

**An Evaluation of an EFL Mentoring
Programme**

Thesis submitted for the Degree of Doctor of Education
University of Leicester

By
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An Evaluation of an EFL Mentoring Programme

Ewen Arnold

Abstract

This research is an evaluation of the Mentoring Programme run by an EFL School in the Middle East for its newly-qualified, non-native, local teachers, who arrived in groups of seven to eleven at six-monthly intervals between December 1998 and June 2001.

Principles for mentor programme planning and organisation, management, support, mentor selection and mentor quality, mentor training, outcomes and 'goodness of fit' to the context were set up to guide the evaluation within an action research framework. These principles were devised during an evaluation of the first four Mentor Programmes (Programmes 1 to 4). Programme 5 was then evaluated in depth using the principles. Programme 5 was treated as a single case study and an innovation because it was significantly different from the first four programmes in terms of the amount of planning and support provided, and the accent on teacher training in addition to induction.

Information was collected through questionnaires, interviews, documents and a research diary. This information was both quantitative and qualitative in keeping with both the action research framework and the pragmatic approach towards evaluation adopted.

It was found that although Programme 5 had more support, and more time was spent planning and organizing Programme 5 than Programmes 1 to 4, the quality and quantity of learning experiences provided for the mentees was very variable. Reasons for this are suggested, and issues for the School to consider when planning Programme 6 are discussed. Issues relevant to mentoring practice and theory, innovation practice and theory, and the nature of action research are also discussed. The usefulness of principles in guiding mentor programme planning, management and evaluation is assessed.

Acknowledgements

Thanks to Padma for putting up with my marriage to my computer, for cups of tea, for understanding, and for many other things; to my critical friends John Wrigglesworth and Oliver Wright for their perseverance and clarity; to Hugh Busher for his helpful comments and insights; to Suzie Kitchen and the others at Leicester University Education Library for making the distance seem that much shorter; and to all the teachers in the School who contributed.

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Abbreviations and Key Distinctions

Coordinators The three teachers assigned to the programme. The ‘first coordinator’ is also the researcher. The ‘second coordinator’ planned the programme with the first coordinator, and was the researcher’s first critical friend. The ‘third coordinator’ joined the other two when the mentees arrived.

Development A section of the School charged with producing new teaching materials.

EFL English as a Foreign Language.

Induction ‘the initial process of introducing the NE to the people and the organisation of the school’ (Moyley *et al* 1998:25).

Informants & participants ‘Informants’ are all those who provided data for the research, including respondents, interviewees and those who are quoted and mentioned by others in the research diary. This term is used in contrast to ‘participants’, which is used to refer only to those who took part in the mentor programme; the mentees, the mentors, the coordinators, the two STs directly involved and the Head Teacher.

INSET In-service training.

Interviewees All those interviewed formally to collect data for analysis.

Mentoring Programme The continuing programme for mentoring new Saudi teachers in the School, which started in 1998.

Mentor Programmes 1 to 4 The mentor programmes run in the School between December 1988 and December 2000. Also referred to as Programmes 1 to 4.

Mentor Programme 5 The mentor programme run in the School in May and June 2001. This was run for group 5. Also referred to as Programme 5.

Mentor Programme 6 The mentor programme scheduled to run in the School in 11/02. Also referred to as Programme 6.

NE New entrant to the School, whether NQT or student teacher.

NLT New local teacher.

NQT Newly qualified teacher.

ODA The British Government’s Overseas Development Administration, which administers many EFL projects overseas.

P The letter ‘P’ followed by a number refers to one of the principles listed on page xxx.

QLP Quality Localisation Programme (see the footnote to Chapter One).

Respondents All those who completed questionnaires.

SMART objectives SMART is an acronym that applies to objectives. It means Specific, Measurable, Appropriate, Reliable, and Time-Bound

ST Senior Teacher.

Student teacher A teacher who is not yet qualified, who is under training to be a teacher.

Supervised private studies (SPS) All teachers in the School are required to attend SPS approximately once a week. In SPS teachers look after students who work on their own.

TEFL Teaching English as a Foreign language.

TOIL Time off in lieu.

'wasta' An Arabic word with no direct equivalent in English, meaning 'influence' or 'power'. See Cunningham and Sarayra (1993).

Key to Codes used in all Tables

DK = 'don't know'.

DK1 = question not asked of informant

DK2 = question asked but not answered (strayed from question, didn't know answer)

DK3 = ambiguous answer

DK4 = not interviewed

DK5 = not enough information to decide

These codes hold for all tables.

Key to Codes used for Quotations and Citations used in the Text

D Document. The number following the 'D' is the document number. All the documents are listed in Appendix 5. Thus 'D38' refers to Document number 38.

I Interview. The number following the 'I' is the interview number. All interviews are listed in Appendix 4. The number after the colon is the page number in the interview transcript. Thus I12:16 refers to Interview 12, page 16. An 'F' after the page number refers to a footnote to that page, and a 'C' after the number refers to a comment written by the interviewee when he checked the transcript.

RD Research Diary. The number following the 'RD' is the page number in the diary.

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CHAPTER ONE: Introduction

Background

This research involved an evaluation of the Mentoring Programme provided as support for new local teachers (NLTs) arriving in one military EFL school (the School) in an Arabic-speaking country in the Middle East or North Africa.¹ The term 'Mentoring Programme' refers to the ongoing programme that started in 1998 and was continuing in 2001. This consisted of five Mentor Programmes run at six-monthly intervals – Programmes 1 to 5. The term 'Mentor Programme' refers to the short, intensive programme of induction, classroom visits and observation provided for groups of new teachers as they arrived at the School. The Mentoring Programme itself existed as part of a much larger Quality Localisation Programme (QLP), whose purpose was to provide trained locals to teach in and administer English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teaching in military EFL schools in this country.

The framework for this research was similar to an action research framework. Specifically, the research consisted of an evaluation of four Mentor Programmes provided between December 1998 and December 2000 (Mentor Programmes 1 to 4), and a more in-depth evaluation of a fifth programme provided for the group of teachers who arrived in May 2001 (Mentor Programme 5). The evaluation of Mentor Programmes 1 to 4 was *post hoc* and summative. It provided a fairly limited baseline and was used, along with a reading of the literature, to produce principles for mentoring programme evaluation. These principles were used to evaluate Mentor Programme 5. This evaluation started as Mentor Programme 5 was being designed, was continuous throughout the programme, and ended only some months after the Programme itself ended. It yielded far more data than was collected for Mentor Programmes 1 to 4.

The research focussed on the way the programmes were planned, organised and managed, and the perceived effects this had on the interactions between mentors and mentees, the classroom observations and the teaching.

Throughout the research, the researcher was one of the coordinators for Mentor Programme 5. This means he was an involved insider to both the research and Programme 5.

Mentoring

Mentoring is a form of personal and professional partnership which usually involves a more experienced practitioner supporting a less experienced one. Often the less experienced one is

new to the job, organisation or profession (Butcher 2002, McGee 2001). Recently, mentoring has become an important concept in schools in the UK and the US. It has been proposed by the UK government as a panacea for the ills of schools (Stephenson 1997a), and as the solution to training new teachers (DfE 1992, DfE 1993). But ‘mentoring’ is practiced in many different ways and it occurs in many different contexts, ranging from the mentoring of those new to teaching (McGee 2001) to aspiring principals (Low 2001). Its objectives can include grooming employees for management positions or helping new employees with accommodation.

The mentoring in Mentor Programmes 1 to 4 was generally limited to familiarisation, with mentors acting as informants rather than trainers (D43 – D43 refers to the documents listed in Appendix 4). This meant it had aspects of induction such as familiarisation with the School routines, the personnel in the School, and the materials used in the School. The mentoring in Programme 5 was much more formal (Carruthers 1993) and focussed on professional matters. The concern was with providing support while new entrants to EFL teaching settled into the School. This meant that as well as familiarisation, teacher training was seen as part of the mentor’s job. The mentees’ psycho-social needs (Bova 1987), eg for friendship or help with finding accommodation, were not part of the Programme.

The Research Context

The School was established in 1974 to teach English to locals who were training to work in the military as engineers and technicians. From 1974 to 1994 the School employed between fifty and eighty staff and taught between 500 and 1,000 students at any one time. Between 1994 and 2001 the School grew considerably and by 2001 had more than 2,500 students with 165 teaching staff. Until the end of 1998 there had only been four locals employed as teachers in the School. In December of that year four more locals arrived, and four further groups of between seven and eleven NLTs arrived at regular intervals to give a total of forty-three in July 2001.

The students were all male. They were generally low achievers academically, with English which varied on entry, with most being either elementary or ‘false beginner’. The vast majority were aged between twenty and twenty-four. They were not generally well-motivated to learn English. They were often bored and sleepy.

All the teachers in the School were male and employed by a British contractor (‘The Company’). In 2001 about 60% were from Britain, with about 25% from the host country, and 15% from other Arabic-speaking countries. There was one Head Teacher, nine Senior Teachers

(STs) and over 150 teachers. Each Senior Teacher was in charge of a group of teachers. Teachers in the School generally taught the same class all day (four, five or six forty-five minute periods a day). Most teachers stayed with the same class for the whole course of Five Books – about forty weeks. These books were numbered Book One, Book Two and so on. Teacher morale was low, and the School was not unusual in having a fair measure of resignation and cynicism (Arnold 1999), a certain amount of ‘ritualised teaching behaviour’ (Maingay 1988:118-9), and a history of failed initiatives (Arnold 1999).

The QLP and the Mentoring Programme started in December of 1998, when the first group of local teachers undertook a basic TEFL course in the School. They started teaching in the School six months later upon completion. This basic TEFL course was not conducted in the School after May 1999, but in another institution elsewhere in this country. The teachers therefore arrived in the School upon successful completion of the course. At the same time as more local teachers were employed in the School, it underwent two other important changes. Firstly, class sizes rose – staff-student ratios increased from less than 1:11 in 1996 to more than 1:22 in October 2001. Secondly, a new more communicative EFL course was introduced between 1999 and 2001.

The vast majority of the mentees in Programmes 1 to 5 were recently qualified EFL teachers, for whom this was their first appointment. They had completed the basic TEFL course, which involved only two weeks direct teaching experience. The others had minimal experience teaching other subjects in schools and colleges in this country. When they arrived in the School, the mentees had a contract to teach full time, but were on probation for the first three months. After this they were given full time teaching contracts in the School. The mentors were already established teachers in the School with at least four years’ teaching experience, although most of them had many more. Mentor Programmes 1 to 4 were each managed by a pair of Senior Teachers. Mentor Programme 5 was managed by three coordinators with the help of two Senior Teachers.

The context of this research was unusual in three key respects – the particular country, the military and EFL. The country where the research took place was Arabic-speaking, conservative and Islamic. This created its own challenges and opportunities, not least because of very different cultural attitudes between the expatriates in the School and the locals towards such things as loss of face, and ‘wasta’, ie influence or connections (Cunningham and Sarayra 1993). These differences were compounded and complicated because of the military context. Little (1970:183) states that ‘Continued immersion in the total institutional life of military organization is exceptionally oppressive, blocks insight, and contributes to early fatigue and

intellectual despair.’ The School was unusual in having two hierarchies, a military one and a professional one. Finally, the EFL context complicated interactions in mentoring, with both language and expatriate-local relationships being important aspects of the context because the Mentoring Programme consisted of mostly expatriate and experienced native-speaking teachers mentoring inexperienced non-native locals. The interaction of three cultures within the School, Islamic/Arab, military and professional, created its own tensions and opportunities.

The Purpose of the Research

The purpose of the research was twofold. Firstly, to improve the way that mentoring was carried out in Mentor Programme 5 in comparison with Programmes 1 to 4 and to make suggestions for improvements in future programmes. Secondly, to explore and evaluate the use of principles as a device for planning, managing and evaluating mentoring programmes, and through the principles to contribute to mentoring theory and practice. In the literature, neither evaluations of complete programmes nor evaluations of mentor programmes using principles were found.

Both purposes were met through devising principles for the various programme elements (planning and design, management, support, ‘goodness of fit’ to the context, mentor selection and mentor quality, mentor training, outcomes and evaluation). These principles were devised as Mentor Programmes 1 to 4 were evaluated and then they were used to redesign Programme 5 and evaluate it as an innovation. The kinds of knowledge sought in this research included both descriptive and judgemental knowledge of Programmes 1 to 5, and knowledge about the use of specific principles in a specific context.

Professionally, the researcher was concerned with providing a four-week intensive mentor programme for NLTs (Programme 5) that not only familiarised them with the School, but continued their development and training as English language teachers.

Research Questions

The key research questions were:

1. To what extent and in what ways did Mentor Programme 5 meet the principles for mentor programme planning, management and evaluation devised in Chapter Two?
2. To what extent and in what ways was mentor Programme 5 better or worse than Mentor Programmes 1 to 4?

3. What implications are there for Programme 6 and subsequent programmes in the School from the evaluations of Programmes 1 to 5?
4. What implications are there for mentoring theory and practice from the evaluations of Programmes 1 to 5?
5. How useful are these principles for planning, managing and evaluating mentor programmes?

All questions relate directly to the principles, which were derived from both the professional practice of the researcher and the literature reviewed in Chapter Two. The construction of the principles is discussed fully in that chapter. In question 2, 'better' and 'worse' were defined as closeness to / distance from the principles. The 'implications' in question 3 concern trying to make subsequent programmes conform closer to the principles. The principles themselves were grouped under programme 'elements' as follows:

Principles 1 to 3	Programme Design, Planning and Organisation
Principles 4 and 5	Management
Principle 6	Goodness of Fit to the Context
Principle 7	Support
Principle 8	Mentor Selection and Mentor Quality
Principle 9	Mentor Training
Principle 10	Outcomes
Principles 11 to 13	Evaluation

Approach to the Research

This research is a case study of Mentor Programme 5 embedded within an action research spiral covering Programmes 1 to 5 and including the planning of future programmes. This is shown in Figure 1.1 on page 8. This figure is discussed in detail below.

Action Research

Action research is a form of research in which the researcher is also an actor, a change agent. It involves a 'small scale intervention in the real world and a close examination of such intervention' (Cohen and Manion 1985:174).

By Cohen and Manion's rather broad understanding this research was action research. The researcher, as change agent, intervened to change the Mentoring Programme, and evaluated the

effects of this change. However, a tighter definition of action research yields a different perspective.

Action research:

- is educative
- deals with individuals as members of social groups
- is problem-focussed, context-specific and future-oriented
- involves a change intervention
- aims at improvement and involvement
- involves a cyclic process in which research, action and evaluation are interlinked and
- is founded on a research relationship in which those involved are participants in the process. (Hart and Bond 1995:37-8)

This research is educative and concerned with improvement. The key players are viewed both as individuals and in their School roles in relation to the programmes. It is focussed on the problem of the teaching skills of new teachers in the School, which is a specific context. It is oriented towards future mentor programmes. Programme 5 represents a change from the previous programmes. This research, unlike much educational action research (eg Nixon 1981, Hustler *et al* 1986), was not focussed directly on the researcher's classroom. Instead it was focussed on management, on the actions of the researcher and other managers, and on the actions of other key actors (mentors, mentees) involved in the mentoring programmes as a reflection on the way the programme was managed. The research was practical rather than emancipatory or critical (Carr and Kemmis 1986). That is, it was more concerned with achieving practical changes, than with emancipating the participants or challenging existing power structures. Furthermore, others involved in the programmes did not collaborate with the researcher as researchers. However, there was some collaboration on the programme itself, and an attempt was made in Programme 5 to engage the mentors in reflection and to give them some power over decisions made about the programme. The kinds of issues that emerged are remarkably similar to those discussed below.

At the heart of managing change-improvement then is the task of bringing about development in others' understanding and practice while simultaneously attempting to do so with one's own. This double-edged task raises questions concerning the nature of relationships between professionals in bureaucratic, hierarchical organizations. As such, it raises questions about access to information, about the decision-making

processes, about personal and organizational values and concerns. (Hutchinson 1998:390)

The research can be represented as parts of an action research spiral - see Figure 1.1 on page 8 and Table 1.1 below.

Table 1.1 Action Research Stages

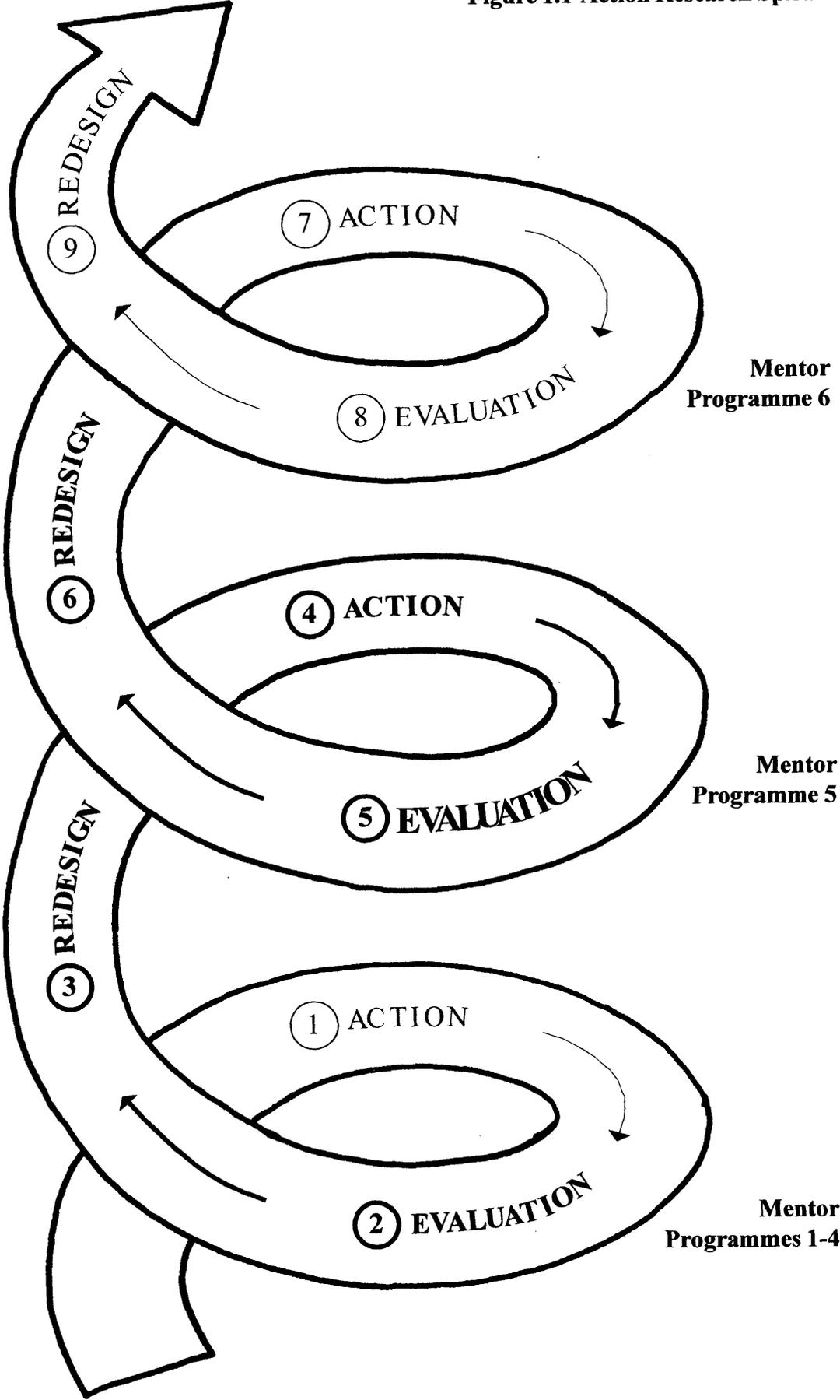
Action Research Stages	Name	Programme	Dates
Stage 1	Action:	Mentor Programmes 1 to 4	12/98 to 11/00
Stage 2	Evaluation:	Mentor Programmes 1 to 4	02/01 to 07/01
Stage 3	Redesign:	Mentor Programme 5	05/01
Stage 4	Action:	Mentor Programme 5	05/01 and 06/01
Stage 5	Evaluation:	Mentor Programme 5	05/01 to 09/01
Stage 6	Redesign:	Mentor Programme 6	09/01 and 10/01
Stage 7	Action:	Mentor Programme 6	11/02
Stage 8	Evaluation:	Mentor Programme 6	11/02 to 12/02
Stage 9	Redesign:	Mentor Programme 7	12/02

Notice that stage 1, and stages 7 to 9 are not in bold. This is because, although relevant, they were not directly part of the research. Stage 1 had happened before the data collection started, and stages 7 to 9 had not taken place when the research was completed. Notice also that the evaluation of Programme 5 is larger than the other stages. This is because, unlike most action research, there is not a balance between stages, the evaluation of Mentor Programme 5 was considered more important than the other stages. Given therefore that the research does not have a cycle of interventions, but only one major intervention, and that the stages are not 'equal' in terms of importance, the action research nature of the study becomes problematic. Another entirely different way of viewing the research is to see it as a particular kind of case study.

Case Study

Evaluation can be viewed as a form of case study in which the main aim is to optimise the understanding of a unique case (Stake 1994), Mentor Programme 5 being regarded as the unique case in this study, and being embedded within the action research spiral. The evaluation of Programmes 1 to 4 in this view would be seen as an extended pilot study for the evaluation of Programme 5, an attempt to understand the issues. Understanding this programme and interpreting it for others are part of case study research. The issues (Stake 1994:219) can be

Figure 1.1 Action Research Spiral



represented by the research questions above. The search for the multiple emic meanings held by those involved in the programmes, eg managers, mentees, mentors, is an important part of case study research. These different meanings, these different views of the phenomena under study, are a form of triangulation (Flick 1992). Seeing Programme 5 as a case thus emphasises uniqueness, issues, emic meanings and understanding. It is important in case study that the details are sufficiently clear for others working in similar situations, on similar programmes, to be able to relate the description in this study to their own situation. 'Reliability' (Bassey 1981:85) is important. Johnson (1994) suggests that case studies should inform both practice and theory.

The tension created by trying to hold both views of the research, as action research and as case study, will be returned to in the Discussion chapter.

Research Methodology

In common with many other evaluations, information was gathered using a mixture of methods and using a variety of instruments (Rea-Dickens and Germaine 1998a). Action research itself 'draws on the widest possible range of methods' (Cohen and Manion 1994:192). The instruments were principally questionnaires, interviews, documents and the keeping of a research diary. Notice that these methods are from both qualitative and quantitative research paradigms. Although the main analysis was done by coding responses using qualitative research techniques (Dey 1993), due to time constraints there was a need to use questionnaires as well. These were used mostly to inform later interviews.

Scope of the Research

This research was small-scale. Approximately twenty-two participants in Programmes 1 to 4 were involved (four managers, fifteen mentors and three mentees), and twenty-three (five managers, eleven mentors or prospective mentors and seven mentees) on Programme 5. Additionally, Programme 5 was short, involving four weeks full-time intensive mentoring preceded by four weeks part time mentor training. However the programme elements, as embodied in principles, were devised to be comprehensive.

Some might say the singularity of the context also limited the study. But marginal contexts can often throw into relief more mainstream contexts such as mentoring in UK and USA schools. One final serious limitation was the second order nature of the method of data collection – not from classrooms or even by recording directly mentor-mentee interaction, but from *post hoc*

interviews, questionnaires and notes. There was, however, a strong principled reason for using these methods. In this military context, where inspection and surveillance were a serious issue, the decision was made when designing Programme 5 to give as much freedom and space to the mentors and mentees as possible.

The Structure of the Thesis

The next chapter reviews the literature on mentoring, especially in an EFL context, in order to derive principles for mentoring. Chapter Three describes the methodology adopted. Chapter Four presents the findings concerning Programmes 1 to 4 collected before Programme 5 was designed. Chapter Five discusses these findings and outlines the decisions made concerning the planning and organisation of Programme 5. Chapter Six presents the other data on Programmes 2 to 4 collected after Programme 5 had started. This rather unusual way of presenting data – presenting the data on Programmes 1 to 4 in two chapters separated by a chapter on the design of Programme 5 – was felt to be necessary since only the data presented in Chapter Four was available to the planners of Programme 5 at the time. Presenting all the data collected on Programmes 1 to 4 in the same chapter would have given a misleading impression of what data was available to the planners. The order of the chapters exactly matches the order in which data was collected and decisions concerning action, evaluation and redesign (Figure 1.1) were made.

Chapters Seven and Eight present the findings concerning Programme 5. Chapter Seven presents the findings from Questionnaires 2 to 4 concerning Programme 5. Chapter Eight presents the other findings concerning Programme 5 – the interviews, documentary evidence and the findings in the researcher diary. Chapter Nine synthesises the findings, evaluating Programme 5 and comparing it with Programmes 1 to 4. It looks at the contribution to mentoring theory and practice, innovation theory and practice, and action research theory and practice from this study. It discusses issues for the School to consider and makes recommendations concerning future mentor programmes in the School. Finally, the usefulness of the principles is assessed.

Chapter Ten makes an overall evaluation of the research, discusses the policy implications and contribution to the field. It presents some limitations of the research, suggestions for future research and ends with some reflections from the researcher.

¹ In order to make it difficult to identify the School, the Thesis contains deliberate fictionalisations, for example, the programme's name, which originally contained the country's name has been changed to the Quality Localisation Programme (QLP). Teachers from the country where the research was carried out as referred to as 'locals'. The ethical issues surrounding identification of the School are discussed in more detail in Chapter Three.

CHAPTER TWO: Literature Review

Principles for Mentoring Programmes

‘Mentoring is largely the art of making the most of a given situation’ (Shea 1992:21).

The purpose of this chapter is to derive principles for mentor programme planning, organization, design, management and evaluation. Throughout, mentor programmes are discussed as innovations. The role of the principles is to inform and guide the evaluation of Mentor Programmes 1 to 4, the redesign, management and evaluation of Programme 5 and the planning of Programme 6 – stages 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 of the Action Research Spiral (Figure 1.1).

Introduction

What are principles?

According to the Collins Cobuild Dictionary (1987:1140) a principle is a ‘general rule that you try to obey in the way that you behave or in the way that you try to achieve something.’ The authors add ‘it is used approvingly’. Principles therefore guide action in a disciplined manner. The principles discussed here guide the action research process. They provide a convenient and systematic way of viewing both the action and the research. They thread the research together, providing a kind of symbol set that remains constant throughout the research. As Kemmis (1986:118) says, ‘there is a certain kind of seduction in discussing principles ... the rhetoric of principles is lofty and stirring.’

Their use is, however, not unproblematic. Operationalising them in research is difficult. Assessing whether they have been met often requires deep qualitative judgments. Additionally, there is some overlap between different principles, and a potential conflict between some principles and others. Finally, many principles discussed here represent ideal states.

Some principles are nested inside others. ‘Main’ principles are therefore indicated by a number alone. ‘Subordinate’ ones have both a number and a letter. The main principles have an ‘obvious’ quality to them. They have face validity. This is no bad thing since illuminating the obvious is one function of evaluations (Parlett and Hamilton 1972).

What is mentoring?

‘We have seen the birth of a new training professional: the school mentor’ (Grenfel 1998:7).

Mentoring is 'a complex, interactive process occurring between individuals of different levels of experience and expertise' (Carmin 1988, cited in Marshall and Edwards 1997:62). It is to be carefully distinguished from 'induction'. In this study 'induction' is taken to mean 'the initial process of introducing an NE [new entrant] to the people and the organisation of the school' (Moyley *et al* 1998:25). This involves the giving of large amounts of information, either in writing or orally, or both, to the new teachers on such matters as the aims and mission of the school, school routines, rules and regulations, statutory requirements, the roles of various staff, and monitoring and assessment policies (Fletcher 2000:173). The limited conception of induction used in this study does not therefore include training on the job. On the other hand, mentoring is taken here to have the aim of providing school-based training and supporting mentee learning. It is concerned with 'transforming the learner into an effective practitioner' (Stephenson 1997c:167). The kind of distinction made here is captured by Watkins (1997:110) who contrasts a programme 'which 'tells' newcomers about the organisation and how it supposedly works, with mentoring which encourages them to seek out actively solutions to problems and reflect on them with their mentors'. One important difference between induction and mentoring is that, as stated here, induction is low risk for an organisation, whereas mentoring is higher risk (Wilkin 1997).

Organisations plan and organise mentoring programmes to avoid the 'sink or swim' phenomenon and to support those who are experiencing something new, either as new entrants to a profession, or for those new to an organisation or a job. Mentoring has become a bandwagon (Furlong 1994, Stephenson 1997a) in recent times. It is proposed by governments as a panacea (Stephenson 1997a) for the ills of schools, and as the solution to training new teachers (DfE 1992, DfE 1993). It is often uncritically assumed that mentoring is 'a good thing'. 'Everybody benefits – mentors, protégés and organisations' (Carruthers 1993:24). In EFL teaching there is very little research on mentoring *per se*, although there is a large literature on teacher education (eg Head and Taylor 1997, Freeman and Richards 1996a, Richards 1998, Richards and Nunan 1990, Wallace 1991), including observation of and feedback to new teachers and teachers under training (Murdoch 2001, Phillips 1997, Wajnryb 1997).

Maynard and Furlong (1993) propose three models of the mentoring process:

- *the apprenticeship model* where the mentee learns by emulating an experienced teacher.
- *the competency-based model* where the mentor becomes a systematic trainer, coaching the mentee in specific competencies.
- *the reflective model* where the mentor stimulates critical reflection and becomes a co-enquirer.

There has been a lot of research into mentoring in the UK and the USA (eg Kerry and Shelton-Mayes 1995, Stephenson 1997a), but very little in EFL worldwide, and very few evaluations of complete programmes. What research there has been has tended to look for generalisations of practice across programmes (eg Glover and Mardle 1995), rather than evaluating a complete programme.

Despite the large literature on mentoring – by 2001 there were over 2,000 entries under ‘mentoring’ in the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) database – it has been criticized for having very little theory (Gibb 1997). ‘In addition there is little valid and reliable data that suggests that mentoring works’ (Gibb 1997:207). What research there has been into mentoring reveals ‘fragmented and inconsistent practices’ (Bush *et al* 1996:124), and ‘disparities in the quality of oversight and help provided’ (Cantor *et al* 1995:118). Stephenson (1997b:209) warns against ‘pale versions of mentoring taken up half-heartedly’.

Planning, Organising and Designing Mentor Programmes

‘To fail to plan is to plan to fail.’ (Fletcher 2000:210).

This section considers the factors that need to be taken into account when mentoring programmes are planned. It is at the planning stage that the programme structure and its contents need considering.

Principle 1

Programmes should be coherent, well planned, well organized and well designed within an overall School-wide development programme.

Various researchers have reported very different perceptions of mentoring, and different mentoring practices between individuals, schools and areas (eg Moyles *et al* 1998, Stephenson 1997a). This has led to calls for coherence in programme design and planning (Bush *et al* 1996, Woods 1996), not just of mentor programmes but of the whole in-service and continuing education programme (Earley and Kinder 1994). Mentoring should not be ‘a bolt-on extra’ (Fletcher 2000:136) but fully integrated into the School development activities.

The list below shows the researcher’s summary of views on how such coherence and integration can be achieved:

- embed the programme within a whole-school policy of staff development (Earley and Kinder 1994) to avoid ‘desert-islanding’ of mentor-mentee pairs (Edwards 1997).
- set goals while remaining flexible (Middlewood 1997).
- clarify and agree roles and status of those involved with the programme (Conway 1997, Rae 1997) so that, for example, ‘the mentor does not have to shoulder the responsibilities that rightly belong with the mentee and his or her line manager’ (Conway 1997:54).
- harmonise the needs of individuals and the school (Woodward M 1991, Wilkin 1997:8)
- build teams of coordinators, managers, mentors and mentees and of all together (Malderez and Bodóczy 1999, Watkins and Whalley 1993).
- ensure the integrity of the programme, eg by avoiding the use of mentees for cover (Moyles *et al* 1998) and not leaving mentees to their own devices once the mentoring is finished (Calderhead and Shorrock 1997:179).

Achieving coherence requires the setting up of support structures and systems, such as a system for dealing with difficulties perceived by either mentor or mentee (Stephenson 1997c). Moyles *et al* (1998:36-7) in their study of mentoring in primary schools in Leicestershire suggest written guidelines for selection of mentors, clarification of whole school expectations of and support for mentoring, clarification of mentor role, a structure of coordination of mentoring, and appropriate training for mentors.

Principle 2

Programmes should provide a variety of structured learning opportunities for all those involved, especially the mentees.

‘Mentors have to take actions to ensure that student teachers are not only presented with learning opportunities but also that they are in a position to learn from these opportunities.’ (Husbands 1997:14).

As regards mentee learning, much has been written on the importance of what happens between mentor and mentee before, during and after the teaching (eg Freeman 1990, Gebhard 1990, Johnston 1991, Lubelska *et al* 2000, Maingay 1988, Sheal 1989). Observation and feedback form the ‘core components’ of mentoring. These need to be carefully structured into any mentoring programme.

Principle 2a

Programmes should provide a variety of different types of observations for mentors and mentees.

Just teaching without any feedback on teaching is generally regarded as of little help to trainee teachers (eg Richards and Crookes 1988:13-14, Wajnryb 1997). Several different types of observation have been suggested in mentoring:

- observation by the mentee of the mentor and other teachers (Anderson and Shannon 1995).
- observation by the mentee of experienced teachers (Richards and Crookes 1988), of 'stars' (Bey 1997:125)
- observation of a variety of different teaching situations, styles and approaches (Brooks and Sikes 1997, Gray 2001)
- observation by the mentee of demonstration lessons given by the mentor and other experienced teachers (Wajnryb 1990).

Wajnryb (1990), Thornbury (2000) and Hockly (2000) are in favour of demonstration lessons; Bolitho (1979) and Malderez and Bodóczy (1999) are against. However, many trainees in some contexts welcome clear modelling (Britten 1997:21). McGrath (1997b) makes the important point that demonstration lessons are useful as illustrations of the thought that goes into lesson planning.

It is not just the fact of observations, but their type that is important. Judgemental observations are generally considered to be dangerous and unhelpful (eg Malderez and Bodóczy 1999, Lubelska *et al* 2000). Malderez and Bodóczy (1999:67-69) in their book on preparing mentors in the Hungarian EFL context call for a separation of observation from interpretation and evaluation or judgement.

Apart from the learning opportunities that are available to mentees, mentors may also gain. For example, they may take the opportunity to reflect on their own practice (Bush *et al* 1996:128, McGee 2001), or there may also be gains in self esteem due to mentors' experience being valued (Van Theilen 1993).

Principle 2b

All observations on the programme should be focussed.

‘Experience of itself does not lead inevitably to learning, nor to reflection, nor to improved practice.’ (Hill 2000:61).

That observation should be focussed (Brookes and Sikes 1997:98), eg by the provision of tasks or pre-prepared schedules, has been long realised (Day 1990, Malderez and Bodóczyk 1999, Mills 1980, Wajnryb 1992). As a result of their experience researching mentoring in over 200 secondary schools throughout England and Wales, Brookes and Sikes (1997) suggest giving the new teacher a say in what is focussed on. Hagger *et al* (1995:40) state that ‘unfocussed observation, without a clear purpose, is generally demoralising and counter-productive.’

On a sobering note, some research casts doubts on the effectiveness of even focussed observation. Rees (1997), for example, suggests that much observation is ineffective because of the tendency to focus on teacher rather than learner behaviour, because of the ‘chimera of the good teacher’, the subjectivity of the process, the effect on the class of being observed and the ‘woods and trees’ effect.

Principle 2c

Mentees should be given quality feedback on their teaching performance.

‘The quality of the feedback is the single most important factor in improving performance’ (Shaw 1992:112).

This principle is regarded as important by almost all researchers into mentoring (eg Brookes and Sikes 1997, Burke 1997, Jacques 1984, Wallace and Wolger 1991, Wajnryb 1997). If no observations of the mentee take place, or if the mentor doesn’t meet with the mentee after s/he has taught, then the mentee cannot take advantage of whatever insights the mentor has.

Providing quality feedback means taking into account the stages and life cycles of novice teachers (Huberman 1989). Different types of feedback are appropriate at different times and with different people (Heron 1989). In particular there should be a balance between support and challenge (Daloz 1986, Hill 2000, Lazarus 2000). This means mentors should not only provide a supportive environment and supportive feedback, they should also challenge them to think about their practice as teachers. See Principle 8e where this is discussed in more detail.

Giving quality feedback involves presenting evidence, for example notes taken while the mentee was teaching or the results of observation tasks. This is one of the most difficult parts of a mentor’s job (Malderez and Bodóczyk 1999:98). It requires the ability to ‘see clearly’

(Malderez and Bodóczy 1999) and good interpersonal skills (Moyles *et al* 1998). Gray (2001:114) presents evidence from her research into language-teacher mentors that some mentors are too 'nice' and stick to giving 'tips'. Arthur *et al* (1997) contrast the pragmatic mentor who offers tips and suggestions, with the discursive mentor enters into a pedagogic dialogue. In this respect, O'Donoghue (1997:80) discusses in her article on training language teachers and teacher trainers why new trainers may 'shy away from giving 'bad news' at all' to their trainee. Jacques (1995:118) even suggests that a 'conspiracy of silence' might surround weak new teachers, with the mentees left to 'muddle through' by their mentor (Glover 1995:42). Wall and Smith (1993) found that some mentors were unwilling to give even formative oral feedback to their mentees.

This reluctance to enter into a dialogue may be because mentors are unwilling to risk their relationship with the mentee (Stephenson 1997c:171), being unsure whether to treat the mentee as a trainee or as colleague (Moyles *et al* 1998:7). 'Mentors need to balance the need for positive relationship with the distance required for professional judgement' (Sampson and Yeomans 1994:70).

Several solutions have been presented to the problem of giving quality feedback. Firstly, a number of different people could provide feedback (Brooks and Sikes 1997). Secondly, mentors could provide options for consideration (Freeman 1990, Malderez and Bodóczy 1999). Thirdly, the mentor could describe behaviour rather than personality, and give specific instances rather than generalisations (Phillips 1997).

Principle 3

The mentoring and induction aspects of the programmes should be kept separate.

Moyles *et al* (1998) argue that induction and mentoring should be separated, at least conceptually if not structurally. This is because of confusion between the two – they cite a UK Government White Paper (DfE 1997) as embodying this confusion (Moyles *et al* 1998:46). Mentors who suffer from this confusion tend to adopt a less developmental view of their job (*ibid*:77). They suggest a senior member of staff doing the induction job and liaising with whoever manages the mentoring (*ibid*:77).

Managing Mentor Programmes as Innovations

'There are three central issues facing the school overall: first, the level of priority given to its involvement in teacher education; second, the level of finance and resource distribution given to

implementing the process; and third, how the management of the process is undertaken.’
(Mardle 1995:153).

The notion of ‘innovation’ employed here is very similar to that employed by Nicholls
(1983:4).

An innovation is an idea, object or practice perceived as new by an individual or
individuals, which is intended to bring about an improvement in relation to desired
objectives, which is fundamental in nature and which is planned and deliberate.

Perceptions, intentions, improvement and planning all seem crucial aspects of the innovation
discussed here. How ‘fundamental’ improvements to changes to practice in an existing
programme are, is a matter of debate, but for the present purposes of drawing up principles for
evaluating the mentor programmes, it does not seem too important.

Principle 4

Managers should possess the requisite skills, abilities and personal qualities to run the
programmes.

The person or persons tasked with coordinating or managing mentoring programmes need a
range of skills and abilities (Brooks and Sikes 1997, Conway 1997). However, much of the
literature on managing teacher education is usually concerned with the skills and abilities
directly related to the substance of the programme itself and ignore ‘change agent’ skills and
abilities related to managing innovations (Kennedy 1997). These ‘change agent’ skills and
abilities include planning and adopting micropolitical strategies to achieve planned ends (Hoyle
1989), recognising that different people involved in the programme may have different goals
(Watkins 1997). Buchanan and Boddy (1992) have analysed the skills and abilities required for
managing innovations into three parallel agendas, which they call the content agenda, the
control agenda and the process agenda. The discussion below follows their framework.

Principle 4a (the content agenda)

Managers should be technically competent and experienced in mentoring and teacher education.

Buchanan and Boddy (1992) feel that managers need to be competent and experienced in the
substance of the changes being implemented. In the case of a mentoring programme this means
understanding the issues involved in teacher education and development, teacher training, and
mentoring. Managers should therefore be experienced and qualified teacher trainers and

experienced mentors. They should also, for example, be models for development (Crowther and Postle 1991, Pedler and Boydell 1985).

Principle 4b (the control agenda)

Managers should be familiar with and competent in standard programme management techniques.

Standard programme management techniques means things such as planning, scheduling, budgeting, resourcing and monitoring techniques, and with setting and meeting deadlines and targets. For a mentoring programme, it might mean managing time through timetabling times for development, for meetings, for teams (White *et al* 1991:126-135), and monitoring and evaluating the progress of the programme and its components (Fidler and Cooper 1992, Oldroyd and Hall 1991). Buchanan and Boddy (1992:28) refer to these as ‘the staple fare of project management courses’.

Principle 4c (the process agenda)

Managers should be competent in personnel management and possess the required personal qualities.

It is this agenda that Kennedy (1997) regards as having been ignored – see Principle 4 above. Managers need to be competent in communications and consultation, in team building, in influencing and negotiation skills, and in the management of enthusiasm and resistance. This involves, amongst other things, managing information and perceptions (Smircich and Morgan 1982) and managing conflict, especially value conflict over aims and contents of the programme (Hodgkinson 1991, White *et al* 1991).

These management tasks implicate all kinds of personal and interpersonal skills and abilities (Argyris and Schön 1974), for example, the ability to build commitment and involvement, while engaging with possible resistance and lack of enthusiasm (Buchanan and Boddy 1992), the ability to promote widespread ownership (Hord 1987, Rudduck 1991), and the ability to motivate and empower others (Riches and Morgan 1989). According to Kinder *et al* (1991) ‘higher order’ outcomes of training, ie those which impact most on practice, are related to the emotional ownership of the training by those receiving in-service training. Knowing when to act and when to stand back is an important management skill. ‘Once the expectations and mechanics of the process of mentoring are agreed, there is little to do but allow people to get on with it in their own way’ (Conway 1997:51). He warns against ‘over-policing’ (ibid:52).

This agenda sometimes involves considerable political sophistication. One example of this would be using the existing reward structure to give mentors some kind of recognition for their contribution, especially if it is on top of their normal workload (Glover and Mardle 1995).

Finally, management of the process agenda requires an understanding of the literature on change and innovation ‘theory’, for example, how to build in sustainability (Miles 1983) through structures like counterparts (Arnold and Sarhan 1994), the need to retain elements of ‘the old’ (previous mentor programmes) to reduce resistance and to remain plausible to participants in the innovation (Dushku 1998, Emerson and Welford 1997), and the need to ‘build in what is familiar’ (Stephenson 1994:231). Successful projects need to be, amongst other things, aligned with values of the institution (Markee 1997). The implementation stage of an innovation, which is frequently forgotten, is most important (Hord 1987:76-79).

Principle 5

Programmes should be managed to make success more likely.

Principle 4 concerned the *how* of management. This one concerns the *what*. With any mentoring programme several practical decisions need to be made, for example, about the rank of the person in charge, the programme length and how mentors and mentees are to be matched. Beardon *et al* (1992) suggest having one senior person in charge of induction, appraisal and further development of all teachers.

Many mentoring programmes in the UK are one year or more long (Glover and Mardle 1995). This is because ‘growth in teaching is a process that occurs across a considerable period of time’ (Elliott and Calderhead 1995:41). Minimally, the programme should be long enough for the mentees to move from ‘survival’ stage to the ‘discovery’ stage at least (Huberman 1989). See below, Principle 8e, where novice teacher stages are discussed in more detail.

The procedure for matching mentor and mentee is important (Gay 1997). ‘Chemistry is important’, as Fagan and Walter state (1982:117). Where mentor and mentee do not choose each other, there is a need for partners to be able to end the relationship if it is not working (Marshall and Edwards 1997).

Managers will need to be aware of the potential detrimental impact of mentor programmes in their school and take steps to minimize them, for example the possible effects on student learning (Glover 1995).

Principle 5a

Managers should attempt to secure mentee commitment to the programme..

Programmes will not work unless mentees are committed to them (Gray 2001:70). It is the manager's responsibility to try to secure this commitment. Orientation sessions for both mentors and mentees can help foster such commitment (Johnson and Sullivan 1995).

Principle 5b

Managers should be committed to the programme.

Without manager commitment, which means managers taking the time to understand what mentoring involves and setting time aside for the programme, the programme will not succeed. Glover and Mardle (1995:156-7) discuss some of the problems of a lack of commitment, for example, mentor frustration and loss of staffroom support.

Goodness of Fit

Principle 6

Programmes should 'fit' the social, political, economic and cultural context.

This principle concerns how the programme reacts to the context it is located within. Kennedy (1999a) suggests that programmes such as the mentor programme need to 'fit' the context. They need to adapt to the different systems they are embedded within (Kennedy 1999b). Fullan (1991) argues that changes should be adapted to the local skills, beliefs and concepts, to the time available and to local support. They should take into account the existing cultural beliefs of practitioners, what Holliday (1994) calls the taken-for-granted institutional culture.

This 'goodness of fit' does not just apply to the project management, but includes research methodology, classroom methodology, the activities and content of the programme itself, its overall design, and evaluation. Holliday (1994) would go further and argue that programmes should also systematically investigate the context. In some ways, action research projects *are* investigations into the context through action. Such action will, of course, change the context, or in Kennedy's (1999b) terms 'split' from it.

Support

'Unless mentoring is properly supported, resourced, delivered, administered and evaluated we will have significant problems as we try to use it to face the difficulties of the present time' (Gay 1997:20).

Principle 7

Programmes should be supported by their environment.

