mentee selection

The mentee selection in this study was determined by the schools, which selected the mentees. The EMP does not determine who should be selected leaves it to the school principal and the School Management Team (SMT) to do so. However, schools select the mentees to be on the mentoring programme differently (EMP, 2018). This then causes a positive or negative effect on their mentoring experiences.

Some schools select mentees according to their school improvement plan (SIP), others select according to the needs of the teachers, i.e. if they are novice teachers or new to the phase, while some allow self-selection (EMP, 2018). Thus, it differs from school to school and EMP has no influence over who will be on the programme each year.

5.2.1.1 Respondent's views on voluntary participation on mentoring

School-based mentoring (SBM) programmes, in which volunteer mentees meet regularly with mentors on school premises, are an increasingly popular option. As of 2005, the last date for which data was available, SBM was the fastest-growing form of mentoring as part of one formal PD process or another (MENTOR, 2006). Volunteering to participate can provide teachers facing adversity with one-to-one relationships that change their lives for the better (Alfonso, et al., 2019).

Mentee 2 stated that

> "…I volunteered to be on the mentoring programme as I still needed support, guidance and help that I was not getting from my HOD or curriculum advisor. I was actually thrown in the deep end in my first years of teaching, what I now know, it was self learnt."

The above quote shows that Mentee 2 volunteered to be on the mentoring as she still needed support, guidance and help to carry out her duties. The mentee stated that she was not getting any support from her HoD or curriculum adviser, thus highlighting a lack of administrative and instructional support from the HOD and curriculum advisor.

Mentors guide teachers' professional learning (Michael, 2020). Teachers have limited time, resources, and public support for ensuring that learners with a wide variety of academic and behavioural needs meet increasingly rigorous learning expectations.

Beginner teachers especially do this work without the benefit of experience and while juggling unique challenges associated with beginning a new career (Michael & Smith, 2018). Embedded in Bandura's (1977) social learning theory and Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological systems theory, mentoring embraces the concept of the nurturing that serves as a role to elicit positive change in teachers (Kelly, Butler, Twist, McDonnell & Kennedy, 2011). Mentoring is an overwhelmingly positive learning process for mentors and mentees alike (Hansford, Ehrich, & Tennent, 2004). Mentee 4 attested that:

> "As soon as my principal announced about the mentoring programme, I went straight to his office and told him that he should seriously consider me for the programme as I still need support and guidance in my teaching."

Mentee 4 revealed that she seized the opportunity of the mentoring programme as soon as her principal announced it to the whole staff. She further said that she knew that she still needed support and guidance in her teaching. Mentees entering into a mentoring relationship collaboratively play a vital role in their own professional development. Although they serve as mentees, most co-operating mentees do not receive comprehensive or coordinated preparation for their role as effective mentees before mentoring (Russell & Russell, 2011). Mentees need to be more informed about the needs of mentoring (Iancu-Haddad & Oplatka, 2009).

While there is a lack of research on the motivations of school-based mentoring, research has investigated volunteering in general. Clary, Snyder, Ridge, Copeland, Stukas,Haugen, & Miene (1998) empirically derived six functions served by volunteering and labelled these as values, understanding, social, career, and enhancement. These functions can be both motivations to volunteer and benefits received from volunteering. Individuals volunteer in order to express important values, such as humanitarian concern and altruism. Understanding addresses the need for individuals to seek learning experiences that will help them better understand themselves and others (Clary et al., 1998). The social function suggests that volunteering allows an individual to be with one's friends and engage in activities viewed favourably by important others. Individuals motivated by the career function volunteer in order to gain career-related experience (Karcher, 2009).

According to Clary et al., (1998) volunteering can be protective, as it enables the individual to reduce negative feelings such as anxiety, loneliness, and guilt. Finally,

enhancement helps the individual to feel useful, to increase self-esteem, or to maintain positive emotions. Clary & Snyder (1999) found values and understanding to be the strongest motivations of volunteers, and the desire to enhance career to be more important to younger than to older individuals. Clary et al (1998) also found that volunteers tend to be more satisfied with their experience and have greater intentions of volunteering again in the future when their initial motivations are fulfilled. Mentee 3 stated that:

> "My mentoring experience was very good as I volunteered to be on the programme and looked forward to the support and learn new things. I do not mind being mentored again, as I know that in my profession, learning never stops."

Mentee 3's statement above shows that she volunteered for the mentoring programme which then influenced her to have a very good experience. She also alluded to looking forward to the support and learning new things. Mentee 3 also points out that in the teaching profession, learning never stops. An important implication of these findings is that volunteering to be on a mentoring programme may receive unanticipated benefits that result in a continued desire to be mentored. Mentoring has been viewed more as a relational partnership and less as a hierarchical structure (Calderella, Gomm, Shatzer & Wall, 2010) as the volunteers for a school-based mentoring programme can also have learning experiences, feel good about themselves, develop knowledge and skills, and express important values.

School-based mentoring has primarily focused on improving the well-being of the teachers being mentored. Although this study addressed the benefits of mentoring, it is assumed that a satisfying experience for the cooperating mentee will affect their relationships with the mentors, yielding a better mentoring experience for all.

5.2.1. 2 Respondent's views on forced participation on mentoring

However, not all mentees volunteered to be on the programme. Two of the mentees felt that the selection process was not democratic and entered the programme with a negative mind. Mentee 5 stated that:

> "I was just told by the principal that I am supposed to be on the mentoring programme. Maybe she saw that my performance was not good enough, or that the performance of my learners in the previous years was not good."

Mentee 5 felt that the principal used her autocratic power to commit her to the mentoring programme without her consent. From the above quote, it is evident that, although school systems find that teachers who have access to mentoring programmes perform better in their duties and are less likely to leave teaching, schools still attempt to implement the mentoring programmes without the consent of the teachers.

An initial task that informs planning is to gather data by conducting a needs assessment. A needs assessment helps to identify potential gaps in existing support of professional development (Weinberger, 2005). It is critical to collect data from and consider all stakeholders' voices e.g., teachers, HODs and principals) at the planning stage (Portwood & Ayers, 2005).

Input and buy-in from each stakeholder will ensure that the programme operates smoothly and is adequately supported. Beyond an initial needs' assessment, forming an advisory council with school staff members is also recommended (Weinberger, 2005). Inviting input from key stakeholders is crucial to fully understand the context to make certain that the selected teachers are appropriate for the mentoring programme. Ensuring that there is a good programme–environment fit involves preparing the school for the program, which will aid in successfully implementing and sustaining the program (Godber, 2008).

Furthermore, the success of the programme is contingent on the school's support, as is the success of a programme evaluation (Portwood & Ayers, 2005). Schools do not pay attention to the factors that impact on the mentee and mentor relationships that would yield growth and satisfaction for both parties (Trubowitz, 2004). Again, to support this statement, Mentee 6 pointed out that:

> "I did not have a say in whether I wanted/needed to be mentored or not by my principal, I just joined the programme to satisfy my principal which then made me not to like it whenever my mentor came to observe my lesson. I felt that the principal did not have confidence in me of my teaching".

From the above statement, Mentee 6 shows that her principal or school did not seek her consent or explain why she has been chosen for the mentoring programme or share with her the benefits beforehand. She did not see the value or benefit of being mentored and did not like it whenever the mentor came to her class.

Finding a suitable mentee is crucial to the success of any mentoring; however, there is conflicting evidence about the best means of selection which an organisation such as a school can use (Bell & Treleaven, 2011). The facts are sometimes difficult to determine. For example, research conducted by the Deans of Science of Australian Universities found that most schools surveyed had difficulty recruiting teaching staff for the mentoring programme (Harris, Jensz, & Baldwin, 2005). Surrounding the mentoring process is the importance of an effective mentoring relationship, which is underpinned by a variety of factors, including the mentor's and mentee's personal and professional qualities (Rippon & Martin 2006). Thus, key players and partners will need to be identified and engaged prior to the implementation of the mentoring programme. Communicating explicit roles and responsibilities early on will help with determining which key players are able to make the necessary commitment. Co-operating teachers play a vital role in their own professional development. Although they serve as mentees, however, most teachers do not receive comprehensive or coordinated preparation for their role as effective mentees (Russell & Russell, 2011). Studies demonstrate that mentees need to be more informed about the needs of mentoring (Iancu-Haddad & Oplatka, 2009).

The findings show that two out of the six mentees joined the mentorship programme because they were told to do so by either their HoDs or principals and not voluntarily. The other four were volunteers. The mentees who did not volunteer felt that their HoDs or principals chose them because of: (1) they were not sufficiently qualified, (2) had problems with managing the class well; or (3) they had poor learner results. These mentees at first felt that the selection process was unfair, hence felt from the beginning that the mentors were there to police their teaching and not to support them. The other four mentees voluntarily joined the mentorship programme because they felt that they still needed guidance and support so that they could learn more do their duties effectively.

5. 2. 2 Respondent's views on the delivery mode of mentoring

Delivery mode for this research is of the view that mentoring should create a safe environment in which to ask questions, to allow mistakes, and to celebrate mentee success and share her happiness**.**

The mentoring context consists of formalised schemes targeted at specific groups (such as talented or socially disadvantaged teachers) and forms a co-ordinated human resource in education departments (Bright, Pryor & Harpham, 2005). Successful mentoring is facilitated where time- tabling allows mentors and mentees to meet during the school day (Bullough, 2005). Mentoring is more likely to lead to positive outcomes where mentees receive financial reward and/or some other form of incentive or recognition for their work (Evans & Abbott, 1997). Mentoring is more likely to be successful where it takes place within schools which are characterised by collegial and learning cultures (Lee & Feng, 2007); where both the mentor and mentee have access to support outside of the mentoring relationship, such as from other teachers in the school or from external networks of peers (Whisnant, Elliott, & Pynchon, 2005).

