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ADVICE-GIVING AND LEARNING IN STUDENT TEACHER MENTORING AT A HEI

by

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Dedication

I dedicate this study to my late father and mother,

Beyers and Marie Havenga

Thank you for an upbringing based on strong Christian beliefs and love, and for your unwavering, principled lives.

I will forever be grateful for the example you set in genuine appreciation and endearing empathy for all who crossed your path.

You were my inspiration, safe haven and authentic mentors – the best anyone could ever have wished for.

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Abstract

This study addressed essential support for student teachers in traversing the problematic theory–practice divide in teacher education when entering the teaching profession. Prospective teachers are not only required to exhibit a firm command of theoretical subject and pedagogical knowledge for classroom teaching but must also develop practical knowledge through learning 'from' and 'in' practice through practical school experience. Faced with unfamiliar demands, they require support to enact being a teacher since transfer of knowledge from the teacher-training milieu to the classroom environment does not occur naturally. The research question thus arose how best to support prospective teaches in surmounting obstacles to enactment, and potential solutions found in effectual teacher education programmes suggested *inter alia* the creation of opportunities for critical examination of practice, self-reflection and collaborative reflection with peers and mentors.

To this end, mentoring is an important theoretical principle in formally and informally supporting student teachers towards knowledge-production in teacher education. Reciprocal, mutually beneficial mentoring relationships presuppose dialectic and dialogic collaboration, which places mentoring conversations at its centre as a vehicle for creating opportunities for mentees to reflect on contestable ideas, rise to respectful challenges by mentors, and cultivate autonomous thinking and action. Mentors in turn are thus required to guide and advise mentees in this endeavour. Since advice-giving implies an assumed or established asymmetry of knowledge and skills between mentors and mentees, mentors need to navigate a carefully charted course between directive and non-directive mentoring styles in their advice-giving to lead mentees to effective reflection on practice and ultimately to knowledge-productive learning – a description of which constituted the aim of this study.

An interpretive paradigm using an ethomethodological design was chosen to research the topic. The study formed part of a larger mentoring project and utilised video- and audio-recorded mentoring interviews between university lecturers (mentors) and student teachers (mentees) based on written reflective reports by the mentees after their compulsory practical school-experience visits. Data analysis was completed using conversational analysis and content analysis techniques, whereas the theoretical frame for the analysis was formed by Clayman and Gill's structural analysis

framework of nested layers of activities, Waring's pedagogical task structures and relational conditions for accounts in advice-giving, Tillema's structural model of mentoring and Tillema and Van der Westhuizen's view of knowledge-productive learning.

The findings of the analysis indicated that advice-giving in the conversations followed specific phases that were structured to create a 'safe space' for the interactions and to find entry points for advice-giving. Phases in which the entry points were collaboratively explored through reflection allowed for the development of deeper understanding and perspective shifts, and it proved furthermore that scaffolding opportunities were crucial for advice-giving towards knowledge-productive learning.

Sequence organisation, lexical choice, intonation, question content, pauses and prolongations supported advice-giving. Positioning of the accounts for advice-giving indicated that pre-advice linked to identifying the entry points, followed by task-oriented reflection and scaffolding, allowed for advice-giving towards knowledge-productive learning. Reflective questioning, listening and scaffolding were noted as important mentor actions. Behaviours on the constructive plane of mentoring tended to generate opportunities for perspective shifts and more self-directed and autonomous learning. Worthy of special note were the value of creating emotionally 'brave' spaces for mentees, specific communication, conversational and counselling skills, and awareness of the impact of gender, culture, language and knowledge status in advice-giving.

Keywords: advice-giving, mentoring, mentoring conversations, learning
            conversations, knowledge-productive learning, professional learning

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List of abbreviations and acronyms

AACTE: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education

CEU: Continuing education unit

CHAT: Cultural-Historical Activity Theory

CI: Collaborative inquiry

CPD: Continuous professional development

CoPs: Communities of practice

DHET: Department of Higher Education and Training

FPP: First pair-part

HEI: Higher education institution

HPCSA: Health Professions Council of South Africa

KPL: Knowledge-productive learning

LO: Life Orientation

MC 1:   Advice-giving Episode 1 / Mentoring Conversation 1

MC 2:   Advice-giving Episode 2 / Mentoring Conversation 2

MKO: More knowledgeable other

PCK: Pedagogical content knowledge

PL: Professional learning

Q&A: Questions and answers in Pask's conversation framework

RM: Reciprocal mentoring

SPP: Second pair-part

SIT: Symbolic Interaction Theory

WIL: Work-integrated learning

ZPD: Zone of proximal development

CHAPTER 1
INVESTIGATIVE FRAMEWORK

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

Mentoring as an instrument for improving organisational efficiency has become the focus of intensive research in almost every field of human endeavour over the past decade, not least in the discipline of education. In academic literature, investigations of a generic nature are reflected in a variety of studies on both formal and informal mentoring (Clarke, 2004; Clutterbuck, 2009; Clutterbuck & Lane, 2007), relationships in mentoring (Clutterbuck, 2009; Weinberg & Locander, 2013; Wong & Premkumar, 2007), the role of mentors and mentees (Clutterbuck, 2009), different mentoring styles (Hennissen, Crasborn, Brouwer, Korthagen & Bergen, 2008), and the value and outcomes of mentoring in different contexts (Bierema & Merriam, 2002; Clutterbuck, 2009). The diverse views and definitions of mentoring that are proposed in these studies will be considered in detail in Chapter 2. Suffice it to say here that in its widest sense mentoring suggests a relationship between a 'more knowledgeable' mentor and a 'less knowledgeable' mentee. This asymmetric relationship is characterised by the mentor 'providing advice [and] counselling in support of the mentee's pursuit of becoming a full member of a particular profession' (Johnson, 2016:23).

Specifically, in the context of higher education, Aderibigbe, Colucci-Gray & Gray (2013) views mentoring among educators as a collaborative process in which mentors and mentees engage in professional activities aimed at expanding particularly the personal and professional development of the mentees. Becoming a 'professional' requires immersion in 'shared knowledge among professionals and by showing agency in the personal adaptation and renewal of that knowledge during professional practice' (Edwards, 2013, cited in Tillema, Van der Westhuizen & Van der Merwe, 2015: 1). Pertinent to this challenge, the study described here explores the extent to which mentoring conversations or communication between lecturers and student teachers may be viewed as dialogues of a more symmetrical nature, thus implying professional learning and growth for both parties, and may contribute to minimizing the 'discrepancies between advocated ... and situated practice' (Clift & Brady, 2005: 331).

1.2   PROBLEM STATEMENT

Teacher education in higher education institutions (HEIs) the world over often comes under scrutiny for its effectiveness in preparing prospective teachers for the practical world of teaching in the classroom (Darling-Hammond, 1999; Korthagen, 2010; Zeichner, 2010). This has motivated several research initiatives for probing the pedagogies and practices of teacher education programmes to identify best practices in training teachers (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Feiman-Nemser, 2008; Kitchen & Petrarca, 2016). An even more intensive critical assessment of teacher training has been required in the South African context since it has evolved from a previously undemocratic, racially discriminatory sociopolitical dispensation to a currently democratic, inclusive dispensation based on quality and equity in educational provision and delivery (Donohue & Bornman, 2014; Gravett, Henning & Eiselen, 2011). It stands to reason that thoroughgoing and continuing transformation of the education system over the past two decades would, in its resultant complexity and diversity in the educational transformation process have entailed numerous challenges not only for prospective new teachers but also for existing ones from the obsolete system (Amin & Ramrathan, 2009; Frick, Carl & Beets, 2010; Gravett et al., 2011).

South African teacher training in the new dispensation has also not escaped the censure that its unresolved inadequacies may be a fundamental reason for the poor academic performance of learners across the board (Masonda, 2016; Wilkinson, Reznitskaya, Bourdage, Oyler, Glina, Drewry, Kim, & Nelson, 2017).The main deficiencies identified by various researchers are

- the divide between the theory presented at training institutions and its relevance or applicability to the practice of teaching (Lortie, 1975; Gravett et al., 2011; Holland, Evans & Hawksley, 2011);

- insufficient role-modelling examples during their training that prospective teachers can hold on to in their initial practice (the so-called 'apprenticeship of observation' (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Kitchen & Petrarca, 2016); and

- inadequate support in preparing these teachers to enact what they have learned in their training – in other words, enabling them to apply theoretical

learning proactively in diverse and complex practice (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Hammerness & Klette, 2015).

Training prospective teachers to traverse the theory–practice divide successfully is essential for effective practice in complex, inclusive learning contexts, but could also cushion novice teachers against the 'practice shock' that they often experience on entering the environment of classroom teaching for the first time (Gravett et al., 2011; Korthagen, 2010). Beginning teachers invariably cite high stress levels as one of the main motivators for leaving the profession (Deacon, 2012). Reasons for these stress levels are commonly associated with the disjuncture between what is taught in the training institutions and what is actually required in the classroom and school, the detached relationship between training institutions and schools, and the disconnectedness between theoretical training and actual working contexts (Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Flores, 2016).

In addition, working in the 'actual contexts' requires prospective teachers to have adequate subject or disciplinary knowledge to interpret 'what' is to be learned and 'how' it is to be learned (Department of Higher Education and Training [DHET], 2015). The teachers also require strong pedagogical knowledge, which entails studying the principles, practices and methods of good teaching. However, prospective teachers also need to develop pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) for combining content and pedagogical knowledge aimed at interpreting and transforming subject-matter knowledge to facilitate student learning (Schulman, 1986 &1987). Specially to bridge the divide between theory and practice, prospective teachers need to develop this practical knowledge through learning 'from' as well as learning 'in' practice (DHET, 2015). The opportunity to develop such practice-based knowledge is afforded by the practical school-experience opportunities provided in the required work-integrated learning (WIL) experiences of teacher qualifications (DHET, 2015). As an initiative aimed at augmenting education at teacher training institutions, WIL strives to equip pre-service student teachers with the skills to develop tacit knowledge as a core component of learning to teach, as well as to increase their situational knowledge through experiencing diverse learning situations, contexts and environments.

Teachers in training require coaching and support to 'enact' being a teacher, which means that they need to be prepared for *acting* like teachers in the classroom. Ideally,

prospective teachers should during their training be equipped with appropriate knowledge and skills that they can apply and adapt effectively in decision-making regarding curriculum, teaching, learning, assessment and many other practical aspects related to interaction in the classroom (Feiman-Nemser, 2008; Kennedy, 1999). In real-life situations, however, it often cannot be assumed that beginning teachers possess the required theoretical and practical expertise to shape and monitor their thinking and actions to achieve maximum effectiveness in the classroom (Darling-Hammond, 2006). Kupetz and Ziegenmeyer (2005) posit that the transfer of knowledge acquired at teacher-training institutions to the actual classrooms does not always occur spontaneously, wholly and effortlessly. Overcoming these problematic issues of enactment leads to the question of how best to achieve effective support to prospective teachers.