Various kinds of support are required for teacher education programmes to succeed. In many in-company mentoring programmes, this support is both professional and social or psycho-social. The professional would include help preparing lessons, feedback on teaching, the opportunity to observe experienced teachers, in short the 'core components' described in Principle 2 above. The social, or psycho-social include counseling, assistance with personal matters such as help with accommodation, and friendship (Bova 1987:123).

Kouraogo (1987) separates support into two kinds, material and administrative. Additionally, a third kind of support, has to exist. This kind of support is less concerned with the tangible aspects of the school, and more to do with the atmosphere, or 'ethos' of the whole school being supportive.

Principle 7a

Programmes should be provided with enough suitable-quality material resources.

This kind of support is outlined by Kouraogo (1987) as such things as access to reprographic equipment, audio visual equipment and reference books. One kind of support is the provision of mentor and mentee handbooks explaining the scheme and the school (Coleman 1997:155, 157, Busher and Saran 1995b:200).

Principle 7b

Programmes should be provided with enough quality administrative support.

This kind of support reflects the way the school is managed. It includes such things as information and structures. Others have stated this kind of support not in terms of provisions, but rights, such as reduced timetable (Bey 1997), opportunities for structured observation of experienced teachers by mentees and by observation of mentees by mentors (Earley and Kinder 1994), and timetabled opportunities for the mentors and mentees to meet (Bush *et al* 1996:127). Support structures, such as workshops and meeting times for planning and feedback, may need to be created.

Real useful administrative support often means the provision of time. Teachers who are also mentors have more to do. Finding time to meet was the most important problem in pre-service and in-service EFL mentoring programmes researched by Phillips-Jones (1989). The timetable itself can act as a major constraint on the activities of mentor and mentee (Brooks and Sikes 1997:55-58, Butters 1997:99). 'Mentors need to spend time talking with their trainees and this

simply cannot be squeezed into the normal day of a teacher. Mentors need extra time' (Beardon *et al* 1995:87). Research findings indicate that 'much discussion [between mentors and mentees] takes place at times which are inappropriate, short and spasmodic' (Devlin 1995:69). For example, Geen (2001:27) found that most feedback sessions were between five and fifteen minutes long and took place immediately after the class. Campbell (1989:51) calls this 'snatched time', ie breaks between lessons, or quickly over coffee. This requirement for time is not always understood. 'It is recognized by many that the time requirements for 'quality mentoring' are not always understood by senior management.' (Mardle 1995:156). Recognising formally that mentoring is important, by for example, making time for meetings, has real as well as symbolic advantages (Cunningham and Eberle 1993, Garvey 1999).

Principle 7c

The atmosphere of the school should be conducive to development.

'Teachers will benefit only from INSET activities that are offered within a non-threatening, trusting and caring context.' (Kouraogo 1987:174).

Just as important as the tangible environmental factors are the less tangible. The whole ethos of the school will affect the development of new teachers. This is because 'many student-teachers quickly conform to the traditional and prevailing practices of their supervising teacher' (Murray 1999:71). 'The beliefs and attitudes of the people with whom they [student teachers] work in schools are inevitably highly influential, and could well make the difference between a 'good' teacher who strives for excellence and one who accepts mediocrity and the status quo, aiming for no more than survival' (Gray 2001:15).

Bey (1997) argues from a US perspective that the school principal or head has a major role to play in creating an environment conducive to teacher development and in directly supporting the programme. The attitude of middle managers and other teachers in the school towards the programme, and towards each other, was important in the 20 UK secondary schools researched by Glover and Mardle (1995). The institution has a crucial role in encouraging or discouraging reflection on practice (Van Lier 1996).

The quality of talk in the school is crucial (Bassegy 1995:34). Continuous professional development is most likely to occur when 'teachers engage in frequent, continuous and increasingly concrete and precise talk about teaching practice' (Little 1982:331). Mentors must therefore be capable of, and interested in engaging in systematic discussion of practice (Fish 1995).

The history of the institution is an important factor in creating the right atmosphere for development. For example, a history of failed innovations can be important in creating a supportive environment. White *et al* (1991:187) ask: ‘Does the school have a track record of successfully implementing innovation? Or is there a succession of unsuccessful experiences, which has created an atmosphere of cynicism, disillusionment and apathy?’

Stephenson (1997c:176) lists the environmental factors which promote successful mentoring. These include the quality of learning, the professional climate of the school and school organization.

Mentor Selection and Mentor Quality

‘Not everyone can, or should be, a mentor. Simply being a good teacher is not enough, for mentoring is not a straightforward extension of being a school-teacher. Different perspectives, abilities, aptitudes, attitudes and skills are necessary’ (Brookes and Sikes 1997:66).

Principle 8

Mentors should be of the highest possible quality.

One of the most important management jobs in mentor programmes is the selection of suitable mentors. Not everyone has the necessary personal and professional qualities to do the job (Phillips-Jones 1989). ‘It takes a particular constellation of skills, attitudes, knowledge and action to enable even an expert classroom teacher to become an expert mentor’ (Fletcher 2000:8). Mentors require desirable personal qualities such as openness, approachability, sensitivity and empathy (Bolam *et al* 1995, Brooks and Sikes 1997, Malderez and Bodóczyk 1999). They require considerable interpersonal skills (Brooks 1996), expertise, judgement and the ability to make the implicit explicit (Lazarus 2000). Moyles *et al* (1998) suggest that the mentor needs to understand the role, have a high level of interpersonal and professional skills and be committed to both the NE’s professional development and their own. Of these, commitment is probably the most important (Dunnill and Price 1996).

One might think that senior staff would make ideal mentors, and research in the UK indicates that mentors are usually senior staff (Devlin 1995:65). This also seems to be what some mentees want (Rothera *et al* 1995). Rothera *et al* argue that having senior staff as mentors enhances the prestige and credibility of the programme. However, if the mentors selected are senior staff it adds hierarchy to the list of asymmetries (Cochrane-Smith and Paris 1995). Additionally, senior staff may not be available when needed (Moyles *et al* 1998). Lee and

Wilkes (1995) found conflicting demands on mentors' time when they had significant managerial posts.

Principle 8a

Mentors should have the requisite personal and interpersonal skills.

Brookes and Sikes (1997:33) list some of the personal qualities as 'honesty, openness, sensitivity, enthusiasm, sense of humour, organization, self-awareness and reflectiveness.' Indeed, personal factors such as being approachable were considered to be the most important attributes of a mentor by the mentees in Moyles *et al* (1998), and in Wall and Smith (1993) whose mentees identified being enthusiastic and committed, being approachable, having a sense of humour, and being honest and frank, as important attributes of supportive mentors. To this can be added interpersonal skills such as the ability to communicate effectively, the ability to listen effectively, to criticise constructively and the ability to empathise (Wall and Smith 1993). This latter is especially important if the new teacher is at the early stages of development and concerned with survival (Bey 1997). The mentor will need to be able to build and maintain a relationship with the mentee, and must be committed to what that entails personally (Watkins 1997).

Principle 8b

Mentors should have the requisite professional qualities

Beardon *et al* (1992:5) analyse the professional qualities a mentor needs. They list these as:

- a first class knowledge of their professional subject.
- an outstanding record as a teacher.
- a thorough understanding of and ability to talk about successful classroom practice.
- the ability to debrief trainees after observing them at work and to help them reflect on what they observe and do.
- an insight into the nature of professional development and how to counsel trainees on it.
- an understanding of how initial training fits into teacher education as a whole.

In keeping with the accent on learning opportunities – Principle 2 above – one could add the ability to recognise and exploit learning opportunities as they present themselves (Fletcher 2000).

These professional qualities and skills obviously depend on the experience, professionalism and quality of the teacher. Bey (1997) indeed suggests mentors should be ‘star’ teachers.

Principle 8c

Mentors should be comfortable with the core practices of mentoring.

Minimally, the mentor requires to be *au fait* with the ‘core’ practices of mentoring. This is necessary to avoid ‘arbitrariness and idiosyncrasy’ in practices (Reid and Jones 1997). These core practices are:

- the ability to model appropriate behaviour, including teaching.
- the ability to make explicit their craft knowledge.
- the ability to observe lessons analytically.
- the ability, mentioned above, to give appropriate and useful feedback on teaching.
- the ability to assess and analyse a teacher’s strengths and weaknesses, and to spot weak teachers.

(This list was adapted from Fletcher 2000, Jacques 1995, Lazarus 2000, and Malderez and Bodóczyk 1999.)

Modelling goes beyond ‘teaching and general classroom management’ to role modelling such things as enthusiasm (Malderez 2001) and commitment and professionalism (Malderez and Bodóczyk 1999). Modelling could also include modelling lesson planning (Devlin 1995).

One of the hardest things for a mentor to do is to make available their own (usually tacit) craft knowledge. ‘Teachers’ knowledge base and their ‘thinking’ is extremely complex and difficult to articulate and pass on to students’ (Furlong and Maynard 1995:62). This is because being able to talk about a complex skill such as teaching is very different from being able to perform it, especially when it has become ‘automatic’ (Tomlinson 1995).

‘One of the potentially useful things a mentor can do is to watch the mentee teaching, but if it is not handled sensitively it can cause problems or friction, and can even be damaging or dangerous.’ (Malderez and Bodóczyk 1999:66). Observing in a way that is useful for mentees requires practice (Malderez and Bodóczyk 1999) and involves preparation beforehand, recording what has been sensed, and interpretation and judgement after the observation (Wajnryb 1992). Malderez and Bodóczyk (1999) point out the need to separate the observation *per se* from the interpretation and any judgement that may follow from the interpretation.

Fletcher (2000) argues that giving feedback is probably the most skillful part of the mentor's role. It requires accurate observation and considerable understanding of the learner. Any feedback should encourage reflection and action on that reflection (Fletcher 2000). It should be appropriate to the mentees' needs and concerns and their stage of development (Furlong and Maynard 1995). Principle 8e discusses this in more detail. Feedback should go beyond the obvious to include high inference as well as low inference skills (O'Donoghue 1997). The discussion below follows O'Donoghue (1997) and Richards (1987). Low inference skills are easily identifiable procedural techniques that can be stated in terms of behaviour, eg drilling and elicitation techniques, board layout, giving instructions, eliciting and concept checking techniques (O'Donoghue 1997). They are atomistic. High inference skills are those 'in which the relationship between form and function is less direct' (O'Donoghue 1997:78), for example effective classroom management, successful manipulation of classroom dynamics, and teacher sensitivity to student difficulty. They not easily identifiable at a stage in a lesson, and are more holistic. According to O'Donoghue (1997:78) new trainers tend to focus on low inference teaching skills, for example board layout, giving instructions, eliciting and concept checking techniques. Effective teaching cannot be described only in terms of low-inference skills or competencies (Brown 1975).

Feedback should be honest (Fletcher 2000) and include giving bad news as well as good (O'Donoghue 1997). Above all, it should involve a give and take, a professional dialogue (Geen 2001).

One important role for mentors in the school system in UK is that of assessor. This requires that the mentor perform a balancing act between support and assessment, which is not always easy (Andrews 1987). Part of the assessment role is the early identification of weak teachers (Jacques 1995, Moyles *et al* 1998). Brookes and Sikes (1997:114) suggest dealing with problems early and at a low level will help weak teachers once identified.

Principle 8d

Mentors should establish a trusting and working relationship with the mentee.

The quality of this relationship is critical to the success of mentor programmes (Bridge 1997, Calderhead and Shorrock 1997, Elliott and Calderhead 1995, Wynch 1986). Mentor and mentee must trust each other and it is up to the mentor to take positive action to gain the trust of the mentee (Fowle 2000). However, the relationship will not work if the mentee does not take part. 'Even the most accomplished mentor is powerless if the mentee refuses to accept their share of the responsibility' (Gray 2001:70). See earlier, principle 5a.

The first meeting is crucial since it may set the tone for the whole relationship (Marshall and Edwards 1997). The relationship should not end when the programme ends but should be lasting since new teachers require support long into their careers (Anderson and Shannon 1995). Such a long lasting relationship needs space, privacy and time to develop (Gay 1997, Conway 1997).

Establishing a lasting and trusting relationship will be difficult due to inherent asymmetries of experience, learning and power. These asymmetries exist whether or not the mentor is a mentee's line manager and concern issues such as the degree of direction in the relationship, whether or not mentee assessment is part of the mentor's brief (Gay 1997:25), the degree of hierarchy in the organisation itself (Cochrane-Smith and Paris 1995), perceptions of mentor and mentee roles, and how these are co-constructed in interaction (Lucas 2001).

Some results of this power imbalance on trainer-trainee relationships during observation and feedback in preservice and in-service EFL training are discussed by Phillips (1997). These are listed below:

- the talking time of trainers was longer than trainees.
- pre-service trainers made more negative comments than positive ones.
- some trainers 'were so anxious to be 'supportive' that they did not tackle real weaknesses in the teacher's (sic) lesson' (ibid:85).
- silence was a frequent response by trainees to feedback.

Phillips (1997) points out that mentee silence is difficult to interpret.

Principle 8e

Mentors should provide both support and challenge to mentees appropriate to their stages of development and concerns.

'Challenge is a matter of right (for novices) and of responsibility (for mentors)' (Martin 1996:52).

Without support little learning will take place. How much support the mentor gives the mentee is rated as important by mentees (Glover 1995). But some authors (eg Day 1993), argue that without challenge no learning will take place. They think the mentor should, at appropriate times, be devil's advocate (Martin 1996) or 'agent provocateur' (Elliott and Calderhead 1995:44). This will require a balance between support and challenge (Daloz 1986), a balance

which is not easy to achieve (Maynard and Furlong 1995, McIntyre and Hagger 1993). For example, Calderhead and Shorrock (1997:177), in their in-depth longitudinal study of student teachers in the UK, report that 'although mentors generally found it easy to be supportive, they found it much more difficult to be constructively critical'. Gray (2001) presents evidence that some mentors are too 'nice', rarely challenging their mentees. One reason for this may be risk avoidance. Dunne and Bennett (1997:226) report that there is a 'shared desire to maximize comfort and minimize risks during teaching practice' for both mentors and mentees.

Mentors need to select questions that will prompt their mentees to think about their practice. Getting mentees to think about their practice is not easy (Richerts 1990).

New teachers are assumed to go through several stages on their way to becoming 'fully fledged'. During the first three years, called 'career entry' by Huberman (1989), the themes are 'survival' and 'discovery'. After this, 'stabilisation' sets in (ibid). Depending on the environment the survival stage may last a long time (Woods 1984). There is a large literature on novice teachers in the survival and discovery stage of learning to teach (eg Berliner 1987, 1994, McIntyre and Hagger 1993). This stage has been broken down into three separate sequential stages :

1. Concern with self
 2. Concern with teaching actions and students' behaviour
 3. Concern with learning
- (Campbell and Wheatley 1983).

The discussion below follows Campbell and Wheatley (1983). In the first stage, 'concern with self', the new teacher is concerned with coping with the complexities of the classroom. In the second stage new teachers are able to better deal with classroom challenges, but the focus is on their own actions rather than student learning. Additionally at this stage many student teachers are concerned with discipline and classroom atmosphere. In the third stage the focus switches to individual students and their learning (Campbell and Wheatley 1983). One can view teachers as moving from 'uninformed optimism' before they meet real students to 'informed pessimism' soon afterwards (Brandes and Ginnes 1989); the next two stages are 'realism' and 'informed optimism'. Their research suggests a hierarchy of needs, with teachers needing basic classroom control in order to survive and move on to other concerns, such as student learning (Brumfit and Rossner 1982, Stevick 1976). Such a restricted nature of beginning teacher thinking has been challenged (Burn *et al* 2000), and is obviously a simplification since there are many different routes to becoming a teacher (Calderhead and Shorrock 1997).

Mentor programmes should therefore establish the mentee's stage of development, ie what their concerns are, and what they need (Parrott 1988).

Mentor Training

'Programme success is very much dependent on the training given to mentors and protégés.'
(Zey 1989:50).

Mentor training is one of the keys to success of any programme. Standardizing provision mentor training can help mitigate the disparities in the quality of help provided by individual mentors (Cantor *et al* 1995:118).

Principle 9

Programmes should involve mentor training in the core practices of mentoring.

'Even when individuals want to serve as mentors and possess all the desirable characteristics of effective mentors, they still need additional training to carry out this important role' (Daresh and Playko 1992:149).

Educating and training teachers is very different from teaching school children (Wilson 1994). However, not everybody sees mentor training as being necessary, some teachers and even school managers think being a good classroom teacher is enough (Moyley *et al* 1998, Phillips-Jones 1989). Even some mentors do not realize that they need training (Devlin 1995). Despite this, the arguments for mentor training seem overwhelming.

Firstly, the mentor's role is complex and multifaceted (Sampson and Yeomans 1994). It involves, amongst other things:

... listening to students, modelling teaching and general classroom management, analysing and discussing their own practice, observing students, negotiating with students their own learning goals, supporting students as they need, encouraging focussed observations of classroom events, providing constructive criticism for students, highlighting what students can learn from analysing practice (Lazarus 2000:107-8).

Experienced teachers alone cannot perform the mentor's role adequately without training due to the interpersonal skills required and the need to be able to make their craft knowledge explicit

(Freeman 1991, Polyani 1958). Additionally, Evertson and Smithey (2000) and Wubbels *et al* (1987) found that mentors were more successful if trained.

According to research conducted by Joyce and Showers (1982) training in a new skill like mentoring must have all the following five elements if the learning is to be successfully transferred.

- Theory
- Demonstration
- Practice
- Feedback
- Coaching.

The types of training required by mentors is listed in Moyles *et al* (1998:11) as training in:

- the specific skills of structured observation and classroom evaluation.
- how to ask questions which prompt NEs to think in greater depth about pedagogy and classroom practices.
- the purposes of receiving and giving oral constructive criticism to another member of the profession.
- presenting constructive criticism to NEs in written form.
- target setting and action planning with NEs.

Developing trainers' skills in conducting observation and giving feedback is difficult (Murdoch 2001, Phillips 1997, Woodward T 1991, 1992) and requires practice (Malderez and Bodóczyk 1999). Self observation (Richards and Nunan 1990) and peer observation (Malderez and Bodóczyk 1999, Threadgold 2001) have both been suggested as ways of improving observation skills.

Little has been written about the training in interpersonal skills and communication skills that is needed for most mentors (Moyles *et al* 1998). And yet, if the relationship between mentor and mentee is crucial (Principle 8d above), this would seem important.

One value of training is in providing opportunities for mentors to talk with other mentors, particularly those more experienced (Evans 1995). This requires establishing the mentors as a team so that they can support each other (Malderez and Bodóczyk 1999, Watkins and Whalley 1993). Training workshops can also encourage ownership by mentors (Freeman 1997).

Mentor training courses vary massively in length. The mentor training and development courses run for mentors of EFL teachers in Hungary were designed for 120 hours, 90 of which were contact hours (Malderez and Bodóczy 1999:2). Those reported by the mentors in Jacques (1995:113) in the UK were 13 days long. Three-day workshops on observation and feedback were reported in Sri Lanka by Wallace and Wolger (1991), and two half-day workshops by Moyles *et al* (1998).

Outcomes

Principle 10

The programmes should produce improved student learning and improved mentee teaching as outcomes.

Mentoring is not done for its own sake. Although there may be benefits to the mentors and to the School from running a mentor programme, the main aim must be an improvement in learning for students and in teaching skills for mentees. Programmes should be able to demonstrate that they enhance student achievement, or, at the very least, improve performance by making teachers more effective (Guskey 2000).

Programme Evaluation

‘There has been very little by way of objective evaluation of the mentoring process’ (Gay 1997:23).

Evaluation is a technical, moral, educational and political activity (Cooley and Lohnes 1976:9, after Dewey 1939). It involves the principled, systematic collection of evidence to enable both description and judgement to take place. A worthwhile evaluation leads to improvements in educational programmes and stimulates learning and understanding. It feeds into decision making, planning, action and change. At best it should be illuminative (Parlett 1981), responsive (Woodward T 1991:233) and developmental (Rea-Dickens and Germaine 1998b:11-12). It should be viewed holistically (grounded) within a specific context. Evaluations provide experiential knowledge to be shared through dialogue with all participants (Rea-Dickens and Germaine 1998b:14). The process should encourage reflection by all. One function of evaluations is to illuminate and clarify values (Cooley and Lohnes 1976).

Stephenson talks of evaluation in mentor programmes being ‘left to one side’ (Stephenson 1997c:171). This study was an attempt, amongst other things, to address that problem. The evaluation was integral to the research and to the programme.

Principle 11

The evaluation should involve the systematic collection of the relevant evidence necessary to promote the improvement of the programmes.

This principle is adapted from Brown (1989:223). The most important words seem to be systematic, relevant, evidence and improvement.

Relevant evidence, in keeping with the understanding of evaluation outlined above, should illuminate the complexity of the situation. It should include both a description of the mentor programmes, as well as analysis and judgement of the programmes and their component parts, for example, the mentor training, the feedback given to mentees. It should include attitudes and perspectives, highlighting different perceptions of the programmes and their components (Kemmis 1986). It should provide a thick description of the context, including the pre-existing conditions to provide some kind of baseline (Bray and Luxton 1999).

The main purpose of action research is improvement, indeed action research can be validated by the action that results from it (McNiff 1992). The programmes will therefore be judged against the principles, for example the way the programmes were managed (P4, P4a, P4b, P4c), mentor quality (P8), and outcomes (P10).

Principle 11a

Evaluation should be built into programme design.

Evaluation should be included from the planning stage (Brown 1989, Rea-Dickens and Lwaitama 1995). It should start before the programmes start, continue throughout and be summative at the end. All programme elements should be evaluated. This is one way of ensuring the evaluation is systematic.

Principle 11b

Programmes should be evaluated against the principles set out in this chapter.

This means the evaluation should be principled, and involves qualitative judgements.

Principles were chosen rather than criteria because the nature of the research is exploratory and illuminative. In the absence of any evidence concerning the early mentor programmes (1 to 4), apart from a couple of documents (eg D39) and a few staffroom comments, it was very difficult to establish criteria at the outset.

Principle 12

The evaluation should encourage dialogue and reflection and the findings should be fed back to the school.

Part of the ethical or moral imperative for those conducting evaluations is that they should be fair (Soltis 1990), recognize the rights of those who might be affected by the evaluation (Beretta 1992:18), and encourage informed debate and reflection (Kemmis 1986:118). This process of dialogue and reflection may produce both positive and negative reactions. 'Evaluation has to be accepted as challenging, uncomfortable, untidy and potentially disturbing to an institution's equilibrium. For evaluation must exist, at least in part to expose and clarify value issues' (Adelman and Alexander 1982:161). Such value clarification may unmask gaps between realities and espoused realities (Adelman and Alexander 1982:168), gaps between what people say and what they do (Kember 2000). Love (1991:11) describes the internal evaluator as a change agent, and talks about 'friction between managers and evaluators' being the rule 'rather than the exception' (ibid:6). The politics of conducting evaluations make things difficult for insiders to the institution, leading to possible role conflict and torn loyalties (Love 1991:3, 59). Further ethical issues of researching where one works are discussed in the next chapter.

Fletcher (2000:146) asks 'What are the mechanisms by which the school will feed back what it learns about mentoring to itself to improve future practices in school?' These mechanisms need to be designed into the evaluation from the start.

Principle 13

The evaluation should be reflexive, ie the evaluation itself should be evaluated.

Kemmis refers to the evaluation of the evaluation as meta-evaluation (1986:132). Thus attitudes towards the evaluation, towards the research and towards the programme will all need to be evaluated. Adelman and Alexander (1982:187) stress that all aspects of decision making including the evaluative process itself will need evaluating.

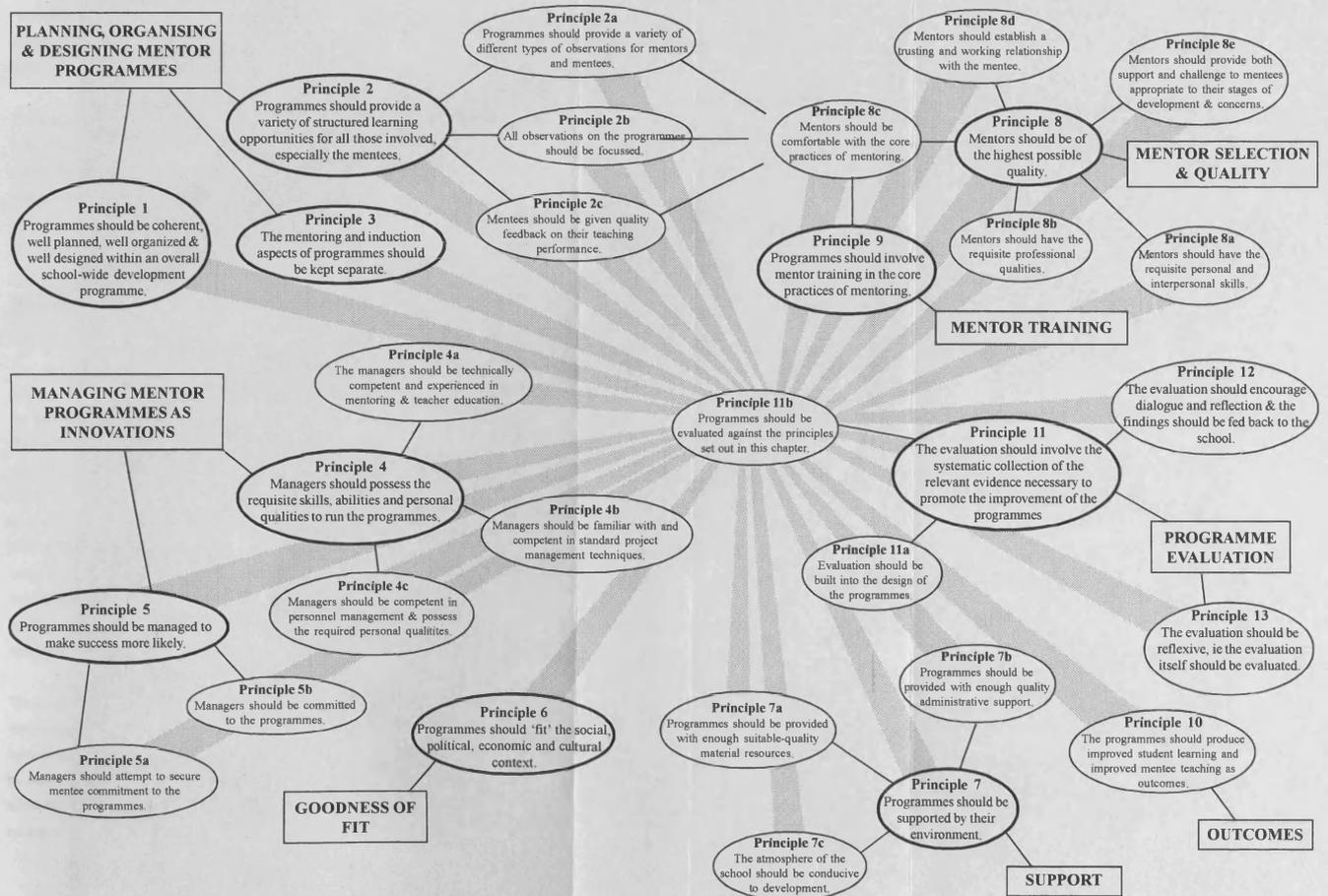
Summary: Interrelationships between the Principles

Figure 2.1 (page 36) shows possible relationships and interrelationships between the principles. The rays emanating from Principle 11b show the principles of Programme 5 to be evaluated, ie all of them. This shows the all-embracing nature of evaluation, and the fact that evaluation is recursive, ie the evaluation should also evaluate itself reflexively.

Figure 2.1 indicates, for example, the close interrelationship between structured learning opportunities, mentor training and mentor selection and quality, especially as regards the core mentoring practices of observation and feedback. These form a significant part of the evaluation effort, as shown by the rays. What the figure does not bring out is the possible conflicts between principles hinted at in the introduction of this chapter. For example, goodness of fit (P6), involving as it does some degree of adaptation to the status quo, might require some serious compromises to be made where, for example, managers do not have all the required skills and abilities (P4 and P5), or where there is very little history of in-school training and development (P9).

These principles have been derived from research carried out in a variety of contexts, including some outside of education (eg Conway 1997, Freeman 1997). Most of the research was conducted in the UK, with a little in the US (eg Bey 1997). Of those studies conducted in educational settings, very few relate to EFL. Malderez and Bodóczyk (1999) is almost unique in being a study carried out outside the US or the UK and concerned with EFL. One major aim of this research (research question 5, Chapter One) was to evaluate to what extent the principles, derived from such diverse contexts, apply to the School.

Figure 2.1 Mentor Programme Principles



CHAPTER THREE: Methodology

‘Not to examine one’s practice is irresponsible; to regard teaching as an experiment and to monitor one’s performance is a responsible professional act.’ (Rudduck 1984:6, cited in Smyth 1991:118)

The purpose of the research was both to improve the way that mentoring was carried out in the School and to explore and evaluate the use of principles as a device for planning, managing and evaluating mentoring programmes. This chapter describes the researcher’s role, the research context, the nature of the research, the research design, the methods and instruments used to collect evidence about the programmes, the methods of analysis of that evidence, and issues arising from the methodology, including ethical and validity ones.

Researcher Role and Research Context

‘The chameleon too is something of a role model.’ (Stake 1995:104).

The role of this researcher, his position, status, expertise, judgement and personal reputation in the School were heavily implicated at all stages in data collection, analysis and action based on the evidence. The researcher was called upon to reflect upon his own practice and the practice of others. He was an insider, a change agent (Hoyle 1970), who attempted to achieve changes through influence as much as making decisions himself. The researcher was therefore not neutral *pace* Parlett (1976, 1981). I was an involved insider. The use of the personal pronoun here is deliberate and seems unavoidable. It highlights the involvement. The fact that the study involved *me researching* where *I work* had serious implications on all aspects of the research, from role conflict to issues of ethics and validation. Ely *et al* (1991:25) comment on role conflict and the problem of (sometimes) being ‘too close to home’. The exact role of the researcher in the programme and in the School is discussed at the end of Chapter Ten.

The context too exerted considerable influence on the research. One purpose of the evaluations was to assess the impact of the context on the programme. Fullan (1999) argues that, when innovating, learning and transfer take place not by studying and ‘copying’ the reform itself but by studying the exact context of the reform. The methodology was therefore not designed to allow for direct generalisations but to provide enough rich contextual information for the readers to compare contexts and make comparisons themselves.

The most important features of the context affecting the methodology at the outset seemed to the researcher to be:

- the military nature of the School with its accent on surveillance (doors are kept open by order so that *inter alia* officers can check what is happening in the classrooms)
- the lack of autonomy such surveillance implies for teachers
- the history of failed innovations in the School (Arnold 1999)
- the atmosphere of resignation and cynicism in the School (Arnold 1999).

These four features made ‘normal’ research tools such as tape recorders or video recorders problematic. They therefore directly impacted on the kinds of data that could be collected. They also affected the way that the research was conducted. For example, to what extent to make notes of staffroom and corridor conversations openly, and to what extent to make them covertly was a real dilemma. Appearing to ‘spy’ on colleagues would certainly have worsened the atmosphere at work. The solution was to make notes after the event and to check anything that was used with ‘informants’ before use. This example also illustrates the way that ethical issues can be entangled with issues of method and validation, discussed further below.

The Methodology of Action Research and Case Study

For the purposes of methodology it matters little whether one views this research as action research or case study since both use a wide variety of instruments. Viewed as case study the research attempted to provide detailed enough information for others to relate the context and the events to their situation. It attempted to retain the emic perspectives of those involved. The preservation of multiple perspectives became one aim of the methodology. Appreciating the uniqueness and complexity of the case, and its ‘embeddedness and interaction with its contexts’ (Stake 1995:16) became important. As case study the aim of this research was not to make direct generalisations from the case, but to enable ‘fuzzy generalisations’ or ‘naturalistic generalisations’. ‘The fuzzy generalisation arises from studies of singularities and typically claims that it is possible, or likely that what was found in the singularity will be found in similar situations elsewhere’ (Bassey 1999:12). ‘Naturalistic generalisations’ (Stake 1978) make generalisations possible where the important features of the case are so richly presented that others can make analogies with their own situations. Bassey (1981) calls this latter ‘reliability’.

The unit of analysis in this study was the military EFL school (‘The School’); the case was Mentor Programme 5.

Viewed as a form of practical action research it attempted as far as possible to involve participants in the change initiative rather than the research, and give them some control over some decisions. Unlike the research described in Carr and Kemmis (1986:202-5) the research was not critical or emancipatory in a macro sense in that there were no attempts to form the participants into a reflective community or challenge existing power structures.

Action research is a 'way of working' (Kemmis and McTaggart 1982:5) which

- integrates research, action and evaluation
 - involves change aimed at improvement
 - encourages involvement and collaboration
 - involves systematic and rigorous data collection and analysis
- and
- is eclectic as regards methods allowing the focus and methods to change as the study evolves.

This particular research project was strikingly similar to Hutchinson (1998). Hutchinson describes an attempt by a member of a school's middle management to improve his school's careers education programme and his management of it. The similarities concern:

- the location of the practitioner's self at the centre of the research
- the effects on validation and ethics of the researcher's role in the school
- the impact of asking questions in a hierarchical work structure
- the attempt to engage others in reflection
- the attempt to empower others
- the importance of discourse and reflective conversations
- the eclectic methodology, and the issues the methodology raises as regards being honest and open in interviews
- the use of micropolitical strategies to persuade others
- the requirement to make recommendations and persuade others before action can be taken on the findings
- the importance of the Head Teacher's support.

Hutchinson discusses the importance of the views of staff about themselves as teachers, the role of the school and the programme, and the need to affect such views to affect change. Issues such as being critical versus being conformist, control versus autonomy, teacher expectations,

and the micropolitics of decision-making were 'at the heart of managing change-improvement' (ibid:390).

The kinds of researcher role discussed above and the ways of working implied by Hutchinson (1998) and Kemmis and McTaggart (1982) are not unproblematic. Issues of objectivity and subjectivity (Eisner and Peshkin 1990, Holliday 2002), researcher effects on data collection and analysis (Miles and Huberman 1994), and researcher involvement and commitment are raised. This researcher would maintain that the nature of the research, being concerned with management and improvement through evaluation, the nature of the data the researcher needed to collect to meet the research questions and the pre-existing position of the researcher inside the programmes meant that a broadly qualitative approach was necessary. Surveys were used but mainly to identify areas for further probing through interviews. Configuring the research solely as a case study was considered, but the cyclical nature of the programmes, with repeating stages meant a practical action research framework was more appropriate.

Research Design

Research Spirals

Action research is cyclical (Kember 2000, Oja and Smulyan 1989). These cycles or spirals are conceived differently by different authors. Lomax (1989) sees the cycle as inspection, reflection, judgement and action. Dewey (1933) specifies diagnosing, action planning, action taking, evaluating, and specifying learning. Kember (2000) specifies plan, act, observe, reflect. 'Planning action strategically means being prepared to learn from the outcomes of a 'first wave' of a change strategy and using this to inform the 'second wave'' (Kemmis and McTaggart 1982:24). In this research there was an evaluation of a first wave (Programmes 1 to 4), a second wave of changes (Programme 5) and an evaluation of this. A third wave of changes was planned (Programme 6). Figure 1.1 and in Table 1.1 show the Action Research Spiral and Stages. Notice that reflection is not portrayed as a stage in Figure 1.1 (*pace* Kember 2000:26) since it is held to occur at all stages in the cycle, hence the need for a research diary or log. Of course, the stages in fact overlapped. Cycles are rarely if ever as neat as portrayed in diagrams of action research (Kember 2000:218).

Evaluation

In Figure 1.1 each spiral has a stage labelled evaluation (stages 2, 5 and 8). For the purpose of this research, evaluation is 'the systematic gathering of information for purposes of making decisions' (Richards *et al* 1985:98). The information gathered can be used to judge the worth

of a programme or the utility of alternative approaches (Worthen and Sanders 1973). It therefore involves questions of value and values (Dewey 1939). It is a pragmatic activity, which must be sensitive to the context. Evaluation not only allows for worth to be judged, but can also contribute towards developing understanding, insights and encouraging reflection (Nixon 1992). In common with Parlett and Hamilton (1987), the researcher was particularly sensitive to unexpected outcomes in order to illuminate aspects of the programme otherwise hidden from view. One aim of the evaluation was to produce a report on Programme 5 to encourage an informed debate about future programmes (Kemmis 1986).

Evaluating the Mentoring Programme involved the collection of a wide spectrum of evidence, both qualitative and quantitative (Brown 1989), thus providing some data type triangulation (Denzin 1978). However, the level of detail required and the personal nature of mentoring practices meant that the majority of evidence was qualitative. There was also the desire to allow those involved in the programmes to speak for themselves, which meant a mostly qualitative framework was appropriate. In keeping with many other evaluations, and to provide a measure of methodological triangulation, a variety of different instruments were used (Cohen and Manion 1984, Parlett 1976, Rea-Dickens and Germaine 1992).

Further Triangulation

Denzin (1978) distinguishes four types of triangulation:

1. Data triangulation – the use of a variety of data sources.
2. Investigator triangulation – the use of several different researchers to conduct the study.
3. Theory triangulation – the use of multiple perspectives to interpret the data.
4. Methodological triangulation – the use of multiple methods to study a single problem.

Data type triangulation was discussed briefly in the last subsection. Data sources were also triangulated by interviewing the Head Teacher, Senior Management Team members who had been responsible for Programmes 1- 4, and one member of the team who had not had anything to do with the Mentoring Programme in the past, a convenience sample of mentors on Programmes 1 to 4 (15 from approximately 35), all mentees on Programme 5, six out of seven mentors on Programme 5 (one declined to be interviewed), both the Senior Teachers involved in Programme 5, and both the other coordinators on Programme 5. Investigator triangulation was not possible in an assessed qualification, but the Ed D support group (see below) did at times discuss the data with the researcher. In Chapters Nine and Ten the researcher does adopt different perspectives to make sense of the data. Finally, the researcher used a variety of

different instruments drawn from both qualitative and quantitative traditions (Dey 1993, Cohen and Manion 1994), for example questionnaires, interviews, documents and a research diary to obtain some methodological triangulation.

Validation

Validation is the process by which different groups of people, different validation communities (Kvale 1996), validate research. The key word here is 'process'. It is continuous, starting as the research is being designed and continuing even after publication. It is achieved through discourse (Mishler 1990), and through 'showing the workings' (Holliday 2002), that is explaining the why and how of the research. The problems validating insider research is discussed in Arnold (2000), where the argument is that the validation communities for insider and outsider research are essentially different. See Figures 3.1 and 3.2 on page 43, reproduced from Arnold (2000). The solid lines represent people, the dotted ones, the context – dotted because the context is fuzzy. In outsider research (Figure 3.1), the boundaries between the researcher, the researcher's work colleagues and the scientific community on the one hand, and the context, the informants and the informant's work colleagues on the other, are clear. In insider research (Figure 3.2), the boundaries are less clear. Many people belong to several groups at the same time. This meant, amongst other things, that obtaining validation from outside the research context became extremely difficult. It also meant that the micro-politics of the work/research context impinged upon attempts to validate the data. For example, putting back inconsistencies was not possible with some senior staff. It further meant that 'making the familiar strange' became an issue for all concerned in validation (Ely *et al* 1991:124-27). To overcome some of these problems everything was discussed with the researcher's first critical friend – who was both a fellow coordinator on Programme 5 and a fellow Ed D student at Leicester University, and problems and selected parts of the Thesis were taken to regular meetings of the local Ed D Support group (Ely *et al* 1991:99-102) for comments. Where these comments are used as findings, they are shown as personal communications, dated where this is important.

In action research and in evaluation, the validity rests 'in the action capacities and the effectiveness of the change the research creates' (Morgan 1983:399). McNiff (1988:132) calls this 'practice as a realization of values'. The kinds of improvements expected in this research related to the teaching skills of the new teachers, the management and practice of mentoring in the School, the sustainability and institutionalization of the improvements in mentoring, and the effect these had on student learning and on organisational systems. This involved

Figures 3.1 and 3.2: Validation Communities in Outsider and Insider Research

Figure 3.1 Outsider Research: Validation Communities

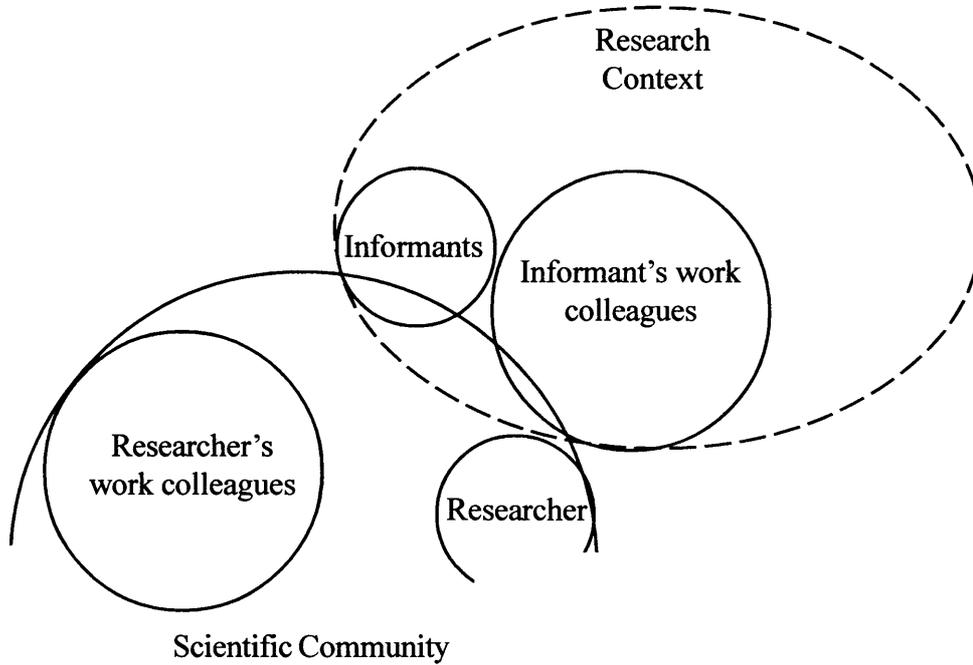
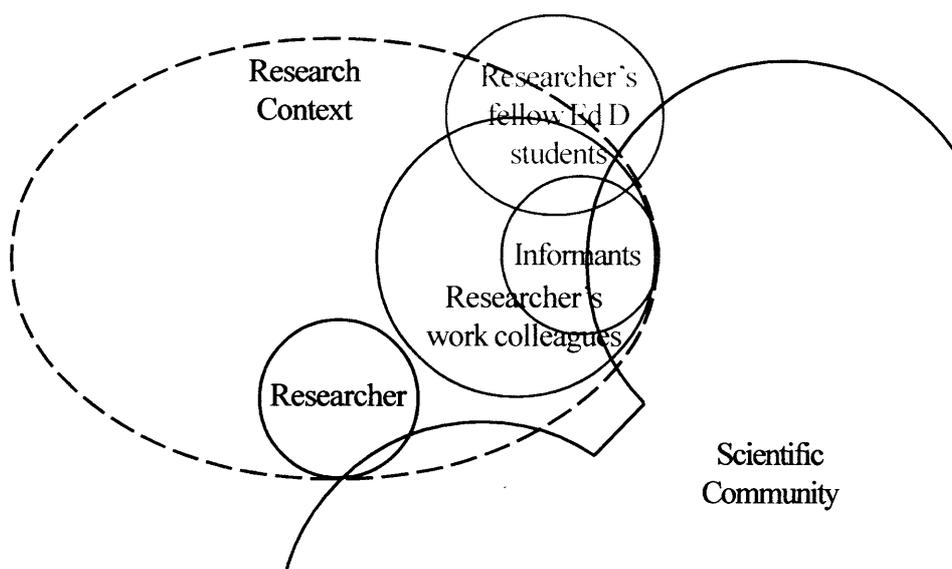


Figure 3.2 Insider Research: Validation Communities



improvements in the process, such as getting mentors together to exchange experiences and for mentor training before the mentoring begins, and improvements in outcomes, such as improved mentee teaching techniques and classroom management. These are to be measured against the principles discussed in Chapter Two. But ‘methodologically there is a problem identifying and operationalising a definition of improvement’ (Lomax 1989:110). Hence baseline studies are used in project evaluation (Bray and Luxton 1999), as are attempts to spell out (often numerically) improvements sought. There is the issue of disagreement over whether improvements have taken place, especially where, as indicated above, the micropolitics of the research context affect judgements, and where the researcher is a key player. The choice made here was to report such disagreements openly and completely so that the reader is in a better position to judge.

Validation was also built into the research process through testing and retesting findings against data and emerging understandings. Kvale (1996) regards this as an important aspect of ‘Quality of Craftsmanship’.

Ethical Issues

Ethics concerns for example honesty, openness, justice, fairness and respect for persons (Cohen *et al* 2000). In the research setting these can be considered in terms of principles such as the requirement not make things worse at the organisation under study or to treat participants with respect. Treating participants with respect means such things as voluntary participation (Gorden 1987:98-9), informed consent (Cohen and Manion 1994:349-353), researcher attempts to preserve confidentiality and sometimes anonymity (Akeroyd 1991), not deceiving participants (Soltis 1990, Lincoln 1990) and treating them fairly and equally (McQuillan and Muncey 1990).

Most of the ethical issues raised by this research are the result of the peculiarities of the context and the researcher’s role as an inside researcher (Busher 2002). They are tangled up with issues of reliability and validation and go to the heart of the purpose of the investigation, the subject matter and the conduct of the research. They are, as Cohen and Manion (1994:347-8) describe them, ‘hydra-headed’. In the school nearly everybody knew each other. This meant that attempts to achieve a rounded understanding of the issues, for example by putting competing perspectives of the programmes to interviewees for comment, raised ethical problems to do with identification of participants, and preserving confidentiality and anonymity (Akeroyd 1991).