In the school context, mentoring is a strong relationship between two teachers. The mentor offers an orientation to the school environment, insights, and strategies for successful teaching, modelling, and critiquing teaching styles, and providing guidance to the mentee.

This dyad requires trust and commitment over time from the experienced and talented veteran teacher to the in-experienced teacher who is learning to teach in a new environment (Rikard & Banville, 2010). The environment or context within which mentoring operates has been cited as very important in mentoring experiences and implementation (Hobson et al. 2009). A study conducted by Gilles and Wilson (2004) concluded that mentoring is professional development with the possibilities of mentees gaining insights into their teaching and the complexities of an education system. It can also build leadership capacity. To illustrate this, Mentee 1 stated that:

> "The mentoring context was developmental and ideal; I learnt a lot by being engaged in it and being consistently supported gave me opportunities in my career. Teaching is a complex job that without proper formal mentoring, one would never gain any insights of how an education system should operate".

From the above quote, Mentee 1 indicated that when the mentoring context is ideal as a form of professional development, mentoring is developmental and allows for growth, the mentoring context gave her the opportunity to be engaged in it and opened more opportunities in her career. Mentee 1 also alluded to the fact that teaching is a complex job and that without proper formal mentoring; she would not have gained any insights of how the education system should operate.

Allen, Cobb, & Danger (2003: 177) agree that teachers increase reflection on and adaptation to their instructional strategies through mentoring experiences. Lopez-Real & Kwan (2005) indicate that teachers who are mentored under conducive environments will be professionally developed through additional self-reflection. Thus, mentoring can facilitate teaching development for the mentee (Chow, Tang & So, 2004). The mentoring context was highly commendable by Mentee 3 as she had this to say:

> "At first it was something different and new and I was not familiar with someone sitting in my class every week. However, the changes that occurred in my class and myself were amazing. I never thought that after four years of teaching I would see learners so excited to learn. It then automatically changed my mindset towards the mentoring programme and could not wait for my mentor to come and observe my lessons every week. My big shout out was the one and half-hours' workshop after school where it was a safe space to demonstrate different strategies, share and reflect on the challenges that we faced in our classes. I left these workshops knowing that I am not alone in this journey." (smiling).

The statement above shows that at the beginning she was not sure of what to expect; rather she felt that it was an unfamiliar experience at the beginning, but seeing learners excited to learn changed her mind-set towards mentoring. Mentee 3 further stated that her key take away was the workshops after school, a safe space to demonstrate strategies, and share and reflect on the challenges that teachers face in their classrooms. She also stated that she left the workshops knowing that she was not the only one facing challenges, and because it was a safe space, she learnt a lot from her colleagues and knew that whenever she needed any help, she could go to her colleagues and that she was not alone in this teaching journey.

Mentoring therefore shows that the mentoring environment and context should be ideal for mentees and learners to feel safe, not intimidated but supported. When the mentoring context is conducive, mentees look forward to the mentoring support (EMP, 2018). Conditions that influence mentoring relationships include school mentoring context factors. Mentoring programmes thus should not attempt to rigidly specify mentoring roles (Bright, 2005). With support, mentoring can provide assistance tailored to the circumstances of beginner teachers in schools (Wildman, Magliaro, Niles & Niles, 1992).

Duncombe & Armour (2004: 141) summarise the research of numerous others and recommend that effective professional development such as mentoring is school-based, active, collaborative, progressive and focused closely on teacher' learning, and that there is a need for subject-specific continuing professional development (CPD), which should be focused on individual teacher needs. Rogan (2006:9) agrees that there is a need for mentoring to take place in school, and furthermore content knowledge and teaching strategies should be encompassed. These ideas are evident in the ideals and implementation of a mentoring programme in that teacher support takes place at the teacher's school during the school day, with on-going individual contact with a mentor who deals with the specific needs of each teacher, whilst focusing on the ultimate need to improve the learners' potential to learn and succeed at school through improved teaching.

Mentee1 reported that:

> "It was an honour and privilege to be on the mentoring programme as I got recognised at the end of the year through the Edufundi graduation. This which made me feel very important to the school…I missed my graduation at university hence the mentoring graduation brought tears to me as I felt very special." (smiling while showing the graduation photos).

Her highlight was of being recognised by the mentoring programme and the school and received a certificate for her efforts, which made her to feel special, appreciated and recognised. Certifying the mentees in recognition of completing the hard work always has a positive effect on the mentoring programme itself, and the mentees (EMP, 2018).

From the data most of the mentees had very positive and valuable experience of the mentoring programme regarding the delivery mode. At the beginning they felt that it was a bit strange and intimidating to have someone in their class every week. However, as the mentoring progressed, they had valuable, insightful and an informative experience and that they learnt a lot from the mentoring.

5.2.3 Qualities of an ideal mentor on mentoring

As a highly significant influence, a competent mentor demonstrates skills by effectively interacting with the mentee to support and advance learning, whether that learning is

associated with educational or career goals (Cohen & Galbraith, 1995:6). In their exploration of the mentoring mindset, Cox (2003:14) confirms that mentors´ approaches to mentoring can differ depending upon their own particular experiences of education and support, and that an exploration of the nature of knowledge held by mentors is important.

The following are significant qualities of a mentor. Their importance lies in how much of the mentor-mentee relationship revolves around mutual respect and trust. In such an atmosphere of true collegiality, great things happen because both parties feel that they can share ideas openly, without fear of judgement by:

- Consistently demonstrating mutual respect.
- Using active, deep listening skills.
- Challenging mentees to push them in new directions in a positive manner, primarily through a respectful strategy of asking questions instead of issuing edicts.
- Ensuring that the relationship is a collaborative one.
- Being truthful and honest.
- Being empathetic.

The above qualities are interrelated and for this study, the following main themes will be discussed: section 1 will discuss the mentor and mentee having mutual respect. The second section will discuss the mentor having the ability to be an active listener. The third section will discuss the need to inspire the mentee and the fourth section will discuss a collaborative mentor/mentee relationship.

5.2.3.1 Respondent's views on the effect of mutual respect on mentoring

In general, an effective mentor and mentee is characterised by mutual respect, trust, honesty, understanding and empathy (Scott, 2012). Good mentors try to share their life experiences, wisdom, and technical expertise with their mentees (EMP, 2018). They also try to know, accept, and respect the goals and interests of their mentees (EMP, 2018).

Scott (2012) states that the most important element in mentoring is mutual respect between the mentor and the mentee. Mutual respect does not come quickly or easily, instead, it requires time and patience to build (Scott, 2012). Without mutual respect, mentoring can be tense and self-protective. Successful mentoring absolutely depends on mutual respect (Scott, 2012).

Mentee 3 stated that:

> "I felt intimidated at first when my mentor came to my class. This was very new and odd to me. I thought that she was coming to find faults or rather police me.However, after trust and mutual respect was built between us, I rarely could feel the presence of my mentor during my teaching."

Mentee 3 at the start of mentoring felt intimidated by the presence of the mentor. However, after the mentor and mentee developed mutual respect, for each other, she hardly could feel the presence of the mentor in her class. The early part of any mentoring can be a little tense and intimidating, but there are things that can be done to build trust and ultimately build a wonderful mentoring relationship. Scott (2012) offers the following suggestions for mentors:

- Give your mentee voice and choice in deciding on activities.
- Let the mentee have control over what you talk about and how you talk about it. Be sensitive to their cues. Do not push your mentee for information or hit them with rapid-fire questioning.
- Most importantly, respect the trust your mentee places in you. Respond to them in ways that show you see their side of things, giving advice sparingly.

The mentor will be setting the tone for a positive relationship by allowing a mentee to have a say in the mentoring relationship and allowing them to share without fear of getting lectured or judged, (Scott, 2012). After establishing mutual respect, both the mentor and mentee would have proven to each other that they are dependable and that is the beginning of growth (Scott, 2012).

Mentee 4 stated that:

> “I had to show that I trust my mentor and my mentor had to also show that she trusts me. This made my relationship with my mentor grow and have mutual respect and I did the same as well to my learners. Whatever that happened in my class was between myself and my mentor, she never shared any information with anyone unless I gave her the go ahead to share with other mentees.

Mentee 4 highlights that she had to show her mentor that she trusted her, and the mentor had to reciprocate the trust which made their relationship grow in mutual trust. She further stated that her relationship with her mentor became stronger because of the mutual respect that was between herself and the mentor. Abell, Dillon, Hopkins, McInerney, & O'Brien (1995) found that mentors and mentee jointly construct trust; these relationships are under guided by the respect and trust the two individuals have for each other. Furthermore, mentees appear to need mentors who first, and foremost, support them as fledgling teachers (Abell et al., 1995). Mentees also need mentors who assume flexible roles and who adapt their roles based on mentees' needs (Abell et al., 1995).

Mentee 1 stated that:

> “My mentor and I had a clear understanding between us of what was expected of me and I had to commit to being mentored. I automatically connected with my mentor and had shared values in teaching. I no longer felt alone or ashamed of my progress as a teacher, as I new that I was no longer alone in this journey.”