This study focuses on the investigation of initiatives aimed at supporting prospective teachers in developing 'knowledge-in-practice,' particularly during WIL. The two best-known models of school practice as presented by Dewey (1904) at the beginning of the twentieth century are still regarded as sufficiently relevant to serve as important points of departure for this study. The knowledge-in-practice approach is guided by two concurrent models, namely an apprenticeship and a laboratory model. These models afford prospective teachers the opportunity to observe, analyse and interpret what is taking place in the classroom – based on the theoretical and practical knowledge developed in the teacher training institution – and to work closely with mentor teachers on whom they can model their practice. Both models provide prospective teachers with information on 'how to teach well', but scholars agree that prospective teachers not only need to be assisted in developing the ability to draw on their previous experiences and actions to make sense of teaching, but also need to be taught to reflect deeply on these experiences (Gravett, De Beer, Odendaal-Kroon & Merseth, 2016; Hammerness & Klette, 2015; Loughran & Hamilton, 2016; Ulvik & Smith, 2011).

Teachers reflect *in practice* every day when making decisions while teaching, but also reflect 'on practice' by thinking deeply about their practice after teaching. Effectual teacher education programmes make provision for opportunities for reflection and examination of teaching practices, and in particular self-reflection and collaborative

reflection with peers and mentors (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Loughran & Hamilton, 2016; Ulvik & Smith, 2011). Such reflection opportunities promote constructive circumstances for discussing and evaluating pedagogies, knowledge, assumptions and challenges in the classroom. Thus, the importance of mentoring as a vehicle for professional development of student teachers is foregrounded.

Adhering to mentoring as a theoretical principle and fostering mentoring relationships in practice are regarded as vital in most work contexts, none more so than in higher education (Johnson, 2016). However, overviews of current research have indicated that in the field of higher education the focus tends to fall on informal mentoring (Johnson, 2016), whereas in corporate organisational contexts it tends to fall on formal mentoring (Li, Malin & Hackman, 2018). To achieve a balance between these focal approaches, the present study concentrated on formalised mentoring but with due emphasis on both formal and informal interaction between teacher educators and student teachers in a particular higher education institution.

As a rule, mentoring relationships are generically assumed to be hierarchical, one-way relationships with guidance given by a more experienced mentor to a lesser experienced mentee, primarily for the benefit of the mentee (Ballantyne, Green, Yarrow & Millwater, 1999; Kochan & Trimble, 2000; Mullen, 2000). However, Tillema and Van der Westhuizen (2006) regard mentoring as more complex than merely a unidirectional, hierarchical process, but rather an important knowledge-production strategy in teacher education. This strategy entails a stronger reciprocal mentoring relationship that is mutually beneficial since the exchanges taking place during the relationship lead to learning benefits for both participants (Kochan & Trimble, 2000; Mullen, 2000). Such mutually beneficial interactions involve exchange, dialogue and reflection, and are of central importance in knowledge production in teacher education (Tillema, 2012). These mentoring interactions may be either directive (explicit, instructive and dominant) or non-directive (reflective, elicitive, and cooperative) but are always aimed at developing the professional expertise of the mentee (Tillema, 2012; Ericson, 2002; 2007).

Studies have indicated that the course of mentoring interaction is generally determined by mentors, but that highly successful mentoring relationships are mostly reciprocal and collaborative (Hughes & Riendeau, 2007). Mentors in reciprocal interactions not

only give advice (Strong & Baron, 2004), but also monitor the performance of mentees through scaffolding (see second paragraph, p. 26) the learning process in dialectic and dialogic ways that allow both mentors and mentees to insert and share new knowledge and understanding (Feldmann, 1999). Gradual removal of scaffolding support may occur only after dialectic exchanges between mentors and mentees through shared knowledge and understanding have ensured that mentees will be able to achieve goals unaided. Reciprocal discourse in mentoring interactions therefore fulfils a crucial function in contributing to the success of mentoring relationships. In this sense, Magano, Mostert and Van der Westhuizen (2010) further noted the importance of conversation in learning about oneself, about others and about interaction among people. In other words, it is through conversational exchanges that people are better able to discover what they know and do not know. Ultimately, each participant in a mentoring context enters into a dialogue not only with his or her interlocutor, but also with his or her own personal knowledge as it is being shared and generated through conversation (Dubberley & Pangaro, 2009). Learning conversations also structurally consist of sequences of interactions, which are organised in terms of verbal and non-verbal utterances, and further encompass turn-taking (see § 4.4.4.1) and repair (Magano et al., 2010).

Mentoring can be regarded as a process leading to the creation of a 'third space', a term coined by Bhabha (1990), in which one party in the capacity of pre-service teacher interacts with another party in the capacity of professionally experienced supervisor in a complex multidimensional relationship (Broadley, Martin & Curtis, 2019) – in other words, between them, two parties create a third mutually enriching environment (a 'safe' place or space as mentioned by Pegg (1999)) through their communication or conversation. Broadley et al. (2019) further emphasise the special value that mentoring can have when focused on critically reflecting on learning experiences. Mentoring can thus be understood as support provided to a *developing other* to become more capable in dealing with life's challenges independently and self-sufficiently (Cox, Bachkirova & Clutterbuck, 2010), which has special significance for empowering beginner teachers. In this respect, as research indicates, mentors play a primary role through their approach to the conversation, their choice of format of the conversation, their selection of focus and topics to be covered, and their initiation, keeping up and ending of the conversation (Edwards, 1995; Hobson, 2004; Strong &

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Baron, 2004). Mentoring practices aimed at stimulating autonomous thinking and action should also include a focus on positing contestable ideas on which mentees are required to reflect, while being respectfully challenged by their mentors (Tillema & Van der Westhuizen, 2015).

The ability of mentors to guide, accompany and even direct student teachers in a 'safe' space towards a common goal (Pegg, 1999; see § 5.5.1) is an essential ingredient of a mentoring interaction. Such *advice-giving* or direction is a typical, everyday conversational activity, generally viewed as 'beneficial to another' and containing a normative dimension in the recommendation for improvement (Vehviläinen, 2001; Waring, 2007:367). Guidance and advice may be direct or indirect, solicited or unsolicited, and accepted or resisted depending on the quality of the delivery in the conversation. In mentoring conversations, advice should ideally assume the form of alternatives offered for evaluation and consideration, and in support of scaffolding and self-directed learning (Hutchby, 1995).

Since advice-giving is implicitly reliant on the assumed or established asymmetry of knowledge and skills between participants (Hutchby, 1995), the ability of mentors to support and advise mentees at emotional, interpersonal and rational levels is thus of paramount importance. Smith and Ulvik (2014) propose that the capability to organise and direct mentoring conversations which are supportive, yet challenging, hinges on the ability to provide productive feedback and feed-forward in teacher education. In research, this ability has been flagged as an area of concern because the type of advice and feedback from mentors is often narrow, particularistic and technical, and does not necessarily lead to mentees' reflecting deeply on their practice (Clarke, Triggs & Nielsen, 2014). This self-reflective ability is regarded as essential to nurturing the capacity to analyse and critique, and to develop own practice (Smith & Ulvik, 2014; Zeichner & Bier, 2015).

Given the context of teacher education imperatives in South Africa, according to which pre-service teachers are required to develop disciplinary, pedagogical, practical, fundamental and situational knowledge pertaining to their professional practice through WIL (DHET, 2015), the contention of this study is that mentoring interactions and conversations after the compulsory WIL serve as essential dialogues aimed at building such knowledge. Consequently, the researcher proceeds from the

assumption that student teachers in teacher education should be assisted and supported towards professional learning through *mentoring talk* in which critical reflection, discussion, comment, advice and recommendations are proffered with a view to developing reflective, situated, and distributed knowledge through discourse and informed participation (Tillema, Van der Westhuizen & Van der Merwe, 2012).

Furthermore, departing from the premise of the generalist or orthodox view that mentoring and indeed advice-giving is an interaction in which the *more knowledgeable and skilled* provides guidance to the *less knowledgeable and skilled*, I contend that an inherent *asymmetry* exists between teacher students and university lecturers because of the intrinsic hierarchical structuredness of the higher education teaching–learning environment. As mentioned earlier in this study, a mentoring interaction with a stronger dialogic and symmetrical approach may potentially be instrumental in not only diminishing the inherent asymmetry in traditional mentoring, but also supporting progress towards knowledge-productive learning, particularly within the teacher education framework.

Research has indicated that the benefits of mentoring can be augmented through approaches such as effective mentoring relationships that *push* and *pull* mentees to share in a safe space (Pegg, 1999), best-practice activities that deepen effective mentoring relationships (Devoline & Harris, 2001; Klasen & Clutterbuck, 2002), initiatives that make mentoring a positive experience (Cranwell-Ward, Bossons & Gover, 2004), and procedures that enhance the characteristics of effective student mentoring in educational settings (Gray & Smith, 2000; Liang, Tracy, Taylor & Williams Liang et al., 2002). There is, however, a paucity of research on how mentors actually work with their mentees in higher education (Chan, 2008). Attaining a better understanding of the modi operandi that mentors employ – and in the case of this study their praxis for advice-giving to mentees in academic context – could assist in adding to the existing body of knowledge about mentoring (Chan, 2008). Studies have also shown that the advice given and feedback provided to pre-service teachers during mentoring focus mainly on technical aspects and methodology of teaching, which is precisely what these teachers expect when entering the mentoring interaction (Lejonberg, Elstad & Christophersen, 2015). It is furthermore apparent that research on mentoring interactions in teacher education centres chiefly on structures,

relationships and dimensions of teaching (Hoffman, Wetzel, Maloch, Greeter & Taylor, 2015). Conversations, on the other hand, and thus by implication the advice given in these interactions, revolve around teaching practices, content, expectations, understanding, strategies and power relationships (Hoffman et al., 2015).

In an increasing shift in emphasis from traditional unidirectional communication to dialogic discussion, classroom discourse studies have also progressed from analysis of teaching and learning strategies to the assessment of the organisational role of linguistics (Edwards & Westgate, 1994), which entailed a sharper focus on the interactional patterns between the participants and how these patterns affect learning outcomes (Badr, 2019). Although these studies are not directly related to mentoring interactions in higher educational contexts, they do indicate that research into mentoring and the way in which mentees are advised requires more than mere interactional and discourse analytic approaches (Badr, 2019). Taking note of only the language moves, the speech acts, turn-taking structures (see § 4.4.4.1), the non-verbal interactional language within a particular social and cultural context may not be adequate to describe what happens between mentors and mentees when advice is given (Nunan & Baily, 2009). Discourse analysis has also not provided clarity on advice-giving in such interactions. Studies have indicated that advice as considered in the orthodox research framework was equated with a 'feedback-follow-up' as part of the 'initiation-response-feedback (IRF)' structure of mentoring interactions (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975), with 'evaluation-turn' (Mehan, 1979) and 'comment-turn' (Markee, 2005) (as cited in Badr, 2019:179). In past research endeavours, the IRF structure was valued for the apparent accuracy that it provided for investigations into mentoring interactions, but because of its rigid nature it failed to accommodate natural patterns in dialogic communication such as interruptions and overlaps typical of normal speech (Edwards & Westgate, 1994). This approach consequently did not allow for an adequate description of what actually takes place in a discussion between participants in a mentoring context. Markee (2005) recommends conversation analysis as the most effective approach for remedying the limitations of the interactional analysis and discourse analysis approaches as it allows for a proper description of what transpires during interactional talk.