In the School I was a peer to some work colleagues, a subordinate to others, and could be perceived as a superior to the new teachers as organiser of their mentor programme. I could also be perceived as a change agent with a vested interest in the success of the programme. Some informants were my friends, some are not. Perceptions of the researcher's role and relationship to the programme and the Thesis affected what was said in the interviews, and to what extent I could be open in interviews, could put back others' views for comments in interview, and could give a 'right of reply' to counter arguments. All of these implicated the 'self' of the researcher, my 'self', my values, my emotions, my feelings (Denscome 1995, Dadds 1995, Kleinman 1980, 1991). These were used to guide judgements (Damasio 1994). 'Ethical problems are the result of conflicting values' (Cohen and Manion 1994:363). In insider research many of the ethical problems are played out inside the researcher. These can be represented formally (Hammersley 1980) as a balancing act. The researcher internalises the ethical dilemmas as 'desires'. I have elsewhere – Arnold (2000) – presented seventeen of these dilemmas in tabular form. I cite three here as examples.

Table 3.1 Examples of Ethical 'Dilemmas' Presented Formally as a Balancing Act

1	Desire to seek official permission	Desire not to make it difficult for others to research in the School
2	Desire to present a thick description of the School to allow outsiders to appreciate the context	Desire to minimize possibilities of School being identified
3	Desire to report accurately and honestly	Desire to minimize possibility of informants and 3 rd parties being identified & protect them from possible repercussions

The ethical problems began with issues of access and permission Cohen and Manion 1994:354-9). In order to receive official permission for the research the researcher would have needed to obtain Ministry of Defence and Ministry of Education approval, and this is rarely granted, even to locals (personal communication by both the Head Teacher and the Officer in Charge of the School). Both the Head Teacher and the Officer in Charge knew that I was doing the research, and the nature of that research. The Head Teacher had given written permission. The Officer could not acknowledge publicly that he knew. Any official approach to the military for permission could have backfired and resulted in permission being denied for all researching in the School, thus harming not just participants in the research but non participants as well (Gorden 1987:99-101). (There were 10 others pursuing research degrees in the School in 2001.) This was one reason that local teachers were not approached for interviews or to answer questionnaires early in the study, before the researcher had established relationships with some of them, since they may have drawn attention to the study and precipitated action from the military.

The School was in many ways unique. Its location, its size and some of its peculiarities made its possible identification from what was written in this Thesis an issue. Almost anyone who worked in the School, and many others whose work was connected with the School, whether employees of the company or the military, would have been able to identify the School from the description in this study. But if the description was not so thick, it would have been difficult for outsiders to appreciate aspects of the research, such as why certain decisions about the organisation and management of Programme 5 were taken. The possible repercussions from adverse reporting on the School following publication are similar to those stated above. Another possibly more remote possibility was the termination of the researcher's employment! Representing the School fairly while explaining contextual issues relating to the programmes honestly was also therefore an issue (Smith 1990, Ball 1984).

Following on from identification of the School was the issue of identification of individuals who worked here, and the possible consequences of this, including possible harm to their position in the School or reputation (Gorden 1987: 99-101). The Head Teacher had a unique role. His attitude towards the programme and the level and amount of support he provided were crucial to the programme. Accurate reporting and honest assessment of this was essential. And yet honest reporting of this may have cast him in a poor light. The same kinds of arguments applied to reporting the attitude of, and support provided by, Senior Management Team members, and other identifiable individuals such as the other coordinators, although aggregating views and presenting them as 'one view was ...', 'one coordinator said ...' did make individuals less identifiable. The dilemma concerned allowing people to check what is said about them, and allowing a 'right of reply' to uncorroborated accounts, or attributed motives, or risking the possibility of informants being identified, and confidentiality therefore being breached. Three solutions to these identification problems were provided. The first was to alter less important aspects of the context to make the School less easily identifiable to outsiders (Ball 1984). The second was to put back to the Head Teacher, and other 'identifiable' individuals, anything that might have allowed them to be identified, and which might have cast them in a less than favourable light. This allowed a kind of 'right of reply'. However, to preserve the integrity of the research, no-one was allowed a right of veto. Thirdly, all use of proper names in the text was changed so that identification becomes very difficult. This means not using pseudonyms, which encourages guesses, but randomly assigning names within quotes. For example, when a particular mentee was referred to in several pieces of text quoted in this Thesis, his name was sometimes changed to 'Ali', sometimes to 'Mohammed', and sometimes Adil'.

Methods and Instruments Used

Questionnaires

Four questionnaires were used as shown in Tables 3.7 and 3.8 below. The first page of each questionnaire had a guarantee and an explanation of the research. Additionally, the mentor questionnaires asked for background information on mentor experience and length of time teaching in the School. All four questionnaires had between 23 and 27 closed questions. They all used a 5 point Lickert scale (Lickert 1932) – strongly agree, agree, neither agree or disagree, disagree and strongly disagree. All questionnaires had an open section on the last page following the advice from Walters (1996:103). In Questionnaire 1 (Q1) this was only ‘Any Other Comments?’ but the other questionnaires included specific open questions, for example ‘Three things about the programme that can be done better next time’. There was a space for the name with the word ‘optional’ in brackets for those who wished to remain anonymous. About 25% chose to remain anonymous. In the text questionnaires are referred to by the questionnaire number followed by the question number. Thus Q1:4 is Questionnaire 1, question 4. All the questionnaire questions are presented in the relevant ‘Findings’ chapters. Thus, Questionnaire 1 is reported in Chapter Four, and all the questions are shown in that chapter.

The topics and sub-topics included in Questionnaire 1 are shown in Table 3.2 below. This Table is repeated in Chapter Four as Table 4.4 for convenience. Table 3.2 shows the relationship between the element of the programme (shown in the Topic column), the specific part of that element (shown in the Sub-topic column), and the question number (column 3).

Table 3.2 Topics Included in Questionnaire 1

Topic	Sub-topic	Question Number
Background information	Mentor experience	First page
Planning, organisation and support	Planning and organisation	1 and 2
	Management support for mentors	8, 19
Mentor role	Mentor briefing for role	3, 12
	Mentor meetings	4, 13
	Mentee appreciation of mentor talk	17
	Mentor comfort with role	7, 18, 20, 21
	Mentor understanding of role	22, 23
Mentor relationship with mentee		5
Time as a constraint		14, 15
Mentor attitude towards mentoring		6, 16
Outcomes	Improvement in mentee teaching skills	9
	Mentor development	10
	Effect on cadet learning	11
Any other comments?		Final page

The topics and sub-topics included in Questionnaire 2 are shown in Table 3.3 below. This Table is repeated in Chapter Seven as Table 7.2 for convenience. The exact questions are shown in Tables 7.2 to 7.6, where the findings are reported. Thus, Table 7.3 reported the Questionnaire 2 results for Planning, Organisation and Design.

Table 3.3 Topics Included in Questionnaire 2

Topic	Sub-topic	Question Number	Principle Number
Background Information	Mentor Experience	First page	n/a
Planning, organisation, and design	Planning, organisation and design	1, 2, 8, 12, 18	P1-3
	Objectives	5, 13	P1
Goodness of Fit		20, 23	P6
Support		4, 14, 17, 19, 21	P7
Mentor Training	General	10, 16, 24	P8
	Mentor briefings for role	3, 7	P9
	Mentor meetings	6, 9, 22	P9
	Mentor understanding of role	11, 15	P9
Any other comments?		Final page	n/a

The topics and sub-topics included in Questionnaire 3 are shown in Table 3.4 below. This Table is repeated in Chapter Seven as Table 7.7 for convenience.

Table 3.4 Topics Included in Questionnaire 3

Topic	Sub-topic	Question Number	Principle Number
Planning, organisation, and design	Planning and organisation	1, 2, 18	P1-3
	Objectives	5	
	Programme length	26	
Support		4, 9, 14, 17, 19, 25	P7
Mentor Selection and Mentor Quality	Relationship	12, 13, 20	P8
Mentor Training	Understanding of mentor role	3, 15	P9
	Mentor performance	7, 11, 22, 24	
	Mentee comfort with role	23	
Outcomes	Improvement in mentee teaching skills	6	P10
	Programme meeting mentee needs	8, 10	
	Mentee Development	16, 21, 27	
Any other comments?		Final page	

The topics and sub-topics included in Questionnaire 4 are shown in Table 3.5 below. This Table is repeated in Chapter Seven as Table 7.13 for convenience.

Table 3.5 Topics Included in Questionnaire 4

Topic	Sub-topic	Question number	Principle number
Background information	Mentor experience	First page	n/a
Planning, organisation and design	Programme length	24	P1-3
	Variety of Observations	15	P2a
Management	Mentee commitment to the programme	21	P5a
Goodness of Fit	Time as a constraint	22, 23	P6
Support		1, 2, 4, 7, 17, 18	P7
Mentor Selection and Mentor Quality	Relationship	20	P8
	Mentor attitude towards mentoring	3	
	Involvement of mentor in programme design	10	
	Mentor visiting other teacher's classes	19	
Mentor Training	Mentee appreciation of mentor talk	9	P9
	Mentor comfort with role	11, 12, 13, 14	
Outcomes	Improvement in mentee teaching skills	6	P10
	Mentor development	5, 16	
	Mentee development	25	
	Effect on cadet learning	8	
Any other comments?		Final page	

To preserve anonymity, all questionnaires were given out personally, but returned through pigeon holes in sealed envelopes.

Interviews

A total of thirty interviews were done for this research. They were semi-structured to allow for coding. They are broken down by interviewee and purpose in Tables 3.7, 3.8 and 3.9. Most interviews were held in the School in the mentoring coordinators' office, although a few in either the researcher's or the interviewee's home.

The schedules evolved over time as the researcher's understanding of the programme changed, but for each group (STs, mentors, mentees, coordinators) at each phase of the research, they retained a basic core of questions to allow comparisons to be made. The topics selected for the interviews are shown in Appendix 1. The interview questions matched research questions to interviewee role. So, for example, the third coordinator was asked about the parts of Programme 5 he was involved in such as his role ('Were you sure of your role on the programme? Can you describe it? What did it involve? Were you happy with this role?'), the planning and organisation ('Did you think the whole programme was well planned? Well

organised? What can be improved upon?’), and mentor selection (‘Were the right people selected for the job of mentor? How can we improve the selection process? Do you think the mentors were adequately briefed about the programme? Do you think we can improve the matching of mentor to mentee?’). He was also asked, because of his experience, to make comparisons with other programmes (‘Compare the programme with other mentor programmes you’ve been involved in. Did you think the programme was an improvement on others you’ve been involved in here? What evidence do you have for your views? How do you feel about the programme now that it’s finished?’), about mentee development, about the sustainability of the programme and about possible improvements. These topics are shown in the third column, the fifth row of Appendix 1.

For reasons of space, only the first page of an interview schedule for a mentor is included as Appendix 2. The first thing to note is that not all questions were used, many of the questions were there to suggest different leads that might be followed. Only the ones in bold were used with all mentors. The next thing to note is the inclusion of ‘superlative’ questions and other questions designed to get ‘open’ responses, for example, ‘What was the most awkward moment?’ ‘Did any funny things happen?’ Finally, a very conscious attempt was made to concretise answers by asking for concrete examples, specific instances of what was being asserted or described.

In the findings, the letter ‘I’ in brackets after a quotation refers to an interview number. The numbers before and after the colon refer to the exact interview and the page number of the transcript respectively, eg (I11:4) refers to interview number 11, page 4. Appendix 3 is a list of all interviews. All interviews were transcribed as Word documents. The researcher wrote footnotes on all interview transcripts. When given interview transcripts for checking, some interviewees commented on what they had said earlier or on the footnotes written on the transcript. Reference to interview footnotes, where the researcher’s comments were added have an F after the page number they refer to so that I29:12F refers to a footnote on page 12 of Interview 29. Interviewee comments on transcripts are reported with C written after the page number which they refer to, eg (I11:5C) refers to Interview 11, written comments on page 5.

Documents

A large variety of documents were collected for this research. These included reports, course files, minutes of meetings and lesson checks (‘inspections’). There were obvious issues of confidentiality with some of these documents so they were used differentially. Some, for example the lesson checks, were only referred to in general terms. Some, for example, the

minutes of meetings and reports prepared by coordinators were treated as any qualitative data and coded. All documents are numbered from D1 to D45 as shown in Appendix 4. When referring to documents in the text, dates are added after the document number if relevant, for example D45, 15/07/01 is document 45, 15th July 2001.

Research Diary

The research diary was started in January 2001 and continued until the Thesis was printed out (February 2003). It contained records of overheard conversations, conversations the researcher took part in, observations of events, researcher memos on theory, methods and planning (Altrichter *et al* 1993:10-32), and comments on books the researcher was reading. The entries were initially very general but became much more focused over time. The majority of entries were made while Programme 5 was being planned and during the programme itself. The pages in the diary were given page numbers. These are used for reference in the text of this Thesis. For example, RD:135 means Research Diary, page 135. Where the date of the entry is important it is also included, eg RD:135, 25/07/01.

Analysis of the Evidence

All data including diary entries, documents, transcripts, questionnaire questions and interviews was initially coded iteratively using mostly descriptive codes (Miles and Huberman 1994), except the closed questions in the questionnaires which were only aggregated. Later in the analysis a few interpretive codes (eg 'plausibility', 'control versus autonomy') were added. Other codes were added as the analysis proceeded. They are shown in column 3 of Table 3.6 on pages 53 and 54. Some data was then reanalysed quantitatively, for example the number of lesson observations of various types done, and the numbers of different mentions of things like lesson planning. The coding initially followed the themes identified in the literature and at the reconnaissance stage. Later this developed into a 5-page coding document whose codes related more closely to the principles. However, the codes do not exactly match the principles since the codes responded to data as it was collected. The codes became more grounded as codes were added, deleted and modified. The codes were inclusive (Dey 1993), which meant chunks could belong to more than one category, since the same chunks often cast light upon different aspects of the Programmes. The same codes were used for all stages of the research. All documents were coded on Word files using footnotes and hyperlinks. The codes are listed in Table 3.6. The ones in italics are the ones added during the research.

Table 3.6 The Codes Used in the Research

Code (Principles in brackets)	Sub-Code	Codes Added
Planning, Design and Organisation (P1-3)		
Coherent, Planned and Organised (P1)		
Design (P1)		Programme length
		<i>After the formal programme ends</i>
Learning Opportunities (P2)	Pre-teaching talk	Materials selected
		Lesson Planning
	Observation (P2a)	Things spotted by mentors in mentees' lessons
		<i>Avoidance</i>
	Tasks (P2b)	
	Feedback (P2c)	<i>English level</i>
		<i>Imitation</i>
Workshops		
Teams		
Objectives: Induction and Teacher Training (P3)		
Management (P4-5)		
Manager skills, abilities and qualities (P4)		<i>Weak or problematic mentees</i>
		<i>Personalities</i>
	<i>Ownership</i>	
	ST Role	
	ST Attitude	
	Coordinator Role	
Managed for Success (P5)	Manager Commitment (P5a)	
	Mentee Commitment (P5b)	
Goodness of Fit (P6)		
Goodness of Fit (P6)		<i>Plausibility</i>
		<i>School Culture</i>
Support (P7)		
Support (P7)	<i>Background Information on Mentees</i>	<i>Afternoon Studies</i>
Mentor Selection and Mentor Quality (P8)		
Mentor Selection	Matching of mentor and mentee	
Mentor Roles		
Mentor Quality (P8)	Personal & Interpersonal Skills (P8a)	Mentor Commitment
	Professional Qualities (P8b)	
	Core Practices (P8c)	
	Relationship (P8d)	
	Support & Challenge (P8e)	Mentee Concerns
Mentor Training (P9)		
Mentor Training (P9)	Mentor Role	

Table 3.6 The Codes Used in the Research (cont'd)

Code (Principles in brackets)	Sub-Code	Codes Added
Outcomes (P10)		
Mentee Teaching Performance (P10)		Mentee Development
Students' Learning (P10)		
Evaluation (P11-13)		
Systematic Relevant Evidence (P11)	Overall evaluation	<i>Authority versus control</i>
	Built into Design (P11a)	
	Against Principles (P11b)	
	Intended and Unintended Effects	
	Constraints on the Programme	
	Evaluations of Previous Programmes	
	Coordinator Development	
ST Development Dialogue & Reflection (P12)		
Reflexive Evaluation (P13)		

All chunks of data within each code were collected together and inspected for similarities and differences, and ordered and reordered, classified and reclassified as understanding grew. A wide variety of alternative presentations were sought for the data including flow charts, mind maps, event-state charts, rating scales and tables to aid the analysis (Miles and Huberman 1994). Only a fraction of these are presented here.

The actual analysis proceeded in stages matching the stages of the research (see Figure 1.1 and Table 1.1 above). However, data collected at earlier stages in the evaluation was also returned to in order to inform later stages in the analysis. One problem was that of operationalising the principles since judgements as to the closeness to and distance from the principles needed to be made. This often meant breaking down the principles, for example Principle 12 broke down into two parts, two 'Yes/no' questions ('Were the findings fed back to the School?' and 'Did the evaluation encourage dialogue and reflection?'). However, these two questions begged further ones, such as 'How were the findings fed back?' 'Who to?' 'When?' 'In what form?', and 'How much dialogue and reflection was there?' 'Who by?' But for judgements to be made the quality of the feeding back of the findings and the quality of the dialogue and reflection needed to be assessed. The researcher therefore had to ask, both in order to collect useful data and to evaluate the 'feeding back' and the 'dialogue and reflection' what would count as evidence of 'quality feeding back' and what would count as evidence of 'quality dialogue and reflection'. This had to be done for every principle.

Analysis of the Closed Questionnaire Questions

As stated above, the closed questionnaire questions were analysed by aggregation. The questionnaires were not statistically analysed, apart from counting, because there were so few respondents and the population size was unknown for Questionnaire 1. The answers to the open-ended questions were, however, analysed using the same codes as for the rest of the data.

The questionnaires were also designed to allow for comparisons between mentors on Mentor Programmes 1 to 4 and Programme 5, and mentees and mentors on Programme 5. This meant the same questions were repeated in several questionnaires.

Analysis of the Interviews

The analysis of the interviews started in the interviews themselves and continued through the transcription stage. The researcher deliberately tried to probe and put back his developing understandings to the interviewees (Kvale 1996). He also encouraged the interviewees to make the examples as concrete as possible.

During the transcription and afterwards, the researcher made memos as footnotes to each interview transcript. The transcripts (without footnotes) were returned to interviewees with the tapes for checking. However, in the case of the managers (Head Teacher, STs, coordinators), they were returned with the footnotes so that comments could be added. Very few changes were made, although the Head Teacher and one ST both added comments.

Analysis of the Documents

Documents were typed up into Word files and coded using the same codes as the other data. Footnotes and hyperlinks were used with the documents to aid analysis.

The Diary Entries

These were analysed in the margin of the diary using the same codes as the other qualitative data.

The 'Decisions Made' Document

A 'decisions made' document was kept for tracking the various changes made between Programmes 1 to 4 and Programme 5. As well as detailing planned changes, it detailed decisions to keep things the same, ie non-changes. It was kept as a kind of research diary (but separate from *the* research diary). It evolved over time. It detailed:

- the name/type of change
- what was done on Programmes 1 to 4
- what was planned and actually happened Mentor Programme 5
- the circumstances of the decision, who made the decision, who was affected by it, when, where the decision was made, and who owned the decision, the justification for the decision, whether alternatives were considered, how much thought went into the decision
- the objectives of the change, the criteria for success and the results of the change
- the importance and degree of 'radicalness' of the change
- ideas / recommendations for Programme 6 and evidence they are based upon.

Stages of the Action Research Process

Figure 1.1 and Table 1.1 show the stages. These break down into phases.

Stage 1 Action on Programmes 1 to 4

Stage 1 is the action on Programmes 1 to 4. This took place between December 1998 and November 2000.

Stage 2 Evaluation of Programmes 1 to 4

The planned phases for the evaluation of Programmes 1 to 4 are outlined in Table 3.7. The dates in brackets refer to when the data was collected. The research involved an element of progressive focusing (Bogdan and Birklen 1992), where information gathered at one phase informed data collection methods, actual questionnaire questions and interview schedules later in the research. As well as providing evidence about Programmes 1 to 4, this evaluation was, along with reading the literature on mentoring, instrumental in the establishment of the principles discussed in Chapter Two.

The first two phases (Background Information on Staffing and Managers' Perspectives) represented a 'Reconnaissance' (Kemmis and McTaggart 1982:21). Documents were collected and analysed to try and place the Mentoring Programme as a whole in the School context. The numbers of teachers, local teachers and students were determined, and student-staff ratios and average class sizes between 1994 and 2001 were calculated, ie from when local teachers started arriving in the School. The exact start dates of the groups of local teachers on their basic TEFL

course and as mentees in the School were also determined. This information was scattered in different documents prior to this study.

Table 3.7 Stage 2: Evaluation of Mentor Programmes 1 to 4

Phase	Instruments
Background Information on Staffing (October to December 2000)	Documents Weekly timetables, Senior Teacher (ST) files, Mentor Programme 1 Course File
Manager Perspectives on Mentor Programmes 1 to 4 (February 2001)	Manager Interviews Head Teacher (n=1), STs (n = 3), Teacher who planned and designed Mentor Programme 1 (n=1)
	Documents Mentor Programme Reports, Reports on Mentees, Programme 1 Course File
Mentor Perspectives on Programmes 2 to 4 (February – March 2001)	Mentor Questionnaire (Questionnaire 1) (n = 14 returned)
Mentor Perspectives on Programmes 2 to 4 (June 2001)	Mentor Interviews (n = 3)
Overall (ongoing)	Research Diary

The interviewees were selected to give an overview of the programmes, and to identify main issues. The Head Teacher had been responsible for setting up the Mentoring Programme in the first place, and was in overall charge each Mentor Programme. Two of the STs had been in charge of programmes (one Programmes 2 and 4, one Programme 3), and the third had taken an interest in them, although he had not been in charge. (He was, however, later in charge of Mentor Programme 5.) The teacher interviewed had been in charge of initial teacher training when it was run in the School between December 1998 and June 1999, and was therefore directly responsible for setting up Programme 1. Informants were therefore sampled primarily based on the criteria of knowledge and experience of mentor programmes in the school (Morse 1986). The interviews focused on what happened on Programmes 1 to 4, how mentors were selected, problems associated with being a mentor and suggested improvements to the programme. See Appendix 1.

Additionally, documents were collected and analysed. These documents consisted of Programme Reports, Reports on Individual Mentees and the Programme 1 Course File. At the same time, notes were made in the research diary of conversations or comments about the programmes. The purpose at this time was to obtain an overview of the programme and to design a questionnaire for mentors on Programmes 1 to 4 (Questionnaire 1).

Questionnaire 1 was designed and piloted soon after the reconnaissance was completed. It was piloted on two teachers who had been mentors on Programmes 2 to 4. The main change as a

result of piloting was the inclusion of an ‘Any Comments?’ section under every question in all questionnaires (Questionnaires 1 to 4). The topics and exact questions included in Questionnaire 1 are shown in Chapter Four. Since no records were kept of which teachers had mentored on Programmes 2 to 4, the researcher approached those he knew had been involved and asked them to complete the questionnaires. Out of approximately thirty-five mentors on previous programmes fifteen were approached in this way. Fourteen returned the questionnaires. It was hoped they would be representative, but given the selection methods, this was not guaranteed. The main function of Questionnaire 1 was to facilitate construction of interview schedules.

No questionnaires were given to mentees on Programmes 1 to 4 during stage 2. This design weakness was because at this time the researcher felt that asking local teachers to fill in a questionnaire was implausible, and because of the possible repercussions discussed above. The ST in charge of Programme 4 reported not asking mentees to fill in questionnaires for him since informal feedback he had received had indicated a great deal of reluctance to do this (RD:127-8). Additionally, at this time, the researcher knew none of the local teachers very well. Later on during July and September 2001, once relationships had been formed with new and old local teachers, interviews were conducted with three mentees on Programmes 1 to 4.

Stage 3: Design of Mentor Programme 5

The decisions concerning the design of Programme 5 are reported in Chapter Five.

Stage 4 Action on Mentor Programme 5

Stage 1 is the action on Programme 5. This took place in May and June 2001.

Stage 5: Evaluation of Mentor Programme 5

This was done in phases as shown in Table 3.8. Data was collected through 3 questionnaires, 18 interviews, diary entries, and documents produced by and related to the programme. This data was collected to gather evidence to be measured against the principles, which were used to evaluate Programme 5.

Each of the questionnaires informed the interviews. Thus Questionnaires 2 and 4 informed the mentor interviews, and Questionnaire 3 informed the mentee interviews. Everybody who participated in the programme was interviewed except one mentor, who declined to be interviewed.

Table 3.8 Stage 5: Evaluation of Mentor Programme 5

Phase	Instruments
Mentor Perspectives on Mentor Training (May 2001)	Mentor Questionnaire (Questionnaire 2) (n = 10 returned)
Mentee Perspectives on Mentor Programme 5 (June – July 2001)	Mentee Questionnaire (Questionnaire 3) (n = 7)
Mentor Perspectives on Mentor Programme 5 (June – July 2001)	Mentor Questionnaire (Questionnaire 4) (n = 7)
Mentor Perspectives on Mentor Programme 5 (July and Sept 2001)	Mentor Interviews (n = 6)
Mentee Perspectives on Mentor Programme 5 (July and Sept 2001)	Mentee Interviews (n = 7)
Manager Perspectives on Mentor Programme (July and Sept 2001)	Manager Interviews STs (n = 2), Head Teacher (n=1), Coordinators (n = 2)
Overall (ongoing)	Research Diary
	Documents Minutes of meetings; Programme timetables; Lesson checks

Stage 6: Design of Mentor Programme 6

It was planned to design Mentor Programme 6 as a result of this study. The researcher intended to provide information to a group of managers (the Head Teacher, STs, former coordinators) and other participants, and then arrange a meeting to make collaborative decisions. The information was to be provided in the form of a report outlining the main findings and using ‘if ... then ...’ statements to highlight the probable consequences of various decisions. The information would have also included analysis of interviews of previous mentees, and one further previous mentor as shown in Table 3.9 on page 60. These interviews were conducted and are reported in Chapter Six. However, at present (March 2003) it seems very unlikely that Mentor Programme 6 will take place as envisaged since the training centre where the basic TEFL course is run has closed and no other arrangements for training locals have yet been put in place.

Table 3.9 Stage 6: Further Evaluation of Mentor Programmes 2 to 4

Phase	Instruments
Mentor Perspectives on Mentor Programmes 2 to 4 (July 2001)	Interview Mentor (n=1)
Mentee Perspectives on Mentor Programmes 2 to 4 (Sept 2001)	Interviews Mentees (n=3)
Overall (ongoing)	Research Diary

CHAPTER FOUR: Findings

Evaluation of Mentor Programmes 1 to 4

This chapter reports on the data gathered about Programmes 1 to 4. This was done as detailed in the Methodology Chapter (Table 3.7). The first two phases constituted a reconnaissance (Kemmis and McTaggart 1982). After this the evaluation *per se* started. This evaluation had two parts; first collection of mentors' perspectives on those programmes from questionnaires, and secondly interviews of three mentors about the programmes. The design and methodology of the research, including the purpose of each phase, timing, selection of informants, piloting and analysis is described in Chapter Three. The purpose of this evaluation was to provide background information, a limited baseline for comparison with Programme 5, to inform design of Programme 5, and to inform and aid the writing of principles.

Reconnaissance Sub-stage: Background Information on Staffing (October to December 2000)

Table 4.1 shows the background information on staffing obtained from documents analysed by the researcher. It shows that the school expanded rapidly from 1998 to 2001 from a roughly steady state between 1994 and 1998. This involved an increase of about 65% in teachers from about 100 before 1998 to 168 in June 2001 and a similar increase in student population over the same time period from 1158 in July 1998 to 1864 in June 2001. A large part of the increase in staff was due to an increase in local teachers – up from five in 1998 to 42 in June 2001. Although student-staff ratios fell between July 1998 and June 2001, average class sizes rose slightly. It is important to note that student numbers continued to rise after Programme 4 in June 2001, with a corresponding decrease in student-staff ratios.

Table 4.1 Background Information on Staffing

Week Beginning	Number of Teachers¹	Number of Local Teachers	Total Number of Students	% of Local Teachers	Student-Staff Ratio	Average Class Sizes²
11.06.94	90	1	1016	1.1%	11.3	13.7
20.07.96	102	2	660	2.0%	6.5	10.5
19.07.98	92	5	1158	5.4%	12.6	16.5
17.07.99	129	11	1412	8.5%	10.9	16.0
16.07.00	146	18	1800	12.3%	12.3	18.5
23.06.01	168	42	1864	25.0%	11.1	17.9
13.10.01	165	41	2610	24.8%	15.8	22.7

Source: Weekly timetables.

Key¹ includes STs and Head Teacher.² total number of students divided by the number of teachers actually in the classroom.

Table 4.2 shows the arrival dates for groups of NLTs and the mentor programmes run for them. It shows that they started their University Certificate TEFL at six-monthly intervals until December 2000 since when no new teachers have arrived in the School.

Table 4.2 Dates of Basic TEFL Courses and Mentor Programmes

Date	Basic Certificate in TEFL	Mentor Programme
12/98	Group 1	
03/99		Group 1
06/99	Group 2 ¹	
12/99	Group 3 ¹	Group 2
06/00	Group 4 ¹	Group 3
12/00	Group 5 ¹	Group 4
06/01 ²	Group 6	Group 5

Source: ST Files and Mentor Programme 1 Course File.

Key¹ These courses were done in the capital city, not in the School.² This programme had not started by 04/03.

Reconnaissance Sub-stage: Manager Perspectives on Mentor Programmes 1 to 4 (February 2001)

In order to obtain information about Mentor Programmes 1 to 4, the Head Teacher, three Senior Teachers and one teacher were all interviewed in February 2001. Documents relating to these programmes were also collected and analysed by coding. Additionally, the researcher made notes in his research diary.

What were Mentor Programmes 1 to 4 like?

Major quantitative and qualitative differences between Programme 1 and the other programmes were revealed. Questionnaires, interviews and document collection after this was realised concentrated on Mentor Programmes 2 to 4, since they were much more comparable to Mentor Programme 5.

Programme 1 was a Basic Certificate in TEFL course, which was certified by a UK University (D39 – D means document. The number following the ‘D’ is the document number. All the

documents are listed in Appendix 4.). It was six months long and consisted of advanced English language, teaching theory and teaching practice (D39). It was taught here at the School by two teachers (I5 – I means interview. The number following the ‘I’ is the interview number. All interviews are listed in Appendix 3.). The mentoring for Programme 1 was done during the teaching practice component by the two teachers who coordinated the Basic Certificate, and was integrated with the rest of the Certificate (I5).

Programmes 2 to 4, on the other hand, were preceded by a very similar Basic Certificate in TEFL with the same contents and validated by the same University (D38). However, from June 1999 the Certificate was taught in the capital city, not in the School, which is located a considerable distance from the capital (Table 4.2). New teachers arriving from the capital city to the School and entering Programmes 2 to 4 had therefore already graduated and been given Company and UK University Certificates prior to their arrival in the School (D38). Mentor Programmes 2 to 4 were all less than four weeks long (I1:3, I2:1 – The number after the colon refers to the page number on the interview transcript.). There was a concentration on familiarisation with the routines of the School, on the induction aspect (I2:1, I4:1). In this respect the comment of one ST was significant. He said, talking about mentor selection on the programme he was in charge of, ‘I think on the basis of experience, capability and probably also being able to deal with people, teach in the presence of another people and be able to pass on information. People that you know can pass on the methodology or whatever is required’ (I4:1). The words ‘pass on information’ describe his view of the mentor’s role.

Several dissatisfactions were expressed with both Programmes 2 to 4 themselves and their results. Both the STs who were in charge of earlier mentor programmes expressed dissatisfaction with way the programmes were organised from the top. One said a new group of nine teachers came ‘and they were given to Fred [another ST] and myself, and we were told to look after them with little or no guidance about how to do it or what they needed.’ (I4:1). The other said he came to be in charge because he ‘happened to be on hand’ when it was discussed (I2:1).

The third ST interviewed said the mentees required much more mentoring than they received (I1:3). He describes the programme rather pessimistically as:

‘They [new teachers] are given a few days, maybe up to a couple of weeks, where they are given a tour of the school, they are shown Development [a section of the School charged with producing new teaching materials], they are shown the Senior Teacher, they get a little briefing, they get a talk on holiday entitlements and pay details and all

that kind of stuff, but after that very brief period they are just dropped in at the deep end like all the other teachers in the school. They are given no support or guidance at all.’ (I1:3).

Two of those interviewed (I3 and I4) related some of the dissatisfaction with Programmes 2 to 4 to the preparation given on the basic TEFL course given in the capital city. Despite these dissatisfactions, two interviewees stated that the QSP as a whole, including the mentoring aspect, was far better than anything provided elsewhere in the company or the military and far better than having no programme at all (I1:3, I3:1). The other interviewees did not comment on this aspect.

What problems were revealed?

The Head Teacher stated (I3:4) that some of the new teachers reported problems with their teaching to him, and that the lesson checker and some of the students also reported teaching problems with some of the newer teachers (I3:4). As well as teaching problems, both STs who managed mentor programmes (I2 and I4) reported problems with lesson preparation, classroom management and time keeping, especially coming to class late (I2:1-2) and leaving School early (I4:4). One ST (I2:4) related this to mentee commitment and attitude towards the programme. He said some of the mentees ‘didn’t enjoy the experience very much.’

Another issue which emerged was mentor selection. The mentors were not selected from the whole staff but from a small pool of, at most, 30 teachers. As one ST explained, ‘They were selected by the fact that they happened to be teaching Book One at the time’ (I2:4). In other words, the English Language Course consisted of five Books at the time, but mentors were only selected from among those teachers teaching the first of these five books.

Both the STs who managed programmes mentioned as problematic the mentor’s lack of authority over the mentee, especially as regards mentee punctuality and leaving early (I2:2, I3:4-6), lesson planning (I2:2) and giving feedback (I3:4). According to one ST, some mentors also felt they should have been briefed more on their role (I2:1).

Finally, one ST who managed the programme (I3) and the Head Teacher both commented on how constrained STs were by time and by ST workload.

Specific Improvements Suggested

These are listed in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 Suggestions for Improvements from the Managers' Interviews

1. Mentors need to be briefed more fully on role (I2:1).
2. Mentor selection should be done better (I2:3-4).
3. The programme should be integral, mentees should not be used for cover lessons 'regardless of outside pressures' (I2:3).
4. Mentees should be given time to settle in, a full orientation, 'if the orientation doesn't matter, does the work matter in that sense' (I2:4).
5. The relationship between mentor and mentee should last longer (I2 and I4).
6. The English level of the new teachers needs improving (I2:3, I3:4, I4:3).
7. New teachers require a refresher course on methodology after three to six months teaching (I4:3).
8. The programme needs additional staff, maybe an ST (I4:5).
9. The programme needs more classroom teaching, more classroom methodology, more explicit teacher training (I3:3).

These are fairly self-explanatory, but a couple of things need further comment. Longer term relationships (point 5) may be hampered by what one ST calls the 'cultural divide' (I2:3) between expatriate mentors and local mentees. The difficulties of arranging English lessons (point 6) for qualified English teachers were mentioned by one ST (I2:3). As regards extra staffing (point 8), one ST believed that STs would certainly have the authority to manage future programmes, but may not have the time (I4:2). The most important suggestion, and the most radical change, was the Head Teacher's suggestion that the programme should move towards a more overt teacher training focus.

Evaluation Sub-stage: Mentor Perspectives on Programmes 2 to 4 (February – March 2001): Questionnaire 1

In late February-early March 2001 questionnaires were given to 15 teachers who had mentored on Programmes 2 to 4 ('previous mentors'). Methods of selection are described in Chapter Three.

The questionnaires were designed to find out about the issues discovered in stage 1, and to inform the interviews planned before the new teachers arrived and Programme 5 was planned. They were designed to find out information (eg Q1:4) as well as attitudes (eg Q1:12). The questionnaires were not statistically analysed, apart from counting. There was space for comments under each question. Table 4.4 shows the topics included in Questionnaire 1.

Table 4.4 Topics Included in Questionnaire 1

Topic	Sub-topic	Question Number
Background information	Mentor experience	First page
Planning, organisation and support	Planning and organisation	1 and 2
	Management support for mentors	8, 19
Mentor role	Mentor briefing for role	3, 12
	Mentor meetings	4, 13
	Mentee appreciation of mentor talk	17
	Mentor comfort with role	7, 18, 20, 21
	Mentor understanding of role	22, 23
Mentor relationship with mentee		5
Time as a constraint		14, 15
Mentor attitude towards mentoring		6, 16
Outcomes	Improvement in mentee teaching skills	9
	Mentor development	10
	Effect on cadet learning	11
Any other comments?		Final page

Planning, Organisation and Support

The answers shown in Table 4.5 added to the understanding that more professional organisation was required. Additionally, several comments were made either under the questions themselves or on the last page. None of these comments were positive or even neutral. The following three comments were typical. ‘The ST in charge gave almost no support.’ ‘Managers should take the task seriously and support mentors.’ ‘There was no structure to it at all.’ One respondent made the point that ‘mentoring [was] too grand a word for what was required.’ ‘Observing classes is not the same as mentoring’ said one informant.

Table 4.5 Planning, Organisation and Support

No	Question	S	D	N	A	S
		D				A
1	I received enough notice that I would be working as a mentor.	2	4	2	5	1
2	The mentoring was organised professionally.	3	7	2	2	0
8	I felt I was adequately supported in my role as mentor.	3	5	4	2	0
19	I did not know who to ask for help in my role as a mentor.	0	4	4	4	2

Mentor Role

The answers to questions 3, 4, 12 and 13 in Table 4.6 reveal further problems concerning programme management. Most mentors felt they were not adequately briefed and needed more guidance. They would have welcomed more opportunity to meet with other mentors before the next programme started. Four of them felt uncomfortable in their role, and five felt

uncomfortable giving advice. In answer to question 7, one mentor was uncomfortable ‘in terms of preparation / time’, another was uncomfortable due to the ‘utter lack of structure to the whole mentoring scheme.’

Most of the mentors saw their role as supportive rather than evaluative (Q1:22), and there was an interesting split over the amount of challenge required (Q1:23). One mentor wrote ‘Challenge. Too confrontational!’ Another wrote about challenging ‘in a supportive way.’

Table 4.6 Mentor Role

No	Question	S D	D	N	A	S A
3	I was adequately briefed on my role as a mentor.	3	7	2	2	0
4	I met with other mentors and exchanged ideas.	6	5	0	2	1
7	I felt comfortable in my role as a mentor.	0	4	1	8	1
12	I would appreciate more guidance on my role as a mentor.	0	2	1	8	3
13	I would appreciate meeting with the other mentors before the next group of teachers arrive.	0	0	4	6	3
17	I feel that what I said to the mentee was appreciated.	1	1	2	8	2
18	I felt uncomfortable giving advice to the mentee.	2	6	1	2	3
20	I felt uncomfortable being observed by another teacher.	2	11	0	1	0
21	I did not know how to handle giving feedback to the mentee.	2	9	1	1	1
22	A mentor’s main job is to support the mentee not to evaluate them.	0	1	1	8	4
23	A mentor needs to challenge a mentee in order to get them to reflect about their teaching.	1	6	2	5	0

Mentor Relationship with Mentee

In Table 4.7 only three mentors reported not managing to develop a relationship of trust. One cited the fact that the mentee was a ‘religious fanatic’ as a reason (I6:1). Another give awkwardness and lack of structure to the programme as a reason.

Table 4.7 Mentor Relationship with Mentee

No	Question	S D	D	N	A	S A
5	I managed to develop a relationship of trust with my mentee.	1	2	4	6	1

Time as a Constraint

Table 4.8 shows that time seemed to have been quite a large constraint on the programme.

Table 4.8 Time as a Constraint

No	Question	S D	D	N	A	S A
14	I feel I didn't have enough time to devote to the mentee.	0	3	2	7	2
15	I didn't meet with the mentee to talk about his teaching as often as I wanted.	0	2	2	7	3

Mentor Attitude towards Mentoring

Table 4.9 shows that most mentors would do the job again. The comments to Question 16 were all by those who said 'disagree' or 'strongly disagree'. Many of them either wanted the meetings to be in school time or in exchange for time off in lieu.

Table 4.9 Mentor Attitude towards Mentoring

No	Question	S D	D	N	A	S A
6	I would do it again if asked.	0	1	1	9	3
16	I would be prepared to meet after school once a week to improve the mentoring next time I do it.	2	4	4	4	0

Outcomes of the Programme

Table 4.10 shows that seven of the mentors felt they were able to improve the teaching skills of the mentee, with only three saying they were not (Q1:9). This seems puzzling given the problems with planning and organisation, and the felt need for more briefing on mentor role revealed above. Only two mentors felt they developed professionally during the process (Q2:10), and that students' learning suffered in half of the classes (Q2:11).

Table 4.10 Outcomes of the Programmes

No	Question	S D	D	N	A	S A
9	I felt that I was able to improve the teaching skills of the mentee.	1	2	4	7	0
10	I feel that I developed professionally in the process.	2	4	6	2	0
11	The students' learning suffered during the process.	0	7	0	6	1

Summary of Questionnaire 1

These questionnaire results indicated that more in-depth probing was required in several areas. The interview schedule therefore was about organisation, support, role of STs, the need for meetings of mentors and mentor training, and the issue of time. The interviews also used the opportunity to find out information about the core activities of Programmes 2 to 4, ie pre-meetings, observation, and giving of feedback.

Evaluation Sub-stage: Mentor Perspectives on Programmes 2 to 4 (June 2001): Mentor Interviews

Mentors were selected from the nine respondents who ticked the 'I would be willing to be interviewed about this' box on the questionnaire. Of these four had made no comments at all under the questions in the space for 'Any comments?' Of the remaining five I selected the three who had expressed the most views of the programmes in the 'Any Comments?' under each question and on the last page. I was aware from their comments and the information they provided that this would give a wide range of views about the programme and a wide range of experience as mentors.

Planning, Organisation and Support

Mentors were asked to suggest improvements to the planning and organisation of future programmes. These are listed in Table 4.11.

These suggestions reinforce the view that mentors were not clear of their role and would have welcomed more guidance (I6:4, I7:8). One interviewee said: 'We were given almost no guidance as to what to do, exactly. It was 'here is your mentee, go off and do it'' (I7:8).

The questions on the need for teacher training and the need for observation tasks show an interesting divergence of opinion. The one mentor who had experience as a mentor before he came to the School supported both these ideas, whereas the other two mentors opposed. One mentor said that mentors don't need training, they need only to know their role, what's expected of them (I6:5). The other mentor equated observation tasks with 'form filling' (I8:2).

Additionally, the one mentor who opposed mentor meetings said: 'It's just a matter of selecting the right person in the school to be a mentor rather than training' (I8:2). These views run counter to the evidence of research into mentoring - see Principles 2a, 2b and 2c.

The same division of opinion is apparent when 'time' is looked at. Two mentors wanted time allocation for mentors for pre- and post- teaching meetings (I6:4, I7:3). They both suggested a reduced teaching timetable (I6:4, I7:3). The other mentor thought that mentoring could be done in the normal working day (I8:2).

Table 4.11 Suggestions for Improvement from the Mentors' Interviews

Suggestion	Suggested by	Notes
Background information on the mentees should be provided before the programme starts.	One mentor (17:4)	
Committed teachers should be selected as mentors and they should understand the amount of time mentoring involves.	One mentor (17:2)	
There should be mentor meetings.	Two mentors suggest this (16:4, 17:4). One opposes it. (18:2).	See discussion below.
These meetings should be both before and during the programme.	Two mentors (16:4, 17:4)	STs should be present at these meetings (16:4).
Guidance should be provided on mentor role.	Two mentors (16:4, 17:8)	See discussion below.
Mentors should be trained in observation and feedback.	One mentor (17:2) suggests this. Two oppose the idea.	See discussion below.
Observation tasks should be provided for mentors and mentees to use.	One mentor suggests this (17:2 & 4). Two oppose the idea.	See discussion below.
Opportunities should be provided for mentee to observe and be observed.	One mentor (18:1)	
The mentee should have the opportunity to receive feedback on his lessons.	One mentor (18:1)	The others may have thought it was too obvious to mention.
Opportunities should be provided for mentees to see as many teachers as possible and as many classes as possible.	One mentor (18:1 & 2)	
Time should be provided for mentors to fulfil their role.	Two mentors suggested this (16:4, 17:3). One mentor opposed it (18:2).	See discussion below.
There should be the opportunity to change mentor if it is not working out.	One mentor (16:2)	
Mentors should be recognised for their contribution to the programme.	One mentor (17:2)	
The programme should have integrity, ie mentees should not be taken out of the programme once it starts.	One mentor (18:2)	

Support from STs

The amount and quality of support provided to the mentors by the STs is commented upon negatively by all the mentors interviewed. This is summarised in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12 Amount and Quality of Support Provided by STs to Mentors

Topic	What ST did	What ST should have done
Mentee always turned up late with no pens, no paper.	Did not do anything when it was mentioned to the ST by the mentor.	Should have had a word (18:4)
Mentee not turning up to observe lessons	Did not do anything when it was mentioned to the ST by the mentor.	Should have spoken to the guy (18:1)
ST observing mentee teach	Did not	Should have (16:1 & 3)
	Did not	Should have (17:7)
ST teaching and being observed by mentee	Did not	Should have (17:6&7)
ST doing input sessions	Did not	Should have (17:6)
ST finding out whether mentee was coping or not	Did not	Should have (17:6)

The above table suggests that mentors seem to have expected a much more ‘hands on’ approach from STs in several ways. First, in dealing with mentees arriving without teaching equipment; secondly, in dealing with mentees not turning up to observe lessons; thirdly, in observing mentees teach; fourthly, in teaching themselves and being observed by mentees; fifthly, in doing input sessions; and finally, in finding out whether the mentee was coping or not. The ST attitude towards mentoring was commented on negatively by all three mentors. One said that the mentoring was ‘a pain in the ‘jacksy’’ to STs and ‘they wanted to get it out of the way as quickly as possible’ (17:8).