From the above statement, Mentee 1 had a clear understanding of the expectations of the mentoring. Mentee 1 further stated that she had to commit to being mentored. She also said that the connection between herself and her mentor was automatic, and they shared the same values in teaching. According to Straus, Johnson, Marquez, & Feldman (2013) successful mentoring relationships are characterized by reciprocity, mutual respect, clear expectations, personal connection, and shared values. Schmidt (2008) concurs that if there is mutual trust between the mentee and mentor, mentoring becomes mutually beneficial which can lead to new-found knowledge and skills growing in their teaching. Hudson (2016) observed that positive relationships required the achievement of trust and respect by sharing information, resources, and expectations and by being professional, enthusiastic, and supportive with collaborative problem-solving in mentoring.

5.2.3.2 Respondent's views on the effects of active deep listening on mentoring

A good mentor should be a good listener by hearing what the mentee is trying to say without interpreting or judgement. The mentor should pay attention of the mentee's words, including, tone, attitude, and body language (Scharmer, 2007). When the mentor thinks that he or she has understood the point, repeating it to the mentee and ask whether the mentor has understood will be helpful (Scharmer, 2007).

The mentor conveys empathy for the mentee and understanding of the mentee's challenges through listening. When a mentee feels this empathy, they often open communication and more effective mentoring takes place (Scharmer, 2007).

Mentee 3 detailed that:

> "Even though I knew that my mentor had experience and knowledge of what I was teaching, she never showed that she already knew it. It looked like she was seeing it for the first time and looked excited and grateful to be part of my lesson and this gave me the confidence and courage to go on and do more."

Mentee 3 in the above statement, shows that she knew that her mentor had vast experience in the subject hence whatever way she was teaching was not new to her, but the mentor never showed that she already knew it; she showed that she was excited to see the mentee teaching the way she was that gave her encouragement and courage to go on. Sharmar (2007) discourages mentors to listen with downloading. Scharmer (2007) says that this is listening by reconfirming habitual judgments. When you are in a situation where everything that happens confirms what you already know, you are listening by downloading. Mentee 4 stated that:

> "My mentor whenever she visited me, paid attention to facts whenever I would be talking to her, as she did not show any judgement to whatever I will be going through. It really showed that she was paying attention and did not bring her own experience into my situations, that's what I loved most about my mentor."

Mentee 4 asserted that whenever she talked to her mentor, the mentor would not judge her but only focus on facts, thus showing that she was only focusing on what she was

hearing from the mentee. The mentor in this case did not bring any prior experience to the discussions but viewed each situation on its own merit. This type of listening is factual, or object-focused: listening by paying attention to facts and to novel or disconcerting data (Scharmer, 2007). This is when the mentor should switch off his/her inner voice of judgment and listen to the voices right in front of him/her. This type of listening only focuses on what differs from what one already knows. The mentor in this case can ask questions and pay careful attention to the responses he/she gets.

Mentee 1 highlighted that:

> "Whenever I talked to my mentor, she showed that she listened to me with an open mind and heart, putting herself in my shoes. I really felt supported and listened to that sometimes I would just talk without my mentor saying anything but just listening. Her facial expressions showed that all her attention was on me."

From the above statement, Mentee 1 highlights that whenever she talked to her mentor, the mentor showed that she was listening without judgement, thus showing a deeper kind of listening and was empathetic, making the mentee feel that she really understood what she was going through. This deeper level of listening, according to Scharmer (2007), is empathic listening. When engaged in real dialogue and paying careful attention, the listener can become aware of a profound shift in the place from which the listening originates. To really feel how another feels, the listener must have an open heart (Scharmer, 2007). Only an open heart gives us the empathic capacity to connect directly with another person from within (Scharmer, 2007). Covey (1986: 147) thinks that the essence of empathic listening is not that we agree with someone; rather we deeply understand the other person, emotionally as well as intellectually.

Empathetic listening occurs when we put ourselves in another's place and experience feelings as they experience them, intuiting another's feelings (Goleman,1995). This does not mean one agrees (as in sympathy) but understand the other point of view (Covey 1986: 148). According to Covey, when one listens, they tend to filter what they hear through their own experiences. Empathic listening skills take practice, and this type of listening is a skilful art (Covey, 1986).

Mentee 2 indicated that:

> "Sometimes when I talked to my mentor, she did not give any response but gave me the expression that her whole being felt what was happening to me at that time. I really felt reassured and my confidence was brought back"

Mentee 2 stated that the mentor sometimes did not have to say anything, but her expressions only were enough for her to know that her mentor understood what she was going through. Scharmer (2007: 2) defines generative listening as "listening from the emerging field of future possibility". This level of listening according to Scharmer (2007) requires the listener to access not only the one he/she is listening to with an open heart, but also an open will. According to Scharmer (2007: 2), when one listens, they will come to realise that "at the end of the conversation, they are no longer the same person they were when they started the conversation. One would have gone through a subtle but profound change" (Scharmer 2007: 2). Covey also talks about empathic listening, describing it as 'listening and responding with both heart and mind to understand the speaker's words, intent, and feelings' (Covey 1986: 128).

Listening with our eyes, ears and heart helps to pick up on the all the important non-verbal cues, like body language as well as what is not said. This is not always as easy, as cutting straight to the chase could be more expedient in busy and pressured school schedules. According to Covey (1986: 136) listeners should be aware of the emotional landscape as there are times when autobiographical responses are appropriate; while at other times there is a need to offer a solution; and sometimes it is valuable to say nothing at all.

5.2.3.3 Respondent's views on the effect of the mentor inspiring the mentee on mentoring.

Mentors provide inspiration, protection, challenge, exposure, visibility, counselling, acceptance, confirmation to their mentees (Green and Bauer, 1995). Mentors have a large impact on mentees' perceptions of the quality of their experience (Luna and Cullen, 1998). Overall, the two most important things mentors can do for mentees are to communicate clearly and effectively and to provide honest feedback (Rose, 2003). Beyond these two central components, the qualities that make someone an ideal mentor will differ depending upon what the mentee asked. While it is known that

mentoring in education means different things to different people (Rose, 2003; Wilde and Schau, 1991), it is unclear to what extent the definition of the ideal mentor also varies according to demographic or academic variables relevant to the school systems.

Tinto (1993) suggests, mentoring is an aspect of professional and personal development. Levinson et al. (1978:97) also emphasise the importance of forming a mentor relationship in early adulthood by stating that “the mentor relationship is one of the most complex and developmentally important aspect to have in the early years of one’s career’’. Mentee 4 had this to say with regards of having an ideal mentor:

> “Joining the mentorship programme was the best decision I had made my life and work. Before the mentorship programme, I used to be stressed, tired and did not know how to apply what I had learnt at university as it was a totally new ball game. My mentor every week came smiling and allowed me to make mistakes. The highlight of my experience was the feedback time. My mentor did not tell me what I did wrong but started by praising me on the little things that I had done right. Where I know I had done wrong, she would probe how it could have been done better, at the end I was the one who came up with the solutions and not my mentor. It was after the reflection that I would always feel good about myself and love my work. I don’t know how I can thank my mentor enough for unlocking my own potential" (smiling and looking up with tears in her eyes)

Mentee 4 felt that the mentor respected and treated her as an adult. The above quote shows that the mentee saw the mentor as an ideal mentor. The mentor allowed the mentee to learn from their mistakes without fault-finding or policing the mentee. It is also evidence that the mentor’s feedbacks were a huge highlight in the experiences of Mentee 4 that brought out the best in her and unlocked her own potential. Mentee 4 also highlighted that during their feedback, the mentor would first focus on the good things and where there were still gaps.

The strategy used by the mentor traces back to the reflective theory by Dewey (1933) and Schon (1983, 1987). Dewey (1993) describes reflection as a purposeful thought about one’s action and their consequences. Dewey (1933) regards reflection as problem solving or thinking about solving a problem which involves action chaining. According to Dewey (1933) reflection is an active, deliberate cognitive process that involves reflective thinking and reflective action.

Mentee 2 confirmed that:

> "My mentor believed in me but also challenged me by pushing me in new directions I never knew existed in a respectful way. This has taught me that I could also do the same with my learners, that is, to challenge them and also believe in them that they can do challenging work with little teacher support".

Mentee 2 stated that the mentor challenged her, believed in her and pushed her in new directions in a positive manner, primarily through a respectful way. Mentoring relates primarily to the identification and nurturing of potential for the whole person (Johnson-Bailey & Tisdell, 1998). The mentor helps the mentee to develop insight and understanding through intrinsic observation by becoming more aware of their own experiences and potential (Johnson, 2002)

The mentor should seek to build wisdom and the ability to apply skills, knowledge and experience to new situations and processes (Johnson, 2002). The mentor may thus establish an environment in which the mentee's accomplishment is not limited only by the extent of his/her talent.

From the data, it is evidence that the mentees felt inspired, protected, nurtured, challenged, visible, appreciated, counselled, and accepted by their mentors. This made the mentees to build on wisdom and skills in their teaching which might not have happened in the absence of the mentoring.

5.2.3.4 Respondent's views on the effect of collaborative mentor/mentee relationship on mentoring

The nature of a mentoring relationship varies with the level and activities of both the mentor and mentee. In general, however, each relationship must be based on a common goal: to advance the educational and personal growth of the mentee. The nature of the relationship between mentors and mentees is intended to be non-directive, and non-invasive and supportive, to ensure a mentee's gradual movement towards autonomy (Larose & Tarabulsy 2005). Mok (2010) noted that in social-motivational mentoring, the relationship between a mentor and mentee raises the mentee's sense of independence and confidence. Furthermore, this mentoring orientation offers agentive 'space' to mentees to develop skills, knowledge, and

appropriate attitudes (Britner, 2006). School-based mentoring relationships means a sustained relationship between a beginner teacher and an experienced teacher in which the experienced teacher provides the beginner with different types of academic, social, career and interpersonal support (Larose, et al., 2011: 112)

Mentee 3 asserted that:

> "My mentor treated me with a lot of respect; many times, I would not even notice that she is around in my class. During reflection time, I would feel very comfortable in sharing my challenges and highlights of my lessons without fear as my mentor made it a safe space to learn."