Teacher education is generally viewed to include academic knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, educational knowledge and field experience (Dobrowolska & Balslev, 2017). This study addresses itself to one such area of field experience, namely that in which student teachers are exposed to teaching practice in schools while still engaged in their academic studies at HEIs. Dobrowolska and Balslev (2017) consider that formal conversations between lecturers and student teachers concerning their experiences of WIL are important opportunities for professional learning. They also hold that the analysis of mentoring conversations in this respect has great potential for professional learning, particularly in studies on the content of discursive practices and strategies, and the way in which these practices and strategies impact the construction of knowledge as presupposed in teacher education. This approach, these researchers note, departs from 'utterer-centred linguistics' and a 'dialogical approach' to analysing mentoring conversations (Dobrowolska & Balslev, 2017:11). A literature review has revealed that limited research has been undertaken specifically on how advice is given conversationally, and how such advice supports knowledge construction during mentoring conversations.

Against this background and contextualisation, the problem to be investigated in this study is formulated as:

- What is involved in advice-giving in mentoring interactions in higher education settings and how does it contribute to knowledge-productive learning?

The research subquestions that will guide the study are:

- RSQ 1: What is the content-level description of the advice-giving in such mentoring interactions?

- RSQ 2: How is advice-giving conducted conversationally in such mentoring interactions?

- RSQ 3: What are the learning outcomes of advice-giving segments in such mentoring interactions?

1.3 AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF STUDY

The purpose of this study is to analyse and describe examples of advice-giving in mentoring interactions, with reference to the content and conversational method, in order to clarify how mentoring interaction contributes to knowledge-productive learning.

The aim of the study is to explore and describe the mentoring conversations between teacher educators (lecturers) and student teachers in teacher education at a selected HEI in order to analyse and describe how such conversations and advice given in these interactions contribute to knowledge-productive learning.

Given this broad aim, the objectives of the study are to:

i.   identify and describe the content-level of advice-giving episodes in mentoring conversations between teacher educators and student teachers in a selected HEI;

ii.   explore and describe how advice is given conversationally during the mentoring conversations between teacher educators and student teachers in a selected HEI; and

iii. describe the learning outcomes of the advice given during the mentoring conversations between teacher educators and student teachers in a selected HEI.

1.4 CONCEPT CLARIFICATION

1.4.1 Professional learning

Professional learning purposes to improve the knowledge and skills of professionals and encompasses changes and enhancements in thinking to inform practice after due critical consideration (Mayer & Lloyd, 2011). Professional learning also appears to have a socialisation, a human capital and a subjectification purpose according to Kennedy (n.d.). Professional learning socialises a person into a profession, develops critically informed enactments of the acquired new skills and knowledge in practice, and develops motivation, creativity and autonomy.

1.4.2 Mentoring

Mentoring is a contested term which will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter 2. As this study is concerned with educational contexts, mentoring is viewed as the interactions between a more knowledgeable or experienced mentor and a less knowledgeable or inexperienced mentee in supporting, guiding, motivating, encouraging and leading a mentee to develop untapped potential (Varney 2012). Mentoring interactions are considered to be successful if the mentoring relationship is preponderantly reciprocal and collaborative in nature (Hughes & Riendeau, 2007).

1.4.3 Advice-giving

'Advice-giving is a typical, everyday conversational activity *beneficial to another* and intended to shape other's ways of thinking, feeling or behaving' (Chentsova & Vaughn, 2012:688) containing a normative dimension in the recommendation for improvement (Jonas, 2017; Vehviläinen, 2001). Advice could also refer to information or opinion given or received, with the aim to support and guide. Advice can be generic and specific. Generic advice represents accumulated knowledge not directed to an individual, while specific advice relates to accessing the tacit and nuanced knowledge, particularly in relation to mentoring, of a specific person or context.

1.4.4 Knowledge-productive learning

The concept of knowledge-productive learning encompasses three elements to be present in mentoring conversations, namely: (1) gaining clear understanding of issues during interaction; (2) altering and shifting perspectives relative to these issues; and (3) committing to enactment of the new insights and perspectives in own practice (Tillema et al., 2015). As explained in § 1.5.5, knowledge-productive learning is a type of learning in which a perspectival shift is brought about to foster a commitment to the application of newly acquired knowledge and understanding (Tillema & Van der Westhuizen, 2006).

1.4.5 Mentoring Conversations

Mentoring conversations are a form of conversation in which all participants in the process arrive at a goal of knowing and understanding (Tillema & Van der Westhuizen, 2015).

1.4.6 Learning Conversations

Learning conversations are purposively focused on learning about a specific topic. Teachers have an 'epistemic authority' in such conversations and are generally also obliged to abide by institutionally determined conventions and rules as to how the learning takes place, as well as to the outcomes for the learning (Van der Westhuizen, Dunbar-Krige & Bachrach, 2018). Learning conversations also develop situationally (and are therefore adaptive and discursive), acknowledge the immediate context in which they take place (Laurillard, 2000), and serve as scaffolds to guide learners to reflect constructively on their learning progress (Harri-Augstein & Thomas, 1991).

1.5   RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

A theoretical framework is a blueprint for inquiry. It consists of interrelated concepts and theories that guide a study and provides a connection between the researcher and existing knowledge in order to bring structure to the researcher's stance (Mertz & Anfara, 2014). Chapter two presented a detailed exposition of the theoretical framework on which the study is presented, namely Professional learning and Mentoring.

1.5.1   Research approach and paradigm

Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill (2016) suggests that a research philosophy is a system of beliefs and assumptions about the development of knowledge. The interpretive paradigm was selected as a framework for guiding this research since it allows for a variety of realities, experiences and interpretations (Henning, Van Rensburg & Smit, 2004; Merriam, 1998), which means that since reality is multiple and relative (Edirisingha, 2012) it can be investigated through the examination of various social phenomena and constructions such as language, shared meaning and instruments. The interpretive paradigm was considered most appropriate for this study as the study aimed at exploring advice-giving in the context of mentoring interactions between lecturers and student teachers in order to gain an understanding of how advice is given conversationally and how it may contribute to KPL.

An inductive stance (Neuman, 2000) was followed in analysing and interpreting these mentoring conversations, since it is typically a 'bottom-up approach' that is generally

associated with qualitative research (Gabriel, 2013). The qualitative and descriptive approach used for the study was selected as the most appropriate investigative method because it is aligned with the interpretivist paradigm. Moreover, as Lichtman (2012) notes, it provides the researcher with a platform for attaining an in-depth understanding of social phenomena within educational settings, in this case the social phenomenon of advice-giving. For the purposes of this investigation, a qualitative approach would therefore facilitate the generation of new theory from exploring and analysing the mentoring conversations between lecturers and student teachers. The study is also exploratory and descriptive in nature to gain a better understanding of the phenomenon being investigated, but with no intention of offering final, conclusive evidence (Dudovskiy, 2018). The advantages of this exploratory approach include flexibility and adaptability, which may contribute to laying the groundwork for future studies.

Social research entails a systematic inquiry into or investigation of particular aspects of the social world (Quinlan, 2011). In this study, mentoring interaction between lecturers and student teachers was investigated. Interaction between people is complex, which leads to researchers' endeavour to investigate the complexity of interactions. Researchers gain a deeper understanding of interactions and their impact through these inquiries. Therefore, this study follows a qualitative research approach, which is investigative, grounded in an interpretative research paradigm.

1.5.2 Research design

Ethnomethodology was selected as the most appropriate research design since it is best suited to studies investigating talk-in-interaction in which the focus is placed on how understanding is situated and sequentially organised between participants (Mondada, 2011; Ten Have, 2004). As a method of sociological analysis of how people construct a reasonable and shared view of the world through everyday conversations, ethnomethodology was designed to explain how people interact with each other and with society at large – not to facilitate research judgements on human behaviour or its causes (Flick, 2014; Heritage, 1984; Seedhouse, 2004). Ethnomethodological analysis departs from the concept that meaning is 'reflexively created, self-generating, and context dependent' (Pascall, 2011:112), and thus describes the collaborative, shared construction of meaning between people in a specific context. As a research

design for this study, it was selected to enable the researcher to observe ongoing, everyday interactions of mentors/mentees to ascertain how they interacted in mentoring conversations about a particular WIL experience, and how the advice given in this shared space supported knowledge-productive learning.

Conversation analysis scrutinises naturally occurring talk, specifically 'talk-in-interaction' as defined by Schegloff (1987:101;Ten Have, 2007:3), which in the case of this study concerns conversations between lecturers and student teachers. The units of analysis employed in this investigation included sequence organisation (see § 3.4.4.1) and response preferences as conversational dimensions of mentoring to clarify the nature of advice-giving in terms of content and process: what the advice is about, and how it is given and received. The ethnomethodological design was highly appropriate for this approach.

Ethnomethodology furthermore allowed the researcher to explore and describe the 'member's methods' (Heritage, 1984:4), i.e. methods that people use for ordering their everyday lives in an organised and meaningful way, with a strong emphasis on analysing verbal interactions in everyday talk or institutional or professional conversations (Flick, 2014; Garfinkel, 1967; Van der Westhuizen, 2012). These methods were particularly relevant in research assessment of the interaction between lecturers (mentors) and student teachers (mentees) in mentoring conversations after the latter's compulsory WIL, specifically with reference to the role of advice-giving by lecturers in promoting knowledge-productive learning.

1.5.3 Selection of participants

University lecturers (as representative of mentors), and student teachers who were involved in mentoring conversations after the completion of their compulsory WIL period (as representative of mentees), were purposively selected for participation in this study, which was conducted at the university of Johannesburg. Purposive selection is a non-probability sampling technique used to select specific participants according to specific criteria from a defined study population that ought to meet the aims of answering the research questions best in a study (Creswell, 2014; Fester, 2006; Trochim, 2006).

The larger project of which this study forms part, namely the Mentor Conversation Research Project between the University of Johannesburg and Leiden University in the Netherlands, is aimed at clarifying 'the role of knowledge in mentor-mentee interactions in order to recommend improvements for the preparation of students for their teaching practice' (Pretorius, 2013:2; Van der Westhuizen & Tillema, 2011:1). The selection of mentors at the University of Johannesburg was based on voluntary participation. In their role as lecturers, the participating mentors were requested to conduct mentoring conversations with student teachers on issues relating to the students' learning experiences during the WIL, which had been captured in personal reflective essays. During these conversations, the lecturer-mentors would engage in advice-giving about the student-mentees' concerns, which allowed the researcher to understand and descry be the advice-giving process and its possible contribution to knowledge-productive learning, i.e. to analyse the research problem and formulate possible answers to the research questions as recommended by Creswell (2014).

Finally, the selection of participants for this study was co-determined by a consideration and singling out of those mentoring conversations that appeared to meet the criteria of containing clearly identifiable episodes of advice-giving and feedback (see § 4.5.2 and § 5.2.2).

1.5.4 Data gathering

All lecturers involved in the departmental project at the HEI were requested to identify and contract with one or more student teachers who had completed their WIL to participate in the study. These students were requested to write reflective reports about their experiences during WIL, highlighting any issue that they would like to discuss with the lectures. These reports were read by the lecturers before holding conversations with students.

The sources for data collection consisted mainly of mentoring conversations between university lecturers and student teachers during which they gave close consideration to the reflective reports and students' experiences. The mentoring conversations took place at a suitably arranged time in the lecturers' offices and were audio- and video-recorded with the necessary ethical consent. Ethnomethodological studies generally imply data collection using either direct observations of the unit of analysis, or indirect observations through audio- and video-recording, or both the direct and indirect means

(Ten Have, 2008). Video-recording as a qualitative research method captures spontaneous, transitory verbal and non-verbal behaviours, which is an essential requirement in gaining deeper insight into the mentoring interactions (Penn-Edwards, 2004:4).