Mentor Relationship with Mentee

Two mentors (17 and 18) reported no problems with their relationship with the mentee. However, mentor 6 reported that he found establishing a working relationship difficult. ‘He didn’t like any kind of comments or criticism in any way’ (16:2). He reported that the mentee did not want to meet the mentor after the mentee had taught. (16:2), and that the mentee did not listen to him: ‘I made suggestions ... but he didn’t listen to anything I said’ (16:3).

Mentee Attitude and Commitment

The attitude of some mentees towards and commitment to the programme – already commented upon negatively by STs – was also commented upon by two mentors. One mentor reported his mentee coming late and without the proper equipment (16:1). Another reported his mentee’s lack of lesson planning (18:1). This same mentor reported his mentee saying, after he had

observed only one class in the School ‘I think I know the system now, it’s not necessary for me to observe any more lessons.’ (I8:1)

The Core Activities

One mentor discussed in detail what he did with his mentee. He said (I7:8) that he observed the mentee teaching and made notes while he was observing about points to raise. After the lesson they sat down and discussed how it had gone. He did not give the mentee any tasks to do while teaching (I7:8). He observed the mentee twice and they talked twice (I7:9). They didn’t meet before the lessons (I7:9). They didn’t talk before or after the mentee observed the mentor teach (I7:9). He stressed the importance of mentee lesson planning (I7:9-10).

A second mentor said he met the mentee once before the mentee taught (I6:5), and that after that the mentee didn’t want to meet (I6:3). The third mentee did not state what happened between him and his mentee.

Devising Principles from the Findings

The findings from the evaluation of Programmes 1 to 4 were used to finalise the principles discussed in Chapter Two, which existed in embryonic form throughout the evaluation of these programmes. The findings were used in several ways.

Firstly, new principles were devised. For example, ‘Managers should attempt to secure mentee commitment to the programme’ (P5a). Principle 6 – goodness of fit – was added because there was some evidence, for example in what one ST said about mentor role being to ‘pass on information’ (I4:1), that any programme which expanded mentor role might not ‘fit’ with cultural understandings.

Secondly, the exact wording, and the exact aim, of some principles became clear during the evaluation. For example, ‘Mentors should be of the highest possible quality’ (P8) went through various wordings before being finalized.

Thirdly, some decisions on principles were made after weighing arguments and perspectives apparent in the findings. The findings were thus a catalyst for further researcher reading and reflection. For example, the question of mentor authority over the mentees was eventually resolved through the principles that ‘Managers should be committed to the programme’ (P5b) and ‘Programmes should be supported by the provision of quality administrative support’ (P7b), in other words through seeing the problem not as one of authority but of support for mentors.

Likewise, the researcher came down on the side of the experienced mentor in deciding that 'Programmes should involve mentor training on the core practices of mentoring' (P9) and 'All observations on the programmes should be focussed' (P2b).

Finally, the arguments for certain principles were clarified and strengthened by the findings. For example, the need for a School-wide development programme became much clearer during the evaluation.

CHAPTER FIVE: Planning and Designing Mentor Programme 5

This chapter describes the decisions that were made concerning the planning, organisation and design of Mentor Programme 5. These decisions were based upon the principles outlined in Chapter Two and the 'Findings from the Evaluation of Programmes 1 to 4' in Chapter Four. Appendix 5 is a timetable for Mentor Programme 5 showing the key events.

In reading these decisions, the reader needs to bear in mind one important caveat. The decisions that were made concerning the Mentor Programme 5, as reported below, were not based upon the analysis in the previous chapter. They were based upon a more impressionistic and partial understanding of the findings. Due to time constraints they were based upon the aggregation of the questionnaires, a couple of readings of the interview transcripts, and the researcher and the coordinators' understanding of the literature on mentoring, teacher training and innovation theory at that time. One corollary of this is that several things which were mentioned by STs or previous mentors in interview were not acted upon in the design of Programme 5. Some of these became much more significant later on, for example the quality of lesson planning by mentees and the need for mentors to receive background information on mentees.

Planning and Organisation of Mentor Programme 5

Mentor programme 5 was carefully designed to allow mentors considerable autonomy within an agreed set of objectives. An attempt was made in planning and designing the programme to balance the old and the new (P4c). This meant that several aspects of the previous programmes were deliberately retained, for example the methods of selection of mentors. The most radical departure from previous programmes was assessed by the coordinators as the change in objectives from 'familiarisation' to overt teacher training. The length of the programme was also set at four weeks. The longest previous programme being about three weeks previously (I2:1).

It was decided to:

- plan and design Programme 5 in detail before it started (P1)
- involve others in the design and planning by having planning meetings with STs and mentor meetings before the programme started (P4c)
- make the length of programme 4 weeks (intensive) (P5)

- change the objectives from familiarisation to overt teacher training focus and measure them in two ways – SMART objectives and against the principles (P11)
- not ‘over-police’ the programme, ie give mentors autonomy over many of the core activities of the programme (P4c)
- maintain the integrity of programme by making sure mentees not removed from programme once it has started (P1)
- keep the same system of selection of mentors by asking for volunteers from the classes in the areas of the two STs teaching Book 2 (P8)
- keep the matching of mentor and mentee random (P5)
- ‘counterpart’ a third coordinator to take over the programme next time (P4c)
- reduce the ST role to giving inductions, attending meetings, giving advice and being available to help (P4, P5)

Support

The coordinators and the Head Teacher decided that Programme 5 would be much better supported than the previous programmes. This support included the three coordinators and provision of meetings before and during the programme. Additionally, prospective mentors were exempted from ‘supervised private studies’ in the afternoons during the programme. (See the glossary.)

It was decided to:

- provide background information on the mentees for the mentors before the mentees arrived (P7b)
- provide three experienced and qualified teacher trainers on half-teaching timetables to coordinate the programme (P7)
- conduct mentor meetings before mentees arrived (to brief on role, and to train mentors in observation and feedback) (4 x one hour) (P2, P8, P9)
- conduct weekly mentor meetings during the programme (teachers freed by mentees teaching their class) (P7)
- conduct mentee briefings during the programme (8 x one lesson) (P3)
- provide workshops for mentees on the School’s new course and use these as an opportunity for teacher training (P7)
- provide cover lessons (coordinators) so that mentors could meet with mentees (P7b)
- provide tea and biscuits at all meetings, including a ‘meet your mentee/mentor’ meeting at the beginning of the programme, and an end of programme ‘breakfast’ in the School (P7)

- provide completion certificates for mentors and mentees (P2a)
- produce mentor and mentee handbooks for future programmes (P7a).

Core activities

These were not decided in detail in advance of the mentor meetings, but were discussed and agreed at the mentor meetings before the mentees arrived.

It was decided to:

- get agreement on a) a minimum number of times mentor will observe mentee, b) a minimum number of times mentee will observe mentor, c) a minimum number of times mentee will teach unobserved, and d) a minimum number of times mentee will observe other teachers. These were turned into SMART objectives (P2a)
- get agreement that the observations will have the following format; pre-observation meeting, observation, post-observation meeting (P2a, P2b)
- design tasks for mentors and mentees to use during the observations (P2c).

The new aspects of this were the fact of involvement of mentors in the decisions, and mentees observing a wider range of teachers and classes than before.

Evaluation

It was decided to conduct an in-depth evaluation of the programme involving:

- questionnaires for all mentors and mentees (P11a, P11b)
- interviews of mentors and mentees (P11a, P11b)
- interviews of STs and coordinators (P11a, P11b)
- collection of documents relevant to the programme (P11a, P11b)
- the keeping of a research diary and 'decisions made' documents before, during and after programme (P11a, P11b, P11d).

These would be fed back to the School through reports and a meeting of interested parties before Programme 6 started (P11c).

CHAPTER SIX: Further Evaluation of Programmes 2 to 4

This chapter presents the findings from stage 6 of the research - the further evaluation of Mentor Programmes 2 to 4. This involves reporting on the interviews with one mentor and three mentees carried out in July and September 2001. These were shown in Table 3.9. This chapter comes after Chapter Five because the findings presented here were not available to the planners of Programme 5.

Planning, Organising and Designing Programmes 2 to 4 (Principles 1 to 3)

The evidence from the mentor tended to support the findings presented in Chapter Four. The mentor, who mentored three different NLTs on three different programmes, discussed poor mentee classroom management skills (I25:3), mentee language errors (I25:3), imitation ('parroting') of the mentor by mentees (I25:3-4), lack of mentee class control (I25:5) and lack of lesson preparation (I25:5). The mentor complained about mentees being removed from the programme before they were ready 'because they needed a body in a classroom' (I25:1, 2). He felt the programmes he was on were poorly organised, 'So much seemed to be left just to the individual teachers' (I25:1, 10).

Two mentees also felt that the programme they were on was poorly organised (I27, I30). One mentee stated that he started teaching on his second day in the School, there was no programme for him, he was not observed by anybody, and he did not observe anybody teach (I27:1, 2). He said, 'We were not given at least a proper orientation about the school' (I27:2).

The mentor stressed the importance of the first time a mentor observes a mentee. 'I would make it less intimidating, the first session, the very first session, they were all, the first two were very nervous' (I25:8).

One mentee would have liked to have seen a variety of different teachers teach rather than just one (I30:3). Another mentee would like to have observed specific lessons, for example on specific grammar points (I17:7-8). One mentee thought one week was long enough for the programme (I30).

Management (Principles 4 and 5)

This was not discussed.

Goodness of Fit (Principle 6)

This was not discussed.

Support (Principle 7)

This was not discussed.

Mentor Selection and Mentor Quality (Principle 8)

There is some evidence from these interviews of variable mentor quality and commitment. One mentor did not observe the mentee teach (I17:6), whereas one mentee seemed to have had a quality mentor – the mentor showed the mentee his lesson plans, he helped the mentee plan lessons and sat with him during most breaks, as well as observing the mentee teach (I30:1-2), although he did not give him much feedback on his teaching (I30:3).

There was further evidence of the difficulties of establishing a relationship as an expatriate with NLTs (I25:8-9). One mentor did not establish any kind of relationship (I17). ‘His personality seems that he doesn’t like many relationships. Some people, you get along with them easily, but that teacher, no’ (I17:4). The mentor talked about expatriate teachers and local teachers being in ‘two camps’ (I25:9). He explained this meant that the locals stuck together and the expatriates did the same (I25:9).

One mentee would have preferred to have been mentored by a Senior Teacher (I27:3).

Mentor Training (Principle 9)

The mentor stated that there was no mentor briefing or training before the programme started (I25:2).

Outcomes (Principle 10)

The mentor observed very little change in mentee teaching skills in any of the three mentees – he put this down to the programme being too short (I25:2, 3).

Evaluation (Principles 11 to 13)

This was not discussed.

CHAPTER SEVEN: Findings from the Evaluation of Mentor Programme 5 – The Questionnaires

This chapter presents the findings from the three questionnaires used as part of the evaluation of Mentor Programme 5. The findings are presented in three parts. The first part reports the findings from Questionnaire 2 – the mentor perspectives on mentor training. This was the questionnaire on the mentor meetings which took place in April and May 2001 before the mentees arrived. See Appendix 5. The second part reports the findings from Questionnaire 3 - the summative mentee perspectives on the programme. The third part reports the findings from Questionnaire 4 - the summative mentor perspectives on the programme. The three parts are shown in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1 Stage 5: Evaluation of Mentor Programme 5 - Questionnaires

Phase	Source of Data
Mentor perspectives on Mentor Training (May 2001)	Questionnaire 2 (n = 9 returned from 11)
Mentee Perspectives on Mentor Programme 5 (June – July 2001)	Questionnaire 3 (n = 7 returned from 7)
Mentor Perspectives on Mentor Programme 5 (June – July 2001)	Questionnaire 4 (n = 7 returned from 7)

Mentor Perspectives on Mentor Training – Questionnaire 2

At the end of the mentor meetings before the mentees arrived, questionnaires were given to all 11 teachers who had attended the meetings. The questionnaire was designed to provide a comparison with Mentor Programmes 2 to 4, to inform final decisions for the design of Mentor Programme 5, to inform the design of mentor training for Mentor Programme 6 and to inform the mentor and mentee interviews. The questionnaires were not statistically analysed, apart from counting. Background information on the prospective mentors' experience as mentors was sought on the first page. There was space for comments under each question, and for 'Any other comments?' at the end of the questionnaire. Respondents had the opportunity to remain anonymous. Table 7.2 shows the topics included in Questionnaire 2.

Table 7.2 Topics Included in Questionnaire 2

Topic	Sub-topic	Question Number	Principle Number
Background Information	Mentor Experience	First page	n/a
Planning, organisation, and design	Planning, organisation and design	1, 2, 8, 12, 18	P1-3
	Objectives	5, 13	P1
Goodness of Fit		20, 23	P6
Support		4, 14, 17, 19, 21	P7
Mentor Training	General	10, 16, 24	P8
	Mentor briefings for role	3, 7	P9
	Mentor meetings	6, 9, 22	
	Mentor understanding of role	11, 15	
Any other comments?		Final page	n/a

Planning, Organisation, and Design (Principles 1 to 3)

Table 7.3 shows that prospective mentors felt that Programme 5 was well planned and organised (Q2:2, 18) and they understood the programme objectives (Q2:5). The two questions added as a result of informal feedback (Q2:8, 12), however, indicated disquiet from some prospective mentors over the amount of organisation and formality of the programme. Several written comments supported the view that for some prospective mentors the organisation was ‘over the top’. Two prospective mentors in particular mentioned the meetings. One wanted ‘less meetings and less paperwork’, and another ‘thought maybe that some of the meetings were drawn out too much. There tended to be too much repetition.’ His advice was to ‘keep it as relevant and as clear as possible. Cut out the jargon.’

Table 7.3 Questionnaire 2: Planning, Organisation, and Design

No	Question	S	D	N	A	S
		D				A
1	The mentoring programme is not what I expected.	1	4	0	3	0
2	The mentoring has been organised professionally so far.	0	0	1	5	3
5	I understand the objectives of the programme.	0	0	1	5	3
8	The programme is over-organised.	0	2	3	3	1
12	I expected the programme to be less formalised.	0	3	3	3	0
13	The programme objectives are achievable.	0	0	1	6	2
18	The programme has been well-planned so far.	0	0	0	6	3

Goodness of Fit (Principle 6)

The results shown in Table 7.4 seemed more equivocal, with prospective mentors commenting on the inappropriacy of some observation tasks, and possible detrimental effects on the mentors' own class. One prospective mentor also wrote that he doubted whether 'it [the mentor programme] will work as well as it could owing to the underlying School culture.'

Table 7.4 Questionnaire 2: Goodness of Fit

No	Question	S D	D	N	A	S A
20	The programme does not adequately take into account the constraints of working here.	1	1	3	3	1
23	The success of the programme depends on too many outside factors.	0	2	4	3	0

Support (Principle 7)

The questions on support revealed that mentors felt well supported. Many of the positive comments on the last page of the questionnaire showed appreciation of the support provided, especially the exemption from 'supervised private studies', the information, the handouts and the tea and biscuits that were provided.

Table 7.5 Questionnaire 2: Support

No	Question	S D	D	N	A	S A
4	I have been adequately supported in my role so far.	0	0	1	6	2
5	I understand the objectives of the programme.	0	0	1	5	3
13	The programme objectives are achievable.	0	0	1	6	2
14	The materials have been professionally produced.	0	0	1	7	1
17	I like the idea of producing a handbook for future mentors and mentees.	0	0	0	7	2
19	I know who to ask in my role as mentor.	0	0	1	6	2
21	I like the idea that mentors and mentees will have a task to perform while they are observing each other teach.	0	0	1	8	0

Mentor Training (Principles 8-9)

Table 7.6 also seemed to suggest that the aims were being met. Most prospective mentors claimed to have learned something (Q2:10) and to have taken the opportunity to reflect more on their teaching (Q2:16). Unfortunately, this does not seem to have spread to the staffroom (Q2:24). Only two of the mentors felt they needed more guidance on their role (Q2:7). All the mentors seem to have appreciated the meetings as an opportunity to exchange ideas (Q2:6, 9).

Most mentors felt part of a team (Q2:22). Most mentors felt their job was to support mentees (Q2:15). Most mentors felt they needed to challenge the mentee to get him to reflect (Q2:11).

Table 7.6 Questionnaire 2: Mentor Training

No	Question	S D	D	N	A	S A
6	The meetings have been relevant towards achieving the objectives of the programme.	0	0	1	6	2
7	I would like more guidance on my role as a mentor.	2	3	2	1	1
9	I welcome the opportunity I have had to exchange ideas with others at the meetings.	0	0	0	7	2
10	I have learned something from the programme.	0	1	1	5	2
11	A mentor needs to challenge a mentee in order to get him to reflect about his teaching.	0	2	2	4	1
15	A mentor's main job is to support the mentee not to evaluate them.	0	2	1	4	2
16	The programme so far has given me the opportunity to think about my beliefs about teaching and learning.	0	0	2	7	0
22	I feel that I'm part of a mentoring team.	0	0	2	5	2
24	Since the programme began I find myself talking about teaching and learning more with my colleagues.	0	4	2	2	1

Additional Comments

The most frequent comments under 'Any other comments?' were worries about mentee commitment to the programme. This was mentioned by five of the nine who completed the questionnaire and five of the six who commented on the last page. The main concerns was with how the mentees would take to being advised by a fellow teacher, and whether they would feel they had 'done their training and have little else to learn' to quote one respondent.

One prospective mentor expressed a very different view of the programme than the others. His comment under question 1 (see above for question wordings) was 'I thought it would be more practical and aligned to the School. In fact I feel that it has become largely an academic exercise for external reasons.' His comment under question 2 was 'Yes, but for the wrong reasons. More, I think to give a good image to the military and to look good academically.' The answers to the other questions are all similar. The answer to question 5 was the most clear. 'I think I understand the objectives of the programme. PhD's, brownie points and even looking after new teachers.'

Summary of the Findings from Questionnaire 2

- Most prospective mentors felt Programme 5 was well planned and organised.
- Most felt that they understood the programme objectives.
- A few prospective mentors felt the planning was over-organised.
- One prospective mentor felt the programme was being done for the wrong reasons.
- Some doubts were expressed about the appropriacy of the observation tasks and the fit to the School's culture.
- Mentors felt well supported.
- Most mentors felt the mentor training was beneficial in terms of briefing on role and exchanging ideas.
- Many mentors were concerned about the commitment of the mentees to the programme.

Mentee Perspectives on Mentor Programme 5 (June – July 2001) – Questionnaire 3

At the end of Mentor Programme 5, questionnaires were given to all 7 mentees. All 7 were returned. The questionnaire was designed to provide a comparison with Mentor Programmes 2 to 4, to inform the design of mentor training for Mentor Programme 6, and to inform the mentee and mentor interviews.

The questionnaires were not statistically analysed, apart from counting. There was space for comments under each question, and the final page included open completion statements ('I am worried that', 'I am pleased that', 'I doubt whether', '3 things that can be done better next time', and '3 things that have worked well/that I liked in the programme') as well as space for 'Any other comments?'. Respondents had the opportunity to remain anonymous. Table 7.7 shows the topics included in Questionnaire 3.

Table 7.7 Topics Included in Questionnaire 3

Topic	Sub-topic	Question Number	Principle Number
Planning, organisation, and design	Planning and organisation	1, 2, 18	P1-3
	Objectives	5	
	Programme length	26	
Support		4, 9, 14, 17, 19, 25	P7
Mentor Selection and Mentor Quality	Relationship	12, 13, 20	P8
Mentor Training	Understanding of mentor role	3, 15	P9
	Mentor performance	7, 11, 22, 24	
	Mentee comfort with role	23	
Outcomes	Improvement in mentee teaching skills	6	P10
	Programme meeting mentee needs	8, 10	
	Mentee Development	16, 21, 27	
Any other comments?		Final page	n/a

Planning, Organisation and Design (Principles 1 to 3)

Table 7.8 seemed to support the view from Questionnaire2, that Mentor Programme 5 was professionally organised.

Table 7.8 Questionnaire 3: Planning, Organising, and Designing

No	Question	S D	D	N	A	S A
1	The mentoring programme is not what I expected.	0	6	1	0	0
2	The mentoring has been organised professionally.	0	0	0	6	1
5	I understand the objectives of the programme.	0	0	0	3	4
18	The programme was well-planned.	0	0	0	7	0
26	Four weeks was too long for the mentoring.	0	6	0	0	0

Support (Principle 7)

Table 7.9 shows that most of the mentees felt that the programme was adequately supported (Q3:4) and that the materials were professionally produced (3:14). They knew who to ask for help (Q3:19) and liked the idea of a handbook (Q3:17). Two mentees felt the School cared about them (Q3:25). Only one mentee found the observation tasks useful (Q3:9).

Table 7.9 Questionnaire 3: Support

No	Question	S D	D	N	A	S A
4	The programme has been adequately supported.	0	0	2	2	3
9	I liked the idea of having tasks to do when observing the mentor teach.	0	1	5	1	0
14	The materials for the programme were professionally produced.	0	1	2	3	1
17	I like the idea of producing a handbook for future mentors and mentees.	0	0	2	2	3
19	I know who to ask for help.	0	0	1	4	2
25	This is a school that cares about me as an individual.	0	1	2	2	0

Mentor Selection and Mentor Quality (Principle 8)

Table 7.10 shows that there seemed to have been a relationship of trust, with mentees feeling very comfortable being given advice and appreciating what the mentor said to them.

Table 7.10 Questionnaire 3: Mentor Selection and Mentor Quality

No	Question	S D	D	N	A	S A
12	I appreciated what the mentor said to me.	0	0	0	4	3
13	I felt uncomfortable being given advice by my mentor.	5	2	0	0	0
20	My mentor and I have a relationship of trust.	0	0	1	3	3

Mentor Training (Principle 9)

In Table 7.11 the mentees seemed to have understood the mentor's role (Q3:3) and to have been pleased with the way the mentor performed his role (Q3:7) and listened to the mentee (Q3:11). The feedback seems to have been handled professionally (Q3:24). The mentees felt that the mentees had enough time to devote to them (Q3:22). Mentees defined the mentor's role as supporting rather than evaluative (Q3:15). However, only three mentees were comfortable being observed by other teachers (Q3:23).

Table 7.11 Questionnaire 3: Mentor Training

No	Question	S	D	N	A	S
		D				A
3	I understand the role of the mentor.	0	0	0	5	2
7	The mentor performed his role well.	0	0	0	5	1
11	I felt that the mentor really listened to what I had to say.	0	0	0	5	2
15	A mentor's main job is to support the mentee not to evaluate mentees.	0	0	0	5	2
22	I felt that the mentor didn't have enough time to devote to me.	0	5	1	1	0
23	I felt uncomfortable being observed by other teachers.	1	2	0	1	2
24	The feedback was handled professionally.	0	0	0	6	0

Outcomes of the Programme (Principle 10)

Table 7.12 shows the outcomes. One of the most important objectives of the programme was to improve the teaching skills of the mentees. Three felt the skills did not improve (Q3:6). Most did, however, seem to have picked up classroom survival strategies (Q3:27), another important aim of the programme. No mentees disagreed that the programme really met their needs (Q3:8). Four mentees took the opportunity to think more about their beliefs about teaching and learning (Q3:16). The responses to question 10 seemed to indicate that more needs to be done to help the mentees with the new communicative English course. Although only one mentee disagreed with question 21, three mentees made negative comments about taking risks and experimenting during the lessons they taught.

Table 7.12 Questionnaire 3: Outcomes

No	Question	S	D	N	A	S
		D				A
6	I felt that I was able to improve my teaching skills.	0	1	2	3	1
8	I feel that the mentor programme really met my needs.	0	0	1	4	2
10	I learned what I needed to know about the new course.	0	1	2	3	0
16	The programme has given me the opportunity too think about my beliefs about teaching and learning.	0	0	3	3	1
21	I felt free to take risks and experiment during the lessons I taught.	0	1	4	2	0
27	I learned some useful classroom survival strategies.	0	1	1	5	0

Summary of the Findings from Questionnaire 3

- Mentees felt Programme 5 was professionally organised.
- Mentees felt they were adequately supported.
- Only one mentee liked the idea of having tasks to do when observing.
- Mentees understood the mentor's role and were pleased with the way it was carried out.
- Three mentees felt their teaching skills did not improve, although most learned useful classroom survival strategies.
- Mentees felt more needs to be done about the new English course.

Mentor Perspectives on Mentor Programme 5 (June – July 2001) – Questionnaire 4

At the end of Mentor Programme 5, questionnaires were given to all 7 mentors. All 7 were returned. The questionnaire was designed to provide a comparison with Programmes 2 to 4, to inform the design of mentor training for Programme 6, and to inform the mentee and mentor interviews.

The questionnaires were not statistically analysed, apart from counting. The layout and contents of the final page was exactly the same as for Questionnaire 3. Table 7.13 shows the topics included in Questionnaire 4.

Table 7.13 Topics Included in Questionnaire 4

Topic	Sub-topic	Question number	Principle number
Background information	Mentor experience	First page	n/a
Planning, organisation and design	Programme length	24	P1-3
	Variety of Observations	15	P2a
Management	Mentee commitment to the programme	21	P5a
Support		1, 2, 4, 7, 17, 18, 22, 23	P7
Mentor Selection and Mentor Quality	Relationship	20	P8
	Mentor attitude towards mentoring	3	
	Involvement of mentor in programme design	10	
	Mentor visiting other teacher's classes	19	
Mentor Training	Mentee appreciation of mentor talk	9	P9
	Mentor comfort with role	11, 12, 13, 14	
Outcomes	Improvement in mentee teaching skills	6	P10
	Mentor development	5, 16	
	Mentee development	25	
	Effect on cadet learning	8	
Any other comments?		Final page	n/a

Planning, Organisation and Design (Principles 1-3)

Table 7.14 shows that mentors appreciated the variety of visits in the Programme. Mentors felt that four weeks did not seem to be too long for the programme.

Table 7.14 Questionnaire 4: Planning, Organisation and Design

No	Question	S D	D	N	A	S A
15	I like the idea of the mentee visiting other teacher's classes during the programme.	0	0	0	2	5
24	Four weeks was too long for the mentoring.	0	6	1	0	0

Management (Principle 5)

One mentor felt that the mentee was not as committed as he was.

Table 7.15 Questionnaire 4: Management

No	Question	S D	D	N	A	S A
21	The mentee was as committed to the programme as I was.	0	1	2	4	0

Support (Principle 7)

The results in Table 7.16 seem to indicate that the support for mentors was appreciated (Q4:4), especially the credits given for afternoon studies (Q4:2, 18). However, less than half of the mentors agreed that the tasks were useful (Q4:1, 7, 17). Two mentors felt that they did not have enough time and three did not meet the mentee as often as they wanted.

Table 7.16 Questionnaire 4: Support

No	Question	S D	D	N	A	S A
1	I found the observation tasks for the mentor useful.	0	2	2	3	0
2	I was able to make use of the cover lessons.	0	3	1	3	0
4	I have been adequately supported in my role as mentor.	0	0	1	5	1
7	I found the observation tasks for the mentee useful.	0	2	2	3	0
17	I have used the sets of observation tasks.	0	3	1	3	0
18	I appreciate the credits I have been given for afternoon studies.	0	0	0	2	5
22	I feel I didn't have enough time to devote to the mentee.	0	4	1	1	1
23	I didn't meet with the mentee to talk about his teaching as often as I wanted.	0	2	1	2	1

Mentor Selection and Mentor Quality (Principle 8)

Table 7.17 shows that most mentors managed to develop a relationship of trust with their mentees, with nobody disagreeing to question 20. Most mentors would be mentors again if asked (Q4:3). No mentors wanted more involvement in the design of the programme (Q4:10). Only one mentor took advantage of the opportunity to visit other teacher's classes (Q4:19).

Table 7.17 Questionnaire 4: Mentor Selection and Mentor Quality

No	Question	S D	D	N	A	S A
3	I would do it again if asked.	0	1	0	5	0
10	I was involved as much as I wanted to be in the design of the mentoring programme.	0	0	1	6	0
19	I took the opportunity of visiting other teachers' classes.	0	3	2	1	0
20	I managed to develop a relationship of trust with my mentee.	0	0	2	3	2

Mentor Training (Principle 9)

In Table 7.18 most mentors appear to have been comfortable in their role as mentor (Q4:11, 12, 13), and felt that what they said to the mentee was appreciated (4:9), given the training. However, two mentors were uncomfortable giving advice to their mentee and three were neither comfortable nor uncomfortable (Q4:11). All mentors felt they handled the feedback sensitively (Q4:14).

Table 7.18 Questionnaire 4: Mentor Training

No	Question	S D	D	N	A	S A
9	I feel that what I said to the mentee was appreciated.	0	0	1	4	2
11	I felt uncomfortable giving advice to the mentee.	0	2	3	2	0
12	I felt uncomfortable being observed by another teacher.	1	4	2	0	0
13	I felt comfortable in my role as a mentor.	0	0	1	5	1
14	I feel that I handled the feedback sensitively.	0	0	0	5	2

Outcomes (Principle 10)

Table 7.19 shows that just less than half of the mentors felt they were able to improve the teaching skills of the mentee, with one mentee unable to improve the skills (Q4:9). Some mentors felt they had developed professionally during the programme, but one strongly disagreed that he had developed (Q4:5). Three mentors did not use the programme as an opportunity to think about their beliefs about teaching and learning (Q4:16). Some mentors felt that students' learning suffered during the programme (Q4:8). Nearly all mentors felt their mentees learned some useful survival strategies (Q4:25)

Table 7.19 Questionnaire 4: Outcomes

No	Question	S D	D	N	A	S A
5	I feel that I developed professionally in the process.	1	0	3	3	0
8	The students' learning suffered during the mentoring.	0	2	2	3	0
9	I felt that I was able to improve the teaching skills of the mentee.	0	1	3	3	0
16	The programme has given me the opportunity to think about my beliefs about teaching and learning.	0	2	1	4	0
25	The mentee learned some useful survival strategies.	0	0	1	5	1

Additional Comments

Similar to the mentees, there were a wide variety of comments on the programme on the last page reflecting a wide divergence of opinions, from the very positive to the negative. One mentor wrote about 'the unresolved problem of being a fellow teacher, but also observing and giving 'feedback''. Specific suggestions for improvements included emphasising lesson planning more in future programmes, making clearer the programme's expectations of mentee behaviour and tightening up on roles and tasks in the programme. Several of the mentors doubted whether any improvements would be long lasting. For example, a mentor doubted whether 'my teaching methods will have any long term effect on his teaching 'style''. One other mentor went further and wrote that the programme was 'too much, too soon'. He doubted

whether ‘such an ambitious programme, most of which is better left in textbooks, can ever be successfully applied. ... with our teaching setup.’

Summary of Questionnaire 4

- Mentors appreciated the variety of visits in the programme.
- Most mentors thought the mentees were committed to the programme.
- Some mentors did not have enough time for their mentees.
- Support for mentors, especially credits for afternoon studies, was appreciated.
- Less than half the mentors thought the observation tasks were useful.
- Most mentors managed to develop a relationship of trust.
- No mentors wanted more involvement in the design of the programme.
- Only one mentor took advantage of the opportunity to visit other teacher’s classes.
- Some mentors felt uncomfortable giving advice to the mentee, but felt they handled the feedback sensitively.
- Less than half of the mentors felt they were able to improve the teaching skills of the mentee.
- Three mentors did not use the programme as an opportunity to think about their beliefs about teaching and learning.
- Some mentors felt they had developed professionally during the programme.
- Some mentors felt that students’ learning suffered during the programme.
- Some mentors felt roles should be tightened up on the programme.
- Some mentors thought any benefits from the programme would not be long lasting.

Areas Requiring Further Probing in Interviews

- Mentor attitudes towards the amount of planning, visiting each other’s classes, giving advice to the mentee.
- Mentor and mentee use of and attitudes towards the observation tasks.
- Mentee commitment to the programme.
- Whether there was any improvement in mentee teaching skills and the reasons.
- Whether students’ learning suffered during the programme and the reasons.
- Why some mentors felt any benefits from the programme would not be long lasting.

CHAPTER EIGHT: The Findings from the Evaluation of Mentor Programme 5 – The Other Data

This chapter presents the findings from the evaluation of Mentor Programme 5, other than the findings from Questionnaires 2, 3 and 4 presented in the last chapter. The most extensive of these findings is the eighteen interviews conducted between July and September 2001. The other data includes documents and the researcher’s organizational diary. This data is shown in Table 8.1

Table 8.1 Stage 5: Evaluation of Mentor Programme 5 - Other Data

Sub-stage	Phase	Source of Data
Analysis of Other Data	Mentor Perspectives on Mentor Programme 5 (July and Sept 2001)	Mentor Interviews (n = 6)
	Mentee Perspectives on Mentor Programme 5 (July and Sept 2001)	Mentee Interviews (n = 7)
	Managers’ Perspectives on Mentor Programme (July and Sept 2001)	ST Interviews (n = 2), Head Teacher (n=1) Coordinators (n = 2)
	Overall	Researcher’s Research diary Documents, eg minutes of meetings before, during and after programme; programme timetables; lesson checks; comments on earlier drafts of Thesis chapters

Planning, Organising and Designing Mentor Programme 5 (Principles 1 to 3)

Coherent, Well Planned, Well organised and Well Designed (Principle 1)

All the participants in the programme evaluated the planning and organisation positively. For example, the Head Teacher said ‘a lot of time and effort went into the planning, a lot of thought went into it’ (I20:1). The mentee comments were particularly positive with the induction activities, the core activities and the programme design and structure being discussed positively. Several mentees were impressed by the ‘step by step’ programme design (eg I15:1, I21:4).

However, a few of the positive evaluations were qualified. For example, one mentor felt the programme required remoulding and restructuring to make sure the mentees were doing things like the observation tasks (I9:26).

One ST thought the programme was well organised within the constraints, but he did not agree with the constraints, specifically the way the mentors were selected and the programme length (I13:3). Both of these are discussed in some detail on pages 124 to 125 and page 143 respectively.

Three structural problems were revealed during the day-to-day running of the course. Firstly, according to the Head Teacher, the first and second coordinators were 'disadvantaged by being distanced from the programme' (I20:3). 'You had two layers between you and the mentees. There was you, Ken [the third coordinator], the mentor, the mentee. Now that's a long distance' (I20:11). This view is supported by second coordinator (I29:7, 20) who talked about needing 'closer contact' with the mentees. Secondly, some mentees required psycho-social support dealing with finding and setting up accommodation and a new job at the same time. The second coordinator said one mentee was 'overwhelmed' by the School and the move, and two mentors complained about their mentees not preparing lessons properly because they were concerned with finding accommodation (I9:3, I18:2). Thirdly, there was a divorce between authority and responsibility on the programme. The mentors were in a sense responsible for their mentees, but had no authority over them (D25, I16:5, I18:11). Some mentors felt awkward dealing with mentee lateness to class and leaving the School early. As one mentor said to a coordinator 'I'm dealing with a colleague, not with a trainee' (I16:5). The coordinators themselves did not have the authority to direct either mentors or mentees (I29:37).

There was disagreement about whether the programme should have been more formalised by, for example, timetabling lesson observations in advance (D28). Another suggestion was to involve an ST as a coordinator to add institutional authority to the programme (I20:3).

These issues of planning and organisation are entangled with issues of programme management. For example, the day-to-day programme organisation, the distance of the first two coordinators from the mentees may reflect management 'style' as much as programme design. This issue is taken up again on pages 113 to 120.

No mentees were removed from the programme during its duration. All the mentees were still on the programme at the end-of-programme evaluation meeting of 20th June (D26).

There were different attitudes towards the researcher's involvement in Programme 5 as researcher and how that affected the programme design and organisation. The Head Teacher said: 'I think probably your external academic interest probably benefited the programme because it was so rigorously thought out' (I20:18). However, he also quoted one ST who said

the mentors felt ‘more like guinea pigs in somebody else’s social experiment’ (I20:18).

Another ST referred to the programme as a ‘pet project’ (I13:11).

There was no overall School-wide development programme in the School at the time. There was not even much follow up for the mentees on Programme 5 once they got their own class, but were still officially on the QLP (I13:2, 27). The coordinators all went back to full time teaching jobs in the School after the programme finished (RD:164, 09/09/01 - Research Diary. The number following the ‘RD’ is the page number in the diary. Where it is important the date is included.).

Structured Learning Opportunities (Principle 2)

The most important structured learning opportunities were the lesson observations and the meetings that happened between mentor and mentee before and after they both taught. The amount and quality of guidance and feedback given in these meetings and whether such guidance and feedback was related to mentee concerns are all evaluated below. Issues related to the structured learning opportunities such as lesson planning and the English level of the mentee are also discussed.

The Lesson Observations Done on the Programme

‘It wasn’t like that on the plan’ (I29:14).

Table 8.2 on page 96 summarises data concerning the lesson observations done on the programme. Column 1 shows mentee and mentor accounts of what happened when the mentee taught and the mentor observed. Column 2 shows mentee and mentor accounts of what happened when the mentor taught and the mentee observed. Column 3 shows mentee accounts of what happened when the mentee observed teachers other than the mentor teach. Finally, column 4 shows mentee accounts of what happened when the mentee taught unobserved by anyone. The number in brackets after the column titles shows the number of the different types of observations agreed at the meeting of 19th May and incorporated into SMART objectives for Programme 5 (D37).

Table 8.2 Lesson Observations done During Programme 5

Pair No ¹	Questions	Column 1		Column 2		Column 3	Column 4	Notes
		Mentee teaching, mentor observing (8)		Mentor teaching, mentee observing (10)		Mentee observing Other teachers (5+)	Mentee Teaching Unobserved (5+)	
1	How many classes? Meet before? How long? Meet after? How long?	5 <i>a lot, 5-30 m³</i> <i>yes</i>	5 every time 3 or 4 times	5 <i>yes</i> <i>DK1</i>	3-4 always, 15-0m yes	10 <i>no</i> <i>no</i>	<i>A lot</i> <i>yes 10 m</i> <i>yes, 10 m</i>	Very different accounts of dealing with discipline
2	How many classes? Meet before? How long? Meet after? How long?	4-5 <i>5-20 m</i> <i>yes, 5-15 m</i>	6-8 yes most times	4-5 <i>not always</i> <i>no</i>	10-12 DK1 no	8 <i>no</i> <i>very briefly</i>	<i>yes,</i> <i>DK3</i> <i>DK3</i>	
3	How many classes? Meet before? How long? Meet after? How long?	2-3 <i>once, 10 m</i> <i>once or twice</i>	7 90%, 15m most times	3? <i>DK3</i> <i>Once/twice, 5 m</i>	7+ DK1 DK1	7? <i>no</i> <i>no</i>	<i>yes</i> <i>DK1</i> <i>DK1</i>	Very different accounts in column 1.
4	How many classes? Meet before? How long? Meet after? How long?	10 <i>yes, 5 m</i> <i>every time, 10+m</i>	6 yes yes	8-9 <i>no</i> <i>no</i>	2-3 DK1 no	<i>DK2</i> <i>no</i> <i>no</i>	<i>yes,</i> <i>at first</i> <i>at first</i>	Very different accounts of mentee lesson preparation
5	How many classes? Meet before? How long? Meet after? How long?	7 <i>yes, 5-15 m</i> <i>Every time</i>	DK4 ²	9? <i>sometimes, 1m</i> <i>2-3 m</i>	DK4	6? <i>no</i> <i>no</i>	<i>yes</i> <i>yes, 20 m</i> <i>always, 10 m</i>	Did not interview mentor.
6	How many classes? Meet before? How long? Meet after? How long?	<i>none</i>	4-5 yes, 5-10m yes, 5-10m	4-5 <i>no</i> <i>15m</i>	2 or 4-5 yes, <15m 1 st time	<i>10 or 15 A Few</i> <i>no</i> <i>yes</i>	<i>1 or 2 lessons/day</i> <i>yes, 5-10m</i> <i>yes, short time</i>	Irreconcilable accounts in column 1.
7	How many classes? Meet before? How long? Meet after? How long?	3 <i>yes, 30 m</i> <i>10-15 m</i>	4 yes yes	4 <i>15 m</i> <i>5-20 m</i>	5 yes DK1	4 <i>yes, 5 m</i> <i>yes, 2-3 m</i>	<i>yes,</i> <i>DK1</i> <i>DK1</i>	Different accounts of one lesson and all meetings.

Key

¹ Pair No. Each mentee was paired with a mentor. They were assigned pair numbers randomly.

² DK = Don't know. These codes are explained in the 'Key to Codes used in all Tables' on the 'Abbreviations and Key Distinctions' page.

³ m = minutes. Mentee accounts are in italics. Mentor accounts are upright.

Column 1 shows some large differences in the observations reported by different mentor-mentee pairs when the mentee was teaching. For example, pair 7 reported three or four, and pair 4, six to ten. It seems likely that every pair met before the mentee taught, with the possible exception of pair 6 where the mentee said the mentor did not observe him teach. Some meetings were only for five or ten minutes. It seems likely that every pair met after the mentee taught, again with the possible exception of pair 6.

Column 2 shows similar patterns to column 1. It shows large differences in the numbers of observations reported by different mentor-mentee pairs when the mentor was teaching. It also shows striking differences in the numbers of observations reported within pairs, for example, mentee 2 reported four to five observations and mentor 2 ten to twelve. Some pairs reported meeting every time before the mentor taught, for example pair 1 and pair 7. The others varied in what they reported. It seems likely some pairs (eg pairs 2 and 5) met sometimes before the mentor taught and that at least one pair (pair 4) did not. It seems certain that some pairs (pairs 2 and 4) did not meet after the mentor taught, and likely that the others did. However, some meetings were for only a minute or two.

In column 3 it seems likely that all the mentees observed a variety of other teachers, even mentee 4, for whom there is no detailed information. Indeed, the third coordinator (his role is explained in 'Abbreviations and Key Distinctions') kept a list of the visits, which showed all mentees visiting at least four teachers other than their mentor during the programme (D31). However, very few mentees reported talking with the teacher they observed, either before or after the lesson, and those that did, mentees 2, 6 and 7, reported doing this for only a few minutes.

In column 4 all the mentees reported doing unobserved teaching. The three for whom there is information all reported discussing the lessons with the mentor before and after, even if only briefly.

There are wide differences in the numbers of observations reported by mentors and mentees in each pair for most of the observations reported in columns 1, 2 and 3, with one pair – pair 6 – giving irreconcilable accounts of the number of observations done by the mentor of the mentee's teaching (four to five versus none!). Where there are large differences, one might expect there to be a pattern of mentors reporting more than the mentees, given that observing was one programme objective, and something they had agreed to. This is indeed the case for four pairs, with only one pair (pair 4) where the mentee reported more observations than the mentor. This pattern, combined with the possible differential effects of memory, may help

explain some of the differences. The very large difference in pair 3, column 1, and the infinite difference in pair 6, column 1, are still hard to explain. These differential accounts between mentors and mentees within pairs must cast some doubt upon data where only one account is present, for example with pair 5 where the mentor was not interviewed.

Overall, Table 8.2 shows that not as many observations were done as planned, agreed and put into the objectives for the programme. Column 1 shows the mentees generally taught about five lessons which the mentor observed, with at most only one or two pairs achieving the target of eight. In column 2 – mentee observing the mentor teach - the average is again about five, with very few, if any, achieving the target of ten. It does seem likely that most mentees did observe other teachers more often than the five times stated in the objectives, and that there was quite a lot of unobserved teaching (columns 3 and 4 respectively).

The amount of time mentors spent with their mentees, both before and after the teaching varied enormously, with some meetings taking place in five or ten minutes, the length of breaks between lessons, and some mentors spending considerably longer.

In summary, Table 8.2 would seem to indicate a rather patchy and fragmented provision of observation and feedback opportunities for the mentees with large differences between mentor-mentee pairs in the number of observations and the amount of time the pairs spent together. All mentees reported observing a variety of teachers and taught regularly unobserved.

Pre-mentee Teaching Meetings between Mentor and Mentee

Table 8.3 summarises what was discussed and what took place between mentor and mentee before the mentee taught. It therefore refers to the second row for each pair in column 1 of Table 8.2. The interview data has been analysed into three topics, materials, methodology and lesson planning. ‘Materials’ included page number, exercises and their answers, and types of materials, for example grammar or reading. The mentors were given autonomy to decide what to discuss with their mentee, bearing in mind, that one purpose of the programme was to continue the mentees’ training.

Table 8.3 shows large differences between pairs in the kinds of things discussed before the mentee taught. In column 1, Materials, all pairs report that materials were discussed before the lesson. Mentee 1, however, reported that his mentor did not discuss the materials with him before he taught his first lesson in the School (I24:3). Three pairs reported discussing Methodology in column 2. Mentee 7 mentioned it only to say that he was not helped with

methodology by his mentor. One would expect lesson planning to be important, but three pairs made no mention of this. Mentor 7 expected the mentee to go away and plan his own lessons. The notes for pairs 6 and 7 reveal very different accounts of what happened between mentor and mentee.

Overall, Table 8.3 again reveals patchiness in provision, and starts to indicate worrying differences between mentors in the quality of guidance they provided for their mentee before the mentee taught.