Mentee 3 stated that she was treated with outmost respect by her mentor. She further noted that she did not even notice that the mentor was in her class. Mentee 3 was very comfortable during reflection time as she would freely share her challenges and highlights of the lesson observed with her mentor, without fear, as the mentor made it a safe space to learn. This shows that the mentor saw the mentee's potential, believed in her, and supported and assisted the mentee in realizing her vision for the type of teaching and learning she wanted for her learners. It also reveals that the presence of the mentor was non-invasive. There is wide variability in the specific functions performed by mentors within the relationship (Levinson et al., 1978). The usual course of a mentor–mentee relationship, however, is consistent. The mentee initially thinks of him/ herself as a naïve beginner teacher compared to the mentor who has vast teaching experience. In this phase, the mentor plays the role of the authoritative adult. Rose (2005) agrees that under the mentor's wing, the mentee will gradually develop a sense of his/her own autonomy and power.

From the above statement made by Mentee 3, shows that teacher mentoring is grounded in reflection theory. Reflective practice requires that the mentee pay attention to daily routine and the events of a regular day to reflect on their meaning and effectiveness (Villegas-Reimers, 2003). Major assumptions of this practice include the teacher's commitment to serve the interests of learners by reflecting on their well-being and on aspects that are beneficial to them; a professional obligation to review one's practice in order to improve the quality of one's teaching, and a professional obligation to continue improving one's practical knowledge (Villegas-Reimers, 2003)

The National Association for the Education of Young Children (2008) has noted that constructive relationships, in which a mentee feels valued, are essential for the development of the mentee's sense of security, self-esteem, academic performance, and ability to interact with others. According to Reid (2002), a mentor creates a shared space in which mentees can consider their circumstances and develop goals. Evertson & Smithey (2001) found that trained mentors demonstrate better awareness of mentees' needs. Qualities which effective mentors possess include approachability, tact and empathy, trustworthiness, listening skills, self-awareness, an interest in developing others, and good relationship skills (Clutterbuck 2001; Reid 2002). Mentees also have a significant part to play in the creation of mentoring relationships. Larose (2011: 109) suggests that the motivations, attitudes, values, goals, and needs of mentees at the onset of the mentoring relationship may foster involvement in the relationship and the potential benefits for their development.

Discussing their relationship with their mentors, some of the mentees' comments indicated their trust in the mentors who had a collegial relationship with them:

> "…like a sister … we worked harmoniously, she is so good, she assisted me with everything … I trust her very much. She is a mentor that I never had when I started teaching. If I had this opportunity in my first year of teaching, I could have been far with my teaching and confidence" (Mentee 2).
>
> "… very excellent … we can relate on anything, …and even if when I'm down spiritually I would say … today I'm not feeling well but maybe after talking to you, looking at what we are going to do I can be okay and I think I will cope, then she will say you will be okay, you are fine, so that's why I'm saying our relationship is fine." (Mentee 4).
>
> "Having a mentor felt like I had a friend whom I could trust, our relationship was quite good. This made me to also build a good relationship with my learners" (Mentee 1).

The above two statements show that the mentees (1, 2 and 4) had very good relationships with their mentors. Mentee 1 saw the mentor as a trusted friend. Mentee 2 attested that she worked harmoniously with her mentor and that her mentor was very good and assisted her in everything. Mentee 2 further highlights that she trusted her mentor. Mentee 4 stated that she could easily relate to anything with her mentor, even if she needed emotional support or was not coping. She, therefore, had a very good relationship with her mentor. Mentee 2 was also motivated to build good relationships with her learners as was modelled by the mentor. The role of the mentor is far

reaching; it involves a sense of curriculum, content, planning, and organisation, giving guidance where the mentee has a problem, providing solutions in some areas where the mentee has problems relating to the learners, giving guidance on the relationship with learners, everything that involves classroom management.

Mentoring is meant to facilitate such appropriate, meaningful relationships between the mentee and the mentor, leading to positive outcomes for the mentee such as improved social skills and self-esteem (Dappen & Isernhagen, 2005; DuBois, Neville, Parra, & Pugh-Lilly, 2002). Increasingly, the mentor and mentee relate to each other as peers. It is through the mentor–mentee relationship at this crucial stage in their teaching life that the mentee transitions to an experienced teacher and develops his/her own identity. Mentee 3 reported that:

> "At first, I felt intimidated by my mentor's vast teaching experience; however, she made me feel comfortable and made me believe in myself that I would also reach that standard."

Mentee 3 at first felt overwhelmed by having a mentor present in her class together with the substantial teaching experience that the mentor had. This however, subsided after the mentor made her feel comfortable and assured her that she could also reach such expertise. Mentoring as professional development according to the National Policy Framework for Teacher Education (NPFT) (DoE, 2007) is broadly viewed as the growth of individual teachers in their profession. This understanding suggests mentoring as a long-term process that includes regular opportunities and experiences planned systematically to promote growth and development in the profession.

Mentoring is a way to address problems that can result from decreasing adult availability, support, and guidance in the lives of many teachers (Rhodes, 2005). A mentor can provide a caring and supportive relationship, contributing to a corrective experience for mentees who may have unsatisfactory relationships with their immediate supervisors (Rhodes, 2005).

The second research sub-question of this study sought to establish what IP teachers saw as factors that affected mentoring. The data showed that mentee selection, delivery mode and the quality of the mentor were factors that affected mentoring.

5.4 Summary of RQ1

This first section presented its findings of the first research question: IP teachers' perceptions on the benefits of mentoring on; (1) pedagogical and content knowledge (2) teachers' confidence and motivation (2) Classroom management.

Five out of the six participants reported that they had content and pedagogical challenges before the mentoring programme. The influence of mentoring is empirically on three domains of PCK, SMK, GPK and KOC. See (2014) study reveals that there is significant relationship between mentoring and SMK, mentoring and GPK and mentoring and KOC.

The mentoring programme showed that it has the capacity to positively influence teachers' confidence and fosters a sense of ownership while influencing affective attributes such as motivation, confidence, and a disposition toward continual improvement. Mentoring plays a critical role in supporting mentees to develop their classroom management strategies (Kurobasa, 2017).

5.5 Summary of RQ2

Research question two looked at what the IP teachers perceive as factors that affect mentoring. This research question was then sub-divided into three sections namely mentee selection, delivery mode and qualities of an ideal mentor

Some schools select according to their school improvement plan, others select their mentees for mentoring according to the needs of the teachers. Four out of the six mentees volunteered to be on the mentoring programme while two were instructed to participate. The mentees who volunteered had a positive experience of mentoring whilst the other two had negative experiences.

Delivery mode, for this research was the view that mentoring should create a safe environment in which to ask questions, to make mistakes and be mentored, and which mentors celebrate mentee success and share their happiness. The study indicates that teachers who were mentored under conducive environments did undergo professional development through additional self-reflection. Thus, mentoring can facilitate teaching development for the mentee.

According to Scott (2012), one of the most important elements in mentoring is mutual respect between the mentor and the mentee. Mutual respect is not something that comes quickly or easily, it requires time and patience to build. Mutual respect is the substance of all successful mentoring.

Mentors provide inspiration, counselling, acceptance, confirmation to their mentees. The mentor is a facilitator who works with an individual over an extended period. Mentoring seeks to build wisdom – the ability to apply skills, knowledge and experience to new situations and processes (Johnson, 2002). The mentor may thus establish an environment in which the mentee's accomplishment is not limited only by the extent of his or her talent. From the data, it is evidence that the mentees felt inspired, protected, nurtured, challenged, acknowledged, appreciated, and accepted by their mentors. This allowed the mentees to build on wisdom and skills in their teaching which might not have happened in the absence of mentoring

The nature of a mentoring relationship varies with the level and activities of both the mentor and mentee. In general, however, each relationship must be based on a common goal: to advance the educational and personal growth of the mentee. The nature of the relationship between mentors and mentees is intended to be non-directive, non-invasive and supportive. Mentoring is meant to facilitate such appropriate, meaningful relationships between the mentee and the mentor leading to positive mentee outcomes such as improved social skills and self-esteem (Dappen & Isernhagen, 2005)

5.6 Summary of Chapter

The National Education Goals emphasised the importance of involving competent teachers in education reform efforts. The goal implies that “practicing teachers are key to the transformation of schools and that in order for teachers to lead the reform efforts, they need to be offered expanded and enriched professional development experiences such as mentoring” (Dilworth & Imig, 1995).

Based on the findings of the research, the mentoring programme had significant benefits for the improvement of the teachers’ pedagogical and content knowledge, confidence, and motivation as well as classroom management. According to Lai (2010), mentoring programmes plays an important role in strengthening the competence of new teachers and providing them with opportunities for learning. There

are many ways to increase reflective practice and thus the confidence and resilience of teachers. There is certainly room for further exploration on the mentoring processes around the importance of the teacher identity and reflective practice. The involvement of different levels of expertise through mentoring would change the dynamic and learning experience for teachers.