1.5.5 Analysis framework and procedure

Considering the research questions and aim of the study as stated in § 1.2 and § 1.3, the focus of the analysis was on explaining the content-level of advice-giving and interaction patterns between the lecturers and the student teachers in relation to knowledge-productive learning. This type of learning is operationalised in this study as interaction that leads to deeper understanding, eventually developing into a perspective shift and commitment to apply the newly acquired knowledge and understanding and to engage in a collaborative relationship with the mentor (Tillema & Van der Westhuizen, 2006).

Analysis of the subquestions of the study required conversational analysis procedures (specifically for RSQ 1 and 2), as well as qualitative content analysis (specifically related to RSQ 1 and RSQ 3). An inductive approach to the analysis of the data was followed. The analysis framework is discussed in detail in Chapter 4.

1.6 TRUSTWORTHINESS

Trustworthiness in the study was guided by Lincoln and Guba's (1985) model that includes the application of the principles of credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability.

To ensure credibility, the researcher strived to explain the context of the mentoring conversations within the broader project. The researcher also provided a clear exposition of the research design and methodology, including the data collection and analysis as aligned with the focus and aim of the study.

Quality preparation of the data collected was ensured by using the services of a transcriber qualified in the Jefferson method of transcription of the recorded interviews for accuracy, which was essential for the analysis of the conversational data. All data were thus captured in audio, video, and transcribed formats which, along with

accompanying video material, will be stored safely and confidentially at the University of Johannesburg for security and ethical purposes.

Transcriptions were scrutinised by members of the broader project, the project leader and assistant researchers for exactness by comparing them to the actual video-recordings before any analysis commenced.

Transferability in this study was attempted by providing detailed accounts of the conversational levels and examples of advice-giving to support the data analysis and findings. Care was taken to ensure that analysis methods were aligned with acceptable methods of conversation analysis as proposed by prominent authors in the field. Full records of the data collection and analysis have been supplied as appendices to allow for scrutiny and possible replication in similar contexts.

To achieve a measure of dependability, a clear audit trail of the data collection and data analysis has been provided. This involved provision of all records of the learning-mentoring conversations, data-analysis process and notes, and all related documentary evidence. All coding and analysis of the collected data were discussed with independent members of the project, as well as the supervisor, before presentation of the findings.

1.7   ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

As the current study is part of the larger project on mentoring conversations at the University of Johannesburg, and the same participants, data-collection instruments and procedures, as well as written informed-consent documentation were used for the larger project, the ethical clearance given for the project by the University's Faculty of Education Academic Ethics Committee applied (see Appendix A). The researcher adhered to the ethical principles set out below.

1.7.1 Informed consent and self-determination

All participants in the study were requested to grant their written informed consent to participate in the study (see consent letters explaining the nature of the study; Appendix B). Participants were informed beforehand that their participation would strictly be voluntary, were made aware of all requirements that might be posed to them

during the course of the study and were advised of their right to withdraw from the study at any time without any repercussions or penalties.

1.7.2 Confidentiality and anonymity

All participants were assured of their right to privacy and anonymity in that they would not be identified in any way or that their identities would not be made known to anyone except the researcher and supervisor of the study. In maintaining participants' anonymity, the researcher would discuss original data sets only with the supervisor. Measures taken to ensure the security of these sets and sources of information for the study, as outlined in the third paragraph of § 1.6, were also explained to the participants.

1.7.3 Minimisation of harm

Participants were not only made aware of their right to decline to participate in the study without any ensuing disadvantages but were also informed of their right to withdraw from participation at any stage during the course of the study. They were assured, furthermore, that if their participation should at any time give rise to feelings of disquiet, such experiences would receive immediate attention and appropriate assistance would be provided by the necessary university structures. Participants were finally reassured that the researcher's interest was solely professional in gaining a deeper understanding of mentoring conversations and the role that advice-giving fulfils in them.

1.7.4 Open and honest feedback and distribution of findings

It was also explained to participants that the content and findings of this study would only be used for research and development purposes in the University, and that the final manuscript would be available from the researcher for perusal. According to normal procedure, the study would after completion become part of the University's repository of completed research available electronically in its library.

1.8 SUMMARY AND DEMARCATION OF CHAPTERS

In this chapter, the context and rationale of the study was discussed and aligned with the research problem underpinning it. Thereafter, the research question was postulated, namely 'How is advice given in mentoring interactions between lecturers

and student teachers to facilitate development of knowledge-productive learning?' This was followed by the pertinent subquestions that guided this study in its given aims and objectives. The section was followed by a brief discussion of the research methodology as a qualitative ethnomethodology within an interpretivist paradigm.

Chapters 2 and 3 will be devoted to literature reviews and the scrutinisation of the leading concepts that could be gleaned from them for guiding this study. Primary concepts such as professional learning and mentoring will be the focus of chapter 2, while conversations and advice-giving will be elucidated in chapter 3.

Chapter 4 will provide a detailed explanation of the research paradigm, design and methodology, data collection and analysis, measures for trustworthiness and ethical considerations of the study.

Data-analysis procedures and findings will be the focus of Chapter 5, whereas Chapter 6 will conclude with a critical discussion of results, the limitations identified in the study, and reflections on recommendations for practice and future studies.

CHAPTER 2
PROFESSIONAL LEARNING AND MENTORING
IN HIGHER EDUCATION

2.1   INTRODUCTION

In this study's wider exploration of practices of advice-giving in settings where mentors give advice to student teachers, the current chapter is aimed at clarifying – via the available research literature – how such mentoring practices may contribute to meaningful and knowledge-productive learning. The chapter focuses on explicating the theory of professional learning and its role in teacher education, since mentoring is central to the professional preparation of teachers. Professional learning (frequently abbreviated as PL in the literature) is discussed in terms of its features, approaches to its development and the advantages that it may yield, after which different views on mentoring and mentoring processes are examined. The various roles and responsibilities of participants in mentoring situations are outlined before closer attention is given to the function of mentoring of professional learning. The chapter concludes with a consideration of the implications of the theoretical perspectives for the empirical study.

2.2   WHAT IS PROFESSIONAL LEARNING?

2.2.1 Concept of professional learning

Although the terms professional learning and professional development are often used interchangeably in practice, particularly in the teaching profession, they have subtle but clearly distinct meanings in theory. Mayer (2011), for example, defines professional development as referring to formal and informal activities that nurture knowledge, skills and other features associated with a particular profession, and professional learning as referring to the actual changes in the thinking, knowledge, skills, approaches and habits of mind that are relevant to the profession. Thus, whereas professional development activities should result in professional learning, the latter relates to how the professional's capability to practise is adapted and changed.

Professional learning is regarded as an internal process that is central to the process of professional becoming (Mockler, 2013), which includes proactive learning aimed at

the development of knowledge, skills, practice and identity. Professional learning is conceptualised in the literature in terms of six fundamental characteristics (Royeen & Kramer, 2013). It is distinctly associated with the fundamental knowledge and skills applicable to a specific profession, which entail 'academic knowledge, theories, understanding of research and the skill to become familiar with changes in society that relate to knowledge' (Royeen & Kramer, 2013:26). It can therefore be viewed as a sustained effort to build personal capacity, expertise, and agency for change over an extended period of time.

The key theories on professional learning will next be discussed.

2.2.2 Theories of professional learning

2.2.2.1 Key elements of professional learning

The salient theories on professional learning – which provide insight into how learning takes place, what needs to be learned, and what the most effective ways are to achieve the objectives of learning – may assume either a more individualistic or a more social learning perspective (Philpott, 2014). The key differences between the two main types pertain to the descriptive or prescriptive nature of the theory, the focus on either the individual characteristics or the social context in the learning, the accent either on how learning takes place or on what is necessary to learn, and whether the theory is informed by empirical studies or an expansion on existing theoretical models (Philpott, 2014).

Features of professional learning as garnered from general theory on learning suggest that professional learning:

- is unequivocally a social activity;
- encompasses more than simply knowledge and reasoning that learners are aware of, but also includes aspects of the unspoken and implicit knowledge with which they enter into the learning process, as well as the influence that their identities may exert on learning;
- should provide for learning for specific learners at specific times, and not only for learners in general (i.e. it should thus be highly individualised); and
- implies formal learning contexts, but also learning in everyday contexts (Philpott, 2014).

2.2.2.2 Experience theories

Experience theories of professional learning indicate that learning takes place predominantly in the following ways.

LEARNING THROUGH EXPERIENCE

The experiential learning cycle as proposed by Kolb (1984) starts with a concrete experience that is then reflected upon, after which new learning for practice can be developed (Philpott, 2014). Philpott considers this model problematic in terms of professional learning as it relies on cognitive processes to attend to problem-solving and learning without taking other factors such as the affective orientation, values or identity of learners into account (ibid., 2014:7). He further mentions that the theory relies strongly on the individual with little attention given to sociocultural factors that could lead to restrictive professional learning (ibid., 2014:8). A danger inherent in this kind of professional learning is that particular institutional practices and cultures may be perpetuated since individuals may interpret their experiences in such a way as to maintain consonance with the prevailing models of learning and practice.

LEARNING THROUGH REFLECTIVE PRACTICE

Schön (1990) has proposed that professional learning takes place by reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action. The former relates to thinking while one is doing and adapting what one does while doing. The latter is similar to reflection in experiential learning (Philpott, 2014) and leads to thinking about adaptations of practice for the future. An important focus of Schön's (1993) theory is that professional learning requires personal construction of contextually relevant and adaptable solutions to the ever-changing practice and problem situations that the professional may face. This concept is supported by Clandinin and Connelly's (1996) view that teachers develop personal practical knowledge through reflective practice-based professional learning. Teachers and facilitators are thus required to provide multiple avenues for learning experiences to allow learners to engage critically with their initial conceptualisations of experiences and to 'rethink their experiences so that perspectives change and practice (action) is improved' (Freed, 2003:44). Philpott (2014) is in accord with this viewpoint and advocates deepened reflection and encouragement of new conceptualisations in professional learning,

rather than a technical-rationalist approach in which new or existing theory, research or practices are provided in professional training and development with the expectation that the professional learner will apply these in own practice.

2.2.2.3 Eraut's Theory

A prominent theory about how professionals learn in the workplace is that of Eraut, who has proposed the following:

- Professional knowledge and learning are both individual and social (Eraut, n.d.: 2; Eraut & Hirsh, 2007; Philpott, 2014). Since knowledge is also socially constructed, the way in which individuals navigate through their social contexts will affect what they learn and know.

- Knowledge and learning are influenced by 'unnamed' or 'embedded' cultural knowledge in the workplace, which is generally learned implicitly and informally because of immersion in the work environment. This suggests some acknowledgement of situated learning (Brown, Collins & Duguid, 1989; Lave & Wenger, 1991) with the implication that how professionals learn is influenced by the situations in which they find themselves, as well as by the way that the knowledge and learning were used, or expected to be used, in those situations (Eraut, n.d.:3).

- Eraut and Hirsh (2007:25) further posit that professional learning for novices, although formalised in the workplace, is more likely to occur more informally through advice-giving and feedback by other members of the profession, and not only by those formally assigned to assist them in their professional learning. Eraut (quoted by Philpott, 2014:26) suggests that professional learning in the workplace will be influenced by the knowledge that learners develop through enculturation in the workplace, experience gained through social interaction and reflection, informal learning opportunities, and growing understanding of own ability, beliefs and disposition.