Table 8.3 Discussions and Actions before the Mentee Taught

	Materials	Methodology	Lesson Planning	Notes
Pair 1	Sometimes – not for first lesson	No mention	Tips	
Pair 2	Yes	Yes	Contents of written LPN Amount of LPN	
Pair 3	Yes	No mention	No mention	Mentor said mentee took notes ‘copiously’.
Pair 4	Yes	Yes	Contents of written LPN Mentee given LPN outline	Mentee said it was difficult to plan lessons because mentor didn’t know where he would finish teaching the day before.
Pair 5	Yes	Yes	No mention	
Pair 6	Yes	No mention	No mention	Mentee said he wasn’t observed by mentor, mentor said he did.
Pair 7	Yes	No, said mentee	Mentee given LPN outline Mentee given LPN Go away and plan Teach to this LPN	Mentee did not help with methodology, said mentee. Mentee did not plan, said mentor.

In order to probe deeper into the quality of guidance given by the mentor, the researcher rated the mentor’s guidance, based upon what was said by mentees about guidance in the interviews. This is shown in Table 8.4.

No mentees made positive comments about their mentor’s guidance before the mentee taught observed lessons. Indeed, two made very negative comments (mentors 1 and 7). If mentee 5’s version that he was not observed by his mentor is also accepted, this would also be very negative. The importance of the mentee’s first taught lesson is highlighted by what happened between mentor 1 and mentee 1. According to the mentee, the mentor ‘didn’t give me an idea’

(I24:4) about the reading text for the first lesson he taught. This led to a 'really difficult' lesson for the mentee (I24:4).

Table 8.4 Mentor Guidance before the Mentee Taught

	Rating	Reason
Mentor 1	--	Mentee said of his first taught lesson in the School: 'he [the mentor] didn't give me any idea about the text, but he gave – he said, 'OK. This – you teach it' (I24:4).
Mentor 2	=	Mentee said there was not enough time to meet, and blamed the timetable.
Mentor 3	-	Mentee said mentor only talked once to mentee about lesson preparation.
Mentor 4	=	
Mentor 5	=	
Mentor 6		Mentee said he wasn't observed by mentor, mentor said he did.
Mentor 7	--	Mentee was told answers to exercises but not how to teach the materials.

Key

- ++ very positive
- + positive
- = neutral
- negative
- very negative

Feedback on the Mentee's Teaching

Most mentor and mentees pairs gave different and sometimes contradictory accounts of what was discussed in the feedback sessions. Table 8.5 shows this for two pairs. This pattern, of mentors and mentees giving different accounts is repeated across all the pairs. Table 8.5 shows that, for example, pair 4 only agree that boardwork was mentioned. The other things mentioned in interview by pair 4 seem to bear very little relationship to each other with the accounts of feedback on mentee lesson planning being contradictory.

Table 8.5 Mentor Feedback on Mentee Teaching

	Mentee's Account	Mentor's Account
Pair 2	<i>No main problems</i>	Lesson preparation (made focus of meetings)
	<i>Eye contact</i>	No detail on spelling mistakes ('too embarrassing') (110:19)
	<i>Error correction</i>	Minutiae, 'nuts and bolts' of methodology
	<i>General classroom management</i>	
	<i>Dealing with sleeping students</i>	
Pair 4	<i>Mentor very pleased, especially with class control</i>	Tips
	<i>Boardwork</i>	Boardwork
	<i>Not to expect long (sentence) answers from cadets</i>	Didn't mention spelling mistakes (demoralising, demeaning)
	<i>Mentor very happy with lesson preparation</i>	Lesson preparation
	<i>Don't fight and shout so much in class</i>	Punctuality
	<i>What to do when cadets finish an exercise</i>	Mentee not bringing equipment, eg board markers, chits

The data from all mentor and mentee interviews was classified by topic rather than by pair. In Table 8.6 the 'No' column shows the number of times that each topic was mentioned in interview. The topics used in Table 8.6 and subsequent tables in this study are defined and explained in Appendix 6. It is assumed that frequency of mention in interview represented to some extent the importance attached to the topic by the interviewees.

Table 8.6 Mentor Feedback by Topic

Topic	No	Notes
Methodology	12	(5x by mentors, 7x by mentees)
Classroom management	9	(2x by mentors, 7x by mentees)
Lesson preparation	4	(2x by mentors, 2x by mentees)
English level	3	(3x by mentors, 0x by mentees) Grammar good 1 Pronunciation needs work 1 Spelling mistakes 1
Miscellaneous	3	Small things, 'instructions', mentee punctuality
Imitation of mentor by mentee	1	(1x by a mentor)

Table 8.6 reveals that most feedback concerned methodology, classroom management, lesson planning and English level. This is broadly what one would expect, with the possible exception of English level, since English teachers would normally be expected not to need feedback on their English level.

Several other interesting things about English level were revealed in the interviews. Firstly, no mentees mentioned being given feedback on their English level, whereas three of the six mentors interviewed mentioned giving it. Secondly, mentors seemed reluctant to give feedback on their mentee's English level or to be critical (to give 'bad news' – O'Donoghue 1997). All mentors either confessed to this reluctance or the mentees attributed it to them. One ('self confessed') mentor said:

... some of things I wrote down and underlined, they were simply wrong. He used a word in the wrong sense, or just a very awkward way of putting things. I didn't really want to go into detail because basically I didn't want to embarrass him. (I10:19)

One ('attributed') example is from a mentee. He was well aware that he had done some things 'wrong' in the lesson (I21:9). 'He [the mentor] didn't – maybe, I thought that he's, maybe he was shy or embarrassed to tell me things about me. So I always encouraged him to tell me truthfully. 'Is there any problem?' He said, 'No, it's OK. Everything is OK'' (I21:8).

These two quotes illustrate that emotions and feelings such as embarrassment and not wanting to cause offence or upset the mentee played a part in this reluctance to give feedback.

Very little feedback seemed to have been designed to encourage mentee reflection. Tips were given (eg I15:5, 6, I19:13), advice was offered (eg I14:5, I15:2), alternatives were suggested (I15:10), but there is little evidence of questions to the mentees that required them to consider why they did what they did, why what happened happened, or why they did something that was not in the lesson plan. There is no evidence at all of broader reflection on what the mentee did well or what the mentee did not do well over a series of lessons. As one mentor described it, he and his mentee spent their time discussing the 'nuts and bolts' (I10:14), 'micro-preparation for the next lesson' rather than the mentee's 'development as a teacher' (I10:14).

One reason given for the reluctance to give critical feedback was that some mentors were unwilling to exert their authority over a colleague. One mentor captured this aspect clearly when he said:

I would personally not like to have a situation between me and any other teacher in this school where I have had to exert my authority as a mentor sufficiently to cause a breakdown in the general day to day social interaction. (I18:11)

Looking at the Tables 8.5 and 8.6 together, it becomes clear just how little feedback was actually reported in total in the four weeks of the programme.

The topics reported by mentors were ranked by frequency of mention in the interviews. These are shown in Table 8.7. This table shows that, apart from methodology, mentors gave very different kinds of feedback to their mentees, and some mentors (mentors 3 and 7) only gave one kind of feedback, for example on methodology.

Table 8.7 Rank Order of Mentor Feedback by Topic

	First	Second	Third
Mentor 1	English level = Classroom management - general		-
Mentor 2	Lesson preparation	Methodology	-
Mentor 3	Methodology	-	-
Mentor 4	Mentee discipline	Methodology	Lesson preparation
Mentor 5	DK4		
Mentor 6	Amount of materials	English level	
Mentor 7	Methodology	-	-

What was spotted by the mentor in lessons taught by the mentee?

In order to probe more deeply into the learning opportunities provided by mentor feedback, the things that were reported by both mentors and mentees as being spotted by mentors in their mentees’ teaching were analysed.

There were widespread differences between mentors in what they reported spotting in mentee lessons. Most of what one mentor reported concerned pronunciation (I12:6, 12, 20, 22, 27) or boardwork (I12:22, 23) with very little about classroom management or methodology. Another mentor mentioned a much wider range from poor lesson preparation and its effects (I10:2, 8, 12, 19, 24) to the exact way the mentee dealt with student questions, how long the mentee spent answering one student’s question in a lesson and the exact effect this had on his ability to manage the class (I10:6).

There were large differences between mentors in whether what they reported spotting was ‘high inference’ or ‘low inference’. Table 8.8 shows the understandings of ‘high inference’ and ‘low inference’ used following O’Donoghue (1997) and Richards (1987). What two mentors reported was all low inference such as poor pronunciation and spelling mistakes on the board (I12, I28). One mentor, on the other hand, made a lot of comments about different aspects of his mentee’s teaching and generalized from this. For example, he said:

Because of his [the mentee's] lack of preparation for this, he was unable to field the questions, or the answers or respond to the cadets so well, so in other words it took him a little time to discriminate between what the real answer was and what erroneous things he got from the cadets. So that was a time waster, and that was basically down to a lack of preparation. (I10:8)

Table 8.8 Understandings of High and Low Inference

Type of Inference	Definition	Examples
Low	Easily identifiable techniques that can be stated in terms of behaviour.	Drilling and elicitation techniques, board layout and spelling mistakes on the board, giving instructions, eliciting and concept checking techniques
High	Skills in which the relationship between form and function is less clear. Inferences of causal relationships.	Effective classroom management, successful manipulation of classroom dynamics, teacher sensitivity to student difficulty, relationships between lesson planning, English level and classroom management

What was reported as being spotted by mentors was reanalyzed using the definitions in Appendix 6. This is shown in Table 8.9. Methodology was the most frequently mentioned topic. It accounted for more than a third of all mentions of what mentors spotted. The next two were English level and lesson preparation which were about 20% each. The top four accounted for more than 87% of the total number of inferences made. A comparison of Table 8.8 with Table 8.6 reveals that mentors reported spotting a lot of things about their mentees' English level but that they did not give much feedback on this.

Table 8.9 Rank Order of Things Spotted by Mentors by Topic

Rank	Topic	Total	%
1	Methodology	64	34%
2	English level	39	21%
3	Lesson preparation	36	19%
4	Classroom management	25	13%
5	Coping	7	4%
6	Imitation of mentor by mentee	4	2%
7	Mentee following what the mentor asked him to do	3	2%
7	Student learning	3	2%

Mentee Concerns

Mentee concerns were analysed using the definitions in Appendix 6. ‘Concerns’ were taken to be things mentioned by the mentees in interview in answer to ‘open’ questions, rather than questions directed at particular topics. Open questions were questions such as ‘How did the mentor programme compare with what you expected?’ ‘Were there any surprises?’ ‘What was the most awkward moment?’ Directed questions were about a particular topic, for example, ‘What kinds of materials did he select for you to teach?’ Can you think of one incident, or one or two incidents, that you learned about the discipline in the classroom from?’

The top three concerns by frequency of mention by mentees in interview are shown in Table 8.10. This shows that most mentees seem to have had similar concerns, ie methodology, coping and discipline. Five mentees were most concerned about methodology. Five mentees were concerned about coping among their top three concerns. Three mentees were concerned about discipline among their top three concerns.

Table 8.10 Rank Order of Individual Mentee Concerns by Topic

	Top concern	Second concern	Third Concern
Mentee 1	Classroom management – general	Classroom management – discipline	Image
Mentee 2	Methodology = classroom management – discipline		Image
Mentee 3	Methodology	Lesson preparation	Coping
Mentee 4	Coping	Lesson preparation	Methodology
Mentee 5	Methodology	Coping	Own Learning
Mentee 6	Methodology	Lesson preparation	Coping
Mentee 7	Methodology	Classroom management – general	Coping = Classroom management – discipline = Student learning

The mentee concerns were rank ordered by frequency of mention. This is shown in Table 8.11. This shows that classroom management, methodology, coping and lesson preparation were the most frequent mentee concerns.

Table 8.11 Rank Order of Overall Mentee Concerns by Topic

Rank	Topic	%
1	Classroom management	22%
2	Methodology	21%
3	Lesson preparation	15%
3	Coping	15%
5	Student learning	5%
5	Image and status as a new teacher	5%
-	Other	17%

Comparison between Mentors and Mentees

Table 8.12 represents Tables 8.9 and 8.11 in order to compare what the mentors spotted in the lessons with what the mentees were concerned with. The most remarkable thing reinforced in this table concerns English level. From their accounts, the mentees were not concerned at all with English level, but it was the second most frequent topic spotted by mentors. This table also reveals that mentees were less concerned with lesson preparation than mentors, and mentees were more concerned with classroom management. The mentees were much more concerned with coping, and with their image and status as teachers than the mentors.

Table 8.12 Comparison of Mentee Concerns and Things Mentors Spotted

Topic	Rank Mentee Concerns	Rank Mentors Spotted
Classroom management	1	4
Methodology	2	1
Lesson preparation	3	3
Coping	3	5
Student learning	5	7
Image and status as a new teacher	5	-
English level	-	2
Imitation of mentor by mentee	-	6
Mentee following what the mentor asked him to do	-	7

Mentee English Level

Positive comments about mentee English level were significantly outweighed by negative ones. Five mentors commented negatively about their mentee’s English level. A typical negative comment was

Sometimes if he is teaching he, she, it, he forgets to put ‘s’. And this is dangerous. And spelling, he has two or three times spelling mistakes but I just sometimes blink to

him and he corrects it, cause I don't want the cadets to know that he is making it.
(I28:4)

The negative mentor comments on English level varied enormously from the mentor who commented on mentee pronunciation six times in the interview (I12:6, 12, 20, 22, 27) to comments on grammar (eg I10:4, 12, I28:4) to the presentation of a flawed model for students' written production (I10:11-12, 18). This latter was considered sufficiently 'dangerous' (Malderez and Bodóczyk 1999:122, Thornbury 2000) for the mentor to intervene in the lesson.

Some mentors expressed surprise at the low level of their mentee's English. One mentee said: 'Quite a lot of problems with lexis, syntax, all that. Quite a lot of expressive problems. ... I expected that having done a degree, even at a Gulf University, that in fact, his writing would be of a much higher standard' (I10:4).

The only 'objective' measure of mentee English level indicated both a wide difference in level between mentees and an overall low level. Table 8.13, which was extracted from the Student Data Cards (D38) sent from the training centre in the capital, shows mentee scores on practice Cambridge First Certificate English tests during their six-month basic TEFL course. Bearing in mind that the FCE is not a very high level English test, the scores are poor and vary from 62 to 88.

Table 8.13 Mentee FCE Scores

	First Test	Second Test
Mentee 1	62	69
Mentee 2	72	79
Mentee 3	68	75
Mentee 4	70	71
Mentee 5	88	83
Mentee 6	81	81
Mentee 7	81	87

There were only a few positive comments on mentee English level. Many of the positive comments either concerned one mentee (eg I11:1, 2, 10, 11) or took the form of 'positive comment but negative comment'. An example of the latter is 'I told him his grammar was fine. But I did mention that the pronunciation needed a bit of work in some cases' (I12:8).

The relationship of English level to lesson preparation is made by two mentors. One mentor made the point several times that mistakes were likely to be a result of poor preparation as

much as inadequate English level (I10:3, 11, 16, 18). The negative effects of a combination of factors – poor preparation, lack of familiarity with the course, mentee language problems and inadequate pedagogical knowledge are captured in this comment by one mentor.

When he actually got into the classroom and started to have to attempt paraphrase and other things then it became much more faltering and hesitant, and there was quite a lot of like dead air time, when in fact he wasn't sure what he was going to do next. That might be a problem both of language, lexical choice, also he's not aware of the, the whole book or unit in a more general sense. Probably he's not used to the [military] stuff in English as well. And also just basic language problems that he has himself. (I10:3)

Lesson Planning done by Mentees

Table 8.14 on page 109 shows mentee lesson plans. It has three sections, amount of lesson planning, contents of lesson plans and evaluation of lesson plans. Each section is divided into two parts showing, on the left, the mentee's account (Mee), and on the right, the mentor's (Mor). Mentee accounts are, as usual, in italics. Evaluations given in brackets are not stated directly, but were implied by the researcher from what was said. Quotes in the evaluation column in square brackets are where the mentee, when asked about lesson planning, reported what the mentor said about the mentee's lesson planning. Question marks are places where the researcher was unsure of the evaluation being made.

There were serious inconsistencies in the comments made within mentor-mentee pairs on the amount, contents and quality of mentor lesson plans. For example, in the 'amount of lesson planning' column, mentee 3 stated that he did 'about four lines' of planning (I21:5); mentor 3 stated that the mentee did a 'full lesson' and overlapped onto the next page (I11:8). The 'contents' column was inconsistent throughout. In the 'evaluation' column, the mentees gave consistently better accounts of their lesson planning than the mentors did. For example, mentees 1, 3 and 7 all reported an improvement in their lesson plans as the programme went on, none of their mentors reported such an improvement. Furthermore, the account of discussions concerning lesson planning is contradictory in places. The mentor said 'he didn't have a lesson plan, he was just following the book' (I18:1) and 'he was coming to classes unprepared' (I18:2) and the mentee said 'He was pleased with my teaching, especially with the controlling of the class, he was amazed. ... And my preparation was good' (I22:5).

Table 8.14 Mentee Lesson Plans

	Amount		Contents		Evaluation		Notes
	Mee	Mor	Mee	Mor	Mee	Mor	
Pair 1	12 lines → 3 lines	DK1	DK3	DK1	(-) → +	(-) No idea at the beginning; imitation	Mentee said after the bad experience prepared better Mentee expressed dissatisfaction?
Pair 2	DK2	A few lines Ten words	Objectives; main points; pages; examples	Not studying the book; not anticipating cadets' problems; answers No structure.	+ 'Sometimes he had a look and said OK.'	- → + Improvement; better execution; better language; more planning	Mentee mentioned time as a constraint Mentor said he made lesson planning 'a focus' of the meetings
Pair 3	'About 4 lines'	'Full lesson' and overlap onto the page	Which pages and what to omit; parts Eg 'pre, while and post reading'.	Joint lesson planning	(-) → + Better later, more thought	+?	Mentee said he talked once only with mentor about planning
Pair 4	DK2	None or only token	Answers; grammar; points	Scribbled notes 'No breakdown over 45 mins'	+	-	Incompatibility between the accounts in 'evaluation', 'contents' and presumably 'amount'
Pair 5	5 lines	N/a	Objectives; grammar or exercises; possible student questions	N/a	+ 'He said everything was planned very well.'	N/a	Mentee wanted 'tips'
Pair 6	See Notes	¼ page. Scant notes	See Notes	Answers	See Notes	- See the contents column.	Mentee said he wasn't observed by mentor, mentor said he did observe him
Pair 7	'A full page' → 4 or 5 lines	None	DK2	Scribbles; not planning a few days ahead; didn't realise each lesson a separate entity No Structure	(-) → + Better later on	- See the contents column.	Incompatible accounts in 'amount'.

There was conflicting evidence of whether mentee lesson planning improved over the duration of the programme. Three mentees (1, 3 and 7) reported such an improvement – shown in the ‘evaluation’ column. The only mentor who reported an improvement said that the improvement was because he made it a focus of the meetings he had with his mentee (I10:8).

Some mentees produced shorter lesson plans as the programme went on. Both mentee 1 and mentee 7 reported that their lesson plans got shorter later in the programme. This may have been as a result of imitation by the mentee of the amount of lesson planning written by the mentor (I14:9, I24:10). Mentor 1 said his mentee imitated his lesson plans. Mentee 1 himself said his mentor was doing three lines preparation, and he changed his preparation to three lines, and mentee 7 said his mentor was doing four to five sentences preparation, and that he decreased his own preparation to four to five lines.

Without exception, lesson preparation was equated with an amount written in the teacher’s lesson preparation book – either a number of lines or an amount of space. The lesson preparation book is a book which each teacher has, and which has to have available (and completed) in case of inspection. Some mentees did not use this lesson plan book. The minutes of the mentor meeting of 4th June state ‘several mentees were reluctant to use lesson plan books’ (D24). The minutes of other meetings confirm this (eg D29, D30).

In an ST briefing session the mentees were given a short photocopied lesson plan made by an experienced teacher (D23). The researcher only discovered that the mentees had been given this lesson plan during an interview with a mentee (I15:7). The ST concerned confirmed this during his interview (I26:9). Some mentees took this as a model lesson plan. One mentee refers to this photocopied page as ‘an ideal lesson plan’ (I15:14).

Several mentors clearly expected their mentees to produce more by the way of lesson planning than they themselves were doing (eg I10:7, I18:3). One mentee reported his mentor saying. ‘I’m an experienced teacher. I don’t have to write much on my lesson plan, but you, you have to write much (sic)’ (I15:7).

The mentees generally seemed much more satisfied with the contents of their lesson plans than the mentors did. The mentees discussed things like objectives, main points, grammar and possible student questions. Mentors, on the other hand, complained of the lack of structure to mentee lesson plans (mentors 2 and 7), and ‘scribbles’ (mentors 4 and 7). One mentor described his mentee’s lesson planning thus: ‘... he thought ‘I’m going to teach a lesson, if I tell the students to open the books at page forty-nine and start reading things’’ (I9:13). Mentor

2 said: ‘He [the mentee] just launched into ‘Students, we’re doing page eighty-three, exercise two.’ It makes him sound like an old hand here, doesn’t it. Smacks too much of what you hear from the British teachers here’ (I10:17).

The Observation Tasks

Observation tasks for use by both mentor and mentee were provided in Programme 5. These were discussed at the mentor meeting of 22nd April (D6). The coordinators’ attempts to involve the mentors in their design at this meeting were unfruitful with one mentor at the end of the discussion suggesting that the coordinators were the appropriate people to design the tasks (D6). The coordinators therefore designed the tasks, presented them and gave them out at the meeting of 19th May (D10). They consisted of ten tasks each for mentor and mentee to carry out while they were observing (D18-20). Table 8.15 shows reported use of the tasks.

Table 8.15 Observation Tasks Done

	Number Used by Mentee & Source		Number Used by Mentor & Source	
Pair 1	0	(I28:4)	0	(I24:11) ¹
Pair 2	0	(I10:15)	0	(I10:15) ²
Pair 3	0	(I11:6)	0	(I21:18)
Pair 4	Yes 6	(I22:8) (I18:8-9)	Yes 0	(I22:12) ² (I18:8-9)
Pair 5	0	(I15:9)	0	(I15:16)
Pair 6	0	(I12:11)	0 0	(I23:3) (I12:11)
Pair 7	2 ³	(I9:14-15)	0	(I9:2) ²

Key

¹ He was not asked, but instead was asked about what he did when he was observing. I have assumed he didn’t do the tasks since he didn’t mention them.

² Where mentor tried to encourage mentee to use the tasks

³ Two tasks in the same lesson

The observation tasks were not used as much as the coordinators had wanted, and as had been agreed by the mentors at the meeting of 22nd April (D6). Only 2 or 3 mentors or mentees used the tasks at all. This was very disappointing.

Some participants did not use the tasks, and then complained of boredom. The tasks were designed in part to overcome the possibly ‘demoralising and counter-productive’ effects of unfocussed observation’ (Hagger *et al* 1995:40). One mentee said: ‘In the first, maybe, week, I

used to be bored, very bored' (I22:12). One mentor said: 'One of the factors that set in very quickly was lesson observation boredom, tedium. ... And I often felt that when he observed me at times, just obvious, he was simply bored' (I10:26).

The most frequent reason given for not using the observation tasks was a preference for using notes. All the mentors and mentees in Programme 5 stated they took notes, or that their partner took notes. One mentor said:

Some things [in the tasks] reminded me of things I should be doing, or things I could choose to do. I didn't find that this kind of directed activity was necessary. I prefer to just play it by ear, wing it. Whatever strikes me, record it. Not a case of I must look for this, this is my task for today. (I11:6)

Another reason given for not using the tasks was that mentors and mentees may not have been able to see their relevance (I26:6) and therefore been 'unable to relate that [(sic) the tasks] to an actual classroom situation' (I26:6).

Mentors may not have believed in the tasks. The second coordinator said: 'In a sense it's down to the mentor to believe in the tasks. If the mentors had done the tasks themselves at the very beginning, perhaps they'd have had more faith in the tasks themselves' (I29:30).

A variety of other reasons were given for not using the tasks, for example, lack of mentor commitment to the tasks (I10:15), lack of mentee commitment to them (I9:15), the amount of effort required to do them (I26:9), lack of time (I10:15), and the motive for their use being the researcher's academic studies (I11:13).

Several suggestions were made for using the tasks more in future programmes. These included convincing the mentors and mentees of their value (I26:7), making structural changes involving either monitoring the use of the tasks much more thoroughly than was done (I29:1-2) or integrating the tasks, the observations and the feedback much more (I29:5).

Keeping Induction and Mentoring Separate (Principle 3)

The STs were allocated the 'induction' role on Programme 5 (D1). They did the induction briefings. The mentoring role was managed by the coordinators and carried out by the mentors (D2-D5). In theory therefore induction and mentoring were strictly separated. However, at least two mentors regarded the programme as an induction programme and reduced the teacher

training aspects to a minimum. One mentor, in reply to a question about whether he had talked in depth with his mentee about teaching and learning, said, 'I didn't feel that was my role so much' (I12:16). Two mentors concentrated on 'familiarisation' rather than training. One mentor denied having any training role. 'He feels that I am his trainer, even though I wasn't.' (I28:3). His mentee said that the discussions they had were about the rules, the military organization, the company, the place they worked and the students, all induction-type activities.

There was also a split revealed between those who thought the programme objectives should have been limited to induction, and those who felt a teacher training emphasis was right. This is discussed later – see pages 144 to 145.

Management (Principles 4 and 5)

Three decisions were made at the outset of Programme 5 which affected the way the programme was managed. Firstly, all three coordinators decided to stay on half-teaching timetables during the programme (I20:2). Secondly, the coordinators took a deliberate decision not to 'over police' the programme (Conway 1997:52), instead seeking agreement with the mentors on programme objectives and giving them autonomy to pursue those objectives in their own way once the programme started. As one coordinator said 'I mean we basically left them to it, apart from what was discussed at our meetings.' (I16:9). This meant, thirdly, that the mentors were given autonomy over the 'core activities', where, when and how they organised them. These decisions were taken to try and improve mentee classroom performance through allowing mentors more possibility to respond individually and professionally to mentee needs and to effect mentor development.

All three coordinators were qualified and experienced teacher trainers and mentors, two having publications in the field (Hubbard *et al* 1983, Arnold and Sarhan 1994). However, the best use may not have been made of the coordinators' experience, due to the distance of the coordinators from the mentees (see page 94 above) and the mainly administrative role taken on by the third coordinator during the programme. He was originally seen as a counterpart to the other two coordinators, so that he could run the programme next time. But, as the Head Teacher said:

The interesting thing was that Ted [third coordinator] was originally involved in it because of his previous experience as a teacher trainer. In fact his role in the programme was not as a teacher trainer. His role was almost administrative, and so that the strength that we should have been using, ie his background in teacher training, was not actually used. (I20:2)

The day-to-day monitoring of what was happening on the programme was not adequate. Closer monitoring of those 'out of step' was suggested by one mentor (I18:6). Others suggested closer monitoring of the core activities of the programme (I29:2, I9:7). One ST said that the day to day parts of the programme, by which he meant the different types of observations and teaching, 'probably ought to have been logged in some way That may just have guided people into doing things a bit more' (I13:6).

Some participants suggested that the way the programme was managed led to the mentees having an easy time (D29) and not using their time productively. One ST, quoted by the Head Teacher, referred to the mentees having been 'spoilt' by the programme (I20:6). A mentor said: 'they [the mentees] certainly didn't use their time as profitably as they could. On their schedules it may have looked like their time was full, in practice they had a lot of time off' (I10:7).

Some participants thought there was some lack of clarity over roles. Some STs and coordinators were either unsure of their roles, or felt their roles became less clear as the programme went on (eg I13:1, I29:7). An ST and the Head Teacher both discussed mentee confusion over the third coordinator's role (I26:10, I20:4). This lack of clarity of roles was especially apparent when it came to mentee time keeping and leaving early (I29:34).

One ST thought he had been deliberately excluded from parts of the programme (I13:1, 11). He said one coordinator 'really didn't want anybody else to be involved in it. And I think that that was a weakness. I think that the programme would have been stronger if more people had been involved' (I13:11). The other ST did not feel like that (I26:17). The coordinator concerned thought it might have been a function of the personality of this ST to feel excluded (I29:11).

Some participants thought that either the coordinators or the STs, or both, should have had a more proactive role to pre-empt some of the problems discussed above (eg I9, I26). One mentor thought that part of the coordinator's role was 'devoting your time to actually see, go every day and see what was achieved that day' (I9:9). One ST said, talking about the role of the coordinator: 'I think there's a bit of responsibility to actually check that those things are going on, and offer guidance if it's not. Or even spot whether it's happening or not. My impression is that in some cases not very much was happening' (I13:6). One mentor talked about more pressure being required from STs to improve his mentee's lesson preparation and general attitude (I18:11).

The Head Teacher and some STs suggested that the STs should be more involved in future programmes to lend the School's authority to programmes. The Head Teacher thought the STs would lend 'institutional authority' to the programme (I20:3). He quoted from the lesson checker (I20:6) and another ST in support of this view. Another ST suggested this independently (I13:10). However, another ST pointed out that the STs could not be treated as a group. 'I mean the STs as a group doesn't work out because different people have different attitudes towards the programme' (I26:17).

Most participants thought the managers, especially the coordinators, were committed to the programme. For example, one ST said 'I think that you and James [the second coordinator] took the job seriously, made every effort under trying circumstances to make it work, organised things very well, have made an effort to learn from what went right and what went wrong' (I13:16). The Head Teacher thought a lot of thought and effort went into the programme (I20:1).

Some mentees appear to have been far less committed to the programme than others. Some mentors complained that:

- their mentees did not want to be observed teaching (D24, D25).
- mentees arrived late for lessons and leaving School before the end of the day (I16:5, 7, I9:1).
- one mentee did not take the coursebook home and read it (I10:2).
- some mentees arrived in class without books, whiteboard pens and other equipment (I9:13, I18:2, 8).

On the other hand, two mentors said how committed their mentees were (I12:4, 16, I11:3, 4).

The Two Mentees who 'Failed'

The Head Teacher and other members of the Senior Management Team judged the overall success of Programme 5 by the failure of the programme to remedy two mentees' failings. The Head Teacher said 'Five out of seven, the programme as it stands was successful' (I20:9). He elaborated later:

The program was much better than others? The answer is yes and no, I suggest. Yes, it was better in terms of professional induction. No, in that it failed to rectify, remedy, address mentee failings that were identified in the first week. (I20:9C)

One year later he was still describing Programme 5's success in these terms (RD192).

Additionally, unfavourable comparisons were made between Mentor Programme 5 and the previous programmes based upon the 'failure' of these mentees. The Head Teacher discussed what an ST said to him:

'... and I quote, 'the mentoring programme has spoilt them. The problem we now have with Abdullah [mentee] would never have arisen under the old induction mentoring programme.' And what he was referring to there, was the fact that a senior teacher would have gone in early on, seen what was going on, and then said to him, 'Look, you have got to get this right. What you're doing is unacceptable.'" (I20:6)

As the importance of the problems with the two mentees became clear, and potential of these events to illuminate various aspects of the programme became evident, the events surrounding the 'failures' were explored in depth by the researcher, both in interview (eg I20:6-9, I29:32-34) and in conversation with those involved (eg RD:191-2, 193).

The Head Teacher and the ST quoted above were referring to the fact that two mentees failed lesson checks (RD193 and D40). One failed a lesson check given by an ST attached to the programme (RD193), the other a lesson check given by the lesson checker (D40, RD153). According to the accounts of the Head Teacher and the ST, these failings were identified during Programme 5, but were not rectified by the programme.

Both mentors— those whose mentees failed lesson checks — complained during the programme about their mentees. One mentor complained three times about his mentee in conversation to the researcher and at the meeting of 4th June (D24). There is no record of further complaints until the Programme 5 mentor evaluation meeting of 26th June (D29). His complaints were that his mentee did not want to be observed and was reluctant to do lesson plans. Another mentor complained ten times about his mentee throughout the programme (RD144, 145, 147, 193, D24, I9:7, I9:14, I16:4). His complaints were wide-ranging, including the mentee not turning up for meetings, poor lesson planning, reluctance to use the lesson plan book, and leaving school early. He complained in the meetings and to two coordinators and the Head Teacher. These complaints have to be set against the fact that only four mentees were specifically complained about by their mentors during the programme and the other two were only complained about once each (D24, RD:144).

Many different kinds of explanations were suggested for the two mentees failing lesson checks.

1. Structural reasons, for example lack of role clarity on the programme, lack of psycho-social support for the mentees.
2. The way the programme was managed by the coordinators.
3. A combination of structural reasons and the way the programme was managed, which led to STs being unable to deal with the failures.
4. Lack of mentor and coordinator time to deal with problems.
5. Mentor inexperience and the way mentors were selected.
6. Lack of communications between the STs, the Head Teacher and the coordinators.
7. Lack of sharing of information with coordinators by STs.
8. Micropolitical explanations.

One coordinator discussed the problem of role clarity as regards dealing with ‘failing’ mentees.

It was very unclear, and I think what Peter [mentor 4] was asking. Was – who’s supposed to deal with this [mentees failing]? And I don’t think there’s a clear answer given to that question. I mean it wasn’t – who was supposed to deal with it? Was it Peter? Was it John [the Senior Teacher]? Was it me? (I29:34)

A different kind of structural explanation was put forward by the same coordinator. He described the state of one mentee who failed as follows.

He was in a state of sort of – I think he was overwhelmed by the school, by the amount of teachers, by the programme that was going on, by the numbers of cadets, by the sheer – the sheer move I think, just in moving his house and all his belongings to [the city where the school is located]. ... he was just lost. And he was coping with other things, and I think getting the lessons planned were – fell by the wayside in all the process of coming to terms with the school. In a sense I think that’s fine and that’s understandable, it’s not a – it’s not something that we should be particularly shocked by, that somebody took time to find his feet. (I29:33)

One decision the coordinators made was to conduct a professional programme, focussed on professional matters, and the ‘psycho-social’ aspects (P7) such as finding accommodation were not considered by the coordinators in the planning, nor by the mentors during the programme, except where they interfered with the professional aspects. The two mentees who failed both had difficulty finding accommodation and settling down in their new hometown (I10:3, I18:2). One mentor said:

He was concerned about obtaining an apartment. Obviously he didn't have an apartment set up for himself. So he was constantly – what was more important to him was the apartment rather than – take advantage of a programme to excel his career. (I10:3).

The way the programme was managed by the coordinators – especially the 'hands off' approach of the coordinators (I20:6) is mentioned as one cause of the mentees 'failing'. Specifically, the lack of day-to-day monitoring by the coordinators is mentioned by two interviewees (I13:6, I29:1). The Head Teacher puts this down to the programme structure and the distance of the coordinators from the mentees (I20:1). This is discussed above on page 94.

The idea that more control needed asserting over the mentees on the programme contrasted sharply with one coordinator's view that the mentees needed more time to 'settle in', and that the problems were a result of panic by managers (I29:4). This coordinator suggested a 'closer contact' between coordinators and mentors and mentees (I29:7), with the coordinators watching the mentees teach, both to give an alternative view to the STs and the mentors, but also 'for us [the coordinators] to be able to defend if necessary against harsh criticisms' (I29:6). Despite his belief in a 'hands off' role for coordinators, he said: 'Our hands didn't get quite, you know, in the soil' (I29:20). He further suggested that coordinators should have spent more time one-to-one with mentors 'just explaining why we've suggested different things, getting them to reflect on whether it worked or not' (I29:36).

One coordinator's report suggested a possible reason for events unfolding as they did. 'Bob [a mentor] kept trying to bend my ear in the odd five minute breaks. But er ... But never had time – it was just in a five-minute break, didn't have time to deal with it.' (I16:4). In other words, time was a factor.

One other factor which could be crucial is that neither mentor involved had mentored before Programme 5 started (I9:1, I18:1).

There is also evidence of a lack of communication between the Head Teacher, STs and the Coordinators. The Head Teacher took the decision to give one mentee who failed an ST lesson check two more weeks mentoring with another teacher (RD 193). This other teacher had – up to that time – not taken any part in Programme 5. The coordinators were not involved in any way in that decision (RD 193). When this decision was made the coordinators did not know

that ST lesson checks had taken place (RD147). In this respect one coordinator put the 'failings' down to panic.

I wondered whether a couple of people weren't targeted once certain problems came to light. Whether there wasn't a kind of panic about two of the mentees when they could have done with a little more time to settle in, a little less fuss, a little more privacy. (I29:4).

This coordinator complained about the lack of sharing of information by STs attached to the programme with the coordinators on the programme. Talking about the role of the Senior Teachers, he said:

Well, they need to know what's going on. They [STs] need to be *au fait* with what's planned out. And they need to be frank about what they are going to do as well. You don't really want a situation where you find out a couple of days ... later that somebody was observed by an ST and freaked out by it, and you never knew it was going to happen. And yet that's somebody who's meant to be on the programme. (I29:25)

There is further evidence of a lack of sharing on the programme, when one ST gave out a sample lesson plan without the coordinators being aware of it – see page 110 above.

The use of the word 'targeted' in the quote above (I29:25), pointed to another level of explanation entirely – the micropolitical. Some STs argued that the mentees' failures pointed to a more general programme failing. The Head Teacher quoted an ST saying 'the mentoring programme has spoilt them. The problem we now have with Mohammed [a mentee who failed] would never have arisen under the old induction mentoring programme' (I20:6). The view of one coordinator was that information was not shared between STs and coordinators about lesson checks done by STs, and that the results of these checks – 'failures' were used to 'discredit' the programme as a whole.

If he [a mentee] has got six weeks and in the first couple of weeks he doesn't really understand, and in the third and fourth weeks it's highlighted to him by the coordinator, and he's still not doing any preparation, presumably it has to be kicked a bit higher. But I think if it's – if it goes from just being the mentor– the mentee all the way up to sort of Kevin [Head Teacher], and then that's used in order to discredit the programme, and the guy's suddenly dragged into Kevin's office as well. (I29:10)

The second 'if' sentence was never finished.

One ST adopted a more philosophical view of the two mentees 'failing'. 'I think the situation that arose was that there were a couple of weak teachers and they continue to be weak teachers, and probably will for a very long time to come' (I26:12). He also said: 'Well, what does a bad lesson check mean? Somebody's seen a bad lesson' (I26:11). Finally, he commented: 'on the course [mentor programme] that I had – the one that appeared weakest then has now become one of the better and more committed teachers' (I26:12). Maybe this supports the view that, given more time to settle, they may have made the grade anyway.

The Exemptions from 'Supervised Private Studies' (SPS)

One form of support provided for mentors was that they would be exempted from attending 'supervised private studies' of students in the afternoons during the programme (see Chapter Five). SPS is described by one ST as 'a ridiculous waste of time' (I13:15). This is a widely shared perception (eg I29).

The exemptions for mentors from SPS were very popular with the mentors. One mentor said, 'It was somebody – like somebody patting you on the back and saying 'You're doing all right'' (I9:26).

However, the arrangements for SPS took a lot of time to administer. Arranging SPS was mentioned 11 times in the researcher's diary and over the four weeks it took five to six hours to sort out arrangements with STs, especially the ones in charge of timetabling (eg RD 145, 147).

The exemptions from SPS caused a lot of dissatisfaction among most STs and some staff. The ST attitude is described by one ST: 'There was immense dissatisfaction from ... virtually all of the STs that when they did an afternoon session [SPS], people were not there because they had been to a meeting' (I13:13). The other ST involved with the programme said that it 'created a lot of angst, I would say, both from teachers and from senior teachers' (I26:16). These negative staff attitudes were related by one ST to the perception that mentors already had a mentee teaching their class for them, and therefore did not need the time off (I13:14). This ST said that neither teachers nor STs were informed about the exemptions, 'it was handled badly all round' (I13:13).

Goodness of Fit (Principle 6)

There appeared to be a mismatch between the management style of the coordinators and the style adopted to manage previous programmes. This may have represented a clash between ‘military’ culture and ‘academic’ culture. Evidence has already been presented that the management style adopted by the coordinators did not appear to fit the context. Some participants thought a more proactive style, which they were used to, might have been more appropriate (see page 118).

The Head Teacher felt that mentees wanted to be told what to do.

... some of the new teachers wanted to be taught/told how to teach ‘by numbers’. When I was in [the capital city] I had some interesting conversations with Bob Smith and Ted Thatcher [the coordinators on the basic TEFL course]. Some of the new teachers were expecting to be told how to teach in the same way that the RSAF runs instructional training courses, often summed up as ‘Tell ‘em what you’re going to tell ‘em. Tell ‘em. Tell ‘em what you’ve told ‘em.’ (I20:12C)

The Head Teacher also felt that ‘some of the mentors simply wanted to be told what they were supposed to be doing’ (I20:12). Furthermore, he reported the lesson checker saying ‘It [the mentor programme] was much better when the senior teachers did it’ (I20:6). The Head Teacher stated why the lesson checker felt like that.

... because he perceives it to have been an authority thing, new teachers, you tell them what they’ve got to do The whole issues, in his eyes and for many Saudis, would have been resolved if you had been a senior teacher. Again, it’s cultural. He feels that trainees / mentees would take more notice of an ST – as a teacher trainer. (I20:6)

The second coordinator contrasted the two views embedded in, on the one hand, the coordinators’ approach and, on the other, what the lesson checker and some mentors and mentees wanted.

To put it in polar terms. One school of thought is that everything should be controlled down to tasks that are done, the lessons that are seen and the people who are seen, and that ought to be part of the programme, before anybody arrives. And the opposing school of thought is that you give your mentors some sensitivity in what they’re doing and you send them out to involve themselves in a conversation, a dialogue with the mentee in order to achieve the programme’s goals. (I29:2)

The second coordinator stated that the second view ‘presupposes a certain enthusiasm and industriousness on the part of the mentor, and a certain amount of experience on the part of the mentor as well’ (I29:2).

There appeared to be a mismatch between the optimal way of selecting mentors – from the whole School – and the pre-existing structures in the School, for example the way the timetable was organised. This is discussed in more detail later – see pages 124 to 125.

Support (Principle 7)

The support discussed below does not include the ‘core activities’ since these are discussed earlier in this chapter (pages 95-106).

Overall, the programme was well supported in terms of staffing; mentor briefings and training before, and mentor meetings during, the programme; and induction briefings and workshops for mentees. One mentor who had worked in the School for many years said: ‘I’m surprised we got as much support as we did’ (I10:24). The programme was better supported by the School than anything comparable in this researcher’s nine years in the School. However, one ST thought more resources should have been devoted to the programme. He said:

If you consider the resources that goes (sic) into publishing our own course, it’s massive in terms of money, manpower, time, effort, frustrations, anger and everything else. The same goes with a programme like this. The manpower’s available. It isn’t actually costed separately or anything else. The manpower’s available there. And it just gets organised in whatever way seems right. I would have put more resources into it rather than fewer. (I13:2-3)

When asked what kind of resources, he said: ‘More time. More of a full time input rather than just a, you know kind of token half time’ (I13:3).

Three coordinators were provided for the programme by the School on half-teaching timetables. Unfortunately, the third coordinator did not join the programme until the mentees arrived, and so was not available to help with the programme planning (I29:12F). His role ended up being mostly administrative. Furthermore, no contingency teachers were allocated to the programme, although they were agreed to at the planning meeting (D1). The third coordinator said if they had been provided it would have created more time for everybody (I16:1). Since very few

mentors asked for help with cover lessons so they could meet their mentees (I16:1), and this was what the contingency teachers were meant to provide help with, it is difficult to decide whether they would have been very useful or not.

Four one to one-and-a-quarter hour mentor briefing and mentor training meetings were planned (D1) and took place before the mentees arrived (D2-21). Their quality is evaluated in 'Mentor Training' below (pages 137 to 139). The support provided to allow mentors to attend these meetings – the exemption from 'supervised private studies' is discussed above (page 120) since it cast so much light on the programme management.

The three mentor meetings planned to support the mentors during the programme all took place (D24, D25, D27). They provided a useful forum for mentors to come together (I29:22). One coordinator suggested one-to-one meetings between coordinators and mentors to supplement and build on these meetings (I29:36). A team spirit was created amongst the mentors by these meetings. All three mentors who discussed it with the researcher said they felt part of a team (I9:27, I10:25, I11:12). One mentor said, 'I felt that was probably the best thing to come out of it all really' (I11:12). Another said: 'We began as a team and I think we finished as a team (I9:27).

Five induction briefings were carried out by the STs during the programme (I26:10). Eight were put on the programme timetable by the coordinators, but five were done as only five were needed (I26:11).

Six workshops on the new English Language Course (ELC) took place as planned (D12). The workshops included an element of teacher training related to the new course as well as familiarization with the new course (D1). A variety of views were expressed about these workshops. One ST rated them as the most successful thing on the programme because it was a chance for the mentees to get together as a group (I26:2). One coordinator felt they were successful (I29:6), but that they were not integrated into the mentor programme as regards things like lesson planning (I29:6). One mentee said they were helpful (I14:29). One mentee thought they were too long (I19:16). Despite the workshops the new course caused the mentees a lot of problems (I29:35). One ST who participated in the programme said '... the workshops, I got the impression that Frank Smith [second coordinator] really didn't want anybody else to be involved in it' (I13:11). The Head Teacher complained about the second coordinator being 'fairly close' about the organisation of the workshops (I20:40). The planning meetings did not make it clear whose responsibility the workshops would be (D1).

The ‘get to know your mentor’ session and the end-of-course session at which the Certificates were handed out were also appreciated (eg I10:6). The reaction of the mentees and mentors to receiving the certificates seemed positive (I10:6). Having a ceremony was important. ‘The mentee had a distinct sense of having achieved something and passing a hurdle’ (I10:6).

It was intended to provide the mentors with background information on the mentees and their basic teacher training course. Unfortunately, this information was not provided for mentors. The information did not arrive until after the programme had started (RD138). Several mentors asked for it for next time (eg D29, I9:2, 21).

Mentor Selection and Mentor Quality (Principle 8)

Mentor Selection

Eleven teachers from those teachers working on Book Two in April 2001 volunteered to be prospective mentors, ie from the ‘areas’ of two STs. An area is a group of teachers working under one ST. There were 26 teachers working on Book Two under those two STs at that time. All eleven volunteers attended the mentor meetings before the mentees arrived. When only seven mentees arrived, three prospective mentors dropped out, and one was kept as a reserve.