It is clear from the synthesis of research evidence presented above that teacher mentoring has great potential to produce a range of benefits for mentees, mentors, and schools. It is also clear not only that this potential is often unrealised, but that on occasion, mentoring may have the potential to do harm. It is important to suggest that all the contextual features found to promote effective mentoring are always achievable in practice.

Teacher mentoring is now perceived as an effective staff development approach for teachers. Beginner teachers are given a strong start at the beginning of their careers through mentoring. The chapter reported and discussed teachers' experiences of a mentoring programme, explained what the IP teachers perceived as benefits of the programme and highlighted the factors that the IP teachers perceived as factors that affect mentoring.

In the next chapter, conclusions will be drawn from the research main findings.

CHAPTER 6

STUDY SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter concludes the study by providing the final summary of the research, as well as the recommendations based on the findings. The aim of this study is to understand IP teachers experiences of a mentoring programme in selected schools in the Western Cape. The main research question was formulated as follows: “What are the Intermediate Phase (IP) teachers’ experiences of a mentoring programme?” This chapter presents an overview of the research findings.

The first section presents the summary and synthesis of findings, followed by the recommendations of the study. Sub-section three discusses the contributions of the study. The last section concludes the chapter.

6.1 Summary of the research findings

This section will discuss the summary and discussions of RQ1 and RQ2. It will then be followed by discussing the synthesis of the research findings.

6.1.1 Summary of main findings of RQ1: What are the benefits of a mentoring programme as perceived by IP teachers?

The first research sub-question of this study sought to establish the benefits of the mentoring programme as perceived by the IP teachers. The main themes/benefits that were common from the data collected were content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge, confidence and motivation, and classroom management. Interview questions 7-9 and the teacher journals were used to answer the first research sub-question (see Appendix F: Interview Schedule).

Five out of the six participants reported that they had content and pedagogical challenges before the mentoring programme. They mentioned that the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) was a nightmare to cover and keep up with. In other words, the five mentees mentioned that the workload of CAPS was unmanageable before the mentoring programme. The five mentees also mentioned

that their content knowledge in some of the subjects that they taught needed some support especially in Mathematics and Natural Sciences. The mentees reported that they had not specialised in these subjects at university but were expected to teach them. From the data discussed above, it is evident that the pedagogical and content knowledge of the mentees were enhance through mentoring.

The data presented in chapter 5, shows that mentees had problems in managing their classes before the mentoring programme. However, after the mentoring programme, they felt they could manage their classes better.

Within this case study, the mentees felt that their confidence and motivation in teaching was not good enough, and some indicated that that they were on the verge of leaving the profession. However, the mentoring programme showed that it had the capacity to positively influence teachers' confidence and foster a sense of ownership, while influencing affective attributes such as motivation, confidence, and a disposition toward continual improvement.

6.1.2 Summary of main findings of RQ2: What are the factors that affect mentoring as perceived by IP teachers?

The second research sub-question of this study sought to establish the factors that affected mentoring as perceived by the IP teachers. The main themes/factors that were common from the data collected were mentee selection, delivery mode and qualities of an ideal mentor. Interview questions 1-6 and the teacher journals sought to answer the second research sub-question (see Appendix F: Interview Schedule).

Four out of six mentees volunteered to be on the mentoring programme, whilst the other two mentees felt that they were forced to be on it. The four mentees felt that the delivery mode was very conducive, and they had very good relationships with their mentor, hence they had very good experiences. However, the other two mentees did not have a very good experience of the programme. They did not value it as they thought that it brought them nothing new.

The mentees had very good relationship with their mentor. One mentee saw the mentor as a trusted friend. The other one attested that she worked harmoniously with her mentor. Mentee 4 felt that she could easily relate with her mentor. The role of the mentor is on curriculum, content and planning and organisation, and giving guidance

to solutions with everything that involves classroom. Mentoring is intended to facilitate such appropriate, meaningful relationships between the mentee and the mentor leading to positive mentee outcomes (Dappen & Isernhagen, 2005; DuBois, Neville, Parra, & Pugh-Lilly, 2002). Mentees felt that their mentor respected and treated them as adults. The mentor's feedbacks were a huge highlight in the experiences of these mentees as it unlocked their own potential.

Most mentees felt that their mentor was a good listener. Covey (1986: 136) states that listeners should be aware of the emotional landscape as there are times when responses are appropriate; while at other times there is a need to offer a solution; and sometimes it is valuable to say nothing at all.

From the data, mentees had a clear understanding of the expectations of the mentoring. Mentees further stated that they had to commit to being mentored. The mentees also said that there was an automatic connection between them and their mentor, and they shared the same values in teaching. According to Straus, Johnson, Marquez, & Feldman (2013) successful mentoring relationships are characterized by reciprocity, mutual respect, clear expectations, personal connection, and shared values. Schmidt (2008) concurs that if there is mutual trust between the mentee and mentor, mentoring becomes mutually beneficial that can see new-found knowledge and skills growing in their teaching. Hudson (2016) revealed that positive relationships required the achievement of trust and respect by sharing information, resources, and expectations and by being professional, enthusiastic, and supportive with collaborative problem-solving in mentoring.

6.1.3 Synthesis of the research findings

The motivation for this research study stemmed from the mandate placed on mentoring to effectively enhance teaching and learning in schools. With policy makers and government institutions investing in and advocating CPD, some studies in the area continue to highlight that teachers need support to not only survive but also thrive, grow professionally, and build their capacity to maintain and sustain their well-being (personal and of others), through support systems such as teacher mentoring programmes (Hobson and Maxwell, 2017; Kutsyuruba et al., 2019; Shanks, 2017).

Even more worrying is that in South Africa, the supply of competent teachers remains a challenge (Mthiyane & Mukeredzi, 2013).

This study observed, scrutinised, recorded and analysed the experiences of IP teachers during a mentoring programme in selected schools in Metro-Central District in the Western Cape to assess how these experiences might enhance teaching and learning in schools, especially the previously disadvantaged schools. The results showed that mentoring had an influence in their teaching and learning and professional growth. The challenge that this finding presented was that schools required direction in how select the teachers for the mentoring programme and how teachers can continue to get professional support from their SMTs after the mentoring programme so that they can be self-sustainable after the programme is no longer available (EMP, 2018).

The researcher's original contribution to the body of knowledge was exploring the IP teachers' experiences of a mentorship programme. This research was designed to assist other teachers and possibly CPD stakeholders alike in mapping their progression in implementing and taking mentoring as a formal CPD.

The aim was to understand the relevant contemporary theories and frameworks that guided mentoring as well as the role of mentoring in in-service teachers' practice. The arguments and concerns raised in the existing literature proved essential in later substantiating the findings of this research study (refer to chapter 5). The outcome of this literature review was the researcher's development of the conceptual framework used throughout this study. This construct was used to make sense of the data collected from the study.

The researcher approached this research study in an exploratory manner, the objective was to uncover as much knowledge as was possible of this phenomenon. This objective informed the researcher's decision to employ a qualitative approach to the study. The use of multiple data collection tools allowed for an overall investigation of teachers' experiences of different mentoring programmes. The use of purposive sampling ensured that the data collected remained relevant and was from first-hand accounts. Due to its qualitative nature the researcher acknowledges that it may be a challenge to generalize the findings from the data collected to other contexts outside of the one in which the study was conducted.

For this study the researcher adopted the theoretical emphasis of constructivism founded by John Dewey (Green & Condy, 2016). Constructivism supports the acquisition and accumulation of knowledge through interacting with one's social context. Used in education, it implies that teachers learn best when they have the chance to participate in and contribute to their learning process. The importance of the constructivist theory is the guiding principle which places emphasis on student engagement in knowledge acquisition.

The data collected in this study indicated that participants had been operating outside of the guidance of a mentoring programme; some were not even aware of why they were chosen to be on the mentoring programme. The result was that two of the mentees did not see the value of the programme and how it could potentially have enhanced their teaching practice. Through in-depth study of relevant literature, the researcher came to the realisation that school-based mentoring programmes influence teaching practice.

The unique synthesis of these frameworks with constructivist priorities devised in this research, fosters, sets out and facilitates access to mentoring that can enhance instructional strategies that meet 21st century goals in education. It is important for teachers to successfully model the advanced use and integration of mentoring for the economic development of any country.

6.1.3.1 The need for CPD for in-service teachers

The National Curriculum Statements (NCS) Grade R-12 envisage the following qualities of their teachers: they should be qualified, competent, dedicated and caring; they should be mediators of learning, interpreters and designers of Learning Programmes and materials, leaders, administrators and managers, scholars, researchers and lifelong learners, community members, citizens and pastors, assessors, and subject specialists (DBE, 2011).

These are demanding requirements when research into, and observation of, teaching in South Africa reveals small pools of excellence as demanded above but mostly areas of great need, suggesting that "CPD should indeed, be one of the priorities of the Department of Education (DoE) in order that teachers could be effective agents of change. Similarly, however, we conceive teachers' CPD as an ongoing process of empowerment" (Ngcoza et al., 2005: 1). Mathematics and science are learning areas

that are “vulnerable to poor instruction” (Maree et al., 2006: 230) and teachers of these subjects require support both in upgrading their baseline practices and implementing the new curriculum as the gap between the intended curriculum (policy) and implemented curriculum (practice) in South Africa is large (Hattingh et al, 2005: 21; Rogan, 2004).