Professional learning thus implies that professional learners develop professional knowledge by integrating the 'unnamed/embedded' knowledge in the workplace, own implicit, experience-based knowledge, and codified knowledge through collaboration and conversation in a supportive environment.

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2.2.2.4 Communities of practice

Lave and Wenger (1991) have theorised that collaboration and collective endeavours function more effectively if they are formalised as communities of practice (CoPs):

- CoPs imply that professional learning takes place through participation in practices that are highly specific to a particular context and therefore situated in that context (Philpott, 2014). They imply furthermore that professionals learn not only what is explicitly needed for the profession, but also about who they are, what skills, practices and implicit knowledge they possess, as well as who they relate to and how they do it (Eraut & Hirsh, 2007).

- Positive key features of CoPs that researchers have put forward (Stoll, Bolam, MacMahon, Wallace & Thomas, 2006:226) include shared values and vision, collective responsibility, reflective professional inquiry and collaboration. These features are decisive in developing commitment, accountability, mutuality, interdependence, shared purpose, and promotion of group and individual learning in professional learning.

- CoPs may afford opportunities for the development of restrictive and expansive learning (Fuller & Unwin, 2004). Restrictive learning relates to learners' learning only what their role requires of them – the learners as individuals remain on the periphery. Expansive learning allows learners to participate in the mainstream practices and experiences of the community, and even to cross boundaries between communities to expand their learning (Philpott, 2014).

2.2.2.5   The Cultural-Historical Activity Theory

Professional learning should not, however, be viewed as a self-contained process in learners according to the Cultural-Historical Activity Theory (CHAT). This view of professional learning draws on Vygotsky's concept of cultural mediation (Andrews, Walton & Osman, 2019), which asserts that all learning activity as a corpus is enabled and interceded by the tools and artefacts developed and used historically by a specific culture. The following salient features are relevant.

CO-CONSTRUCTED CULTURE

Vygotsky (1978) reasons that the development of cognition and indeed learning takes place through interactions and communication with others since social

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environments exert a decisive influence on learning processes. A main tenet of Vygotskian theory is that developmentally and historically speaking the cultural development of humanity occurred twice (Vygotsky, 1978:57). Higher mental function occurred first at the social level between people (interpsychologically) and then at an individual level (intrapsychologically) (Kozulin, 2012). Vygotsky thus proposes that culture is the main determining factor for constructing knowledge since cultural development is a historical process in which the learning interaction takes place, serving as a lens for interacting with others. Professional learning interactions are thus guided by the rules, skills and abilities shaped by a particular culture (Cole, 1985). Professional learning spaces, therefore, should be viewed as shared spaces where co-construction, collaboration and negotiation are effected in developing knowledge and understanding (Haenen, Schrijnemakers & Stufkens, 2003). In professional learning contexts, facilitators and mentors can create a learning environment that optimises learners' ability to interact with each other through discussion, collaboration and feedback. Facilitators or mentors thus play a vital role in creating the environment in which directed interactions can occur.

CULTURAL TOOLS

Considering that people create their knowledge and world (for that matter) through the dialectic interaction between themselves and their sociocultural environment, the ways that they mediate this learning become important. Wertsch (2007) has emphasised the use of cultural tools to mediate learning, especially language as an important sign system and instrument in the stream of communication that mediates knowledge building.

SYMBOLIC INTERACTION

In further alignment to this theory on professional learning, Symbolic Interaction Theory (SIT) (Aksan, Kisac, Aydın & Demirbuken, 2009) can be put forward as it proceeds from the assumption that all meanings are constructed through reciprocal interaction between people. SIT posits that human beings have the ability for thought which is formed by interaction, socially constructed meanings and symbols, and that they are able to adjust and adapt meanings and symbols which they use in interactions by having an understanding of the situations in which they are involved (Carter & Fuller, 2015; Mead, 1934). Individuals thus give individual meaning to objects in their surroundings, and all interaction within a

social or cultural context must take these individual meanings into account, but also continually create and recreate new meanings due to the interpretations formed in the interaction (Blumer, quoted by Carter & Fuller, 2015:2).

MEDIATION AND ZPD

Sociocultural theory also posits that people learn in active participation with the 'more knowledgeable other' (MKO), which refers to any person who has a better understanding or a higher ability than the learner about a specific task, process or concept (Vygotsky, 1962). This mediated learning experience alerts us to the value of the 'zone of proximal development' (ZPD), which indicates the dynamic relationship between learning and development and is described as the 'distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem-solving and the level of potential development as determine through problem-solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers' (Vygotsky, 1978:60). ZPD has become equated to the scaffolding concept coined by Wood, Bruner and Ross (quoted in Mutekwe, 2018) and implies that as learners gain in learning and proficiency, the various means of support provided by mentors – 'scaffolds' – can gradually be removed to allow for independent learning and action.

Mediated learning thus implies the subject and object have a reciprocal relationship (Roth & Lee, 2007) and are influenced by the cultural tools used, meaning that the nature of one can only be understood if the nature of the other is taken into account. Subjects and objects in initial learning may also circulate within the relationship and could become tools for mediating future learning (Roth & Lee, 2007).

CULTURAL AND HISTORICAL CONTEXT

Specific theories, beliefs and practices in any professional learning environment are thus also regarded as culturally and historically determined and will influence the approaches used and eventual conclusions reached (Philpott, 2014). This foregrounds the individual learner as part of a specific cultural and historical context that will influence what and how the learner learns professionally. The theory highlights that professional learning is a social process, and, intertwined

with the existing and developing cultural tools as products of the context, leads to socialisation.

CHAT as a theory of professional learning also emphasises that because learning activities are collective and involve the community (Philpott, 2014), they are influenced by the dialectic relationship between the person learning, what is learned and how this learning is mediated. According to Philpott (2014), the value of CHAT in describing professional learning lies in identifying and resolving any historically accumulated tensions in the professional context that may influence the learning.

2.2.2.6 The Clinical Practice and the Apprenticeship Models

Two final theories on the functioning of professional learning display similar features that allow them to be discussed together.

THE CLINICAL PRACTICE MODEL

As related to clinical practice, this model foregrounds key features such as the importance of spending time in practice, focusing on clients, developing clinical reasoning, assessing the impact of the learning, and improving the quality of the learning experience (Philpott, 2014). It is of crucial importance to place professional learners in an authentic learning situation – a principle that also holds good for pre-service teachers in schools, where practice and learning are reflected on in terms of what the outcome of activities in practice are and how to improve them in relation to the 'clients' being served. Planning and structuring such 'clinical' experiences in terms of allocated time, proximity to practice sites, and evidence-based practice are essential to allow for effective professional learning through this theory (Philpott, 2014:56-7).

THE APPRENTICESHIP MODEL

Implying the replication of existing practices, this model is not without contention. It proposes that an expert should demonstrate how an activity is to be completed, allow the apprentice to complete parts of the activity, and gradually grant more responsibility until the apprentice is competent to complete the activity alone (Collins, Seely Brown & Holum, 1991). This model relies heavily on scaffolding, coaching, and multiple 'experts' and a subculture in which all participants are

members (ibid., 1991:2).Apprenticeship involving reproduction of existing, generally routine practices is not conducive to professional learning as conceptualised in some of the above-mentioned theories in which critical engagement, collaboration and complexity of conceptualisations are envisaged. However, the view taken of apprenticeship learning is closely related to what the 'craft' knowledge of a profession is believed to be (Philpott, 2014). Considered as 'field learning' involving reflectivity and reflexivity (Royeen & Kramer, 2013), it may have value in certain circumstances such as work-integrated learning experiences where students studying to become teachers are expected to develop proficiency in subject and pedagogical teaching/practice.

COGNITIVE APPRENTICESHIP THEORY

This theory brings the implicit cognitive and metacognitive processes of expertise to the fore so that they can be seen and practised with assistance (Collins et al., 1991). Cognitive apprenticeship also attempts to situate abstract activities in context for clearer understanding by apprentices. As a learning theory, it requires furthermore that acquired knowledge and skills should be transferable to a variety of contexts as being professional learning that apprentices are able to apply independently to new situations (ibid., 1991:3). The cognitive apprenticeship model thus requires making visible underlying processes, procedures and principles in what is to be learned; situating the learning in authentic and relevant contexts to support understanding; and providing a variety of applications for the transfer of the learning to be effected (ibid., 1991).

2.2.2.7 Professional learning in essence

From the theories discussed, professional learning can be regarded as a 'growth-in-practice model' in which active engagement, reflection and social collaboration are prized (Martin, Kragler, Quatroche & Bauserman, 2014:147). Taking ownership, being creative, entering into conversation and inquiry, focusing on deep understanding, and practising reflection that is goal directed toward deeper learning – all within a community context – are key aspects of being a professional learner (ibid., 2014:149).

Being at the heart of professional development, professional learning should therefore constitute the main focus of any professional training, development and/or education, either formal or informal, with the main aim to advance professional knowledge,

competence, skill and effectiveness (Mayer & Lloyd, 2011:3). Such development and learning opportunities can take the form of workshops, training sessions, conferences, presentations by consultants and in-house developmental programmes (ibid., 2011).

The improvement of professional practice is an important outcome of professional learning (Burley & Pomphrey, 2011), which by its very nature is enabling and should allow professionals to make judgements when faced with uncertain situations – an ability that is a prerequisite for renewal and change. Brockbank and McGill (quoted by Burley & Pomphrey, 2011) have elaborated on this view by noting three levels of outcomes for professional learning, namely improvement, learning about leaning, and transformation. *Learning for improvement* requires reflection (Kolb, 1983; Schön, 1990), whereas *learning about learning* relies on meta-learning as 'awareness and understanding of the phenomenon of learning itself' (Eze, Ezenwafor & Molokwu, 2015). Both these levels, however, require taking a step back to judge the professional learning that has taken place and how such learning can be carried into future situations. Such an assessment requires a high degree of crystallised knowledge and skill, being reliant on the type and number of professional learning experiences. *Learning for transformation* is of particular importance in professional learning as it allows for the analysis and appraisal of underlying theory and ideology in professional practice to extend the focus on improving the practice (Burley & Pomphrey, 2011).

2.2.3 Constituting professional learning

As noted in the literature, professional learning theories display three generic features in being situated, contextual and practice-oriented (McCulloch, Helsby & Knight, 2000). Their role as essential features in these theories are clarified below.

2.2.3.1 *Situated professional learning*

Usually being unintentional rather than deliberate (Lave & Wenger, 1990), situated learning is characterised by the interrelatedness of the activity, the authentic context, and the specific culture in which it occurs. Professional learning as being *situated* assumes that the learning is social, unintentional, contextual and cultural (ibid., 1991). Learners (in a general sense) actively participate in such learning situations through cooperative activities located in real and genuine activities of daily life. They engage in the learning situations with the prior knowledge that they possess. Situated learning

thus implies that the new knowledge generated is embedded in the learning activity, the specific context, and the culture where it will be used (Oregon Technology in Education Council [OTEC,] 2007). Learners are challenged to reflect critically on their own and other participants' existing knowledge.

Therefore, professional learning in particular contexts – for instance, by pre-service teachers in classrooms – may be intentionally planned, but may also lead to unintentional learning. Such unintentional learning can be determined by, for example, the type of participants involved in the learning situation, the physical surroundings, and the social and/or cultural backgrounds of those involved.