Most mentees seemed happy being mentored by classroom teachers. However, a minority expressed dissatisfaction. One asked for more experienced teachers as mentors (D28), and one mentee describes the mentors as ‘just teachers’ (I14:26). He wanted more experienced mentors (I14:27), eg STs or coordinators. This may reflect the fact that his mentor was inexperienced as a mentor.

Both coordinators two and three concluded that there really was no selection of mentors, one saying the selection was ‘enforced’ (I16:9), the other using the analogy of a grid, ‘So the selection was rather like putting a grid over what we’d got and just taking them’ (I29:15).

Some participants doubted the quality of the mentors and related it directly to the method of selection (eg I20:11C, RD:175). One ST put it this way:

We were working with a limited pot. ... some of the people who were teaching Book Two at the time, and who offered themselves as mentors, found themselves doing it basically because there wasn’t anybody else available. And some of those people, I personally wouldn’t have chosen. I didn’t think they were positive enough role models to do it – to do justice to the job (I13:4).

The solution suggested by many informants was to select mentors from the whole School (eg I13:5, 8, I26:5). 'The thing that I think would make the most difference is being able to tap into the entire pool of the school's experience. And I think that's where this programme was most limited' (I13:8). If mentors were drawn from the whole School it would allow for those with experience and commitment to do it (I13: 5, I16:9). This would allow good role models of not just teaching, but also of professionalism, for example as regards lesson planning (I20:14).

Unfortunately, the decision to select mentors from the whole School turned out to be not as simple as it looked. If mentors were selected from across the School the programme would be less compact (I29:15); the coordinators would need to liaise with eight STs instead of two (I20:5); and it would involve putting mentees in classes higher in the course where they would have no idea what the students had or had not done by then (I14:5, I19:2). At least earlier in course, what students had done was very well known, or easy to find out (I29:15). There was evidence that some mentees found teaching above Book Two particularly difficult (I14:5, I19:2).

Mentor Quality

Table 8.16 gives a summary and a researcher's assessment of mentor quality. The left hand column is the mentor letter. Letters have been deliberately used to make identification of individuals as difficult as possible. Mentors were rated by the researcher on a five-point scale; 'Very poor, Poor, OK, Good, Very good'. Examples which show how the assessments were arrived at follow.

It needs to be borne in mind when reading the assessments of mentor quality made by the researcher that the assessments were based on second order data, ie interview comments by mentors and mentees, rather than direct observation in the classroom or direct observation of mentors and mentees meeting each other. Additionally, no right of reply was afforded to mentors. This is discussed further in the Personal Reflections at the end of Chapter Ten. The assessments therefore must be regarded as tentative and illustrative only.

Two issues related to the assessments that lie behind Table 8.16 need discussing before the Table itself is discussed in detail. Firstly, the various aspects of mentor quality discussed as principles in Chapter Two – personal and interpersonal skills, professional qualities, having mastered 'standard' mentor practices relating to the 'core components' (P2b and P2c), the ability to establish a trusting and working relationship (P8d), and both supporting and

challenging the mentee (P8e), are difficult to separate. Secondly, judgments as to mentor quality can only really be made in the context of the whole relationship between mentor and mentee. These two issues are illustrated in the quote below.

Talking about his mentee, one mentor said:

Didn't care to prepare. Told repeatedly. Did not prepare. Told to fulfil tasks – to ask questions, see what he needed, constantly make notes, ask other mentors, ask other mentees, ask other teachers. He did not fulfil any of the suggestions I have given to him, did not fulfil any. (I9:3)

This could be evidence of either a fairly directive way of dealing with the mentee, which in turn could mean poor personal and interpersonal skills, and/or poor professional skills related to giving feedback, the failure to establish a working relationship, and/or the failure to challenge or maybe even support the mentee.

Table 8.16 Researcher Assessment of Mentor Quality

	Personal and Interpersonal Skills (P8a)	Professional Qualities (P8b)	Comfort with Core Mentoring Practices (P8c)	Relationship with Mentee (P8d)	Support and Challenge (P8e)	Overall Evaluation
Experienced Mentors						
A	Very good	Good	Very good	Very good	OK	Very good
B	Good	Very good	Very good	Good	DK5	Very good
C	OK	OK	Poor	OK	OK	OK
D	Poor	Very poor	Very poor	OK	Very poor	Very poor
Inexperienced Mentors						
E	Good	Poor	DK5	Poor	DK5	Poor
F	Very poor	Poor	Very poor	OK	Poor	Poor
G	Very poor	Poor	Very poor	Poor	Very poor	Very poor

The mentors varied enormously in quality. Two mentors (A and B) seem to have been very good, and two (D and G) very poor, with the others ranged in between. However, most mentors were rated either poor or very poor.

Mentor quality seems to have been related to mentor experience. The two mentors with the highest ratings (A and B) both had previous experience as mentors before Programme 5. No inexperienced mentors were rated above poor. Only one experienced mentor was rated as poor or very poor (D).

Personal and Interpersonal Skills (Principle 8a)

Different mentors seem to have displayed very different levels of personal and interpersonal skills when dealing with the mentee. One mentor, whose personal and interpersonal skills were rated 'very good', seemed to have been sensitive, open, approachable, able to listen and empathise (I10:11-12). The mentor and mentee seem to have shared a similar sense of humour (I10:2, 5, 6). The mentor showed sensitivity towards the mentee's beliefs and religion (I10:3, 9-10, 18), and how this affected, for example, choice of appropriate topics for discussion in the classroom (I10:3). The mentor showed sensitivity towards, and understanding of, the mentee's problems as a learner of English, for example, his tendency to overgeneralise rules from examples the mentor had given him (I10:10) and the mentee's embarrassment at 'using words in the wrong sense' (I10:19) or 'making minor production errors' (I10:19). They talked frankly and got 'down to brass tacks' (I10:19). The mentor seemed to have listened closely to the mentee's problems, for example 'dealing with comments and questions from students that are completely off the menu' (I10:22). The mentee – apart from generally substantiating the mentor's accounts of feedback (I19:2, 3, 7) – mentioned his mentor's approachability 'you can give him your problems, ask him about anythings (sic) new for you, anything you don't know' (I19:2), how the guidance was tailored to the mentee's needs (I19:2) and how comfortable he felt being observed and given feedback by the mentor (I19:2).

In contrast, the personal and interpersonal skills of one mentor were rated as 'very poor'. This was despite the mentor really trying to help his mentee and caring for him (I14:7). The mentor tried to do what was expected, was keen and enthusiastic. He devoted quite a lot of time to the mentee (Table 8.2), they observed each other teach four or five times each, and they spent time together both before and after the teaching (Table 8.2). However, there is ample evidence that the mentor was too directive, for example in the quote at the beginning of this section – 'Didn't care to prepare. Told repeatedly.' (I9:3). This mentor used the expression 'I told him' thirteen times in interview. The mentee reported the mentor saying 'he told me' twelve times. For example, the mentee said: 'He used to tell me 'Go and plan the lesson and show me the lesson afterwards, the lesson plan afterwards'' (I14:9). The mentor also prepared a lesson for mentee and told him to teach it (I9:4), and was upset mentee did not follow the plan (I9:5, 12). The mentor appeared to show his frustration and disappointment (I14:10) to the mentee. He reported the following exchange with the mentee:

... 'unless you are going to – if you want to do something, there must be something behind your actions. What was the purpose? What are the prime-' And then - most of the time he never answered back. He always tell, 'Yeah, yeah, yeah.' I mean every

time I dominated the conversation because if I stopped, the dialogue stopped. ... Well, it's not a dialogue. It's a monologue. I felt sometimes I was just going through a soliloquy (I9:7).

This may indicate a lack of sensitivity and empathy from this mentor. Furthermore, the mentor referred to the mentee as 'incompetent and unprofessional' (I9:10), and 'resistant' (I9:13). The mentor also reported saying 'Did you see how I did it?' (I14:121), as his first line of a discussion after he (the mentor) had taught. This mentor generally thought that his approach to giving feedback worked because the mentee did not object to anything he said (I9:18). And although the mentor did take his role seriously, the main lesson he learned from the experience is that '... one of the pitfalls I did not foresee [was] that not being forceful enough, he took it lightly' (I9:18). He vowed to be more forceful in future (I9:18).

Mentors seem to have operated with very different views of the mentoring process, some interpreting their roles as induction rather than teacher training. In answer to the question 'Did you talk to your mentee in detail about teaching and learning?' one mentor stated that he did not think that was his role (I12:16), he felt his role was more to get the mentee 'into the system' in the School.

Mentors seem to have provided different kinds of models for the mentees, one deliberately modeling behaviour as regards punctuality, lesson planning and using the observation tasks (I18:2, 4, 8). On the other hand, another mentor described his own lesson planning to the mentee as 'Look. This is what I was doing. I'm going to try and cover these four pages or whatever' (I12:11).

Mentors seem to have displayed different levels of commitment to the programme. One committed mentor seemed to have observed the mentee teach more than the other mentors and the mentee observed him teach more often (Table 8.2). He seemed to have tried very hard to get the mentee to obey the School rules, especially as regards punctuality, planning lessons and using the lesson plan book, judging from the number of times he reported discussing these things with the mentee and the number of different ways he tried to persuade the mentee to take the programme more seriously (eg I18:2, 3, 4, 12). He also used the tasks more often than anybody else (Table 8.15). In contrast, another mentor stated his reason for volunteering to become a mentor as 'I thought, well, this is an opportunity to do something different, to relieve the monotony if you like' (I12:3). When asked why he wanted the programme to go into a fifth week he said, 'Just for relieving the number of lessons I taught.' This mentor also appears to have only given time to his mentee in the breaks between lessons since the post-teaching

meetings were reported as five or ten minutes long, exactly the length of the breaks (I12:14, 24).

Professional Qualities (Principle 8b)

The professional qualities of the mentors varied enormously. One mentor, whose professional qualities were rated as ‘very poor’, seemed not to have the skills to be a mentor or any real interest in learning them. For example, the mentor reported that ‘I had chosen largely vocabulary items for him to teach. He was – obviously being an Arab speaker, he was going to be able to feed them quickly in Arabic. I thought this was - this is obviously one of the benefits, as you know’ (I12:6). One ST reported that this mentor was a poor teacher and adamantly would not have been selected as a mentor by this ST for this reason (RD:175). There is no evidence in either mentor or mentee interview that the mentor was able to talk about successful classroom practice with his mentee. In the interview the mentor’s main concern seemed to have been with how many pages the mentee would ‘cover’ in one lesson (I23:3, I12:5, 14, 15, 23). The mentee felt he did not learn anything from the mentor’s teaching (I23:3). According to the mentee, the mentor did not observe the mentee teach once (I23:2, 4). The mentor, however, stated that he did see the mentee teach and that the debriefing was mostly about the mentee’s pronunciation (I12:6, 7, 20, 22, 26). It seems unlikely that this kind of debrief would encourage reflection in the mentee.

Another mentor’s professional qualities were rated as ‘very good’ partly because he was recognized by the School as a very professional teacher, so much so that his lesson plans were selected by the ST as an example for the mentees (I15:14). He was the only mentor who consistently suggested alternative ways of doing things to his mentee during the feedback (I15:15). The mentee reported receiving quite a lot of help with methodology from this mentor, with the mentor able to talk about classroom practice in detail (eg I15:5).

Mentors do not seem to have taken advantage of the many learning opportunities that presented themselves during, or that were structured into, the programme. Apart from the number of observations done, the number of times mentor and mentee pairs met and the time spent with the mentee before and after teaching, all discussed above – see Table 8.2 and the discussion there – other learning opportunities seem to have been missed. For example, only two mentors seemed to have thought about selecting materials for the mentee to teach that would provide a variety of learning opportunities (I15:6 and I14:9). In some cases the mentees just taught from whichever page the mentor had got to in the previous lesson (eg I28:2); in other cases the mentor allowed the mentee to choose (eg I22:6) with the result that at least one mentee selected

reading texts, multiple choice or ‘answering exercises’ (I22:6), not really what was going to provide the most learning opportunities for the mentee. Finally, one mentor, as discussed above, deliberately selected vocabulary items for his mentee to teach so that he could ‘feed them quickly in Arabic’ (I12:6). Most mentors did not discuss their lesson plans with their mentees before they [the mentors] taught (eg I24:10, I19:11, I15:14) and very few mentors or mentees used the lesson observation tasks, which were designed specifically to provide structured learning opportunities – see pages 111- 112.

As reported above – see page 102 - very little feedback seemed to have been designed to encourage mentee reflection.

Comfortable with the Core Practices of Mentoring (Principle 8c)

Some mentors appear not to have been comfortable with the core practices of mentoring. One mentee, whose mentor was assessed as ‘very poor’ as regards the core practices, described what happened in the first lesson he taught in the School. ‘Really the first lesson was really difficult, because it was about reading, and the text wasn’t easy. And as I told you, he didn’t give me any feedback about that’ (I24:4). (It is clear from the context that the mentee is referring to ‘guidance preparing the lesson’ rather than ‘feedback’ in this quote.) The mentor did not give him any idea about the text, just told the mentee to teach it (I24:5). The mentee problems were increased because he disliked teaching reading before he came to the School (I24:6). The mentor did not find out about the mentee’s attitude towards teaching reading during the programme (I24:6). During this first lesson the mentee struggled and sweated while the mentor looked out of the window ‘as if he wasn’t in class’ (I24:5). Then the mentor, having taken notes in this lesson, did not discuss them with the mentee (I24:5-6). Overall, the mentee described the experience as ‘bad’ (I24:5).

The incident and others may illustrate several things about the mentor’s command of the core practices. Firstly, the apparent lack of thought about guidance required before the mentee taught. Secondly, the mentor gave little appropriate or useful feedback to the mentee. There was no feedback on this lesson at all. According to both mentor and mentee, the mentor did not show the mentee any of the notes he had taken while observing the mentee teach until the mentee had taught three lessons (I24:6, I28:3). This lack of feedback worried the mentee (I24:6), who would have liked feedback from each lesson (I24:3). Thirdly, there is doubt about the appropriacy and manner of feedback when it was given. The mentor concentrated on low inference topics in his feedback such as the mentee’s movement around the class and spelling mistakes on the board (I28:4, 6). The mentee refers to the feedback as ‘instructions’ (I24:3)

rather than guidance. This mentee was concerned with discipline (I24:2, 6), but the only account concerning discipline given by the mentor is completely incompatible with the mentee's version (I24:6, I28:6). Fourthly, this mentor appeared to have been unable to accurately assess the strengths and weaknesses of the mentee. He analysed the mentee as a strong and confident teacher (I28:1), but there is evidence from the mentee that he was not (eg I24:3). Fifthly, the mentor appeared unable to make the mentee feel comfortable while being observed. The mentee reported feeling 'under pressure' while being observed (I24:1). Sixthly, this mentor did not 'model' lesson planning (I24:10). Finally, there is no evidence that the mentor was able to make his craft knowledge available to the mentee, other than the low inference topics discussed above.

In the case of the mentors whose control of the core practices was assessed as 'very good', the mentees found the feedback useful and learned from it, for example the feedback on different techniques of eliciting (I19:12). There was a detailed discussion of classroom practice between mentor and mentee, for example of correction techniques (I19:7), of questioning techniques (I10:14-15), and of pre-reading tasks (I15:5). Various attempts to make craft knowledge explicit and available to the mentee were made, for example by analyzing which types of contributions from students were helpful for the class and which were not, and how this related to the mentee's teaching style (I10:16). One mentor said:

I think that he has a tendency to lose control is not the right word, sometimes he tends to focus on what one particular cadet was asking him. Sometimes the exchange will be in Arabic and it'll go on much longer than it should have because already all the others have lost attention. And this is often just standing in front of the cadet. He would go to that cadet's desk, which ever row it was in, and it rather - it caused a bit of a hiccup in the lesson because it lost the flow and direction of it, and by the time he got back to the front again to try and re-establish control, then he had to spend a few minutes getting them to focus again on the activity and basically to shut up speaking Arabic to each other (I10:6).

There was little 'modelling' of lesson planning from any mentors with many mentors not even showing the mentee their lesson plans before the mentee taught (eg I19:11, I24:10).

Some mentors appeared unable or unwilling to make their craft knowledge explicit. One mentor's description of briefing the mentee before the mentee taught was:

I would go and say to him, ‘Look. This is what we’re doing today. You’re going to teach such and such a lesson. This is the material.’ He would er – and then I’d say ‘Go and have a look at that.’ If you’ve got any questions, come and see me about it. (I12:8).

The main topic of discussion after this mentee taught unobserved was how many pages the mentee had got through (I12:14).

Some mentees did not find the feedback useful or appropriate. Two mentees felt the need to take the initiative in the feedback sessions by asking questions themselves (eg I21:4, 9, I15:5). One mentee complained of getting one or two word answers from his mentor. On one occasion he reported ‘I was talking to myself’ (I21:9). The reported conversation below is typical.

He didn’t – maybe, I thought that he’s, maybe he was shy or embarrassed to tell me things about me. So I always encouraged him to tell me truthfully. ‘Is there any problem?’ He said, ‘No, it’s OK. Everything is OK.’ (I21:5)

One inexperienced mentor admitted in interview he did not know how to handle feedback (I9:8). This mentor complained his feedback sessions were monologues (see the full quote on pages 127-8 – I9:7). His mentee complained he was being told things he already knew (I14:24) and not what he needed. The mentee said:

He told me which pages, he told me the lesson, he told me, even the exercises, exercise by exercise, how to do it. ... he used to tell me the answers, I mean, for the exercise. ... Yeah. I wanted – yeah, how to do it in terms of how to put the answers in the gaps for example, how to choose true and false, but in terms of how am I going to teach it, yeah, teach it, that wasn’t focussed on enough. (I14:8)

There is some evidence of ‘arbitrariness and idiosyncrasy’ in practices discussed by Reid and Jones (1997), for example an obsession with ‘voice projection’ in the feedback sessions (I14:23), a concentration in feedback sessions on pronunciation (I12:7, 8, 12, 20, 22) and an equation of lesson preparation with giving the answers to exercises. One mentor said: ‘And basically I went through the book beforehand making sure the answers were there before him. So his work in that respect was minimal. Just go and teach it’ (I12:19). Unfortunately, at least one other mentor seemed to equate lesson preparation to a large extent with giving answers (I14:16).

Most mentees wanted their mentors to provide model lessons for them. The minutes of the Mentoring Course Evaluation Meeting with the mentees on 20th June made this clear.

There was a general feeling that when observing other teachers the mentees wanted to see particular [grammar or language] points being taught rather than a normal lesson. One mentee commented this could provide a model of how to do this, ie [how to teach this point]. (D28)

One mentee wanted mentors

to teach something important or a special technique. ... I want him to teach a particular point of grammar, for example, how to teach it. I want to – how he listens to answers, how he – about the cadets' responses – how he deals with them. What about if someone raises up, for example, a point or a question while he's teaching, while he's explaining this point. What about someone gives the wrong answer, or raises some problem, for example. What is a way of what he's teaching right now. So, like these techniques I want to observe like this. (I21:12).

Trusting and Working Relationships (Principle 8d)

Very different kinds of relationships were established between mentor-mentee pairs. Only one mentor seemed to have really got to know his mentee and was able to comment on his mentee's personality and beliefs at length (I10:6, 10). Two mentors consciously downplayed the idea of any hierarchy in their relationships with the mentees (eg I11:9, I28:3). One mentee referred to the relationship in the following terms 'His attitude is like a fatherly or a brotherly attitude towards me' (I15:9).

Some mentors and mentees made a distinction between the professional and personal relationship. The personal relationship was better than the professional one. For example, one mentor and mentee pair seemed to get on well together and travelled together to the capital city (I14:29), but there is a lot of evidence that a working relationship was not established with both mentor and mentee complaining about each other professionally (eg I9:1, 2, 4, I14:8, 15). As this mentor said 'To me personal relationship is one issue and professional is another' (I9:17).

A lot of relationships between mentors and mentees were characterized by avoidance of problems such as giving 'bad news' such as poor mentee English level (see pages 106-108) and poor quality of mentee lesson planning (see above, especially pages 108-111). Two mentors complained of their mentee avoiding meeting up with them (I9:1, I18:5).

No relationships between mentor and mentee lasted much longer than the programme. One ST who was involved in the programme and who was therefore in charge of some mentor and mentee classes during and after the programme said:

We don't seem to have really built a relationship between the mentor and the new [local] teacher that will last, where the new teacher can go back at any time and say, 'I don't know how to do this, or can you give me some tips on that?' It seems to me the four weeks ended, they were cut free, some of them wanted to be cut free earlier, and the mentors see their jobs done and its over. (I13:2)

One major reason for this could be 'cultural barriers, like me [a mentor] not being a Moslem, me not being a local [he stated the nationality], me not speaking his language' (I10:18). He said:

We have developed a good relationship, in fact we still have a relationship. I mean, other than hello and goodbye, we do actually talk to each other, and I'm sure that he will come to me if he has any problems. Although I suspect in practice that he would probably, I don't think it's because of any disrespect he has for me, but I think his first course of taking advice would be other [local] teachers. It seems that they can tell him the ropes, and it probably seems as if he can be more open with them about this and that. (I10:5)

Some mentors reported that they found it difficult to establish relationships with their mentees because of a lack of mentee commitment to the programme. For example, one mentor said his mentee was 'subtly sort of undermining the whole process of what it is to be a mentee' (I18:1). He went further and said the mentee was 'willfully disobedient to his mentor' (I18:4).

Support and Challenge (Principle 8e)

No mentors were rated 'very good' or 'good' for providing support and challenge to their mentee. The main reason for this is that the mentors did not challenge the mentees' beliefs. The vast majority of the discussions between mentor and mentee stayed at the level of technique. One mentor had this to say:

... the point that I was trying to make rather inarticulately before was that I thought there would have been much more major classroom issues brought up, or teaching points, in fact teaching issues. In fact it was really just small points associated with the particular

task of the classroom, and it was all rather concerned with the minutiae of the whole thing rather than any general problems or whatever (I10:2).

He referred to this elsewhere in the interview as the ‘nuts and bolts’ of lesson planning (I10:2, 10, 14). Another mentor commented that his support was ‘how to do it’ rather than talking in depth about teaching and learning (I11:10). As discussed above (pages 102, 129, 130), very little feedback was designed to encourage mentee reflection. There is little evidence in any interviews that mentee’s theories about teaching and learning were exposed to scrutiny by mentor questioning or probing, although one mentee did contrast theories presented on the Basic TEFL course with the realities of the classrooms in the School (I15:23).

The amount and quality of support provided by different mentors to their mentees varied enormously. One mentor was described as looking out of the window while his mentee was struggling and sweating (I24:5). Another mentee reported the mentor saying: ‘Go and plan the lesson and show me the lesson afterwards, the lesson plan afterwards’ (I14:9). However, some mentors tailored their programme to mentee’s needs by for example, meeting frequently and spending a long time with the mentee discussing lesson planning (eg I10, see Table 8.2 above).

Most mentors found it difficult to structure the programme for the mentee. For example, only one mentor set targets for his mentee (I10:4, 8, 18). Additionally, several mentors and mentees complained about the arrangements for mentors and mentees to meet each other to plan lessons or for feedback (eg I9:1, I14:17). This may be because some mentors told their mentees that they were available in the breaks for meetings, but the mentee did not come (eg I18:5). One mentee complained of having nothing to do at times during the programme (I21:3). Other participants complained that the mentees spent a lot of time in the staffroom during the programme. One mentor said the mentees ‘certainly didn’t use their time as profitably as they could. On their schedules it may have looked like their time was full, in practice they had a lot of time off.’ (I10:7).

Table 8.17 shows mentee concerns analysed using the topics defined in Appendix 6, as discussed on pages 105-106, and using the framework from Campbell and Wheatley (1983). The table was compiled by crudely counting the numbers of mentions of each topic.

Table 8.17 shows that mentees were roughly at about Stage 2 – concerned with teaching actions and student behaviour – and that there was very little concern with student learning. They were concerned with methodology and lesson planning, as one would expect, but also with coping

and with discipline in the classroom. No mentors, however, mentioned discipline when asked what kind of feedback they gave their mentees.

Table 8.17 Mentee Concerns by Stages

Stage 1 Self		Stage 2 Teaching Actions and Student behaviour		Stage 3 Learning	
	Total		Total		Total
Coping	41	Lesson preparation	40	Student learning	13
Image & status as a new teacher	17	Methodology	56	Individual student needs	1
Amount of materials	9	Classroom atmosphere	5	Own learning	12
		Classroom management - general	26		
		Classroom management - discipline	35		
Total	67	Total	162	Total	26

Although quite a lot of the support was appropriate to mentee concerns and stage of development, mentee concerns about coping were not really met by the mentors as a whole. Table 8.18 shows a comparison feedback mentees were given by mentors and the mentee concerns. Both in terms of feedback and mentee concerns, the first three ranked topics were methodology, classroom management and lesson preparation. However, mentees did not appear to be concerned about English level and mentors gave no feedback on coping.

8.18 Comparison of Mentor Feedback and Mentee Concerns

Topic	Feedback by mentors		Mentee Concerns	
	Rank order	%	Rank order	%
Methodology	1	38%	2	21%
Classroom management	2	28%	1	22%
Lesson preparation	3	13%	3	15%
English level	4	9%	-	-
Imitation of mentor by mentee	5	3%	-	-
Coping	-	-	3	15%
Student learning	-	-	5	5%
Image and status as a new teacher	-	-	5	5%
Other	-	13%	-	17%

When the comments on classroom management are analysed in detail it becomes clear that mentees were far more concerned about discipline than mentors were. Very few mentors

mentioned discipline at all, whereas several mentees had severe discipline problems. For example, one mentee described in detail how his class ‘teased’ him, ‘abused’ him and tried to take advantage of him (I24:1-2).

There is also evidence from one mentee that the kinds of lesson planning done by his mentor did not meet his needs. He said the mentor concentrated on giving him answers to exercises, but what he really wanted was ‘principles ... directions and detailed information on how to approach a certain exercise or a certain lesson’ (I14:15).

Mentor Training (Principle 9)

The mentor training consisted of four meetings, held on 16th April, 22nd April, 29th April and 19th May (D2-5). At these meetings:

- the purpose, contents and the support that was available for Programme 5 were discussed (D2-5)
- prospective mentors performed various tasks, such as returning to and discussing in pairs experiences they had had as mentors or as mentees (following Galvez-Martin *et al*, 1998:11) (D6)
- ideas for observation and feedback were brainstormed following the discussions in pairs (D6-D7).
- The observation tasks were designed as a result of these discussions (D18-20).
- Ideas for following up what was discussed in the meetings, such as observing themselves or each other teach, were put to the mentors (D8).

Most of what is recommended by Joyce and Showers (1982), eg demonstration, feedback, practice and coaching in the mentoring practices was not included in the mentor training meetings. As one coordinator said ‘I’d like to have seen them [prospective mentors] do a couple of those observing yourself or observing each other. Or a bit of practice more than sitting there in meetings’ (I29:20). One reason was a lack of time (I13:5, I29:5). Another reason given was a lack of ‘goodwill’ from the mentors for the kind of training the coordinators wished to undertake.

From the mentor’s side we had very little time and very little goodwill to work with. Because of the lack of goodwill we could only really timetable meetings in school hours, in core time hours, in the hours between lesson one and the end of lesson six. Except on I think three occasions or four occasions when they were sort of bought at the expense of afternoon studies. So participation by mentors was limited by that

factor. In a sense it was a planning meeting, and then a couple of other meetings about observation and about giving feedback. I mean they are very very big concerns, I think in the book they talk about a ninety hour course. (I29:1).

This coordinator felt that the mentors did not feel the need to improve their skills, and there was not enough prodding from the coordinators (I29:18).

Some participants, such as the coordinator above, felt there should have been more mentor training meetings. One ST said: 'In a perfect world it [mentor training] would have gone on for longer before the new teachers arrived. It was all done in a couple of weeks. It was a little bit hurried' (I13:5). The view that there should have been more meetings was shared with at least one (inexperienced) mentor (I28:9). However, some mentors thought there were too many meetings (eg I11:13, I12:2, 28). There was also a difference of opinion over whether mentor training itself was essential or not. The Head Teacher (I20:12), the ST quoted above (I13:5) and the first and second coordinators (I29:1, 5, 20) all expressed strong views in favour of mentor training. Some prospective mentors and mentors (eg I12:2, 28) felt the training was unnecessary. For example, the first meeting started with the following comment from one prospective mentor, said to another mentor but loud enough for everyone to hear 'What's this waste of time all about? My time would be better spent drinking coffee' (RD:122).

The meetings were generally active but displayed a lack of real enthusiasm from the mentors. One coordinator said:

People were very positive, they did take part, even people who were portrayed as cynics at the beginning, took part in those meetings quite well. There was an attempt to engage with the issues but it was kind of entry level discussion, wasn't it? When I was sitting there in the discussion I thought, yeah, 'This is going well, we're getting some stuff in.' But then when I sat down at the end, do you remember, when I wrote down what had been decided, it was very very thin fare. Although there had been a lot of talk, it didn't boil down to very much (I29:22).

This was very similar to the notes made independently in the researcher's diary at the time (RD:122, 125). The meetings displayed some of the features of lack of interest, when compared with the list of 'indicators of interest and lack of interest' in Pozzo (1997:48). For example, the discussions stayed fairly general, there was a search for convergence, there was very little 'it depends on ...', body postures were generally defensive and there was very little 'sparking', production of alternatives based on what someone else said (RD 122, 135).

One positive result of the meetings was that mentors were well briefed on their role. One ST said ‘... they [the mentors] certainly were much better briefed than the one [mentor programme] that I did. They got a lot more time together, and lots of time to ask questions and put forward views. Which I think is a good thing’ (I26:6). The Head Teacher also commented that mentors were adequately briefed but said that ‘they didn’t carry it through’ (I20:15).

However, several things agreed to at the meetings were not done. All of these have been discussed earlier so they are only summarised here.

- the observation tasks were not used very much at all (see Principle 2, pages 111-112).
- some mentors gave very little feedback to their mentees (see pages 100-103, 132).
- some mentors gave only low inference feedback (see pages 103-104).
- some feedback sessions were characterised either by silences on the part of mentees, or mentees taking over (see pages 102-103, I21:8 quoted on page 102).
- some mentors helped their mentees very little with pre-teaching preparation (see pages 98-100, 131-132).
- some mentors, by their own admission, had difficulties with the basics (eg giving feedback, page 132).

One reason for this discrepancy between words and actions is suggested by the Head Teacher, ‘I think some of the mentors simply wanted to be told what they were supposed to be doing’ (I20:12).

Outcomes (Principle 10)

No direct assessment was made of whether the mentee teaching skills had improved. No coordinators visited the classroom for this purpose. The coordinators felt that any such visits would have completely changed the nature of the programme away from development and training towards ‘assessment’ and risked ‘over-policing’ (RD:142). STs did conduct lesson checks towards the end of the programme as part of the mentee’s probation requirements. However, without an assessment at the beginning no direct judgement as to ‘improvement’ could be made. No assessment of any kind was made of the students’ learning in classes taught by the mentees after the programme was finished. This was felt to be outside the research, as well as deeply problematic.

Most mentor and mentee pairs gave similar accounts of the kinds of improvements in mentees' teaching. For example, both the mentor and mentee in one pair noticed improvements in the mentee's ability to cope with discipline problems and in class control (I24:1, I28:3, 5). Another pair reported improvements in the mentee's boardwork (I18:3, I22:9). However, mentees tended to report more improvements in their teaching than their mentors reported. For example, one mentee reported improvements in the pace of the lesson (I22:10), the way he kept students occupied at the end of a lesson or task (I22:9) and in boardwork (I22:9). His mentor only reported some improvement in boardwork (I18:3).

The mentee's ability to cope with discipline problems, their general classroom management and confidence seemed to improve. For example, one pair reported improvements in classroom control and improved mentee confidence (I24:1, I28:3, 5), both the mentor and mentee in another pair reported better classroom control (D29 and I19:8), and the only interviewee in one pair reported a better ability deal with discipline problems (I15:13).

Some mentors felt the programme had not made much difference to their mentees overall teaching skills (I10:2, I11:10). One mentor said: '... having observed the teacher for the four weeks I didn't see any discernable differences in what he was doing at the beginning to the end' (I10:2). Presumably the two mentees who failed lesson checks towards the end of the programme had made little improvement (see pages 115-120). One mentor said the mentees 'don't have the repertoire. They don't have the expertise. They don't – I don't know to what extent they could use different approaches' (I10:13).

Nearly all the reported improvements were in 'low inference' skills such as boardwork (eg I11:10, I18:3, I22:9), use of the OHP (I11:8), elicitation techniques (14:12), or were of a very general nature. For example, one mentee, when asked for specific examples of improvements, said: '... some points of teaching, new ways of teaching. How to deal with this new environment for us, a military environment. How to deal with computers' (I19:15).

One mentor reported an improvement in his mentee's lesson planning (I10:7, 8, 18). This is discussed above (see page 110).

One mentee reported that his ability to deal with students' questions and to avoid being sidetracked had improved. He reported students asking questions that were 'completely away from the lesson' (I22:10), and at the beginning of the programme he used to be there for them and answer any questions they asked. Later on, he did not give them a chance to ask those kinds of questions (I22:10).

In summary, it seems likely that there were some improvements in basic teaching skills for most mentees, but that their overall skills had not improved very much, and that they still had a limited repertoire at the end of Programme 5.

Evaluation (Principles 11 to 13)

Overall Programme Evaluation

Table 8.19 on page 142 shows the evaluations made by informants of the programme as a whole. Every mentee evaluated the programme positively. Most of them evaluated induction activities, core activities and programme design and structure positively. The induction aspects evaluated positively included such things as familiarisation with the School and its routines and administration, School facilities, the classroom and the students. The core activities evaluated positively were observation, feedback and general mentor support. Aspects of the design and structure evaluated positively included the staged approach of the programme; as one mentee said, 'not to throw me in the pool and you tell me to swim' (I23:9). Three mentees qualified their positive statements by mentioning things that went wrong or suggesting improvements to the programme. One wanted a more systematic organisation of the programme. Mentee 6 wanted feedback from his mentor.

Table 8.19 Evaluation of Programme 5 as a Whole

	+ or -	Aspects of the Programme
Mentees		
Mentee 1	+ but	Unspecified and Induction (I24:1, 15) But core activities (need to observe more teachers) (I15:1)
Mentee 2	++	Core activities and induction (I19:1, 2), part of a team (I19:15)
Mentee 3	+	Induction , design of programme (I21:4, 20)
Mentee 4	+	Core activities and induction (I22:1, 4, 15, 16)
Mentee 5	++	Design of programme (I15:1, 2, 22, 23, 24)
Mentee 6	+ but	Design of programme ('not to throw me in the pool and you tell me to swim') (I23:8, 9) but Core activities (No feedback on teaching from mentor) (I23:1)
Mentee 7	+ but	Unspecified (I14:1, 28) but Core activities & implementation (I14:3, 27)
Mentors		
Mentor 1	++	Mentee development (I28:1, 8, 11) , mentor learning (I28:8)
Mentor 2	+	Mentee development (I10:6), mentor learning (I10:9)
Mentor 3	+	Unspecified (I11:12), general support for mentees (I11:13), feeling part of a team (I11:12)
Mentor 4	DK2	
Mentor 5	DK4	
Mentor 6	+	Unspecified (I12:3), structure (I12:1), support for mentors (I12:27), induction ('mentees fitting in') (I12:2)
Mentor 7	+	Mentor learning (I9:28), identified improvements for next programme (I9:28), being part of a team (I9:27), positive impact on school (I9:28) but needs restructuring and remoulding (I9:26)
Coordinators		
Coordinator 2	++	Identified improvements for next programme (I29:3, 5, 21), mentor development (I29:4), workshops (I29:6), core activities, positive impact on school (I29:4), mentee development (I29:3, 4) but requires 'finer monitoring' (I29:1)
Coordinator 3	+	Unspecified (I16:4), better coordinated (I16:7), identified improvements for next programme (I16:13), mentee appreciation (I16:8)
STs and Head Teacher		
ST 1	+ but	Met needs if defined narrowly, design and structure and implementation good, within the constraints, but didn't agree with the constraints (I13:3, 7)
	+	Improvement on previous programmes (I13:7)
	+ but	Good but more people should have been involved (I13:11)
	+	Coordinator effort, identified improvements for next programme (I13:16)
ST 2	+	Design and structure (I26:1), implementation (I26:3) Advantages of this programme (additional staff were available) (I26:11)
Head Teacher	++	Coordinator effort (I20:1)
	+	Academic interest benefited programme (I20:17)
	+ but	5/7 mentees successful, better induction but implementation poor given advantages of this programme in terms of resources (I20:8-9)

All 5 mentors who were interviewed and answered the question on evaluation also evaluated the programme positively with only one qualifying his assessment. Three mentors mentioned their own learning as a positive aspect of the programme; two mentioned mentee development as a teacher in terms of greater confidence or a sense of achievement. One mentor said, 'I think it got what was needed for the mentees certainly. General support. It gave them what they needed' (I11:13). Various other things were mentioned such as improved support for mentors, and a positive impact on the School. One mentor heavily qualified his assessment by saying that the programme requires restructuring, remoulding and better implementation. Some participants felt part of a team (eg I9:27, I10:25, I19:15).

Coordinators two and three both evaluated the programme positively. They talked about structure and support, the improvements for next time identified in Programme 5, mentee development and appreciation of the programme as well as the positive impact on the School. One coordinator suggested a kind of discursal function of the programme 'for the school as a whole just an opportunity to air the whole issue' (I29:4, cf Kemmis 1986).

Both STs were again generally positive. One did, however, qualify his assessment fairly significantly. The positive aspects were the coordinator effort, identified improvements, the design, structure and aspects of the implementation. One ST thought the programme was 'done thoroughly and professionally and as properly as could be done within the – all the limitations' (I13:7). But he did not agree with the constraints, specifically the way the mentors were selected and the length of the programme. He added, 'I think that the programme would have been stronger if more people had been involved' (I13:11). The other ST mentioned the advantages this programme had over other programmes.

The Head Teacher also talked about the greater resources, especially staff, put into Programme 5. The Head Teacher positively evaluated the coordinator effort and the benefits of the 'academic interest' of the researcher in the programme. He also positively evaluated the induction aspects of Programme 5. However, he pointed out that the programme did not address mentee failings (I20:9). This was discussed above (see pages 115-120).

Overall, then the assessments were positive. However, there is a requirement to look into the way that the programme was designed, specifically the constraints that were built in, in terms of length and mentor selection, and the way the programme was implemented and managed.

Programme Objectives: Induction or Teacher Training

The interviews revealed a split between those who thought that there needed to be a teacher training focus and those who felt that the programme should be an induction programme. All the coordinators, including the researcher, fell on the teacher training side of the split, as does the Head Teacher. The other groups, STs, mentors and mentees were all split over the issue.

The teacher training view was argued from the point of view of mentee needs, including the needs of weaker mentees. It was argued that the new teachers did not have a repertoire of teaching approaches and techniques in contrast to the experienced teachers (I10:13, I13:10). One mentor said: 'I think the average EFL professional should be able to handle pairwork and groupwork, and I think they should have many different ways of attacking words, vocabulary, and all those other skills.' (I10:13)

The induction view is argued from the point of needs also, but different ones.

Theoretically the mentees shouldn't need teacher training, but they do obviously need an introduction to the school, and what it's made of, and how it's put together, the classroom and how it works in this particular situation. (I26:3)

This ST argued that the mentees have already been trained as EFL teachers, and that the School did not choose the new teachers. 'They are not teachers that you choose by interview and observation. You get them because they come' (I26:4). He also argued that for the weaker teachers, 'You can't retrain them for a sufficiently long time to make it worthwhile. Cause otherwise you're wasting resources, good or bad as it may be' (I26:4). The use of the word 'theoretically' (above) was interesting, and contrasts with the ST and mentor quoted above who argued that practically there were things the mentees could not do, or did not have that they needed. Some mentors also saw their role in terms of induction. For example, one mentor reported not talking with his mentee about teaching and learning much because 'I didn't feel that was my role so much' (I12:16). This was discussed on pages 112-113. Some mentors did not see it as their job to train the mentees. One mentor said, 'He feels that I am his trainer, even though I wasn't' (I28:3).

The 'induction versus teacher training' issue related to mentee status, and the way the School saw and treated them. 'Are these trained teachers or not?' (D6) – a question asked by a prospective mentor at the beginning of the mentor meetings before the mentees arrived - is the issue. Three mentees were very aware of their problematic status as teachers. One mentee

talked about ‘just teaching without real authority on the class. Just waiting for the teacher, for the mentor to ask him what am I going to do the next day. Without having real authority on the students’ (I15:3). When asked to explain ‘without real authority’ he said, ‘Because they [the students] know that you are just a newcomer who wants to be trained. So they won’t treat you like a real teacher’ (I15:3). One mentee related this directly to his ability to control the class (I24:1).

Intended and Unintended Effects of the Programme as a Whole

Table 8.20 shows the intended effects of Mentor Programme 5. Table 8.21 shows the unintended effects. These have been analysed in terms of type of change. Following a modified version of Miles and Huberman (1994:138), primary changes are defined as those directly following from the requirements of the innovation, and secondary effects are what Miles and Huberman (ibid:138) call ‘spin offs’, following from the innovation. They may not have been directly anticipated. They were not part of the main programme objectives.

It seems likely that there were some improvements in basic teaching skills for most mentees, but that their overall skills had not improved very much, and that they still had a limited repertoire at the end of Programme 5. See above, pages 139-141.

Several constraints on sustainability were mentioned by participants. These included many already discussed above, for example, clarifying the programme objectives (see pages 144-5), deciding on a satisfactory level of support (see pages 114 and 120), clarifying roles (see page 114), sorting out how mentors are to be selected (see pages 124-5) and other matters of staffing. Most of those who commented about sustainability talked about staffing as the main issue. An ST said: ‘the circumstances would have to be similar in terms of availability of staff’ (I26:13). The Head Teacher outlined the resources that he felt were worth investing in future programmes.

I think in terms of cost-effectiveness the idea of allocating one person full time as a coordinator to the programme is a reasonable cost for the institution to bear. I think you’ve got the four weeks of the programme and then you’ve got maybe another two or three weeks of organisation, meetings, things like that. I think that as an investment in the orientation of six or seven or whatever new staff is a good investment. I don’t think you would have any problems also persuading the [military], the customer, that this was a good investment. (I20:1)

Table 8.20 Intended Effects of Programme 5

Type	Intended effect	Result	Notes
Professional (primary)	Improvement in mentee teaching skills	Some improvement	Improvement in ability to cope, but not much overall improvement See pages 139-141 above
Structural (primary)	Creation of sustainable programme	Not sustainable in present form	Need to clarify objectives, to decide level of support & staffing, clarify roles, solve mentor selection
Professional (primary)	Mentor development	Mentors & managers reported some development	General development, new understandings of teaching, improved self esteem
Professional / Relational (primary)	Mentor given autonomy to exercise professional judgement	Partial success	Some exercises considerable professional judgement, some did not
Relational / professional (primary)	Creation of lasting professional relationships between mentors and mentees	Not established	No relationships outlasted the programme
Relational / climate (primary)	Creation of mentor team	Successful	Team created for duration of programme
Professional (secondary)	Development of Coordinators	First and second coordinator developed as programme managers Third one did not.	Greater understanding of issues involved in managing programmes. Third coordinator's role was mainly administrative.
Professional (secondary)	Development of counterpart	Not achieved	Third coordinator's role was mainly administrative.
Professional (secondary)	Minimal negative effect on students' learning	Very little negative effect noticed	Most students passed the test One mentor felt strongly the learning of his class suffered.

Most mentors said they developed during the programme in terms of increased understandings of their own teaching. One said he did not develop (I11:11), another did not answer the question (I18). The following is typical, 'I suppose it makes you more aware of what – it makes you look at your job again when you've got somebody else there with you, doesn't it?' (I12:27). Most managers, both STs, one coordinator and the Head Teacher, thought the mentors had developed in terms of opportunities to take part in professional discussion (I29:4), to reflect on their own teaching as well as the mentees' teaching and improved self esteem. One ST said mentors developed:

In self esteem. In feeling that their experience was being valued. And heaven knows the experience of people in our school is often not valued at all. So at just an opportunity to do something where you feel and you're told that your experience matters and we want to

use your knowledge, your skills, your experience. In terms of the self esteem that those guys got, I think they probably benefited. In terms of thinking about their jobs in a different way I think they benefited. (I13:16).

The mentors varied enormously in quality from two who were rated 'very good' by the researcher to two who were rated 'very poor'. Two exercised considerable professional judgement as regards such things as interpreting classroom events when the mentee was teaching (I10:10-12) and handling feedback sessions (eg I10:6, I19:12). However, some mentors thought very little about what mentoring entailed (eg I12:6) and made poor judgements about what to give as feedback (eg I12:7, 8) and when and how to handle the feedback (eg I24:6, I28:3).) All these issues are discussed in detail on pages 125 to 137 above.

No relationships between mentor and mentee lasted much longer than the programme. This is discussed in detail on page 134 above.

A team spirit was created amongst the mentors by the mentor training meetings. All three mentors who discussed it with the researcher said they felt part of a team (I9:27, I10:25, I11:12).

Both the first and second coordinator reported developing as programme managers. The discussions between the researcher and the second coordinator (I29) showed a greater understanding of the issues involved in managing such programmes, for example the need to consider coordinator role and the kind of balance to be struck between controlling and giving autonomy (I29:1-2, 6, 14), the length of programme required (I29:3-4), the contents of the programme (I29:4-5), the need to clarify all roles (I29:10-11), and the need to prod or rally the mentors (I29:18).