Onwu & Stoffels (2005: 88), discuss that the current educational problems, explain the need for mentoring of in-service teachers, referring to a paradox in the current poor learning climate: “relatively poorly qualified teachers are a prime cause of present problems. Yet, teachers are one of the few ways out of the problem. At the same time, it is a lengthy process to produce better teachers and a hard task to retain them. In the interim what is needed is to find ways to assist practising teachers” (Onwu & Stoffels, 2005:88). South African teachers are generally under qualified for their posts and exhibit classroom practices that are not conducive to facilitating learning. However, there are no alternatives in terms of teacher re-placement so we must assist our teachers to reach their full potential within the context of their limitations.

6.1.3. 2 The potential of mentoring as CPD

Would it be possible to construct a mentoring model as an effective model for professional teacher development for teachers in developing contexts, using the teachers’ and mentors’ voices as informants, and based on good practice as recommended by literature? The research findings of this study and a new mentoring model design would serve to enrich the knowledge base in terms of teacher development strategies in developing contexts, could be used to inform the transformational process and may act as a basis for making recommendations to the DoE or NGOs for future teacher professional development programmes for in-service training.

The literature informs about the requirements from reform initiatives aimed at revitalising teachers’ classroom practices and check whether a mentoring model could fulfil these criteria. South Africa needs to create an ideology that is compatible and provide upgrading and scaffolding of teachers’ conceptual knowledge and skills (Taylor & Vinjevold, 1999:160). There is need to build on the specific needs of teachers, and provide a continuous process as isolated inputs do not build on one another and have little value for those attending the mentoring (Lessing & de Witt, 2007: 55)

Any CPD programme should do more than address content mastery only, which was the realm of the old curriculum and methodology: it must focus on teachers' development to facilitate their enabling their learners' acquisition of knowledge, skills, values, and attitudes (Maree, 2006: 230). This point is echoed by Vonk (1991, cited by de Feiter et al., 1995: 47) who defines professional development "as the outcome of a learning process directed at acquiring a coherent whole of the knowledge, insights, attitudes and repertoire a teacher needs".

Campbell et al. (2003: 352) propose that there is a problem in the development of generic, rather than differentiated, models for teacher effectiveness. They warn against identifying a general set of characteristics defining an effective teacher as a platonic ideal, free of contextual realities", but rather explain that teachers may be differentially effective in different contexts and any model must be able to identify strengths and enable interactions amongst the different variables (Campbell et al., 2003: 355). This tends to point to a field-based model as offering potential for realistic and effective support.

Mentoring as a field-based strategy theoretically has a possibility to meet all the criteria suggested in the literature as essential requirements for a CPD programme, while the data in this research and the literature point to the possible benefits of mentoring, including mentees' acquisition of skills and knowledge; mentees obtaining an improved self-image through their relationship with the mentor, and becoming aware of their potential for success in their teaching, while a greater spirit of openness and trust among teachers is brought about (Mohono-Mahlatsi et al., 2007: 389). Mentors can identify the potential for each individual teacher (Rogan, 2006: 8), and hence the specific scaffolding required to address the teacher's needs, recognising current reality, and then building on the strengths of various components of the educational system (Rogan & Grayson, 2003: 1176).

Mentoring considers the local context, including diversity that may exist within that context and psychological factors that influence learning and change (Rogan & Grayson, 2003: 1201) and is advisory, developmental and facilitatory in orientation (Mtetwa et al., 2000: 316). This theory of implementation for an on-site CPD programme which considers individual need within the developing context allows for special attention to implementation problems, including continuous monitoring of the process and outcomes (de Feiter et al., 1995: 53).

Feiman-Nemser (1996: 3) stresses the importance for optimal conditions in which mentoring may take place as superseding issues such as training before / during their mentoring. In such a programme the model is based on a trusting relationship between the mentor and mentee (Sweeney, 2003: 123) and the mentor must be the source of knowledge and experience to enlarge the school's pool of knowledge whilst encouraging a sharing mindset within departments or between groups of teachers, to build potential for future collaborative learning (Duncombe & Armour, 2004: 141).

6.1.3.3 Mentoring as a career path for teachers

From where could mentors be sourced? Selection of mentors must include seeking

excellent, experienced teachers who have a history of interaction with teachers of a range of cultures, experiences, and skills. Mentors require extensive knowledge of current DBE requirements and general problem issues in the teaching fraternity. The researcher contends that this point highlights the need to source mentors from the current teaching body, rather than from tertiary institutions, and indicates a potential for a further career path for teachers: that of a teacher-mentor.

This observation is supported by Kerry & Mayes (1995: 11) as they propose that lecturers can only give generalised advice, while teachers have access to the level of knowledge and experience required to give specific support to the mentee. A mentor, to be a successful instrument in aiding the teacher's understanding of his/her environment and facilitating his/her progress, requires grounding in and understanding of a similar environment, thus suggesting that such a mentor must originate from the locale of secondary, rather than tertiary, education, to avoid "ivory tower mentality" (Sweeney, 2003: 123).

A mentor teacher programme can assist in retaining capable teachers in offering greater rewards and opportunities (Feiman-Nemser, Parker & Zeichner, 1992: 1) and enrich the human resource support system offered by the DoE. This new role of teachers as mentors can be a proper progression in the teacher's role (Kerry & Mayes, 1995: 2) and experienced teachers, possessing an extensive repertoire of helping strategies (Wildman, Magliaro, Niles & Niles, 1992), can meet the needs of teachers in their individual contexts: a role that was intended to be fulfilled in South Africa by the curriculum implementers but has not manifested as effective.

Mentors in a study by Feiman-Nemser et al. (1992: 2) are described as being required to talk in a very straightforward fashion to teachers without offending them and describe and demonstrate underlying principles of teaching and learning (Feiman-Nemser et al., 1992: 4). In this study the mentors underwent a short (30 hour) training course, but the authors comment that the nature of the course they researched implied mentoring to have unproblematic goals, whilst it also avoided issues of diversity or teaching as an intellectual or moral activity (Feiman-Nemser et al., 1992: 6). They warn that procedural orientation of mentor training runs the risk of narrowing thinking about strategies and limiting treatment of issues (Feiman-Nemser et al., 2992: 15). Whilst the mentor teachers in this study were giving support to new (induction) teachers, the teachers were described as being in a pattern of isolation, survival, trial-and-error learning: a pattern not different to that faced by the teachers and hence the same lessons can be learned in terms of training strategy.

Thus, mentoring roles and training strategies for mentoring cannot be rigidly specified. Teachers' needs are individual-specific, and they also change over time as the teachers progress through various stages of development; therefore, the mentors' strategies must concurrently be modified to echo the changing needs of teachers. Mentors, charged with the task of meeting individual teachers' changing needs in the context of an education climate that is itself changing (particularly in the South African context), must be proactive, sensitive, flexible, dedicated, hard-working and display a sense of professionalism. However, for the teacher who becomes a mentor-teacher, the rewards include an influence in education that goes beyond simply an impact on one's current class to a lifelong impact on other teachers' lives and classes.

6.2 Recommendations:

Recommendations for further research are outlined to help narrow certain gaps and resolve some of the contradictions revealed in the previous chapter. These recommendations have been categorised in terms of how mentoring can be incorporated to policy, practice, mentoring programmes and future studies in collaborative ways.

6.2.1 Recommendations for policy

In South Africa, the implementation of mentoring in education has been patchy and uncoordinated, without standard guidelines in higher education and in public schooling. While the government's Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa 2011-20125 (DBE, 2014) foregrounds mentoring in all stages of teacher education, full scale implementation is not yet in place.

> *In 2020, the Department of Basic Education (DBE) launched a field test of a New Teacher Induction (NTI) programme. "Teacher Induction in South Africa has happened in different ways and in different schools, but research tells us that it was very uncoordinated", explains Mr. Gerrit Coetzee, director for Initial Teacher Education with the Department of Basic Education and the driving force behind the initiative. The process was initiated by the DBE, set up in collaboration with the South African Council for Educators (SACE) and supported by VVOB – education for development* (DBE, 2011).

The systematic training of mentors in the mentoring process is a prerequisite for the effective implementation of mentoring in schools (Aspfors & Fransson, 2015. Training should be carried out both with conventional training techniques (such as in-classroom training) and contemporary methods (such as distance learning courses). Such training should combine theory and practice. To successfully design, organize and deliver a training programme on mentoring, a detailed training needs analysis of the participants should be carried out (Aspfors & Fransson, 2015). The contents of a mentoring training programme should include, apart from knowledge regarding mentoring techniques, the development of skills such as communication, teamwork, active listening, classroom management, and empathy. Mentors should also practice control of their role's limits, so that mentoring does not end up a simple coaching process.

It can be recommended that PD programmes in South African education system should include mentoring in their interventions to increase the effectiveness thereof (Prasetyo, 2019). They must, however, consider limited time for feedback after lesson observations as well as immediate feedback where possible straight after the lesson observation (Ajani, 2018). Another recommendation is to try and ensure a match between the teachers and the mentor (Larose et al., 2011). The mentor should be able

to form a good relationship with the teachers/mentees. This might possibly ensure a conducive environment for openness to trust and guidance.

It can also be recommended that heads of departments be trained to act as mentors for their teams for the mentoring to be self-sustainable in schools (Van der Nest, 2012). The heads of departments would be the most appropriate and effective mentors as long as they are trained in the skills of mentoring and have the required content and instructional skills for the subject. Such an initiative will cut down on the cost of hiring and transporting a mentor from another school or organisation. The head of department as a mentor would also be able to offer school-based PD programmes that are contextualised to the teachers as well as the learners (Van der Nest, 2012).