2.2.3.2 *Professional learning as a contextually determined activity*

The second feature, namely that professional learning is contextual in nature (Lave & Wenger, 1991), emphasises that such learning occurs in specific contexts and in specific social and physical environments. Thus, all learning will not only be largely dependent on the context in which it occurs but will also be shaped by it. A learning context is viewed as a set of circumstances or conditions that prevails when learning takes place (De Figueiredo, 2005). Learning consequently entails more than mere delivery of content: to be understood in depth, it is necessary to consider not only the interaction, activity and learning contexts involved, but also the fact that learning requires an activity-rich, interaction-rich and culture-rich environment in which to flourish (ibid., 2005).

Owing to the importance of learning context and social interaction, professional learning is often equated with learning taking place in communities of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Interaction in the learning activity taking place between professionals (communities of practice), thus implies collaboration, cooperation and transformative work. During social interaction in communities of practice, novice members often learn by observing experienced members of the community, an activity referred to as 'vicarious learning' (Bandura, 1977). Through this observational learning, novice members gradually migrate from the periphery of the community, eventually to become fully participating members at its centre.

In Lave and Wenger's (1991) view, learning should not be perceived as merely being the transmission of abstract and decontextualised knowledge from one individual to

another, but as a social process in which knowledge is co-constructed. Individuals are social beings who, in different contexts, interact with each other, participate, and learn from and with each other (Gravani, 2007). Therefore, learning is not only an individual but also a social activity.

Collaborative inquiry has emerged as a principal form in developing professional learning in the twenty-first century (De Luca, Shulha, Luhanga, Shulha, Christou & Klinger. De Luca et al., 2014:640-641). It extends the idea of community, cooperation and engagement by including a broader base of participants into the collaboration, and by focusing on the strengths and assets needed to make significant gains in the professional learning. De Luca et al. (2014) have identified a cyclical process of dialogic sharing, action and reflection, co-construction through dialogic interaction, supportive leadership and environmental structures, as well as collegiality as some of the main characteristics of collaborative inquiry towards developing shared knowledge and understanding.

2.2.3.3 Professional learning as embedded in practice

Professional learning is practice-oriented, which means that it is fundamentally built on an educational process aimed at fostering 'the unity of the emotional-figurative and logical components' of content to obtain new knowledge (Khalikova & Gilmanshina, 2017:247). This approach allows for learning that not only 'makes logical sense', but also for learning that can signal emotions and even 'visions' which can transcend logical and typical boundaries of content and 'known' knowledge. Such learning includes the development of different experiences at the cognitive and affective levels through interaction and collaboration in activities, characterised by the traditional didactic triad of 'knowledge-skills-skills' and extends learning to rather be charactised by a didactic structure of 'knowledge-skills-skills-experience' (248). With reference to learning based on the traditional didactic triad, knowledge and skills are passed on from teachers to students who eventually, after assimilating the knowledge and skills, increase their own skills level (Zid, 2017). In the case of the latter didactic triad, the increased skill levels achieved in the traditional triad are augmented by additional different experiences by way of interactions, collaboration, participation and learning activities. These practical experiences in learning activities are considered so

significant that interaction in which individuals construct 'new knowledge' cannot be overemphasised (Khalikova & Gilmanshina, 2018).

Reich and Hager (2014) have propounded perspectives on the practice–theory relationship to explain and problematise the notion of practice in order to re-conceptualise professional learning. Their proposed framework provides a nuanced and comprehensive analysis of the manner in which professional learning entails an intertwinement between theory and practice. In their 'practice–theory perspectives' as an approach to illustrate changing views of professional learning and to foster new ways of thinking about it, they propose six 'threads of practice' for consideration (ibid., 2014):

- Knowing in practice refers to practices that connect professional learning to knowing, practising and innovating.
- Socio-materiality in practice refers to professional learning that occurs in socio-material arrangements in human, non-human objects and artefacts.
- Embodiment in practice refers to practices that are not only limited to cognitive functions in people, but also embodied in their own and between other bodies and material things. Therefore, practice is integrally dialogical, interactional and co-constructed between people and material things.
- The relationship between practice and professional learning involves the interaction between humans and the material world, including technologies.
- Practice does not exist or evolve in isolation since it has been shaped and will continue to be shaped by historical and social contexts.
- The emergent nature of practice implies the evolving and change of learning and practice over time.

These threads underscore the interactional nature of learning – professional learning in particular – as occurring between the learner, the environment and different contexts. Learning, according to these threads, is embedded in how the learner interacts with the material world, others and even technologies to create and build new ways of knowing and doing. It is also apparent that learning requires engagement over time and is in continuous flux. Like generic types of learning, professional learning as a specific type thus takes place in different ways or forms.

2.2.4 Forms of professional development and learning

As discussed in § 2.2.1, professional learning and professional development are concepts that are used interchangeably. The researcher adheres to the definition of these terms as provided by Boylan and Demack (2018:340) and views professional development as the actual activity of experience that the professional learner engages in, whereas professional learning points to the outcome of such activities and experiences.

Various forms of professional development are delineated in the literature, mostly in the field of continuous professional development. Kennedy (quoted by Boylan & Demack, 2018:341) has proposed forms of professional development that range from a focus on transmission to emphasis on transformation. Transmissive forms accentuate providing professionals with knowledge, skills and practices for implementation, while transformative forms foreground greater critical thought and autonomy as outcomes of the activity. Forms of professional development would thus include:

- professional training, in which development of skills and competencies are the focus, and often taking the form of an 'expert' training a 'less competent' other according to a pre-set programme;
- award-bearing and accredited professional development as part of an accredited program at an HEI;
- professional development with a performance-management focus aimed at addressing deficits or weaknesses identified;
- professional development through a cascade model according to which dissemination to other professionals is expected;
- professional development based on standards aimed at developing a range of competencies;
- professional development through coaching and mentoring that assumes a degree of asymmetry and hierarchy between the coach/mentor and the coached/mentee, and may lead to some transformation in the professional learning;

- professional development through CoPs that assumes collaboration and collective knowledge building, which may lead to transformation and greater collective cohesion and responsibility as part of the learning outcomes; and

- professional development through engaging in action research aimed at the development of critical thought and transformative development of practice.

Sachs (2011) has proposed the following categorisation of the forms of professional development and learning:

- *Retooling*: A technical approach to learning in which skills, knowledge and practices are foregrounded for application in existing situations.

- *Remodelling*: An extension of existing practices by experts in the field to enhance the performance of the professional.

- *Revitalising*: Encouraging more reflective practice both in-practice and on-practice with a focus on developing collaborative and supportive systems and networks.

- *Reimagining*: Developing more dialogic and authentic learning that presupposes critical, creative and transformative action. Learning in this category will favour 'taking risks, being different, fostering inquiry, and extending collaborative learning and social relations' (ibid., 2011:161).

Opfer and Pedder (2011) further posit that professional learners' own point of departure in terms of prior experience will influence how they respond to the professional development opportunity and resultant professional learning. The extent to which professional learning occurs will thus be influenced by who the professional learners are as well as the learning interaction, particularly in professional learning instances that involve mentoring.

Hunt (2018) states that dialogic conversations between coaches/mentors and their mentees are valuable for professional development which is aimed at supporting professional learning as outcome. Such conversations allow for a questioning stance, multiple perspectives, criticality, collaboration and negotiation of new meanings (Boyd & Markarian, 2015), and should be free and equal in that all contributions are equally valued, valid and respected. Equitability assumes relinquishing of 'power' on the one hand and committing to collaboration on the other. It is also by definition then

transformative and meaning-creative since constant interaction allows for greater shared understanding and the generation of new or different knowledge. Pertinent to the focus of this study, fostering of solidarity and respecting parity between participants in dialogic learning are important principles: pre-service teachers may be hampered by the assumption that their teacher educators 'know more' whereas they as mentees have to develop increased awareness of their own ability to generate and shared understanding and knowledge (Flecha, 2000; Plaza, 2010).

2.2.5 Effective professional learning

Professional learning presupposes the enhancement of professional knowledge and skills. Ensuring that professional learning undergone is therefore achieving what it is supposed to, will thus not only benefit the development of the learner (the pre-service teacher), but also enhance the knowledge and skills of the instructor (or lecturer). Moving from the generic features and types of professional learning to the issues pertinent to this study, the *effectiveness* of professional learning must now be considered. If professional learning is to be successful, it should take place in authentic learning contexts through dialogic practice and therefore embrace its situatedness in order to cultivate deeper and nuanced understanding and knowledge of the theory–practice relationship that is operative in its particular field or discipline. Professional learning effectiveness is thus fundamental not only to improving the practices of educators, trainers or instructors, but also to enhancing and building student learning.

Authentic settings may enhance greater effectiveness in learning as students/learners learn by doing, thus acquiring foundational skills, knowledge and an understanding of how to apply these attainments in real-life or authentic situations. Related skills such as critical thinking, problem-solving, formal scientific observation, note-taking, research methods, writing, presentation techniques, and public speaking are also augmented (Philpott, 2014). Authentic learning therefore enables learners to explore, discuss and meaningfully construct concepts and relationships in contexts that involve real-world difficulties and tasks relevant to them (Donovan, Bransford & Pelligrino, 1999).

Effective professional learning should be evident when deeper learning occurs, which refers to academic knowledge and cognitive skills that students obtain. Including critical thinking, problem-solving, collaboration and learning to learn, these skills

enable students to think flexibly and creatively, and to transfer and apply their learning from one context to new, unfamiliar situations. If such transferral is apparent, the professional learning has been effective.

Distributed learning is a universal term describing a multi-media process of instructional delivery, including Web-based instruction, video-conference streaming, face-to-face classroom time, distance learning through television or video, or any combination of electronic and traditional educational models. This learning focuses on learner-to-learner as well as instructor-to-learner interaction. Learning interactions with others, the material world and technologies as threads of professional learning are essential to such learning taking place. Distributed learning has the potential to promote more dialogic, collaborative and practice-based professional learning.

In summary, professional learning is situated, contextual and practice-oriented. In this study, it is viewed as being embedded in practice where learning takes place in interactions between teacher-educator/lecturers and pre-service student teachers in classrooms and workplace settings. Because professional learning is context specific, learning activities need to be authentic and practical, offering opportunities to reflect deeply on learning and experience. Practices should link professional learning to knowing, practising and innovating in socio-material arrangements. Consequently, practice is intrinsically dialogical and interactional in the co-construction of knowledge and skills between people and material things.

2.3   PROFESSIONAL LEARNING IN TEACHER EDUCATION

2.3.1 Introduction

As observed in Chapter 1, a concern in teacher education is that it is regarded as extremely theoretical, fragmented, loosely connected to practice and lacking in a shared vision of teaching and learning (Darling-Hammond, 2005). In counterpoise, professional teacher learning assumes the development of abilities to digest theoretical and conceptual knowledge, but also to relate this learning to actual practice in the classroom. Teacher education programmes and support are thus charged with the vital responsibility to develop teachers in the twenty-first century who have the ability and inclination to transform the curriculum for appropriate structuring and

delivery in the classroom (Darling-Hammond, 2005). How teachers therefore learn professionally will be discussed in this section.

2.3.2 Professional learning in teacher education

In § 2.2.2, professional theories were discussed in their generic presentations that may be considered relevant to all professions. In this section, professional learning as specifically affecting teacher education and preparation is discussed.