The third coordinator's mainly administrative role both prevented him from seeing how the programme was managed and made it difficult for the first two coordinators to assess his skills in programme management or pass on their increasing understanding (I29:12-13). The counterparting of the third coordinator as future programme manager therefore did not work.

Most mentors felt the learning of their class had not suffered as a result of the programme. They cited how many students passed the test as evidence. For example, one mentor said that twenty-one out of twenty-three students got through the test. 'That was a pat on the head for the mentee and me' (I18:10). Only one mentor qualified what they said in any way, referring to measuring student learning by whether students had passed the test as a 'crude instrument'

(I10:7). Nobody interviewed, neither mentor nor mentee, mentioned anything about what was or was not learned. Both the Head Teacher and one ST doubted whether this instrument was a valid way of measuring student learning (RD193).

One mentor was adamant the learning of his cadets' suffered during the programme and that the students did not want the mentee in their class. He said:

... the cadets constantly said. 'We don't want this teacher.' ... and also the damage that Naif [the mentee] inflicted in terms of mistakes, you know, not being forceful enough in the classroom, the class felt that they did not learn anything. ... Because I had to teach the same pages again. Every single time. ... Because the cadets can't under – 'Sir, don't bother go to the next page, because you have to go back. We didn't understand anything. (I9:21)

Table 8.21 shows the unintended effects of Programme 5, including underestimated effects.

Nearly all the unintended effects have been discussed above. The ST who felt excluded is discussed on page 114. The mainly administrative role of the third coordinator is discussed on pages 113-4. The core activities are discussed on pages 95-106. The two mentees who 'failed' are discussed on pages 115-120. The possible effect of School norms on mentee lesson planning is discussed on page 110. The effect of the exemption from 'supervised private studies' is discussed on page 120.

The workload of one ST increased significantly as a result of the programme. This was the ST whose job it was to prepare the weekly timetable and make changes during the week as necessary. What was not considered when the programme was designed was the combined effects during the programme of a) the exemption from 'supervised private studies' b) the need to timetable meetings of mentors, and c) the need to timetable mentees to attend workshops (I16). Additionally, but infrequently, there were times when the third coordinator had to liaise with the same ST over timetabling mentee visits to teachers other than their mentor (I16:2). All four of these involved the ST in charge of timetabling in liaising with the third coordinator (eg I16:1, 2, 3), or occasionally different coordinators or STs (I16:5), and were time consuming. At times it caused difficulties between the third coordinator and this ST (I16:3). The third coordinator's solution was to get STs more involved with the programme so they can do a lot of the liaison (I16:5).

Table 8.21 Unintended Effects of Programme 5

Type	The result	Causes Suggested	Notes
Structural / relational	One ST felt excluded from involvement	Programme design Personality of coordinator	Disagreement over this
Structural	Third coordinator role different from envisaged	Needs Lack of time	Took on administrative role
Professional / structural	Number and quality of core activities less than planned	Mentors given autonomy Different mentor quality (Mentor selection) Lack of monitoring	
Professional / structural	Two mentees 'failed' by getting poor lesson checks	'Hands off' management approach Inexperienced mentors Lack of role clarity and lack of clarity over responsibilities Lack of psycho-social support Lack of time Micropolitics	Many alternative explanations offered
Professional / structural	Mentees adapted lesson planning to prevailing norms	Cultural ('custom and practice') Cultural (desire to 'fit in')	
Relational / Professional / Structural	ST in charge of timetable had increased workload	Impact of three separate decisions	
Relational	STs upset by mentor exemption from 'supervised private studies'	STs did not 'buy in' Badly managed	

Evaluation of the Evaluation

Since most of the issues involved in evaluating the evaluation are mostly methodological, and since they correspond to one of the major research questions of this research, discussion is postponed to the next chapter, where all the research questions are considered.

CHAPTER NINE: Discussion

‘... the gap between plans and realities is necessary and inevitable.’ (Adelman and Alexander 1982:159)

‘In our view the way in which management is conducted determines the health of the institution as much as do the quality and adventurousness of the teaching.’ (Adelman and Alexander 1982:15)

This chapter discusses the meaning of the findings presented in Chapters Four to Seven by relating them to the research questions discussed in Chapter One. It starts with research question 1 – an evaluation of Mentor Programme 5. Following this, it compares Programmes 1 to 4 with Programme 5 (research question 2). Then it discusses the implications for future programmes in the School (question 3) and the implications of this research to mentoring theory and practice (question 4). Finally it evaluates the principles themselves (question 5). All the answers are related to the literature and principles discussed in Chapter Two. Innovation theory and action research theory and practice are then looked at briefly in the light of this study.

Evaluation of Mentor Programme 5 (Research Question 1)

Mentor Programme 5 was well-planned and well-organised as suggested by Bush *et al* (1996) and Woods (1996). A variety of structured learning opportunities was designed into the programme (page 76), including a variety of different types of observations (Brookes and Sikes 1997). It was managed by coordinators and STs who, between them, had all the skills and abilities to manage a programme of this complexity (Buchanan and Boddy 1992). Before the mentees arrived there were meetings at which the mentors were briefed and some training was provided in the core practices of mentoring, observing and giving feedback (Daresh and Playko 1992). After these meetings the mentors thought they understood their role (Q2:7). A team spirit amongst mentors and mentees was evident in both questionnaire and interview data. A thorough evaluation of the programme was carried out, as recommended by Stephenson (1997c). Principles 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, and 9 all seem to have been successfully incorporated into the programme.

But the study revealed a serious inconsistency (Adelman and Alexander 1982:160), maybe even a major paradox. The intentions of the designers of Mentor Programme 5, the support

the programme received and the thoughtfulness that went into the planning and design, should have made success likely. Yet the outcomes were far from expected, especially as regards improvement in teaching skills of the mentees (Q4:9, pages 139-141). There was a consensus that, although some minor improvements in mentee performance were reported, overall teaching skills and teaching repertoire seemed little affected. This means that the most important objective of the programme was not met. This is, to say the least, very disappointing. Possible reasons for this are discussed below.

Mentee experiences varied in terms of the number of lessons they observed, the number of times they were observed and the number and quality of contacts they had with the mentor (Table 8.2). Some mentees met their mentors in 'snatched time' (Campbell 1989:51), in breaks between lessons (Table 8.2). Some mentors restricted feedback comments to lower inference things like boardwork and lesson planning (O'Donoghue 1997), avoiding 'bad news' (O'Donoghue 1997) and feedback about English level (pages 106-8).

The variable experiences of the mentees reflected to some extent the different mentors they had. Some were experienced and this showed in their professional commitment. Two of the inexperienced mentors were keen but performed poorly, one because of his forceful manner, the other because he seemed out of his depth. One experienced mentor performed adequately, while being a little uncommitted. One experienced mentor seemed totally uncommitted, and complied grudgingly (Senge 1990:219-220). The final mentor who was inexperienced found it very difficult to work with a mentee who did not seem committed to the programme (page 134). Some mentors restricted themselves to induction and familiarization, and one mentor at least was 'dangerous' (Malderez and Bodóczy 1999:66), and could have had a serious detrimental impact on his mentee because of the lack of support he gave (pages 130-131). Many of the relationships between mentors and mentees stayed well within 'comfort zones' with little evidence of challenge and little evidence of change in mentee teaching abilities (Q3:6, 16). All of these things implicate the way that mentors were selected – from a 'limited pot' of 25 teachers instead of the whole School.

The programme as a whole was regarded as less successful than previous programmes by several members of the senior staff (pages 115-6). One major reason was that it failed to deal with two mentees recognised as problems early in the programme. They both failed lesson checks at the end of the programme – lesson checks which the coordinators of the programme were not informed about. This forefronts the micropolitics of the programme and begs questions about control of the programme. ST dissatisfaction with the arrangements for

afternoon studies may also have been part of that struggle for control, as well as complaints from one coordinator about the lack of information sharing by STs.

A lot of the research in this study has attempted to shed light on this paradox – what Adelman and Alexander (1982:159) quoted above call ‘the gap between plans and realities’. Apart from mentor selection and micropolitical intrigue, another layer of possible explanation lies in the lack of ‘goodness of fit’ (Kennedy 1999a) between the programme and its environment. Questionnaire 2 revealed some prospective mentors’ doubts about the formality and ‘over-organisation’ of the programme. Attitudes towards the observation tasks seem to indicate that they were implausible to many mentors and mentees. Attitudes towards the programme and the research are also revealing. Cynical views were expressed in Questionnaire 2 about the purpose of the research, in the staffroom about the motives of one coordinator (RD:147), and in the comments about the observation tasks not providing the researcher with what he wanted (I11:13). One mentor who replied to Questionnaire 2 stated that he doubted whether ‘it [the programme] will work as well as it could owing to the underlying School culture.’

‘Goodness of fit’ also applies to relationships. Long term relationships are not generally forged between expatriates and locals in the School (I25:9), in fact, long term professional relationships are not the norm, which is one of teacher isolation in the classroom.

There is also the question of the ‘goodness of fit’ of the coordinators’ ‘hands off’ management style in a military institution. Many programme participants and some senior staff felt the programme should have been more directive (page 121). Even programme coordinators felt that giving mentors more autonomy should have been supported by coordinators keeping in much closer touch with mentors and mentees, and monitoring the programme more closely (pages 114, 118, Hardie 2001). This implicates the structure of the programme, the number of layers between the first two coordinators and the mentees, and the need for much greater clarity over roles (Conway 1997).

Another issue raised is the ownership of the programme (Rudduck 1991). Mentors did not really want to be involved more in the design of the programme and were happy to leave the design of tasks, for example, to the coordinators (D6). One mentor did a bare minimum or less, and many of the things agreed to at mentor meetings were not done (page 139). There is also evidence that one ST felt excluded from ownership (I13).

The commitment of the mentees to the programme is also in question (cf Gray 2001:70). There is some evidence that they felt they had ‘done their training and have little else to learn’

to quote one respondent to Questionnaire 2. Some mentees reported discomfort with being observed in Questionnaire 3, and one mentee even went so far as to say that the mentees 'didn't come here to learn' (D28). '... the unresolved problem of being a fellow teacher, but also observing and giving 'feedback'' written on Questionnaire 4 is important in this respect. The question 'Are these trained teachers or not?', which was asked in the first few minutes of the very first mentor training meeting seems to have never been resolved. The view that both mentors and mentees were 'happy to see it draw to a close' (I13:5) also reflects on commitment.

Was the programme a 'pet project' (I13:11)? Was it a pale version of mentoring 'taken up half-heartedly' (Stephenson 1997b:209)? One ST indicated he thought it was both, and that it should have been both longer and better resourced (I13). The arguments that the mentees needed a longer programme are quite strong. Most of the mentees were concerned with 'coping' and with classroom management and needed more help with both. Very few of them had much concern with student learning, being more concerned with their own and the students' classroom behaviour (Table 8.13). Most mentee lesson planning was not good enough (pages 108-111). Most NLTs had 'only one way of doing any kind of exercise' according to an ST who gave many NLTs lesson checks (I13:10). The argument that far more resources had been put into other projects, eg book writing and publishing, is relevant here (I13:2).

Comparison of Programmes 2 to 4 with Programme 5 (Research Question 2)

Direct comparisons between the programmes are difficult since the data collected from Programmes 2 to 4 was much less in-depth than the data for Programme 5. However, the overall evaluations of Programme 5 were much more positive (Table 8.19) than the evaluations of Programmes 2 to 4 contained in Chapters Four and Seven. Specifically, the mentees appreciated the induction activities, core activities and programme design and structure on Programme 5 (page 141). The mentors generally evaluated the programme positively, three mentioning their own learning (pages 142-143, Q4:5), whereas very few mentors felt they developed professionally during Programmes 2 to 4 (Q1:10). The coordinators also evaluated Programme 5 positively (Table 8.19).

Programme 5 was better planned and structured than Programmes 2 to 4. Programmes 2 to 4 do not appear to have been well planned or clearly structured in advance and there was little

evidence of a structured programme of lesson planning, observation and feedback (Chapter Four). Unlike in Programmes 2 to 4, no mentees were removed during Programme 5.

There were complaints from mentors on Programmes 2 to 4 of a lack of ST support, especially dealing with mentee punctuality and attendance. The STs did not have enough time to devote to the programmes (page 64). In contrast, there were few complaints of this kind on Programme 5, probably because it was better staffed.

On Programmes 2 to 4 most mentors felt they were not adequately briefed and needed more guidance on role (Q1:3,12). Again in contrast, most mentors on Programme 5 felt they were adequately briefed (Q2:7). In both Programmes 2 to 4 and Programme 5 most mentors appear to have developed a satisfactory relationship with their mentees (Q1:5, Table 8.16, pages 133-4).

On Programmes 2 to 4 half of the mentors felt they were able to improve mentee teaching skills with just less than a quarter unable to (Q1:9). Less than half those on Programme 5 felt they were able to improve the teaching skills of the mentee, with only one feeling he was unable to (Q4:9).

Some similar problems were thrown up by both Programmes 2 to 4 and Programme 5. These are listed below.

- There were problems sometimes because mentors did not have authority over mentees.
- Some mentees demonstrated a lack of mentee commitment to the programme (Gray 2001:70).
- Some mentors felt they needed time, eg a reduced timetable, to do the job properly (White *et al* 1991).
- Mentors were selected from a small pool and may not have been the best for the job.
- Some mentees had problems teaching in the School when the programmes finished.
- Students' learning suffered in some classes during the programmes (Q1:11, Q4:8).

Implications for Future Mentor Programmes in the School (Research

Question 3)

Issues to be Resolved in the School

Who should be selected to be mentors and how should they be selected?

This issue presents a very real dilemma for the School. If mentors are selected from a small group of teachers within the School, there will be a mixture of the experienced, the inexperienced, the committed and the uncommitted. Thus a much longer training programme will be required for inexperienced mentors, and the uncommitted will just have to be accepted. If mentors are selected from the whole School, there are serious implications for coordination and management. Additionally, if only experienced mentors are selected, this denies some School staff the chance to develop themselves. Apart from anything else, it seems likely that the kind of model used in Programme 5, of giving autonomy to mentors, will only work if experienced, well-trained and committed mentors are used.

What kind of mentor training is appropriate and feasible?

Experienced mentors probably only require a short 'refresher' course. First time mentors probably require a considerably longer course. The course for first time mentors in Malderez and Bodóczy (1999) is ninety hours long. This would seem completely implausible and impractical in the context of the School. Training which was supported by some kind of TOIL arrangement would have to be much shorter. It would have to cover all of the stages outlined by Joyce and Showers (1982), as well as concentrate on issues raised in this study such as the problem of English level and pace, use of the observation tasks, and the problem of the cadets' learning suffering. Mentors would need to think in terms of learning opportunities (P2), and about the choice of materials for mentees to teach. In other words it would need to concentrate on professionalism (Fish 1995).

How can the programme be institutionalised?

The fate of programmes such as Programme 5 which have training as one of their objectives hangs in the balance. First of all, there was opposition to the amount of resources it required, especially TOIL time for mentors to meet, although these resources were considered essential by coordinators and at least one of the STs. There is a need for STs to be more involved in programmes. But there is also a need for the lessons learned from managing Programme 5, both those contained in this thesis, and those contained in the lived experience of the first two coordinators, to be carried over to future programmes. This will be difficult since the second

coordinator has already left the School, and the researcher will be leaving within a year. The closer integration of the programme into the School, something normally associated with sustainability and institutionalisation (Miles 1983), is also problematic without any School-wide development structure for all staff. But unless the Mentoring Programme is institutionalised as a training programme, there is a real danger it will change back into a lower-risk induction programme, based upon apprenticeship rather than reflection. Furthermore, the lack of knowledge about planning for programmes to replace the basic TEFL course formerly taught elsewhere in the country makes institutionalization problematic. One solution would be for this basic TEFL course to come back to the School, so that the whole of the training of new teachers, including mentoring, could be integrated.

How are these issues to be resolved?

The search for some kind of consensus, necessary for the School to move forward towards Programme 6, is made much more difficult by the contested and fragmentary nature of the findings into Programme 5. Maybe this is in the nature of planned change (Corbett *et al* 1987). The exact personalities of those involved, their past histories together and separately, render simple prescriptions about collaboration and ownership very problematic.

The researcher had proposed producing summaries of the findings and distributing them to the Head Teacher, STs, coordinators, mentors and former mentees to try and involve them in further debate about the programme. But in the absence of any clear understanding about the future of teacher training in the School people are reluctant to start making decisions. In order to build a consensus the findings will have to be presented in ways that involve others, ie in the form of issues to be resolved and questions to be discussed, and ‘if ... then it is likely that ...’ statements based upon this programme. Finally, the crucial role of the Head Teacher, as sponsor of the first mentor programme in the School, and supporter of Programme 5, means that he will again have an important role in the design of future programmes.

Other Issues for the School Highlighted by this Research

The Way that Decisions are Made in the School

The second quote from Adelman and Alexander at the beginning of this chapter, and from Hutchinson (1998) in Chapter One, both put decision-making processes at the heart of change-improvement. This research draws attention to the way that crucial decisions were made, such as the *ad hoc* nature of design for Programmes 2 to 4 (pages 63-64) and how mentees were designated failures on Programme 5 (pages 115-120).

The English Level of Local Teachers in the School

The issue of the English level of teachers on Programme 5 was raised repeatedly by mentors. Other local teachers in the School may also require English improvement (RD:129). 'English level' may fall into Argyris' category of the 'undiscussable' (Argyris 1993:211), in the School, but also possibly in EFL in general. One could speculate as to reasons, but the fact remains that it presents the School with a problem which may well get worse as the number of local teachers increases. It needs tackling, although the problems raised by 'tackling it' are immense.

The Teaching Skills of the Local Teachers Already Employed in the School

The same arguments for English level apply about teaching skills in general. This research shows fairly conclusively that many of the new teachers do not have command of even basic EFL techniques such as pairwork and groupwork (pages 139-141), and that they lack any variety of techniques (page 140). This almost certainly applies to many other local teachers, not just those on Programme 5.

Recommendations

There should be an adequately supported and resourced School-wide development programme involving all staff whether new or experienced in the School (P1, Earley and Kinder 1994). The QLP and the Mentoring Programme should be located within this development programme. This should be supported by changes in the atmosphere of the School to make it more positive towards development, and by providing forums for teachers to talk about professional matters. Without changes in the internal conditions of the School, any staff development programmes are likely to fail (Hopkins *et al* 1997).

In order to provide each mentee with the kind of support they need, roles and lines of authority need clarifying. Future programmes should be managed by both an ST and a qualified and experienced coordinator to give a balance of institutional authority and technical competency. The School should also consider restructuring the programme to integrate the workshops with the lesson observations and feedback, and to integrate the Mentoring Programme into the official probation period of three months for mentees. A separate lesson plan book may need to be provided for mentees during the programme.

Programme length should be increased. This means striking a balance between what is feasible and what is needed. Four weeks is far too short to build a teacher's repertoire (Boss 2001). However, it seems unlikely the School can spare much longer (page 145). Therefore the formal programme (before the mentee gets his own class) should probably continue for four weeks, and a second phase of mentoring should start when the mentee gets his own class. This should involve mentor observations and feedback meetings at a reduced level, for example once a week. These observations and meetings should be timetabled and supported by TOIL. There is also a case for timetabling some meetings during the four weeks of the formal programme. In addition, psycho-social support should be provided for new local teachers from among the local teachers already working in the School (Bova 1987).

Mentors, mentees and coordinators/managers should each be provided with handbooks (Coleman 1997:155, 157). These handbooks should include information the programme structure, possible problems, even case studies taken from this research, as well as generic background information on the mentees for the mentor handbook. The mentor handbook should supplement mentor training rather than replace it. It could include a school policy on feedback as suggested by Geen (2001).

Mentee orientation towards the programme should be provided (Zey 1989). Some of this should be in the mentee handbook, but some of it needs to be in the form of workshops where roles, responsibilities and duties are explained.

Mentor training needs to be longer and incorporate the five stages that Joyce and Showers (1982) recommend. The training should not only develop skills but make the programme more plausible, and develop some ownership of the programme by the mentors.

Implications for Mentoring Theory and Practice (Research

Question 4)

Planning, Organising and Designing Mentor Programmes (Principles 1 to 3)

Good planning is in itself a necessary but not sufficient condition for success. Programme 5 was well-planned, well-organised and generally well-designed but not much more successful than Programmes 1 to 4 in terms of improved teaching skills or its ability to deal with weak teachers. Success depends as much on the way mentors are selected (Brookes and Sikes 1997), participant attitudes towards the programme (Glover and Mardle 1995), and the way the programme is managed (Glover and Mardle 1995) as on planning and design.

Over-complicated designs can result in just as many problems as a lack of design. Little effort went into designing Programmes 1 to 4 (Chapter Four, Chapter Eight). A lot of thought and effort went into designing Programme 5 (pages 93-4). However, the coordinators were distanced from the mentees, participants were unsure of the third coordinator's role and one ST was unsure of his role (pages 94, 114).

In the absence of a School-wide development policy (Earley and Kinder 1994), programmes can become one-off 'bolt on extras' (Fletcher 2000:136) and are likely to be less successful. School-wide development programmes can improve the chances of success by improving the atmosphere in the School and the quality of dialogue and reflection (Kemmis 1986). The attempt to engage others in dialogue and reflection must be undertaken just as systematically and thoroughly as the planning of the details of the programme. In the planning of Programme 5, a lot of thought went into structures and plans but little into ways of encouraging such dialogue. There were numerous opportunities for coordinators to engage participants in dialogue and get them involved throughout the programme, for example in designing observation tasks and in the 'corridor meetings' between mentors and coordinators reported in the research diary (eg RD:135, 137, 138), but these need to be planned for in advance.

Programme 5 provided a variety of structured learning opportunities. However, mere provision of a variety of structured learning opportunities does not guarantee that they will be taken advantage of. In Programme 5 there were very variable observation experiences for mentees (Table 8.2), 'snatched time' meetings and low inference feedback. Husbands (1997) points out that mentees must be put in a position to learn from such opportunities.

Although relying on *post hoc* accounts, this research tends also to confirm the findings reported by Stephenson (1997c) that mentors and mentees give different, sometimes incompatible, accounts of experiences and events, and that mentees tend to rank support they received from mentors less highly than the mentors themselves.

Giving useful and honest feedback without risking the relationship with the mentee is very difficult (O'Donoghue 1997). Many mentors, even the more experienced and committed ones steered shy of such feedback (pages 102, 133). This reinforces the views of Moyles *et al* (1998), Murdock (2001) and others who argue that mentors need specific training in this skill.

Managing Mentor Programmes (Principles 4 and 5)

This study has highlighted some of the complexity of decision making in managing mentor programmes, even on such a bounded programme as Programme 5. The issues surrounding the need for a vision; the identification of the programme with a couple of individuals; control, autonomy and ownership of the programme; accountability and organisational micropolitics gives some indication of this complexity and the kinds of management competences and abilities required (Buchanan and Boddy 1992). The exact nature of the organisational context and how this affects management decisions is also highlighted in the discussion. Even where managers between them possess the required skills, abilities and personal qualities, the programme still may not be well-managed. Programme 5 managers (three coordinators and two STs) between them possessed the requisite skills, qualities and abilities. The coordinators were technically competent and very experienced in teacher education, all managers were competent in programme and personnel management. Despite this, there was some lack of clarity of roles and status of those involved (page 114), and the way Programme 5 was managed – lack of ‘hands-on’ approach from coordinators – may have led to ‘desert islanding’ (Edwards 1997) of some mentor-mentee pairs, for example, the mentor-mentee pairs in which the mentees failed lesson checks. Many of these aspects of mentor programme management are under-represented in the literature.

Managers must have institutional authority as well as possessing managerial experience and expertise. The coordinators on Programme 5 had the technical expertise, but did not possess any institutional authority to direct either mentors or mentees. The STs in Programmes 1 to 4 had institutional authority but appeared not to possess the technical expertise. It tends to be assumed that managers will have this authority in the literature (eg Glover and Mardle 1995), but this is not necessarily so.

Managers’ attitudes towards the programme are crucial (Glover and Mardle 1995). Managers must be committed to the programme and be seen to be committed. There is evidence in Programmes 1 to 4 of a lack of commitment to the programme in terms of the amount and quality of support STs provided (Chapter Four). There is some evidence on Programme 5 of a lack of communication between managers especially between STs and the coordinators (pages 118-9).

The length of the programme is important. The programme must be long enough for mentors and mentees to establish lasting relationships (Hobson 2002), and for changes in mentee teaching skills to take place (Elliott and Calderhead 1995). Neither of these things happened

on Programme 5. As one mentor put it ‘as this professional relationship began to solidify, if you like, then the programme ended’ (I9:19). In the UK most programmes are one year long (Glover and Mardle 1995).

A clear distinction needs to be drawn between professional duties of mentors and those of managers *vis a vis* the rules of the School. Mentors should not have to deal with discipline problems, like the mentee lateness and absence reported on all programmes, these should be dealt with by those with the authority, ie STs. The programme should be designed so that ‘the mentor does not have to shoulder the responsibilities that rightly belong with the mentee and his or her line manager’ (Conway 1997:54).

Mentees must be committed to the programme and everything that such commitment entails. Programmes will not work unless mentees are committed to them (Gray 2001:70). There is some evidence – discussed under research question 2 – that some mentees were not committed. One mentee did not even read the handouts he was given on the programme (I22:1). The status of new teachers – are they to be treated as colleagues or trainees? – is important in this respect (Glover and Mardle 1995).

There are strong arguments that ‘ownership is the basis of individual commitment to change’ (Rudduck 1991). However, ownership is a two-way process. It is implied, but not usually stated, in much of the ‘innovation theory’ literature, for example in Kennedy (1988), that the onus is on the change agent to promote ownership of the changes. The decision not to ‘over-police’ Programme 5 was an attempt to allow mentors to own the programme, as was the decision to agree SMART objectives with mentors after discussion rather than imposing them. However, there is evidence that, despite the attempts of the coordinators, in Programme 5, mentors and mentees did not really want to ‘own’ the mentor Programme. Mentee commitment has been discussed above – see also Hansford *et al* (2002), whose review of articles on business mentoring found that ‘negative mentee attitudes/ lack of mentee trust of mentors/lack of mentee cooperation’ was the second most frequently mentioned problem associated with mentoring. Indications of a lack of mentor commitment are listed below.

- Mentors were happy to leave the design of tasks to the coordinators (D6).
- Many of the things agreed to were not done (Table 8.2).
- One mentor seems to have not taken the programme very seriously (page 129).
- The Head Teacher reports mentors expecting to be told what to do (I20:12)

It might be argued that, given the climate of the School, taking ownership of a programme whose success is not guaranteed requires poetic faith, ‘a willing suspension of disbelief’ (Coleridge 1817).

In managing programmes there was the perennial problem of striking a balance between control and autonomy (Argyris 1993, Hutchinson 1998). The coordinators decided not to over-police Programme 5. Many of the problems with the programme, for example the lack of support for the two ‘failing’ mentees, were put down to this decision (page 118). And yet, some mentors felt over-directed and complained of ‘regimentation’ (I11:6). Combining the need to both allow autonomy and retain control with the need to encourage dialogue and reflection (Kemmis 1986) requires more systematic planning of, for example, informal conversations between coordinators and mentors and mentees. For example, coordinators could keep a discrete list of mentors and mentees and deliberately, but informally, keep in touch by looking out for them in staffrooms and corridors.

‘Jacques (1995:118) even suggests that a ‘conspiracy of silence’ might surround weak new teachers, with the mentees left to ‘muddle through’ by their mentor (Glover 1995:42).’ This sentence is quoted from Chapter Two of this Thesis, (Principle 2c, page 17). Despite the first coordinator (the researcher) being aware of the possibility of mentees being left to muddle through, this does seem to have happened to the two mentees who ‘failed’. They were left to muddle through not just by their mentors, but by the programme as a whole. The possibility of mentees failing is mentioned in the literature, but the discussion is scant. One exception is Kerry and Farrow (1996) who report interviewing mentors of mentees who failed. They do not mention interviewing the mentees themselves. In Kerry and Farrow (1996:107) the mentors gave three different kinds of reason for mentees failing

- the inadequate conceptual models on which (a specific) ITT (scheme) is based.
- the failures of involved parties (eg higher education organisations) to provide appropriate timed and targeted support.
- the inability of students to benefit from help/advice.

The failures in Programme 5 seem to stem in part from mentor inexperience (Kerry and Farrow’s second reason) rather than the other two reasons. The research here suggests that the ‘failures’ on Programme 5 happened for a more complicated set of reasons, which include amongst other things, the way the programme was managed, micropolitics, the structure of the programme, the way mentors were selected, which in turn implicates the way the School

is structured. The lack of research into failures might itself reflect a much wider ‘conspiracy of silence’ that surrounds the whole issue of failure.

Goodness of Fit (Principle 6)

‘Fitting the context’ (Kennedy 1999b) may mean accepting that programme quality will not be high. Put another way, some structural constraints make success far less likely. Because of the way the timetable is organised into ST areas, mentors were only selected from a ‘limited pot’ of 25 teachers instead of the whole School (page 124). This meant that inexperienced mentors, all of whom had difficulties performing their role adequately (Table 8.16), were used on Programme 5.

‘Fitting the context’ sometimes means compromising principles. The coordinators attempted to use a ‘hands off’ management style in a military institution (page 121). They wanted mentors and mentees to take responsibility and ‘own’ the programme (Rudduck 1991). However, many programme participants and senior staff felt the programme should have been more directive. Some of the problems in the programme, such as the two mentees failing, may then have been ameliorated. However, the extent to which compromise is possible without changing the nature of any programme is problematic. One senior manager wanted the new teachers to be told what to do in no uncertain terms (page 121). This approach just did not seem likely to work to the coordinators.

‘Goodness of fit to culture’ implicates the way people think about the programme, and exactly who holds which positions relative to the programme. It is clear that some STs, and to a lesser extent the Head Teacher, thought about the programmes in terms of passing on information and mentees ‘slotting in’ (page 63, I20:9F). This is despite the meetings in which the teacher training aspect of mentoring was discussed at length (D2, D6, D14). Changing such (presumably) deep-seated beliefs is very difficult (Fullan 1999). These beliefs may also explain the lack of the understanding by some STs for some official formal recognition for the mentors from the School (Garvey 1999), which, on Programme 5, came in the form of exemption from SPS.

Organisations and the people in them are ‘inextricably intertwined’ (Greenfield 1989:81). What they think, how seriously they take the job, their personalities, all affect the way the programme works out. The opinions ‘I would have seen their job as more inductive, I suppose really, not teacher training’ said by an ST about mentors (I26:4), ‘Whatever I say it will make no difference, so why should I say anything?’ attributed to some mentors by one of

their colleagues (I9:8), and the military ‘tell mentees what to do’ philosophy held by some senior members of staff (page 121) obviously affected the way that mentoring was conducted and managed. Personalities were invoked by several participants to explain events on the programme. For example, the Head Teacher used ‘abrasive’, ‘avuncular’, ‘he wasn’t as well organised’, ‘he wasn’t able to coordinate people as well’, to describe personal qualities and relationships between participants (I20).

Support (Principle 7)

Without formally protecting meetings between mentor-mentee pairs by timetabling them, it seems likely that other things will take precedence. Bey (1997) regards timetabled mentor-mentee meetings as a right. They were not timetabled in Programmes 1 to 5, and instead many meetings took place in ‘snatched time’ (Campbell 1989:51). Additionally, less meetings took place than were agreed to, planned and put into SMART objectives for Programme 5 (Table 8.2, 97-8). Protecting time for mentor-mentee meetings by timetabling them may make them more likely to occur (Bush *et al* 1996:127). Regarding support in terms of mentee rights or entitlements (DfEE 1999, points 25-30) might make provision of support more forthcoming. One kind of support in DfEE (1999) is a reduced timetable for new teachers.

Psycho-social support with accommodation (Bova 1987:123) was not provided in any programmes. Two mentees certainly needed it on Programme 5 (pages 117-8). Most of the mentors on all programmes were expatriates. These mentors are unable to provide such support, since, amongst other things, accommodation is provided for expatriates by the company they work for. It cannot be assumed, as it was in Programmes 1 to 5, that locals do not need psycho-social support.

‘The atmosphere of the School should be conducive to development’ (Principle 7c). The cynicism revealed in one answer to Questionnaire 1 (page 82), and discussed further between the first two coordinators in interview (I29:3), as well as discussed elsewhere by the researcher (Arnold 1999), does not create a promising atmosphere for development activities. The history of failed initiatives (Arnold 1999) adds to the sense that initiatives like Programme 5 are doomed to fail. ‘You’re always working against the burden of history’, said one informant in Arnold (1999:18). As with other aspects of the context which promote successful mentoring (Stephenson 1997c:176), eg the quality of learning, the professional climate of the school and school organization, the atmosphere is immutable as far as the mentor programme is concerned.

Mentor Selection and Quality (Principle 8)

Many of the relationships between mentors and mentees in Programme 5 stayed well within the ‘comfort zone’ with little evidence of challenge or depth (Braund 2001) – the mentors were pragmatic rather than discursive (Arthur *et al* 1997). It seems that even experienced mentors find it difficult to challenge their mentees. Neither of the two best mentors in Programme 5, both of whom took their jobs seriously and in most other respects performed well (Table 8.16), challenged their mentees. This may be due to the shortness of the programme itself or the training, but it does seem to reflect difficulties inherent in this part of the job. This finding supports Butcher (2002), Maynard and Furlong (1995) and McIntyre and Hagger (1993). As Calderhead and Shurrock (1997:177) report, ‘although mentors generally found it easy to be supportive, they found it much more difficult to be constructively critical’.

Inexperienced mentors find it hard to cope with the demands of mentoring, given only a short training programme. All three inexperienced mentors in Programme 5 had problems adapting to the demands of the job (Table 8.16 and the discussion there). This finding supports quite strongly the view that mentoring requires different skills from teaching, and that being an experienced teacher is not enough, specific training is required to become a mentor (Fletcher 2000:8). As Brookes and Sikes (1997:66) say, ‘Not everyone can, or should be, a mentor. Simply being a good teacher is not enough, for mentoring is not a straightforward extension of being a school-teacher. Different perspectives, abilities, aptitudes, attitudes and skills are necessary.’

The evidence of very variable mentor quality (Table 8.16) reinforces those studies, such as Hayes (2001) or Edwards (1997) which found considerable variation in the quality of mentoring given to student teachers within the same institution.

Mentor Training (Principle 9)

The four one-hour mentor training meetings seemed to be enough for mentors to understand their role at a basic level (Q2:7). However, they were not enough for the inexperienced ones to change their way of thinking and to give them the basic skills (Table 8.16). The training did not result in mentors challenging their mentees (pages 134-7), although two experienced mentors performed well with the little amount of extra training provided. It therefore seems likely that more in-depth training is necessary for inexperienced mentors to master the new skills involved in mentoring, and that this training should involve all five parts analysed by

Joyce and Showers (1982). Mentor training courses that are shorter than four hours, for example some of those in Glover and Mardle (1995:45-64), will probably not be enough for new skills to be learned.

Mentees too need to understand the programme objectives and structure (Zey 1989). The lack of mentee commitment on Programme 5 (page 134) may result in part from the lack of specific training they were given for their role. Lack of mentee commitment can constrain the kind of role a mentor can adopt (Lucas 2001).

Outcomes (Principle 10)

There are issues when trying to assess the outcomes of programmes such as Mentor Programmes 1 to 4 and Programme 5 of attributing cause and effect and of collecting the data without radically affecting the nature of the programme. In any programme where autonomy is given to the mentors and mentees to decide when to meet and observe each other teach, and where managers want to respect the professionalism of the participants and not interfere with the process, measuring outcomes directly becomes problematic. Nevertheless, the indirect measures adopted here, asking *post hoc* interview questions, seem to have nevertheless produced a consensus that although some minor improvements in the mentees were reported, teaching skills and repertoire seemed little affected.

Evaluation (Principles 11 to 13)

Principle 12 says 'The evaluation should encourage dialogue and reflection and the findings should be fed back to the school.' Evaluations alone cannot encourage dialogue and reflection, *pace* Kemmis (1986). In the absence of an encouraging atmosphere and structures such as a whole-School development plan the best that can be hoped is that those who are really interested will get involved in the evaluation, read the findings and take part in discussions that lead to improvements in future programmes.

The findings here tend to confirm and reinforce some findings from previous research, summarised here by Dunne and Bennett (1997:225):

Previous research on mentoring in school-based training has indicated that although this is a very influential role it is often poorly conceived and prepared for. Dialogues appear to be characterised by a lack of challenge and reflection, knowledge bases for teaching are treated in very different ways, and roles, responsibilities and expectations are often unclear.

Programmes 1 to 4 demonstrated this lack of preparation for mentoring with managers and mentors complaining of a lack of guidance as to roles and responsibilities (page 63). And although there is evidence that Programme 5 was better planned and designed, many dialogues were characterised by a lack of challenge (page 134, cf Butcher 2002), and some roles and responsibilities were unclear (pages 94, 114).

There was further confirmation of recent findings into the variability of mentor quality, even within the same institution (Hayes 2001, Hobson 2002), the 'discrepancy' between accounts of mentor and mentee within pairs (Stephenson 1997c), the need for quality time for mentor-mentee pairs (Cross 1999, Braund 2001), and the importance of context (Lucas 2001).

Evaluation of the Principles (Research Question 5)

The contribution and importance of the research rests almost entirely in the strength of the principles and the resulting richness of context shown in the findings. In general, the principles were good at spelling out skills, abilities and personal qualities required by participants, but less good at spelling out performance and standards required. This applies particularly to programme length, lesson planning, mentor training and taking prompt action on weak mentees. The principles also need to be more explicit in terms of objectives and roles and responsibilities.

The process of writing the principles, and the arguments for them presented in Chapter Two, encouraged this researcher to reflect deeply and be explicit in terms of what is good mentoring practice, such as what management involves and what kinds of support are helpful. The researcher is also sure that it helped with the marshalling of arguments for the level of support that was provided to Programme 5, and in both helping participants understand the coordinators' vision of the programme and in persuading some of them to buy into that vision. The surprise expressed by one mentor at the amount of support provided for Programme 5 (I10:24) can be understood to be to some extent a result of the way the researcher marshalled his arguments.

The principles were used to guide decision-making on Programme 5. As such they proved invaluable. Decisions were referred to the principles and awareness of the influences on decision-making was increased in this way. For example, the decision to conduct mentor meetings before the mentees arrived was taken as a result of the need for a variety of structured learning opportunities (P2), the need for mentors to be comfortable with the core

practices of mentoring (P8c), and the need for mentor training and briefing on their role (P9). This example also illustrates the integrating function of the principles. They served to integrate the disparate aspects of the programme.

Decision-making while the programme was ongoing should also have been facilitated by having an explicit set of principles. In comparison to other tools that could have been used to guide Programme 5, principles have a 'looseness' that increases their usefulness. To a limited extent, criteria for success were set up (SMART objectives). These were not used to inform decisions as Programme 5 evolved as they were used summatively. It is difficult to see how such criteria could be used to do this. However, principles, by virtue of not being *of themselves* rigid, should have allowed Programme 5 to respond to events, such as the design and structural problems (distance of coordinators from mentees, lack of role clarity of third coordinator) and the weaknesses of two mentees in a timely manner. The fact that neither the coordinators nor the STs responded to events as they unfolded is not a failing of the principles, but of the way the programme was managed. However, this event, the two mentees failing, does point to the possible need for a principle which explicitly mentions actions needed in case of possible failures. This is discussed further in the next section.

The principles have highlighted clearly and unambiguously the kinds of issues that the School has to resolve before the next programme is run, and made possible the practical and useful recommendations for future programmes discussed earlier in this chapter.

The principles have highlighted tensions and contradictions in Programme 5, which might have been more difficult to understand without explicit principles, for example, the tension between 'fitting the context' (P6), and 'encouraging dialogue and reflection' (P11). In a cynical atmosphere (Arnold 1999), where Programme 5 can be viewed as the 'goods' being fought over (Hoyle 1986) in a micropolitical struggle, 'encouraging dialogue and reflection' may involve giving ammunition to the other side. Part of the art of managing the process agenda (Buchanan and Boddy 1992) involves selecting which information is presented to which audiences, how and when (P4c).

The principles have aided value clarification (Adelman and Alexander 1982), for example, the very different value placed upon involvement and ownership of Programme 5 by the coordinators and some members of the Senior Management Team, or on the granting of exemption to mentors from SPS for attending mentor meetings.

Most of the principles have been an invaluable aid to data collection, for example in decisions as to what kinds of data to collect, what kinds of questions to put into the interview schedule, and what to look out for in interviews and documents.

The most difficult thing has been in operationalising some of the principles. In this sense their 'looseness' is a disadvantage. For example, it proved difficult to decide what *quality management* consisted of (P5), and how it might be looked for in interview and questionnaire. Some individual principles have been less than useful. For example, some principles, were loose and uninformative – see below. With other principles it was difficult to decide how much would indicate quality, for example how much mentor training, how much dialogue and reflection.

Finally, there is the question of whether the principles have constrained the way that the researcher has thought about the issues. This is taken up in Chapter Ten – Personal Reflections.

Suggestions for Changes to the Principles

Table 9.1 shows the old and new principles. The new principles are in italics. The numbers below refer to the new principles.

One aspect of planning is the length of the programme. There is a need to tie the length of the programme more closely to the main purpose of the programme – improvement in mentee teaching skills. Thus one new principle needs to be the following:

Principle 1a

Programmes should be long enough to make lasting changes in mentee teaching skills.

There is a need to spell out the importance of lesson planning, and for mentors to model the process of planning lessons. This can be done through the following two new principles:

Principle 2d

Mentees should be given explicit help with lesson planning.

Principle 2e

Mentors should demonstrate lesson planning by preparing explicit and detailed lesson plans.

Table 9.1 Old and New Principles

Old Principles	New Principles
<p>Principle 1 Programmes should be coherent, well planned, well organized and well designed within an overall School-wide development programme.</p>	<p>Principle 1 Programmes should be coherent, well planned, well organized and well designed within an overall School-wide development programme.</p> <p><i>Principle 1a</i> <i>Programmes should be long enough to make lasting changes in mentee teaching skills.</i></p>
<p>Principle 2 Programmes should provide a variety of structured learning opportunities for all those involved, especially the mentees.</p>	<p>Principle 2 Programmes should provide a variety of structured learning opportunities for all those involved, especially the mentees.</p>
<p>Principle 2a Programmes should provide a variety of different types of observations for mentors and mentees.</p>	<p>Principle 2a Programmes should provide a variety of different types of observations for mentors and mentees.</p>
<p>Principle 2b All observations on the programme should be focussed.</p>	<p>Principle 2b All observations on the programme should be focussed.</p>
<p>Principle 2c Mentees should be given quality feedback on their teaching performance.</p>	<p>Principle 2c Mentees should be given quality feedback on their teaching performance.</p>
	<p><i>Principle 2d</i> <i>Mentees should be given explicit help with lesson planning.</i></p>
	<p><i>Principle 2e</i> <i>Mentors should demonstrate lesson planning by preparing explicit and detailed lesson plans.</i></p>
<p>Principle 3 The mentoring and induction aspects of the programmes should be kept separate.</p>	<p><i>Principle 3</i> <i>Participants should have a common and agreed understanding of the objectives of the programme.</i></p>

Old Principles	New Principles
	<p>Principle 4 <i>Participants should have a common and agreed understanding of their role and responsibilities.</i></p>
<p>Principle 4 Managers should possess the requisite skills, abilities and personal qualities to run the programmes.</p>	<p>Principle 5 Managers should possess the requisite skills, abilities and personal qualities to run the programmes.</p>
<p>Principle 4a Managers should be technically competent and experienced in mentoring and teacher education.</p>	<p>Principle 5a Managers should be technically competent and experienced in mentoring and teacher education.</p>
<p>Principle 4b Managers should be familiar with and competent in standard programme management techniques.</p>	<p>Principle 5b Managers should be familiar with and competent in standard programme management techniques.</p>
<p>Principle 4c Managers should be competent in personnel management and possess the required personal qualities.</p>	<p>Principle 5c Managers should be competent in personnel management and possess the required personal qualities.</p>
	<p>Principle 5d <i>Managers must possess institutional authority.</i></p>
	<p>Principle 5e <i>Managers must respond appropriately to events as they unfold..</i></p>
<p>Principle 5 Programmes should be managed to make success more likely.</p>	<p>Principle 6 <i>Managers should establish which mentees are at risk of failure, and take prompt action to reduce this likelihood.</i></p>
<p>Principle 5a Managers should attempt to secure mentee commitment to the programme.</p>	<p>Principle 7 <i>Participants should be committed to the programmes.</i></p>
<p>Principle 5b Managers should be committed to the programme.</p>	<p>Principle 7a <i>Managers should be committed.</i></p>
	<p>Principle 7b <i>Mentees should be committed.</i></p>

Old Principles	New Principles
	Principle 7c <i>Mentors should be committed.</i>
Principle 6 Programmes should 'fit' the social, political, economic and cultural context.	Principle 8 Programmes should 'fit' the social, political, economic and cultural context.
Principle 7 Programmes should be supported by their environment.	Principle 9 Programmes should be supported by their environment.
Principle 7a Programmes should be provided with enough suitable-quality material resources.	Principle 9a Programmes should be provided with enough suitable-quality material resources.
Principle 7b Programmes should be provided with enough quality administrative support.	Principle 9b Programmes should be provided with enough quality administrative support.
Principle 7c The atmosphere of the school should be conducive to development.	Principle 9c The atmosphere of the school should be conducive to development.
Principle 8 Mentors should be of the highest possible quality.	Principle 10 Mentors should be of the highest possible quality.
Principle 8a Mentors should have the requisite personal and interpersonal skills.	Principle 10a Mentors should have the requisite personal and interpersonal skills.
Principle 8b Mentors should have the requisite professional qualities	Principle 10b Mentors should have the requisite professional qualities
Principle 8c Mentors should be comfortable with the core practices of mentoring.	Principle 10c Mentors should be comfortable with the core practices of mentoring.
Principle 8d Mentors should establish a trusting and working relationship with the mentee.	Principle 10d Mentors should establish a trusting and working relationship with the mentee.
Principle 8e Mentors should provide both support and challenge to mentees appropriate to their stages of development and concerns.	Principle 10e Mentors should provide both support and challenge to mentees appropriate to their stages of development and concerns.