In addition to the plans outlined in the Planning Framework, government is working with SACE for a 'staged admittance' to the profession based on professional standards for registered teachers (DBE, 2018). This means that, as with other professional occupations, newly qualified teachers will have to undergo mentoring, i.e. a period of structured in-service mentoring, before becoming fully registered professionally. Government is currently researching requirements for teacher induction and methods of implementation with the aim of formalising teacher mentoring in 2017 (DBE, 2018).

6. 2. 2 Recommendations for practice

The ideas of reflective practice are not theoretical. They are proven and have a long history. Since John Dewey, there are many forms of progressive education that have sprouted over the years. These include Waldorf education, a pure form of progressive education, but include many variations with mixed progressive and classic forms. What is clear is that for a system to be effective there must be a threshold of emphasis on the extrinsic, whilst combining this with other considerations. These types of ideas strongly align with South Africa's espoused human dignity ideals espoused in the Constitution and Bill of Rights (DBE, 2014). What is therefore surprising is that in practice, South Africa deviated from these proven principles and the goals that they captured in official documents and that South Africans embraced (DBE, 2014). Clearly goals do not correspond to intentionality (embodied ability to follow-through) demonstrating a critical emotional competency gap between espoused values and values in use. That this was such a pervasive blind spot also warns that overcoming

South Africa's gaps will need serious commitment, nothing short of a comprehensive programme of transformation (DBE, 2014).

Critical reflective practice is the quality of professional identity that will restore the professionalism that has been lost over the years in the DBE system (Ajani, 2018). It holds the potential for creating an integrated, and inclusive education system characterised by integrated teaching and learning, full recognition of equity and diversity and underpinned by rigorous and continuous professional development.

A key rationale for reflective practice is that experience alone does not necessarily lead to learning; deliberate reflection on experience as well as deliberate practice, is essential (Ajani, 2018). Developing self - directed critically reflective practitioners of learners, teachers and HoDs requires mentoring. While an explicit reflective practice approach does not address all aspects of the school complex, it is the major integrating glue for bringing about real change via its ability to link what teachers do in the classroom, to the culture of the school and to leader's messages, it fosters a common language about school improvement (Ajani, 2018).

Mentees need to be brought into the mentoring process so that they are willing and active partners (Michael, 2020). Examples of attitudes that need to be fostered in mentees include willingness to learn and to solve problem; ability to ask questions and challenge assumptions; adaptability to changing circumstances and environments in education and commitment to personal and professional growth (Michael, 2020)

The art of reflecting on one's own practice is generally seen as vital to professional growth in any sphere. But reflection does not just 'come naturally' and many teachers struggle with the notion (Ajani, 2018). Also, it has little value as a means of learning and bringing about improvements unless it leads to action. Mentors need to be trained in reflective practices so they can lead mentees through the process.

6.2.3 Recommendations for mentoring programmes

To evaluate the effectiveness of a mentoring programme, action research in which there is a cyclical process of action, reflection, and revision should be used together with using evaluation feedback from mentors, mentees, and learners. The mentoring programmes should capture benefits of the mentoring, providing an opportunity for critical reflection on own practice; honing own interpersonal skills of mentors;

increasing the chances of promotion and enhancing job satisfaction for the mentor; keeping mentors in touch with new trends (Peters-Burtun et al., 2015).

The mentee should nurture self-confidence and independence; reduces feelings of isolation and inadequacy; provide someone to turn to for help with fears and problems; have an opportunity to increase skills by assimilating, adapting, and implementing tried and trusted methods from experienced and expert mentors (Tahir et al., 2016). This could prevent novice teachers from making mistakes that might have a negative effect on their career, or on learners.

Schools could through mentoring, reduce early departure from the profession by beginner teachers; improve standards and professionalism in the school overall; encourage transformational learning across the school; make the school a site of learning; socialises new teachers into the school's culture and routines; and enable early identification of possible problems in schools as well as early development of solutions to these problems (Rickard & Barnville, 2010).

The learners could receive the benefits of increased professionalisation and skills transfer, as well as participate in the sense of growth and energy that mentoring should produce (See, 2014).

A mentoring programme should look at the criteria for selecting mentors (Michael & Smith, 2018). The attributes it should look for in a mentor include personal qualities such as empathy, interpersonal skills, and the ability to project a positive and inspirational attitude (Scott, 2012). The ability to be open-minded in relation to different ideas and practices; to-unlearn their own favourite ways and let mentees develop their own approaches; professional competence in curriculum, subject and pedagogical knowledge, and well-developed organisational and classroom management skills; and a commitment to helping others progress and experience (Ajani, 2018).

6.2.4 Recommendations for future study

Based on the research process and findings, the researcher recommends the following for future studies, mentoring as professional development of teachers.

Firstly, the data collection was to some extent constrained due to time limitations. In future, a more comprehensive study would benefit from employing larger number of

participants from different quintile schools and or provinces to have a diverse and in-depth synopsis of the teachers experiences of the mentoring programme.

Secondly, professional development such as mentoring is a continuous process that spans for decades (Bridge, 2016). Further insight into how multiple developmental relationships are employed across stages of teachers' professional development could be gained by a future study adopting longitudinal design.

Thirdly, taking place in Cape Town's-Central Metro Education District, the study contributes with revelations based on lived experiences in the context of the district's school culture. Building on this, a future study could positively benefit from comparing how developmental relationships are employed in different provinces, districts, countries, and cultures.

6.3 Contribution of the study

The previous sections have considered the policy and practice recommendations emanating from this study. In this section, the researcher specifically considers the contributions this study makes to the knowledge, policy, and practice of mentoring programmes.

6.3.1 Contribution towards body of knowledge

This study can offer a significant contribution to the following fields of research in which there is a gap in the knowledge base. There are relatively few research papers on mentoring in the South African context, more so in Cape Town. This study may serve to support the theories put forward in these papers and enrich the knowledge base concerning teachers with limited academic background who are situated in unsupportive schools. Very little research has been done in schools that are at a very low level of performance, as are the Edufundi schools, so this research will have value in that it addresses an under-represented group.

In recent years, education research in South Africa has tended to focus on policy aspects, where it was inclined towards the normative (what should be). Research of an investigative nature (which models might best embody values) or evaluative nature (which models work best under specific conditions) have been relatively neglected (Taylor & Vinjevold, 1999: 5). This research has an investigative nature and as such may contribute to a field which is under-researched.

Literature provides extensive coverage of the induction of teachers and pre-service (student) teachers, but little on mentoring those teachers who have already been in the profession for some years, particularly in schools that are under-resourced and under-achieving. Thus, a study providing a window into the practice of mentoring as a professional development strategy for teachers in historically under-resourced schools has potential to inform where there are existing gaps in such knowledge.

6.3.2 Contributions to policy and practice

The research findings of this study may be used to inform policy on the transformational process and act as a basis for making recommendations to the DBE or NGOs for the practice strategies of future teacher professional development programmes for in-service training. Certainly, this research can add heuristic value for future research.

Mentoring has considerable importance as a means of strengthening the general educational system (DBE, 2014). Given the difficult issues confronted by the often-overburdened teachers in the public school system, mentoring offers important assistance in the critical effort to increase teacher retention and promote educational achievement.

Post ITE, mentoring can be used as a direct intervention to support the continuing development of teachers (Prasetyo, 2019). The mentoring relationship offers a significant survival bridge into and through what is to novice teachers the often very different world of professional teaching.

Mentors may serve as valuable resources for beginner teachers with few reference points to help them manoeuvre through and succeed in the school environment (Cohen & Galbraith, 1995: 7).

Contributions to Programme help contributes to a positive organizational climate and promotes a clearer understanding of professional responsibilities and expectations. This may increase employee satisfaction and retention by reducing a new employee's sense of isolation. This study may result in improved employee job performance, contribute to faster learning curves, and result in a better trained staff. The study may also help the mentoring programmes to reflects an investment in employee

development and may increase employee commitment and loyalty. It could promote a positive image of the organization and reflect and enhance employee-centred values. The study may contribute to the development of partnerships or allies that may be useful to the organization in the future. The research may inform other mentoring programmes that effective mentoring can be one of the best tools for building diversity and enhancing teacher and learner achievement.

6.4 Conclusion of the chapter

This research study considered the experiences of IP teachers during a mentoring programme in selected schools in the Western Cape. It explored the benefits and the factors that affected this teacher support model in their professional, personal, and social development, as perceived by them and other research strategies.

Using the voices from literature and the teachers, mentoring programme for professional teacher development has been proposed that has potential for both broad and deep sustainable change. This programme employs an “inside-out” format (Taylor et al., 2003: 4), in which the strategy focuses on support activities within the school and may be explicitly tailored to the needs of the school and teachers, addressing the individual as essential to improvement within the school context. Such a theoretical model may provide a window into the practice of mentoring as a professional development strategy for IP teachers in historically under-resourced schools and poor performing schools in developing contexts and has potential to inform where there are existing gaps in such knowledge.

The researcher agrees that the mentoring model exemplified by Edufundi exhibits theory that is supported by the literature while its practice, as exemplified by the teachers in this study, has potential to bring about sustainable change in teaching.

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Appendix A

Cape Peninsula University of Technology

***For office use only	
Date submitted	25-8-2019
Meeting date	15-10-2019
Approval	P/Y/N
Ethical Clearance number	EFEC 7-10/2019

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

RESEARCH ETHICS CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

This certificate is issued by the Education Faculty Ethics Committee (EFEC) at Cape Peninsula University of Technology to the applicant/s whose details appear below.