Professional preparation is a challenging and dynamic process, as Royeen and Kramer (2013) have noted. These authors have furthermore underscored a particularly difficult and ill-defined issue in teacher education, namely how to assist novice teachers in dealing with the many nuances of teaching in which teachers are expected the keep the needs of all learners in mind while having to adapt their instructional practices to ever-fluctuating situational contexts in classrooms. Furthermore, developing professional practice in which knowledge, skills and attitudes become visible and enhanced is achieved best in practical settings, such as work-integrated learning experiences (Trede & Higgs, 2010).

Professional learning in teacher education encompasses learning in and through genuine experiences and activities within the school (Geijsel, 2009). Professional teacher learning involves teachers as active participants in the planning and implementation of such learning opportunities with the singular purpose of questioning existing practices, reflecting on these critical considerations of practice and the learning associated with it, but – importantly – also engaging in conversation with peers and experts outside their domains about improving practice and enhancing learning (Wood, 2007).

In viewing the aim of professional learning as bettering professional practice in teaching, Brockbank and McGill (2006) posit three outcomes for such learning, namely improvement, transformation and learning about learning. The first, *improvement*, reflects on and questions experiences to improve performance, which incorporates learning about learning. Such meta-learning allows the becoming teacher to identify and gauge the learning that has taken place and to reflect on the value that the learning may have for transference to the actual practice of teaching. The second outcome, *transformation*, extends the professional learning to not only reflecting on the current

performance, but also acquiring a critical stance towards institutional and personal practices (Burley & Pomphrey, 2011). As a third outcome, professional learning thus requires *learning* and development of different types of knowledge and skills in teacher education, of which experiential learning in the workplace is foregrounded (Burley & Pomphrey, 2011). Experiential learning is regarded as a prerequisite for the creation of new knowledge and understanding by way of critical reflection on experience (Dewy, quoted by Burley & Pomphrey, 2011.)

The importance of learning in the workplace, particularly through professional learning communities, has been evidenced in research (Geijsel, Sleegers, Stoel & Kruger, , 2009; Horn & Little, 2010; Msomi, Van der Westhuizen & Steenekamp, 2014; Wood, 2007). Social interactions in professional learning communities allow teachers to pose problems, question practices and seek solutions by drawing on the knowledge of other professionals in a collaborative and non-judgmental fashion. Teacher professional learning is thus a process that spans the period from pre-service teacher preparation to workplace learning through constant collaboration and mentoring. It is, furthermore, a cyclical process in which novice teachers become the mentors and collaborators of future pre-service teachers (Msomi et al., 2014).

2.3.3 Situated and mediated perspectives on professional learning of teachers

In extensive research on the professional learning of teachers, Borko (2004) and Adler (2000) have arrived at the conclusion that it is a predominantly situated endeavour. Other researchers such as Lave and Wenger (1991), as well as Ponte (2010), have noted that situated learning includes learning that occurs through participating in activities bound to social, cultural and physical contexts, which also entail practical, procedural knowledge. Adler (2000) concurs that teacher learning constitutes a process in which participation in the practice of teaching increases teachers' knowledge in and about teaching. Teacher professional learning thus refers to a dual process in which teachers learn and become knowledgeable about teaching through participating in the socially constructed reality of teaching, but also through active personal construction of knowledge. Teachers are thus mandated to engage actively in learning opportunities to improve their thinking, professional knowledge, skills and attitudes to ensure that their practice is critically informed and up to date (Durksen, Klassen & Daniels, 2017). The perspective of situatedness may, however, be regarded

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as limited in that learners are exposed chiefly to direct and current context-based practical knowledge (Ponte, 2010); in other words, knowledge that may become outdated.

Ponte (2010:72) maintains that mediated learning requires reflection on experiences using the academic knowledge to 'transcend the immediate context', and cites Popper's metaphor of three worlds as the main reasoning behind the mediated perspective. Thus, the academic knowledge and theories of teaching, the unique and personal experiences of being in the role of teacher, and the reality of practical teaching in the classroom, are mediated to understand and improve practice (ibid., 2010). Constructing own knowledge through focused interaction, collaboration and dialogues, underpinned by social constructive learning theory, is considered to be essential. Social learning through the mediation of mentoring will allow pre-service teachers to make sense collaboratively of what they are experiencing in their exposure to WIL (Livingston & Schiach, 2010; Nkambule & Mukeredzi, 2017; Simmie, De Paor, Liston & O'Shea, 2017).

In support of this view, Burley and Pomphrey (2011) cite the three models of learning put forward by Watkins et al. (2002), namely the *instruction model* in which learning takes place through teaching, the *construction model* in which deeper understanding is achieved, and the *co-construction model* that entails a dialogic, experiential and mediated process involving a mentor to further accentuate the need for the mediated perspective. The present study proposes that mentoring and mentoring conversations are practices which may therefore be better suited to the construction and co-construction models in supporting professional learning of teachers.

2.3.4 Purpose of teacher professional learning

It is important that new teachers develop and hone their professional learning through workshops, seminars or other developmental opportunities, which will contribute to ongoing improvement of their knowledge, skills and practice. These endeavours form part of continued professional development (CPD), whose purpose it is to enhance the expertise and competencies of professionals to remain effective and proficient in their field of expertise (Filipe, Silva, Stulting & Golnik, 2014). The medical profession is the one in which CPD principles are most commonly applied. According to the Health Professions Council of South Africa (HPCSA, 2017), all registered health professionals

are required to engage in CPD and must accumulate 30 continuing education units per year to enhance their personal and professional integrity and expertise. CPD is thus pivotal to supporting professionals in their current occupational roles and assisting with career progression. In the field of education, CPD is not only essential for teachers entering teaching practice but also for individuals currently functioning in the teaching profession in order to remain up to date with the latest developments and theories in education. Boud and Hager (2012:26) mention that the concepts of 'participation, construction and becoming' imply an active involvement of individuals in practice, agency and change. Such involvement forms an important part of teaching professionals' individual CPD.

2.3.5 Factors determining effective professional learning in teacher education

This subsection is devoted to the characteristics of effective teacher education programmes as proposed by Darling-Hammond (2000) in a study carried out under the auspices of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE). This research was aimed at identifying characteristics of teacher education programmes that were recognised as exemplary in preparing teachers for teaching in an increasingly diverse student setting. Darling-Hammond's report has highlighted the following six shared characteristics of highly effective teacher education programmes:

- A coherent vision of teaching and learning, that is to say, a well-planned teaching and learning view for teacher education programmes, is important to facilitate student teachers' professional learning (ibid, 2000).

- Theory requires to be translated to practice. Although student teachers generally have a well-articulated understanding of teaching and learning, they need guidance of lecturers and good mentors to construe what they learn in their modules and what they experience in schools and classrooms. Furthermore, they need insightful lecturers to guide them through reflection and mentoring to explain their own teaching experiences through their understandings derived from learned formal educational theory (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Kwenda, Adendorff & Mosito, 2017).

- Carefully crafted field experiences are an essential component in student teachers' professional preparation since they gain teaching practice and experience when undertaking their practice teaching in schools and the actual

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classroom (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Lux, 2013; Jacobs, Hogarty & Burns, 2017).

- Active pedagogy that includes modelling and reflection. In the theory and practice of teaching, student teachers require the skill to reflect on and model their practice to influence and enhance student learning (Darling-Hammond, 2000).

- Focus on the needs of diverse students. It is important for student teachers to acknowledge and understand that each individual is unique. Individuals differ according to race, gender, socio-economic status, age, beliefs and academic ability (ibid., 2000).

- Collaborative interaction and participation between colleagues are not only important to enhance professional learning of teachers but also to augment student learning (ibid., 2000).

If these shared characteristics of effective teacher education programmes are valued (Darling-Hammond, 2000), their incorporation into teacher education, training and mentoring processes will enrich professional learning. These characteristics will also influence student teachers' thinking and reflection skills when applying them to their own teaching practice. Student teachers will improve their techniques, skills and application of how to translate theory into practice in collaboration with others.

Consequently, it is essential in teacher education that student teachers should not only be skilled in content knowledge, but also in 'how to teach these knowledge concepts' to learners (ibid., 2000). It is important to assist student teachers in translating theory into practice, a concept that needs to be a core component in teacher education programmes.

In addition to the above factors, reflection, dialogue and criticality are identified by Burley and Pomphrey (2011) as key components of effective professional teacher learning. In respect of *reflection*, Boud (2010) argues for a less individualistic slant towards a more contextually based and collaborative stance through co-construction, mentoring and coaching. Such reflections should lead to critical inquiry rather than mere interrogation of practice. *Dialogue* is thus key to co-construction and, according to Brockbank and McGill (2006), will result in transformative learning. Through interaction of its dual components of inner dialogue and collaborative dialogue,

meanings are socially constructed in a continual cycle. *Criticality* is a particular disposition in which persons are persistently reflecting and inquiring with the aim to understand and to transform (Banegas & de Castro, 2016). Criticality develops through reflection over a longer period and is enhanced by collaboration and interaction with mentors. The importance, nature and outcomes of these interactions will therefore be focused on next.

2.4 THE NATURE OF MENTORING IN PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND LEARNING

2.4.1 Reassessing the traditional view of mentoring

Mentoring is widely regarded as a decisive strategy in leadership development and professional learning (Thornton, 2015) because it serves as a way to support, guide and motivate mentees towards developing their untapped potential (Varney 2012). Unique to mentoring situations, however, is the nature of the relationships between the participants, as well as the kind of influence expected in these relationships. Popular, orthodox views of mentoring relationships invariably presume that mentoring interactions will involve a more experienced or knowledgeable person's sharing and transferring knowledge and skills to someone less experienced or knowledgeable (ibid., 2012). Yet, several research sources, usually more recent ones, also point to a relationship that is more collaborative, mutual and even (Asada, 2012).

Mentoring cannot be regarded simply as a voluntary and natural relationship to enter into. Although this view may generally hold for informal mentoring relationships in which mentees have the choice of mentors, most other more formal mentoring relationships are based on the expertise and experience of mentors and not mere conventional compatibility between the participants (Thornton, 2015).

On account of dedicated recent research, mentoring has come to be viewed as a form of professional, learning-accentuated guidance, growth and improvement of individual abilities, and serves as a principal instrument for improving, constructing or co-constructing knowledge in professional learning. In a highly apt summation, Tillema and Van der Westhuizen (2013) posit mentoring as an important vehicle for making *practical knowledge explicit*. They also emphasise that mentoring is important to educate apprentices professionally and promote further professional learning.

2.4.2 What is mentoring?

2.4.2.1 Introduction

In this section, theoretical perspectives on mentoring are the subject of consideration. The discussion will focus on the differences and similarities between mentoring and coaching, different conceptions of mentoring, contestations in the concept of mentoring, dimensions of mentoring and the role of mentors in this process.

2.4.2.2 Mentoring versus coaching

Mentoring and coaching display several similarities and differences as indicated in the literature (Clutterbuck, 2012; Fletcher & Mullan, 2012). In many cases, the definitions, terminology and even models are used interchangeably, often leading to uncertainty and even confusion about what precisely is being dealt with. Mentoring is also seen to involve coaching, counselling and facilitation towards the required outcome according to Luneta (2013) – with the concept of coaching in particular giving rise to ambiguity in delineating mentoring as such.