Old Principles	New Principles
<p>Principle 9 Programmes should involve mentor training in the core practices of mentoring.</p>	<p>Principle 11 <i>Programmes should involve enough mentor training to make mentors comfortable in the core practices of mentoring.</i></p>
<p>Principle 10 The programmes should produce improved student learning and improved mentee teaching as outcomes.</p>	<p>Principle 12 The programmes should produce improved student learning and improved mentee teaching as outcomes.</p>
<p>Principle 11 The evaluation should involve the systematic collection of the relevant evidence necessary to promote the improvement of the programmes.</p>	<p>Principle 13 The evaluation should involve the systematic collection of the relevant evidence necessary to promote the improvement of the programmes.</p>
<p>Principle 11a Evaluation should be built into programme design.</p>	<p>Principle 13a Evaluation should be built into programme design.</p>
<p>Principle 11b Programmes should be evaluated against the principles set out in this chapter.</p>	<p>Principle 13b Programmes should be evaluated against the principles set out in this chapter.</p>
<p>Principle 12 The evaluation should encourage dialogue and reflection and the findings should be fed back to the school.</p>	<p>Principle 14 The evaluation should encourage dialogue and reflection and the findings should be fed back to the school.</p>
<p>Principle 13 The evaluation should be reflexive, ie the evaluation itself should be evaluated.</p>	<p>Principle 15 The evaluation should be reflexive, ie the evaluation itself should be evaluated.</p>

Old Principle 3 stated that mentoring and induction should be kept separate. This was attempted on Programme 5, where STs carried out induction briefings and the coordinators managed the mentoring aspect. The evidence from this study seemed to show that the functions are very difficult to separate, for example mentors took on considerable ‘induction’ functions in Programme 5 (pages 144-145), and STs were involved in briefing about lesson planning (page 110). What is more important is that everyone on the programme needs to have a common understanding of the objectives of the programme, and what this implies in terms of activities, roles and responsibilities. Thus Principle 3 can be replaced with the following principles:

Principle 3

Participants should have a common and agreed understanding of the objectives of the programme.

Principle 4

Participants should have a common and agreed understanding of their role and responsibilities.

Old Principle 4 spelled out what managers need in terms of qualities, skills and abilities. It did not spell out what they needed in terms of authority (pages 94, 115). The following principle does this:

Principle 5d

Managers must possess institutional authority.

Old Principle 5 stated that programmes should be managed to make success more likely. The researcher was aware that this was a fairly nebulous principle. From the analysis in Chapter Nine it appears this principle needs separating out into its constituents. There is therefore a need for a principle which explicitly mentions what steps should be taken if mentees are in danger of failing, such as the following:

Principle 5e

Managers must respond appropriately to events as they unfold.

Several of the failings of the programme can be traced back to managers, especially coordinators, failing to act on information they received, for example about the two mentees who were having problems. Responding appropriately in these circumstances might involve being more pro-active and monitoring more closely the progress of those mentees.

Principle 6

Managers should establish which mentees are at risk of failure, and take prompt action to reduce this likelihood.

There is also a need to be explicit about participant commitment to the programmes, so much so that a new element could be added – commitment:

Principle 7

Participants should be committed to the programmes.

This can be broken down into three subordinate principles:

Principle 7a

Managers should be committed.

Principle 7b

Mentees should be committed.

Principle 7c

Mentors should be committed.

Old Principle 9 concerned mentor training. There is a need to be more explicit about the quantity of mentor training required. This principle should there be changed as follows:

Principle 11

Programmes should involve enough mentor training so that mentors are comfortable in the core practices of mentoring.

This principle then matches more exactly old Principle 8c.

Innovation Theory and Practice**What is an innovation?**

This research reported here draws attention to the meaning of ‘an innovation’. It argues for the position that there is no such thing as ‘an innovation’. It is experienced differentially, often partially, by the key players; its meanings are multiple, mutable and struggled over; its complexity, even for such a supposedly bounded programme as Programme 5, is immense, involving all kinds of mini-changes to structures, roles and responsibilities, attitudes and procedures (Hord 1987), and implicating the micropolitics of the organisation (Hoyle 1989) and the personalities of its members. Innovation is struggle (Pettigrew 1985, 1987). Often

this goes unrecognised, by the participants themselves as much as in the innovation literature. Above all it is, like management itself, a struggle for definition of what happened (Smircich and Morgan 1982), for control of myths (Robey and Lynne 1988).

An innovation is at best a convenient fiction. It lives on afterwards in a few documents and in stories and myths, such as the programme was successful ‘five out of seven’ (page 115), the mentees were more interested in accommodation (pages 117-8), and Programme 5 ‘spoilt’ the mentees (pages 114, 116, 119). Unfortunately, as a convenient shorthand, the term ‘an innovation’ is used frequently as if its meaning was in some sense clear, unambiguous and bounded. For example Markee says (1993:230) ‘The actual participants who become involved in deciding whether an innovation will be adopted vary from context to context.’ Applied to Programme 5 it is very difficult to make sense of ‘involved’, ‘an innovation’ or ‘adopted’ in this sentence.

The Crucial Importance of Exact Context

‘At the heart of managing change-improvement then is the task of bringing about development in others’ understanding and practice while simultaneously attempting to do so with one’s own. This double-edged task raises questions concerning the nature of relationships between professionals in bureaucratic, hierarchical organizations. As such, it raises questions about access to information, about the decision-making processes, about personal and organizational values and concerns.’ (Hutchinson 1998:390)

In this innovation the struggle of the coordinators to develop their own understanding and practice coincided with their attempt to make space for others’ development. All of Hutchinson’s questions above are implicated. The tension between control and autonomy which featured so highly in this research, issues of access to information and sharing of information, the nature of relationships and the personalities of key players, decision-making processes discussed above, and the values – revealed and hidden – of the participants and the organisation, were all bubbling beneath the surface of Mentor Programme 5. The exact way in which people interact with each other within a context of structures, custom and practice, and ways of thinking, determines the learning, or non-learning (Mumford 1981), that goes on, as does the leadership in that context (Dimmock and Walker 2002). It therefore helps circumscribe what can happen next. Chapman (1995) calls this the tension between action research and management.

The Notion of Managing Change

A postmodern analysis of Programme 5 might stress the contradictions in the accounts of the programme, the discontinuities between intentions and outcomes, and the contested fragmentary nature of the programme which emerges from these accounts. The coordinators tried to manage change. The attempt at managing may be a ritual that supports a comforting myth, that rational planned change is manageable at all (Meyer and Rowan 1977). As Gabriel (1995:479) puts it ‘the managed, controlling, and resisted organization ... is consistently privileged within organizational discourses at the expense of the unmanaged, the uncontrolled and the uncontrollable.’

The Importance of the Notion of ‘Plausibility’

‘Plausibility’ is a very slippery notion, and yet seems crucial to an understanding of Mentor Programme 5. It is clear that different individuals found different things plausible, for example the observation tasks, the requirement for meetings or mentor training. In making decisions about what is plausible to them they are also making judgements about the context and the innovation. Prabhu talks about the requirement to ‘engage a sense of plausibility’ for change to be successful (Prabhu 1987). This seems to me to be similar to the need for that willing suspension of disbelief required for faith written about by Coleridge. How to get teachers in a cynical environment to suspend disbelief and have faith is a real challenge. Unlike other attributes suggested as crucial for innovations to succeed, such as ‘feasibility’ (Kelly 1980) or ‘complexity’ or ‘originality’ (Markee 1997), ‘plausibility’ is not an attribute of an innovation *per se*. It seems to lie at the intersection of individual, context and the innovation. The notion of plausibility highlights the fact that perspectives, rather than attributes of the innovation itself, are crucial in determining success or otherwise of innovations.

Ownership

The naïve belief that ‘ownership’ of a programme and collaboration will make innovatory success far more likely was challenged above (pages 152, 161-2). Pettigrew has described this, rather dismissively, as the ‘truth, trust, love and collaboration’ approach to change (Pettigrew 1985).

Action Research Theory and Practice

Locating this study in 'research space' has been difficult – is it action research, case study or both? It is insider research but not strictly speaking action research, rather something very like it. It is an evaluation of an innovation, but different from many other evaluations as regards the crucial role of the principles. This 'locational difficulty' added to the messiness of the research and the role problems experienced by the researcher, who was inside researcher, work colleague, representative of the School's authority, part-time teacher, change agent, friend, subordinate, evaluator and programme manager, and combinations of all of these, at different times during the study. The micropolitical nature of evaluation itself (Pettigrew 1985, 1987) and the difficulties validating growing understandings without compromising anonymity and confidentiality have made this study personally challenging as well as rewarding. Another view of the research is as a case study located within action research.

The lack of real involvement of other participants in the research, and to a lesser extent, in Programme 5 is worrying. 'True action research ... is participatory and collaborative and promotes a spiral of self-reflection' (Lomax 1989:134, paraphrasing Carr and Kemmis 1986). This researcher doubts whether true collaboration was and is possible in the School, without the goals of the programme being displaced. The researcher believes that, without some serious 'bounding' of the programme in terms of the extent to which different people were involved, it would have tended to replicate the previous programmes. Holly (1984) describes the emasculating and neutralizing tendencies of institutions as teacher-led action research proceeds. Finally, in research done for an external degree, it is very difficult to enthuse others to the extent of full participation. There is evidence that 'goodwill' was stretched anyway in Programme 5, and that some participants expected to be 'told what to do'.

In this study action research is revealed as a messy and uncomfortable enterprise. The researcher felt personally exposed and vulnerable at times. The determination to research honestly and write an account that is truthful to the researcher's understanding conflicts with another ethical stance, that of not harming relationships where the researcher works and not trying not to paint the organisation and the individuals that have been portrayed as inhabiting it in too damning a light. After all, without their help in numerous capacities, this research would have been inconceivable.

CHAPTER TEN: Conclusions

This chapter starts with an overall evaluation of the research. After that it discusses the implications for policy following on from the research, and evaluates the contribution this research has made to the field of mentoring programme theory and practice. The limitations of the research and suggestions for future research are addressed, and the chapter ends with some personal reflections from the researcher.

Overall Evaluation of the Research

The Data Collected

This research has provided an in-depth look at the 'nitty-gritty' of one programme (Programme 5), as well as rich data on the important contextual features of that programme, such as its history (Programmes 1 to 4), its structure, the participants and their attitudes, the way the programme was managed, and what happened when the mentors and mentees met. The data have illuminated a wide range of aspects of the Mentoring Programme as a whole including structural issues such as goodness of fit, management structure and institutionalization, and issues of support, mentor selection and mentor training. The data has revealed issues that might otherwise have remained hidden, such as mentee English level, the importance of both mentor and mentee lesson planning and mentee teaching skills. The researcher has been able to make wide-reaching recommendations based upon strong evidence. The principles themselves have provided a framework for viewing the planning, organizing, managing, supporting and evaluation of mentor programmes. They are powerful tools, which not only inform data collection, but decision-making as well. They were intended to move the school towards evidence-informed professional development (Bolam 2002).

This data has been obtained despite the fact that data collection methods were not comprehensive. The research questions concerning Programmes 1 to 4 (questions 1 and 2) were difficult to answer fully since most of the data was collected after the programmes had been run, in some cases years afterwards. This meant that the data collected for Programmes 1 to 4 was qualitatively different than that collected from Programme 5 and the comparison of Programmes 1 to 4 with Programme 5 (research question 2) must be regarded as tentative. The data collected for Programme 5 itself suffered from the decision to give mentors some autonomy and therefore not to collect first order data from classrooms and from mentor-mentee briefing and feedback sessions. Additionally, it would have been useful to have found out more detailed information about exactly what was or was not learned by the

mentees on the programmes, in terms of for example mentee ability to manage pupils and maintain discipline, their ability to use a range of teaching methods effectively and whether there were any changes in subject knowledge, knowledge about English, English level, or pedagogic content knowledge (Hobson 2002).

'Worthwhileness'

Bassey (2002) discusses the notion of 'worthwhileness' as applied to evaluative case studies. This notion can be applied to the whole endeavour, not just the programme, but the research as well. The arguments in Chapter Nine highlight the fact that formal mentoring is worthwhile. Despite the difficulties encountered, development opportunities were provided for all participants, and there is evidence that many took advantage of them (eg in Table 8.9). Programme 5 did, for four weeks, manage to break down some barriers between staff and reduce the isolation of teachers from each other in their classrooms, what Louis and Kruse (1995) call 'privatization'.

The research was worthwhile. It was an important learning opportunity for those involved, especially the researcher and the critical friends, and a contribution towards mentoring theory and practice (Chapter Nine).

'Generalisations' and 'Relatability'

In this thesis I have presented richly-contextualised data that allows others to relate the findings here to their own situations and make comparisons. The most important features of the case (Programme 5), features such as the way the mentors were selected and its relationship to School structure, the interactions between key participants, and the relationship between these features and the structure and management of the programme, have been presented 'warts and all' to allow for 'naturalistic generalisations' (Stake 1978), to make the case 'relatable' (Bassey 1981). Generalizations from what is written here are intended to be fuzzy (Bassey 1999:12) rather than direct. Action research is judged by its usefulness to fellow practitioners, amongst other things (Morgan 1983:399). I sincerely hope that others researching in the field of training programme design, management and evaluation will find the principles here, and the data presented, useful.

Policy Implications

Design and Planning of Mentor Programmes

Mentoring and staff development need to be seen as ongoing, rather than bounded by particular time frames and programmes. Staff development programmes should involve everybody in the school and encourage informal as well as formal mentoring. They should be school-wide (Earley and Kinder 1994). The present research shows that a four-week programme is not sufficient to make real changes in teachers' repertoires or basic teaching skills. Where, for staffing reasons, new teachers are required in the classroom soon after arrival, structures should be set up to continue the relationship between mentor and mentee after the formal programme ends.

On all Mentor Programmes 1 to 5 it was clear that a consensus as to the purpose of such programmes was not achieved with different mentors, mentees and managers having different expectations and understandings. The planning of formal programmes should therefore involve all the stakeholders in the programme, in order, amongst other things, to foster shared understandings of the programme, to widen ownership and make programmes more plausible to skeptics. The planning stage should attempt to produce a common view of what is being attempted, the amount of resources required, and what mentoring is and what it involves. In other words, orientation is required not just for mentors and mentees (Johnson and Sullivan 1995), but for all those involved.

Managing Mentor Programmes

Mentoring a new teacher is not easy. Managing mentor programmes is just as difficult. As with all management, it relies on others to commit to it and make it work. These others include mentees, mentors, coordinators and senior managers. Those who manage mentor programmes require the support of senior management and the authority to make decisions concerning the programme. Communication among those who manage should be open, unlike some of the communication on Programme 5. Exactly who manages the programme, their position and authority within the organisation, as well as their personal commitment to the development of others, needs to be carefully considered.

It seems clear from Programme 5 that the granting of some autonomy to mentors presumes that the mentors are experienced and committed to the programme. With inexperienced mentors and less than fully committed ones, obtaining agreement to objectives which specify a certain number of observations of each type (Chapter Five) does not mean that those

objectives will be achieved without some monitoring. Deciding on the level, type and mechanisms for such monitoring is not easy. Using a proforma for recording pre-teaching meetings, observations done and feedback sessions, as suggested by one coordinator (I29:1, 30) seems sensible. Programme coordinators need to keep in close touch informally but systematically with mentors and mentees as suggested in Chapter Nine (page 152). Setting aside protected times for each mentor-mentee pair would help standardize the amount of contact between mentors and mentees. But these suggested policy implications are only part of a larger picture. When programmes are planned, it should be clear who is accountable to whom for what (Fidler 2002, Kajs 2002).

It may also be that the approach taken to granting autonomy to the mentors was simplistic. It seems that the researcher as coordinator of Programme 5 failed to realize that there are degrees of autonomy, and who has autonomy over what, and who has control over what are important. Bell and Bush (2002:11-12) show that autonomy varies along different dimensions. On Programme 5, control over planning of the programme, goals of the programme, assessment of mentees and evaluation of the programme, some of the more strategic elements, was retained by STs and coordinators and was not delegated to the mentors. Permitting real involvement in these decisions may well have increased mentor ownership of Programme 5.

'Degree of fit' to the context

The present study shows the complexity involved in fitting mentor programmes to their context. The extent to which such programmes should 'fit' the context or 'split' from it by attempting to change it (Kennedy 1999b), is problematic. Programme planners need to consider the way decisions are made in the context, the amount and quality of support likely to be forthcoming, attitudes in general in the work context, and management style, as much as objectives, resources required, scheduling and timetabling issues. Innovative programmes are likely to open up painful issues such as the English level of local teachers, the teaching skills of teachers already teaching, and the way decisions are made and communicated in the school. The most important aspect of success in programmes is the context. Structures, ways of thinking and reacting to problems, the history of the organisation, and relationships between key players (Obserski *et al* 1999) are vital. The conclusions seem to be that it is very difficult to design and manage a programme for success unless at least some of the internal conditions of the school are right (Hopkins *et al* 1997), that 'staff development and school development are interdependent and complementary, and that one cannot flourish without the other' (Holden 2002:10). In environments where conflicts are hidden and 'comfort zones'

protected, maintaining relationships may take precedence over challenging, whether it is mentors challenging mentees, mentors challenging coordinators, senior staff challenging mentors or any other combinations. Fullan (1999:22-26) maintains that some conflict is essential for innovation to succeed. That seems to be one conclusion from this study.

Williams and Prestage (2001, 2002) argue convincingly that 'spontaneously collaborative cultures', ie cultures which provide plenty of unplanned, unpredictable developmental activities, offer the most promising working context for NQT development. The 'military' culture described in this thesis seems considerably removed from being either spontaneous or collaborative. This raises a further issue. To what extent is a lot of research on teacher development – most of which is conducted in 'the West' – applicable in the country where the School is located? Most 'Western' research is predicated on some kind of liberal-democratic consensus (Dimmock 2002). Neither the local military culture, nor the local educational culture are liberal or democratic.

Support

Mentees require day-to-day support from mentors. Mentors require day-to-day support from coordinators. Coordinators require support from senior managers, or from mentor mentors. All these kinds of support rely on management commitment, not just on the provision of resources. Managers must be committed to the kind of model of mentoring that the programme espouses. Furthermore, it requires appropriate school conditions, including a school-wide professional development programme. Without changes in school cultures, mentor programmes, no matter how well-planned, will not succeed (Kajs 2002).

One source of support not available to anyone on Mentor Programmes 1 to 5 was support from outside the School. Outside support has been shown to be crucial in recent research into mentoring novice teachers (Stanulis *et al* 2002). Kajs (2002) discusses the advantages of team support from both inside and outside the school in improving new teacher development and retention.

Mentor Training and Mentor Selection

Structural changes may be necessary, eg in the way the timetable is constructed, or in the way support is provided, for mentor training to be successful. This implication is supported by Ciascai (2002), who found that, in the Romanian context, changes in mentor training also required outside (university) support.

Mentor training should provide the opportunity for mentors to practice the skills necessary for their role, following Joyce and Showers (1982). The present study shows that this is especially important for inexperienced mentors. Such training would also give managers the opportunity to reallocate mentors who either lack the skills or seem unwilling to take the role seriously, thus recognising the fact that some people may never make good mentors. Further than this, mentor training should enable prospective mentors to reflect upon their feelings, beliefs, attitudes and values. Unless the mentors themselves are skilled reflective practitioners, and can model this, it is difficult to see their mentees becoming like this. Malderez and Bodóczy (1999) discuss the way that mentor courses can empower mentors to become reflective through sharing beliefs and values and gaining knowledge, as well as learning skills. Without activities that promote such reflection it seems likely that mentoring will not succeed in allowing NQTs to challenge their own feelings, attitudes and values. However, the minimum length of mentor course for such challenging seems greater than either the School or the prospective mentors felt was necessary.

Outcomes

This research has highlighted the issue of failure, what it might mean, who defines it, and what can be done both to prevent it and to deal with it once it has happened (pages 162-3, Kerry and Farrow 1996). Managers need to discuss it openly, however difficult it is, and come to some consensus as to how mentees are to be assessed, who by, when, and what is to be done with the results of such assessment. Without agreement on such basic issues there is no guarantee that the kind of support offered will be appropriate or timely.

Evaluation

Since the principles were written in 2001 several mentor programme evaluations have been carried out, for example Ganser (2002), Sengupta and Leung (2002). Additionally, mentor programme evaluation has been discussed in other places such as Ciascai (2001) McGee (2001), Quinn *et al* (2002), Kajs (2002). None of the evaluations have been conducted against principles, and none have been reported in the detail reported in the evaluation of Programme 5 in this study. One implication, however, from the evaluations discussed above is that schools often need outside help to develop the capacity to design programmes, train mentors, support mentors and mentees, and evaluate their programmes (Ganser 2002, Sengupta and Leung 2002).

Contribution to the Field

Most research into mentoring has been done in the UK and USA, and little has been done in EFL. Much of it has been done in primary schools. The context here is unusual as well in that there was no outside support from a university or teacher training body. However, some of the findings here support findings elsewhere in very different contexts and therefore strengthen them. For example, mentors in this study seemed to be reluctant to give 'bad news' or deal with difficult issues such as mentee English level, which supports the research of O'Donoghue (1997), some mentors restricted themselves almost entirely to comments on 'low inference' topics such as boardwork and lesson planning, also supporting O'Donoghue (1997), mentors and mentees gave very different accounts of what happened both in classrooms and meetings, supporting the findings of Stephenson (1997c), and large variations were found in mentor quality, supporting the findings of Hayes (2001).

The framework for assessing mentor quality – see pages 125-137 – also represents a significant contribution to the field of mentoring. But this is best seen as only part of an overall approach – the use of principles for designing, managing, supporting and evaluating mentor programmes.

Contribution towards Evaluation of Mentoring Programmes

This is the first time that such detailed principles have been used as a framework for evaluating mentor programmes, and the first time they have been used to evaluate an entire programme, not just against objectives but as a way of illuminating the programme. Although 'lofty and stirring' (Kemmis 1986:118), principles are also a powerful and practical tool which can inform both data collection and decision-making (pages 167-9). Given the importance of context – see pages 163-4, 176, 183-4 – it is clear that the principles will need adapting to different contexts (Fullan 1999), but they provide a starting point, a suggestive framework for evaluation, designing, planning and evaluating mentor programmes.

Limitations of the Research

The School represents a unique and unusual context. The singularity of this context might be taken to be a weakness of the study, but marginal contexts can often illuminate aspects of phenomena 'hidden' in more mainstream contexts. In this study the way the exact context was intertwined with Programme 5, for example the exact structure of the timetable and mentor selection, and the personalities and values of individual participants and the way the programme was managed, has been illuminating. The small size of the programmes,

involving less than seventy individuals altogether, and the short length of the programmes are also possible limitations. Finally, the lack of interviews with mentees on Programmes 2 to 4 until after Programme 5 had been planned and run, meant that decisions – both research and programme – were not informed by their views.

The majority of the data presented in this study is the result of *post hoc* accounts in the interviews, and replies to researcher formulated statements in the questionnaires. No first order data from classrooms was collected. This was done from a desire to give mentors and mentees autonomy in a place where surveillance and inspection are an issue. Their ability to paint an accurate picture of events is possibly distorted by the effects of memory and the desire by participants to project certain images to the researcher or to themselves (Scott and Lyman 1975). The speed with which data had to be collected at certain phases of the action research project, in order to inform decisions, and the fact that events had their own timetable, mentees arrived, had to be allocated to mentors, had to be ready to take classes, all to timetables not under the researcher's control, all contributed to a less than totally satisfactory situation as regards data collection. Some of the discrepancies between accounts and fragmentary picture of Programme 5 may be explained by this, but some may also be because the programme was experienced differently by different participants.

The questions used in Questionnaire 1 and in Questionnaire 2 were different and some of the questions were worded differently. This was because the information gained from Questionnaire 1 and the interviews that followed it meant that the researcher had a better understanding of the issues when he designed Questionnaire 2. The questions were therefore altered to reflect this. Unfortunately, the researcher did not fully appreciate the problems this would lead to in making direct comparisons between the results of the two questionnaires. Small changes in wording can result in large changes in responses (Converse and Presser 1986:41). It is difficult to know whether that happened in this case.

Suggestions for Future Research

There is a requirement for more studies on exactly how mentoring programmes are managed and evaluated, in which diary studies and documents would seem to be especially important tools. Studies of the relationship of management decisions to results, such as the perceived results of the management style adopted in Programme 5 might help cast light upon how management decisions, contexts and perceived results interact.

The list of principles themselves make explicit this researcher's understanding of good practice. Such explicit principles both allow for direct use by other managers and direct comparisons with principles adopted in other contexts. It would be very interesting to see other mentoring programme managers try and use these or similar principles.

There appears to have been very little published research on how teachers fail, what it means to fail, and the reasons for failures. Kerry and Farrow (1996) and Jacques (1995) are exceptions and yet their discussions are only a couple of pages long. Just because of the often taboo status of failure, such research may produce findings that challenge all kinds of assumptions about mentoring.

Personal Reflections

Evaluation is about *enacting and clarifying values*, as is action research. In this concluding subsection I explore issues of value enactment and clarification.

The programme itself was based on the idea that something had to be done to improve the way that NLTs entered the School. NLTs were manifestly not being trained adequately to take over the jobs of expatriates. Having worked on ODA-funded ELT projects whose overriding objective was the training of locals to replace expatriates, I felt this was a duty on the company. Secondly, the school will not be able to function if the locals are not trained to do the job. So 'the desire to turn a negative state into a positive one, the motivation to improve education' acted 'as an incentive for this enquiry' (McNiff 1988:132). As regards the Mentoring Programme, I had to make the fundamental choice between action and inaction. In the School the circumstances are far from ideal for innovation and teacher development, but, as Popper (cited by Head and Taylor 1997: vii) says 'Wherever you want to go, you have no choice but to start from where you are.' The alternative to action, accepting the status quo and saying the context is too powerful to make changes 'stick' seemed unacceptable to me.

Once Mentor Programme 5 began, and the research started, some of the difficulty of enacting other values of mine became apparent. Values such as improving my own and others' practice, providing opportunities for others to reflect and develop, behaving ethically, being fair, encouraging collaboration and ownership, not being judgemental, being the 'same person' at home and at work both managing and researching, and being sensitive to the context, all proved difficult. To concretise some of these values as issues I faced while managing/researching; Why does the account presented in the Thesis, particularly the discussion of mentor quality, read so judgementally when I have serious problems with the

whole notion of judging others? Why were the mentors and others not allowed a 'right of reply' to the judgements that were made in parts of the Thesis? Why did I engage in so little real dialogue on the programme when I believe in dialogue as a way of improving practice? Why were the students so invisible in the Thesis? Did I subject my work as manager to the same scrutiny as the work of others?

One reason for the difficulty I had enacting my values is that I had to wear a number of different hats during the programme and the research. Among these were classroom teacher, mentoring coordinator, workshop giver, teacher trainer, research interviewer, colleague, critical friend and change agent. Furthermore, my identities as researcher and as manager were tentative. Research in general in the School and School management in particular were not valued. My identity as a researcher was therefore not valued in the school and I had little access to those who do value research. Indeed some of the questionnaire responses, especially those discussed on pages 82 and 91-92, may have reflected a general cynicism towards the programme and the research. I therefore had little dialogue with others who hold the same values as I do and try to enact them in their practice. At times this research was a very lonely journey in 'the swampy lowland' to borrow Schön's (1983:3) evocative phrase. My identity as a manager was valued amongst the managers of the school, but managers were not highly regarded amongst the staff as a whole (Arnold 1999). Feeling apologetic for being a manager and for being a researcher made it difficult to carry the roles out with conviction.

Additionally, I was not part of the official hierarchy of the School, not a Senior Teacher, although I was one of those charged with running Mentor Programme 5. In this sense I was in a very similar position to Gerard, who is discussed by Hutchinson (1998), not 'in authority' but in a position of influence. While I was one of those responsible for the programme, I had no institutional authority to direct either mentors or mentees. I was dealing with work colleagues and faced the same problems the mentors did dealing with mentees. As one mentor said to a coordinator 'I'm dealing with a colleague, not with a trainee' (I16:5). This responsibility without authority affected my ability to enact my values. I feel it is easier to persuade others when one's vision of a programme is backed up by the authority of the institution.

Why is the account so judgemental in places? This obviously reflects on my skill as a writer, my ability to represent data in line with my values, and the self I wanted to project as a writer. I was not aware of other ways of doing it than representing directly what was said to me in interview. Tied up in this are issues of the difficulty of researching at all in this particular country and organisation, and my tentative identity as a researcher. I feel that I may have

over-compensated and produced a very formal, traditional (quantitative/positivist) account of the research to a greater extent than I wanted. Although the actions of the mentors were judged against principles, against criteria, I keep asking the question ‘How would I feel if I read this about myself?’ I would almost certainly feel unhappy and would wish for a chance to defend myself.

Why was no ‘right of reply’ allowed? Why did I not engage the mentors in dialogue to try and help them improve their practice? Not allowing a ‘right of reply’, not discussing things openly with mentors and STs, not engaging others in dialogue and reflection as much as I would have liked, may have resulted from a kind of ‘cowardice’. I was to some extent afraid of negative reactions and conflict, as well as afraid of worsening things at work. This implicates my personal and interpersonal skills as a researcher. It also implicates my perceptions of the culture at work, a culture where potential conflict /differences of opinion are ignored rather than dealt with. (This ‘conflict avoidance’ may well reflect the culture of the nation and the military in particular.) As a researcher there may also have been some reluctance to give bad news. This may help explain (subconsciously) both the failure to give a ‘right of reply’ to mentors and others as well as the paucity of monitoring by myself as coordinator – if you do not find out the bad news you do not have to pass it on! I did consider the possibility of giving a right of reply, but eventually dismissed it because I did not want to risk making things worse at work by allowing participants to see what others had said about them, or risk informants being identified. This ethical dilemma – between giving a right of reply and engaging others in reflection versus the possibility of identification of informants and possible conflicts eg between mentors and mentees thus worsening things at work – is discussed further in Arnold (2000). Knowing the people, having worked with a lot of them for a long time, I feel that I know how they would have reacted, know how they would have taken implied criticism. The majority of those involved in the research view research as something done to them, not something which involves them as active participants. They were willing to take part in Programme 5 and in the research, but not willing to take an active collaborative role. I had to make a decision, to resolve the dilemma, and decided that giving a right of reply would have created more problems than it solved.

Many of these issues seem to ‘echo’ up and down the research. Firstly, the status of myself as programme manager seems to echo the status of the teachers selected as mentors. Neither the mentors nor the coordinators had the authority to match the responsibility they were given. Neither the mentors nor the coordinators had the authority to direct those whose work they were to some extent responsible for. Secondly, the issue of not wishing to give ‘bad news’ seems to echo the experience of the mentors. I discussed above (pages 151 and 185) the

possibility that mentors were reluctant to give bad news to the mentees. This 'echoing' may reflect the fact that these issues are structural and cultural rather than individual.

Structural and cultural issues relate to 'goodness of fit'. Goodness of fit is not just a technical but a moral and value-laden matter. Enacting my values implies some kind of liberal – democratic consensus. The organisation where I work and the country which I live in have very different understandings of freedom, justice, democracy, productive work, the purpose of work, duty, education and authority than I do. For example, I see education as leading out, helping others to develop themselves; many in the school see education as passing on knowledge (I4:1), or telling others what to do and how to do it (I20:9C). Considerable value is placed on rote learning in this society, and on not questioning authority in the military. As an expatriate working in someone else's country, in someone else's military and in someone else's School, I found it difficult to know where and when I should try to enact my values and where and when to 'fit' the context.

To some extent the programme may have fitted the context too well. Although I had some of the most in-depth conversations in my time in the school during the research, there was a lot less honest dialogue between participants on the programme than I wanted, bad news was generally avoided, others were judged and defined as failures or as 'very poor', and students were invisible and treated by me as part of the context. Enacting some of the values discussed above requires support in the workplace and outside, requires openness, the ability to discuss failure without blame, honesty, courage, and trust. I may personally have fitted in to the context too well, despite my professed values. I may, as a result of ten years working in a cynical environment (Arnold 1999), have acted in ways incompatible with my values. It may therefore be necessary to acknowledge my existence as a living contradiction (Whitehead 1989), ie I had the experience of holding certain educational values and of experiencing their negation in my practice. This view may help explain why my attempts to become an 'integral' person, the same 'person' at work as at home, the same 'person' when researching as when managing, failed. As Whitehead says in that article (1989:45), it is in the tension between the values we hold and the ones we enact, in the contradiction between them, that we are moved to imagine alternative ways of improving our situation and our practice.

Did I subject my work as manager to the same scrutiny as the work of others? The work of others, the STs, the Head Teacher, the coordinators, mentors and mentees was certainly subjected to scrutiny. To some extent it is up to others to read and judge to what extent my work as a programme coordinator was scrutinised. I wonder to what extent any insider account can be impartial, where the insider is intimately involved in the substance of a change

initiative. Seen in this light the failure to give a 'right of reply' could be seen to be a very human failing on my part protect, but one which may have contributed to the partiality of the insider's account. However, researchers should be able to be self-critical as well as other-critical!

APPENDIX 1: Summary of Interview Topics

Phase	Interviewee(s)	Topic(s)
Managers' Perspectives on Mentor Programmes 1 to 4 (February 2001)	Manager Interviews Head Teacher (n=1), STs (n = 3), Teacher who planned and designed Mentor Programme 1 (n=1)	Describe the programme Mentor selection Mentor role Mentor problems Support Possible improvements
Mentors' Perspectives on Programmes 2 to 4 (June 2001)	Mentor Interviews (n = 3)	Describe an ideal programme Surprises as mentor Mentor training Observation tasks Support
Mentor Perspectives on Mentor Programme 5 (July and Sept 2001)	Mentor Interviews (n = 6)	Previous mentoring experiences Surprises as mentor Support (Principle 7 = P7) Pre-lesson meetings with mentee (P2/P8) Observation & funny events (P2/P8) Feedback (P2/P8) Relationship (P8) Mentee development (P10) Mentor development (P10) Next programme (P11) Overall evaluation (P11)
Mentee Perspectives on Mentor Programme 5 (July and Sept 2001)	Mentee Interviews (n = 7)	Describe the programme Observation (P2/P8) Relationship (P8) Pre- & post-lesson meetings (P2/P8) Feedback (P2/P8) Possible improvements
Managers' Perspectives on Mentor Programme (July and Sept 2001)	Manager Interviews STs (n = 2), Head Teacher (n=1), Coordinators (n = 2)	Your role Role of others Planning and Organisation (P1) Compare with other mentor programmes Mentor selection (P7) Mentee development (P10) Sustainability (P11) Possible improvements
Mentor Perspectives on Mentor Programmes 2 to 4 (July 2001)	Interview Mentor (n=1)	Describe an ideal programme Surprises as mentor Mentor training (P9) Observation tasks (P2/P8) Support (P7)
Mentee Perspectives on Mentor Programmes 2 to 4 (Sept 2001)	Interviews Mentees (n=3)	Experiences as mentee Observation (P2/P8) Relationship (P8) Pre- & post-lesson meetings (P2/P8) Feedback (P2/P8) Possible improvements

APPENDIX 2: Part of Interview Schedule

Interview Date & Time	Interviewee & Place
Mentoring Programme: Mentor Questions	
Say what you really think and believe. Don't spare my feelings. We need to know what really happened and why to be able to improve the programme. Be as specific as possible. What evidence do you have for your views?	
Comparison with previous experiences	
<p><i>Experienced mentors</i> Talk me briefly through your previous experiences of mentoring, here and elsewhere. How does this compare? In what ways is it better? In what ways is it worse? Which events in this programme stand out in your mind? Talk me through them. Did the mentoring differ from your expectations? In what ways?</p> <p><i>First time mentors</i> How did this compare with what you expected? Were there any surprises? Talk me through them. What was surprising about them? What was the most surprising thing about the mentee? What was the most awkward moment? What was the most difficult thing you had to do? What was the most frustrating event? What was the most satisfying thing that happened? Did any funny things happen? What was the funniest moment?</p>	
Mentee teaching – mentor observing	
How many times did you observe him teach? What was his general attitude towards you observing him teach?	
<p><i>Before he taught</i> Did you have time to meet him before he taught? When did you do this? (ie just before the lesson? a few lessons before? etc)? Where did you do this? How long did this take? (did it ever take longer?) What kinds of things did you talk about? (concrete examples!) How did you select materials for him to teach? (what criteria?) What kind of lesson planning did he do? What was the mentee's attitude? What did you feel?</p>	
<p><i>During the Observation</i> What did you do while you were observing him? Where did you sit? Did you take part in the lesson? Did you make notes? Where did you make them? Can I see some of them? (Can I photocopy them?) What struck you about his teaching? Did anything odd, funny, unusual, interesting or unexpected happen? Talk me through it. Did you have to re-teach anything that he taught? Why? Did you have to intervene in any of his lessons? Did you use the feedback tasks? How often? Which ones? Were they useful? What do you think of them now? What did the cadets make of it? How do you know? Did his teaching change over the weeks? (evidence?)</p>	
<p><i>After the teaching</i> Did you have time to meet with him after he taught? (how frequently? every time?) When did you do this? (just after the lesson? the next day?) Where did you do this? How long did this take? (did it ever take longer?) What kinds of things did you talk about? (concrete examples) What was the mentee's attitude? What did you feel? How did you feel about giving feedback to a fellow teacher? Did you notice any improvement in later lessons?</p>	

APPENDIX 3: List of Interviews

Code No	Role	Interview Date
I1	ST	26/01/01
I2	ST in charge – Programmes 2 to 4	06/02/01
I3	Head Teacher	08/02/01
I4	ST in charge – Programmes 2 to 4	11/02/01
I5	Coordinator of Basic TEFL Course / set up Programme 1	20/02/01
I6	Mentor – Programmes 2 to 4	02/06/01
I7	Mentor – Programmes 2 to 4	04/06/01
I8	Mentor – Programmes 2 to 4	11/06/01
I9	Mentor – Programme 5	03/07/01
I10	Mentor – Programme 5	07/07/01 & 08/07/01
I11	Mentor – Programme 5	09/07/01
I12	Mentor – Programme 5	10/07/01
I13	ST in charge – Programme 5	15/07/01
I14	Mentee – Programme 5	15/07/01 & 16/07/01
I15	Mentee – Programme 5	21/07/01 & 22/07/01
I16	3 rd Coordinator – Programme 5	23/07/01
I17	Mentee – Programmes 2 to 4	24/07/01
I18	Mentor – Programme 5	24/07/01
I19	Mentee – Programme 5	25/07/01
I20	Head Teacher	28/07/01
I21	Mentee – Programme 5	28/07/01
I22	Mentee – Programme 5	29/07/01
I23	Mentee – Programme 5	30/07/01
I24	Mentee – Programme 5	31/07/01
I25	Mentor – Programmes 2 to 4	31/07/01
I26	ST in charge – Programme 5	09/09/01
I27	Mentee – Programmes 2 to 4	09/09/01
I28	Mentor – Programme 5	11/09/01
I29	2 nd Coordinator – Programme 5 First Critical Friend	10/09/01 & 21/09/01
I30	Mentee – Programmes 2 to 4	19/09/01

APPENDIX 4: List of Documents

No	Document	Date
D1	Minutes of two planning meetings	10/04 & 14/04
D2	Agenda for meeting of mentors	16/04
D3	Purpose of the programme	16/04
D4	Contents of the programme	16/04
D5	Support for the programme	16/04
D6	Researcher's notes on the second meeting of mentors	22/04
D7	Making observations positive	22/04
D8	Self observation and peer observation	22/04
D9	Note from Head Teacher re: support	03/05
D10	Agenda for meeting	19/05
D11	Mentor-mentee allocation; item 1	19/05
D12	4 week mentor programme; item 3	19/05
D13	Mentor programme – week one; item 4	19/05
D14	Researcher's notes from last meeting; item 5	19/05
D15	Notes on being a mentor for the first time; item 6A	19/05
D16	Practical suggestions for new teachers; item 6B	19/05
D17	Arranging lesson observations; item 7	19/05
D18	Lesson observation index; item 9A	19/05
D19	Mentee tasks; item 9B	19/05
D20	Mentor tasks; item 9C	19/05
D21	Coordinator role; item 10	19/05
D22	Mentor programme – week two	(30/05)
D23	Photocopied page from lesson plan book	(04/06)
D24	Researcher's notes on mentor meeting	04/06
D25	Researcher's notes on mentor meeting	11/06
D26	Lesson plan sheets	12/06
D27	Researcher's notes on mentor meeting	18/06
D28	Researcher's notes on mentees' course evaluation meeting	20/06
D29	Researcher's notes on mentors' course evaluation meeting	26/06
D30	Coor 2's notes on mentors' course evaluation meeting	26/06
D31	List of other teachers observed by mentees	01/07
D32	HT's notes for meeting of Head Teacher with new teachers	10/07
D33	Selection of mentors for the programme	10/09
D34	Email from Joan Stephenson	31/01/02
D35	Email HT's comments on a draft of Chapter 5	18/04/02
D36	ST's notes on a draft of Chapter 5	16/04/02
D37	RSAF ELC Teacher Training	(21/05)
D38	Student Data Cards from Training Centre - Dated 16/04/01	Received 30/05
D39	Mentor Programme 1 Course File	(03/99)
D40	Teacher Evaluation Form – Mentee 4	10/07
D41	Teacher Evaluation Form – Mentee 4	24/07
D42	Teacher Evaluation Form – Mentee 7	24/07

Key

() indicate the date is approximate.

Dates are 2001 unless otherwise shown.

Coor = coordinator, HT = Head Teacher, ST= Senior Teacher

APPENDIX 5: Timetable for Mentor Programme 5

Date	Event
10/04/01 & 14/04/01	Programme 5 planning meetings
16/04/01	Meeting 1 of Prospective Mentors
22/04/01	Meeting 2 of Prospective Mentors
29/04/01	Meeting 3 of Prospective Mentors
19/05/01	Meeting 4 of Prospective Mentors
26/05/01 to 30/05/01	Programme 5 Week One
29/05/01	Meeting & Workshop 1 for mentees
02/06/01 to 06/06/01	Programme 5 Week Two
04/06/01	Meeting 1 of Programme 5 mentors
05/06/01	Meeting & Workshop 2 for mentees
09/06/01 to 13/06/01	Programme 5 Week Three
11/06/01	Meeting 2 of Programme 5 mentors
12/06/01	Meeting & Workshop 3 for mentees
16/06/01 to 20/06/01	Programme 5 Week Four
18/06/01	Meeting 3 of Programme 5 mentors
19/06/01	Meeting & Workshop 4 for mentees
20/06/01	Programme 5 Evaluation Meeting for mentees
26/06/01	Programme 5 Evaluation Meeting for mentors
10/07/01	Teacher Evaluation (lesson check) mentee 4
10/07/01	Teacher Evaluation (lesson check) mentee 7

APPENDIX 6: Definition of Terms

Topic	Understanding
Amount of materials	The amount of materials taught in a lesson, eg number of pages, number of exercises. Whether there were enough or too many pages or exercises.
Classroom atmosphere	The atmosphere of the classroom, eg sleepy, lively, noisy, workmanlike. The relationship between the teacher and the students and between the students themselves.
Classroom management – discipline	Both bad behaviour by students, eg students wasting time, sleeping, talking in Arabic (if treated as a problem), and the way discipline was dealt with, eg by shouting, sending a student out or making students stand up.
Classroom management – general	The way the teacher manages and organises the classroom, eg the layout of furniture, movement around the class, the use of eye contact and voice to manage learning. The results of such management, eg the timing of activities and pace of lessons, the flow of the lesson, the beginnings and ends of lessons.
Coping	Whether the teacher in general is finding it hard or easy to cope, shown in their behaviour and their concerns, eg their confidence, whether they are personally adversely affected, and effects on the quality of their work, concern with the large number of students and their demands, concern with teaching in general, concern with the responsibility of being a teacher, the large number of lessons in a day/week, the large size of the School. Symptoms of coping or not coping, eg being rattled, nervous, having his head down, not looking at the students.
English level	English level in general and language used in the classroom (when qualified by ‘good’ or ‘bad’), grammar, phonology, vocabulary, lexis, syntax, spelling mistakes, errors, flaws in models for students to copy.
Image (and status as a new teacher)	Concern with what the students think of the mentee, how the students treat him, whether the students are testing the mentee out. Concern with eg status as a new teacher, what others think, eg other teachers.
Imitation of mentor by mentee	Doing the same as the mentor, in lesson planning, copying techniques the mentor uses.
Individual student needs	Discussion of an individual student, rather than a class or a group, and what he needs.
Lesson preparation	The work done before the lesson starts, eg considering the students, deciding objectives, deciding what to teach, planning timing and sequence of activities, anticipating problems, completing the lesson plan book, choosing realia and teaching aids, preparing materials. Also referred to as ‘lesson planning’.
Mentee discipline	The need for the mentor to discipline the mentee over things like time keeping and leaving school before the end of the teaching day.
Methodology	The methods and techniques used to promote learning, especially the activities of the students, eg writing, reading, pairwork, elicitation, boardwork, games, puzzles, mime, gesture. The way that students’ questions are dealt with and the way that ‘errors’ are corrected. How the lesson was executed, how items were presented, teacher talk time.
Own learning	The learning of the mentees where the accent is on them learning themselves from reading or from doing courses.
Student learning	The learning of the students, what they learned or did not learn, how much they learned.

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