1. Applicant and project details (Applicant to complete this section of the certificate and submit with application as a Word document)

Name(s) of applicant(s):	Loveness Mahwire		
Project/study Title:	Intermediate Phase teachers experiences of the Edufundi mentorship programme in selected schools in the Western Cape		
Is this a staff research project, i.e. not for degree purposes?	No		
If for degree purposes the degree is indicated:	Yes		
If for degree purposes, the proposal has been approved by the FRC	Yes		
Funding sources:			

2. Remarks by Education Faculty Ethics Committee:

Ethical clearance granted until 31 December 2024		
Approved: X	**Referred back:**	**Approved subject to adaptations:**
Chairperson Name: Dr Candice Livingston **Chairperson Signature:**		**Date: 15th October 2019**
Approval Certificate/Reference: EFEC 7-10/2019		

EFEC Form V3_updated 2016

Appendix B

Sample: letter sent to WCED, Edufundi; Schools

10 Robert Sobukwe Road

3rd Floor Negatu Building

Bellville

7530

0631975410

email:loveness@aimssec.ac.za

Attention……

WESTERN CAPE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

18TH FLOOR GOLDEN ACRE BUILDING,

CNR STRAND & ADDERLEY STREET

CAPETOWN

8000

Dear Sir/Madam

REF: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT CASE STUDY RESEARCH IN METRO CENTRAL ATHLONE IN THE WESTERN CAPE.

I am currently conducting research for a Master's in Education Degree at Cape Peninsula University of Technology (CPUT) in the Faculty of Education. The title of my research is: "Intermediate Phase teachers' experiences of a mentorship programme in selected schools in the Western Cape**"**

The primary aim of this study is to establish the experiences of in-service teachers in the context of mentoring in Intermediate Phase. The secondary aims are to establish the benefits of mentoring as perceived by Intermediate Phase teachers and to establish ways the factors that affect mentoring as perceived by the Intermediate Phase teachers' experiences after a having gone through the mentoring programme.

The study will be interviewing teachers (mentees) in the Intermediate Phase who were on the Edufundi mentoring programme in 2019. The teachers will be given consent forms to sign and may withdraw from the study at any time. The mentees will be interviewed after contact times to avoid disruption from the teaching and learning in the schools. Pseudonyms will be used to ensure confidentiality and anonymity of teachers and the schools. Once completed, the research will be available for you to view.

Kindly sign this letter and return it at your earliest convenience.

Please feel free to contact me if you need any additional information regarding this research.

Yours Sincerely

Loveness Mahwire

Reply Slip

Name ……..

Designation……..

Granted……Permission not granted…….

Signature……Date……

Stamp

Appendix C

Western Cape Government

Education

Directorate: Research

tel: +27 021 467 9272
Fax: 0865902282
Private Bag X9114, Cape Town, 8000
wced.wcape.gov.za

REFERENCE:
ENQUIRIES: Dr A T Wyngaard

Your application to conduct the above-mentioned research in schools in the Western Cape has been approved subject to the following conditions:

1. Principals, educators and learners are under no obligation to assist you in your investigation.
2. Principals, educators, learners and schools should not be identifiable in any way from the results of the investigation.
3. You make all the arrangements concerning your investigation.
4. Educators' programmes are not to be interrupted.
5. The Study is to be conducted from
6. No research can be conducted during the fourth term as schools are preparing and finalizing syllabi for examinations (October to December).
7. Should you wish to extend the period of your survey, please contact Dr A T Wyngaard at the contact numbers above quoting the reference number.
8. A photocopy of this letter is submitted to the principal where the intended research is to be conducted.
9. Your research will be limited to the list of schools as forwarded to the Western Cape Education Department.
10. A brief summary of the content, findings and recommendations is provided to the Director: Research Services.
11. The Department receives a copy of the completed report/dissertation/thesis addressed to:

    The Director: Research Services
    Western Cape Education Department
    Private Bag X9114
    CAPE TOWN
    8000

We wish you success in your research.

Kind regards.

Lower Parliament Street, Cape Town, 8001
tel: +27 21 467 9272 Fax: 0865902282
Safe Schools: 0800 45 46 47
Private Bag X9114, Cape Town, 8000
Employment and salary enquiries: 0861 92 33 22
www.westerncape.gov.za

Appendix D: Consent form of participant

Research Title: The experiences of IP teachers of the Edufundi mentoring programme.

	Yes	No
I understand the purpose and nature of this research.		
I agree to share copies of my teacher reflective journal and other material that may be helpful for this research.		
I agree to be interviewed for this research thesis.		
I give permission for the interview to be recorded by means of mobile recorder technology.		
I do not wish for my name to be used, cited, or otherwise disclosed.		
I agree that my photo in this research to be published		

Name of participant:……..

Signature:……..

Date:……

Appendix E: Interview Schedule

Interview Questions

A: Understanding the general experiences of the mentoring programme

In this section, the researcher explores the experiences of the mentoring programme of the mentees.

1. When did you join the mentoring programme?
2. Can you describe in detail your experiences of the mentoring?

B*:* **Understanding the benefits of the mentoring programme**

In this section, the researcher is interested in knowing the benefits of the mentoring programme as perceived by the mentees

3. What do you think were the benefits of the mentoring programme?
4. What teaching challenges (pedagogical/content/motivation/confidence/class management) if any, were you experiencing before joining the mentoring programme?
5. Would you say that these challenges were addressed by your participation in the mentoring programme?
6. In your opinion, what can be done to improve the impact or benefits of the mentorship programme?
7. Do you think the mentoring programme helped you in any way?
8. If the answer in four is yes, in what ways?
9. If the answer is no, can you explain why you feel you did not benefit at all?

C: Understanding the factors that affect mentoring

In this section, the researcher explores the factors that affected the mentoring programme as perceived by the mentees.

10. What do you think were the factors that affected the mentoring that you received?
11. Who decided that you should join the mentoring programme?

12. Were you happy to be selected for the mentoring programme? Why?

13. In your opinion, describe the relationship between the mentor and the mentee?

Appendix F: Example of a transcribed interview of a mentee

Interviewer	Thank you for availing yourself for this interview, I really appreciate it. Let me just jump to it.
Interviewer	Who chose you to be on the mentoring programme
Interviewee	Our principal came to one of our staff meetings and announced that the school had signed up to be on the mentoring programme, hence he needs teachers that wants to be volunteered to be on the mentoring because I knew that I needed all the help and support that I can get in my career as a teacher.
Interviewer	May you please tell me what you think were the benefits of the mentoring programme?
Interviewee	The mentoring programme helped me in many ways that I never thought that it could. At first when the mentoring started, I was not sure what my mentor expects from me, or whether myself and my learners will be comfortable having another person in the class. Anyway, the mentoring programme helped me with my content and pedagogical knowledge. My mentor was very free to help me understand some of the content areas that I did understand, mostly in mathematics as I did not like maths when I was in school myself. My mentor made me think of different ways to explain to the learners to understand a concept.

	The lesson plan template from the mentoring programme helped me to shape my lessons well. The techniques themselves that we were introduced to helped me to calm my learners down and start my lessons without having to shout and scream to my learners. My learners know that, when the bel rings, they line up outside the class from shortest to tallest, hands on their side and as soon as they get into class, they take out their books and start to write the "do now" activity on the board, individually for 5 minutes. This helps them to refocus their attention to the subject and test for prior knowledge. The mentoring programme helped me to have confidence in my teaching and myself. When I started teaching, seeing the general behaviour of learners, I was hesitant of letting them discuss in groups as I was afraid that they would make a lot of noise and disturb other classes. However, the programme helped me to be confident and saw how engaged they were, I said to myself that this is the way to teach. My learners started enjoying coming to school as they had a set routine, had time in class to argue and discuss with their peers. Overall, my ways of teaching were changed, motivation and confidence brought back and enhanced and my classroom management and most importantly my content knowledge and how to teach it has greatly improved through the mentoring programme
Interviewer	What can you say about the delivery mode of the programme?
Interviewee	The fact that the mentoring programme was face to face, in-class support and had nothing to do with the department made it unique, that is why I volunteered to be on the programme.

	I was very comfortable making mistakes without being judged want my mentor made me grow from my mistakes. I did not need to set a particular time to see my mentor, but she was comfortable on seeing me at any time as long as it was the day, she came to our school
Interviewer	How was your relationship with your mentor
Interviewee	I had a mutual understanding and respect with my mentor. We would communicate with each other beyond the day that she came to observe my lesson especially when I got stuck with something or wanted clarity on a certain topic or concept. My mentor also inspired me as she made me feel that I was in control of my class. Most of the times if nit all the time, I did not feel intimidated or scared to be observed by my mentor, she made it clear that whatever happens in my class and whatever we discuss is confidential- meaning that my HOD or principal would not know my weaknesses- rather whenever she saw something wrong, she would probe me to get solutions rather than telling me what to do. If something went wrong, she would smile and then during feedback, she would probe me to get the best out of me, in the end, she would make me commit to one aspect that I would work on during the week. My mentor during feedback would lift my spirits up by starting to commend me on the areas that went well. In our normal days, you would hardly get any positive comments from the HOD or principal- it was very inspiring to be affirmed of the effort and hard-work that I had put in.
Interviewer	Is there anything you would like to say about your experience of the mentoring that you received?

Interviewee	If given another chance to be on the programme again, I would not hesitate to volunteer to be on the programme, as teaching has now taught me that learning does not end, and you never stop learning new things
Interviewer	Anything else you would like to add?
Interviewee	No, I think that is it
Interviewer	Thank you very much for your time and your contributions

(30 minutes)