Coaching, whether viewed separately or as part of mentoring, is aimed at improving an individual's performance and is therefore primarily performance driven. Coaches assist coachees in meeting their specific goals (Parsloe & Wray, quoted by Dennen & Burner, 2007), and coaching processes thus focus more explicitly on the transfer of knowledge and skills to develop coachees' competencies. A good coach therefore understands this process, but is also knowledgeable and skilled enough to assist with development in a specific context (Luneta, 2013). Content and successful performance appear therefore to be more important in coaching than the relationship between the coach and coachee.

Mentoring, on the other hand, foregrounds the development and relationship levels between mentors and mentees since it is preponderantly a transformative process whereby novices develop into experts (Royeen & Kramer, 2013) Moreover, the mentoring process is normally of a long-term nature and linked to personal and professional development (Fletcher & Mullan, 2012).

Mentoring and coaching appear to have similar intentions in being aimed at improving individuals' performance and knowledge, but their differences are rooted in their purpose, process and learning outcomes (Brockbank & McGill, 2006). The purposes

of both mentoring and coaching are related to the particular professional contexts in which they are applied and are therefore underpinned by the specific views, cultures, conventions and practices of those contexts. In general, both are aimed at developing professional learning and at fostering individual or institutional change (Brockbank & McGill, 2006). A functionalist approach prevails when the purpose is simply to improve performance, whereas an evolutionary approach favours the social construction of new knowledge for the purpose of critically reflecting on and fostering change, whether in individual or institutional context.

Although there are distinct similarities and differences between mentoring and coaching, Clutterbuck (2009:1-4) is of the view that 'both coaching and mentoring are at root about open learning dialogue'. Clutterbuck (2003) further articulates a framework for mentoring and coaching that consists of the key variables of context, process and outcome. *Context* will invariably contain the physical context of the interaction; the particular participants engaging in the interaction; underlying status, diversity and power relations; individual, institutional and societal goals; and dominant discourses in the institution (Clutterbuck, quoted by Brockbank & McGill, 2006:32). Regarding *process*, attention is focused on specific strategies for interaction, the nature and quality of dialogue and collaboration, choice of approaches used, and the underpinning theory of professional learning (Clutterbuck, quoted by Brockbank & McGill, 2006:32-33). *Outcomes* of all mentoring and coaching interactions will depend on what learning is aimed at in the interaction, the quality of the professional learning relationship, the extent of resultant learning or change, and the transferability of this learning or change (Clutterbuck, quoted by Brockbank & McGill, 2006:33).

2.4.2.3 *Conceptualising mentoring*

The concept of mentoring is rooted in ancient Greek mythology and literature. In Homer's *Odyssey*, Odysseus entrusts to Mentor, his trustworthy friend, the care of his household and the responsibility to guide and support his son, Telemachus, while he fought in the Trojan War (Clutterbuck, 2009; Daloz, 1987). Mentor was particularly tasked with assisting Telemachus 'to grow intellectually, emotionally and socially' (Luneta, 2013:1). Therefore, the original meaning of mentoring relates to a person who possesses certain personal or professional expertise and who invests this expertise –

along with energy and time – in fostering the growth and ability of another individual through a developmental process (Luneta, 2013; Shea, 1997).

Scholarly definitions of mentoring are many and varied, and differ even in context of a specific field of academic research such as teacher education (Luneta, 2013). Mentors in general are seen as 'Helpers + Sharers + Carers', implying that they have to accept the responsibility of not only supporting, guiding and advising their mentees, but also of 'emancipating' them (Baird, 1993b; Baird, 1994). Emancipation implies that mentors should guide mentees in becoming more self-directed or independent in any given task until they are able to complete the task on their own (Jones, 2013).

In current standard definitions, mentoring is firstly viewed as a process (Smith, 2007), entailing a one-to-one interaction between an expert and a novice, aimed at growing an individual at professional, personal and career level (Lord, Atkinson & Mitchell, 2008; Schunk & Mullan, 2013). Smith (2007) further notes that mentoring involves the holistic development of a person since development in any one specific characteristic resonates in all other characteristics because of being interlinked.

Although Lai (2010) notes the general characteristics of mentoring such as relational, developmental and contextual dimensions, Schunk and Mullan (2013) distinguish between traditional and contemporary components of mentoring. They describe traditional mentoring as one-to-one 'mentor-protégé' interactions in an informal setting, which, as Fletcher and Mullan (2012) have observed, are aimed at nurturing or developing knowledge and skills personally and professionally. Contemporary mentoring, on the other hand, has shared commonalities with theories of learning, self-regulation, adult development, organisational behaviour, leadership and systems operations (Orland-Barak, 2010; Schunk & Mullan, 2013).

Kwan and Lopez (2005) describe mentoring as both a relationship and a process, Heikkinen, Jokinen and Tynjälä (2008) – with similar implications – regard the mentoring relationship and process as a dialogue. It is during dialogues or conversations that individuals realise what they know and what they do not know, and consequently construct new or better-informed ideas or opinions (Magano, Mostert & Van der Westhuizen, 2010). Fairbanks, Freedman and Kahn (2000) further support Kwan and Lopez's (2005) description of mentoring as 'relationship and process' but

include 'context' as a third and significant component. Consequently, Lai's (2010) corresponding appellation of relational, developmental and contextual dimensions of mentoring will be employed as a useful framework in this section. It is significant to note, however, that Ambrosetti and Dekkers (2010) have observed that the three components of relationship, process and context are not explicitly expressed in many of the mentoring definitions found in the literature, but for the purposes of this study they are considered to be pivotal in investigating the phenomenon of advice-giving in mentoring interactions aimed at fostering knowledge-productive learning in higher education settings.

The *relational dimension* refers to the relationship and interaction between mentors and mentees (Lai, 2010). It constitutes a *socially constructed power relationship* that, in Hansman's (2003) view, can be either helpful or hurtful to mentees because of the power vested in and exercised by mentors.

Lai (2010) considers the *developmental dimension* of mentoring as a tool to promote the professional and/or personal development both of mentors and of mentees. This dimension relates to the collaborative, cooperative and reciprocal nature of the mentoring interaction and implies the development of deepened understanding of theory and practice. The developmental dimension thus foregrounds the traditional view of mentoring as being the development of a *novice* in the 'hands of the expert' – which alludes to an asymmetrical, hierarchical relationship (Kochan & Trimble, 2000:21-24; MacCallum, 2007) – and proposes a shift to a shared, reciprocal, co-constructed mentoring learning conversation relationship (Clarke, 2004; Keogh, 2010; MacCallum, 2007). Such a *two-way* reciprocal relationship indicates that mentors and mentees can learn from each other in an equal, non-hierarchical association.

The *contextual dimension* of mentoring focuses on the cultural and situational characteristics of mentoring settings (Lai, 2010). This dimension of the present study is very specific in investigating teacher education as taking place between mentors (lecturers) and mentees (student teachers) after the compulsory school WIL experience of the latter. Understanding and navigating the teaching profession require more than merely completing course work at HEIs and acquiring the certification to teach. It is also essential that pre-service teachers become acutely aware of a broader view that requires them to learn within a specific community (the school as

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organisation), of their position as part of a professional team, and of developing an understanding of the multidimensional role of being a teacher (Todd, 2012).

In addition to these dimensions, Luneta (2011) calls attention to Yeoman and Sampson's (1994) exposition of the structural role dimension applicable to mentors, which relates primarily to planning and structuring the conditions that will allow for the development of mentees in whatever setting mentoring may take place. This supportive role dimension entails assisting mentees in feeling comfortable, appreciated, safe and secure in the mentoring interaction. More importantly, the role dimension requires mentors to aid mentees in developing the specifically needed professional skills, knowledge and competence by means of the mentoring interaction.

That mentors and mentees should acknowledge and be cognisant of the different dimensions that they must engage with are essential prerequisites for ensuring the successful outcome of any mentoring interaction. In this study, due consideration was given to these dimensions and roles in the analysis of mentoring conversations that may lead to a deeper understanding of the way in which knowledge is negotiated and constructed.

2.4.3 Phases in the mentoring processes

2.4.4.1 Chief aim of the mentoring process

Wong and Premkumar (2007) describe mentoring as an intentional, nurturing and insightful process. In other words, it is a planned process according to which mentors gradually develop mentees towards achieving their full potential and thus attaining their goals. Consequently, mentoring is an interactive and developmental process between mentors and mentees for the purposes of reciprocal support, knowledge building and professional learning (Luneta, 2013).

2.4.4.2 Different phases in the mentoring process

Mentoring processes comprise different phases or stages (Kram, 1988; Zachary, 2000), with the literature indicating that researchers differentiate between four or five such phases (Clutterbuck, 2001; Clutterbuck & Lane, 2004). Irrespective of the number identified, it is evident from research that any effective mentoring process requires a definite structured approach consisting of phases, each with a specific goal towards attaining the eventual outcome.

Kram (quoted by Jones (2013) and Zachary (2000)) distinguish the mentoring process as a four-phase process consisting of initiation, cultivation, separation and redefinition. Although Zachary (2000) concurs with the number of phases identified by Kram, he uses a different appellation for them, namely preparing, negotiating, enabling and closing. Clutterbuck and Lane (2004), however, have added a fifth phase to their listing of building rapport, setting direction, making progress, winding down, and moving on (see Figure 2.1).

Figure 2.1: Different phases in a mentoring process (Clutterbuck, 2001)

The mentoring-process phases occur in both formal and informal mentoring settings, but the time spent on each phase may differ, depending on circumstantial needs and mentees' grasp of new concepts and how to apply them in a specific context. Careful planning is required in the early stages of the mentoring process to create an open, safe and trusting space in which mentors and mentees can spend time and discuss the best ways of working together.

2.4.4.3 *Clutterbuck's mentoring phases*

Each of the five different phases in the mentoring process, according to Clutterbuck (2001), has particular characteristics as discussed below.

PHASE 1: RAPPORT BUILDING

This is an exploratory process in which mentors and mentees get to know each other (Jones, 2013). They establish a set of basic principles for interaction (Clutterbuck & Lane, 2004) and for the remaining sessions adhere to what they have agreed upon. It is essential to keep mentoring conversations confidential because it forms a cornerstone of trust in the mentor-mentee relationship.

PHASE 2: DIRECTION SETTING

In this phase, mentors and mentees make their goals and expectations known to each other (Jones, 2013). These goals may be adjusted according to circumstances or be replaced with new ones as they are achieved. The expectations and perceptions of mentors and mentees can affect their relationship and may influence their learning experience negatively (Hodges, 2009), therefore clarifying them at the outset of the mentoring interaction is essential.

PHASE 3: PROGRESS MAKING

During this, the most dominant and active phase in the mentoring relationship, mentors and mentees revisit their initial goals and keep track of their progress. Mentors need to assist mentees in defining and committing to personal or professional change as mentees may have indicated. This is also the phase in which deeper understanding and transformative learning begins, and mentors are therefore required to navigate mentees carefully and skilfully towards these goals. Mentor behaviour during this phase is mainly to assist, guide, and challenge and support mentees to achieve their goals in any given task on a personal, professional or career level (Jones, 2013).

PHASE 4: WINDING DOWN

This stage may entail a phasing out of the regular, organised mentoring meetings and conversations when these have generally provided and met the desired outcomes and mentee expectations (Clutterbuck, 2005). Mentors, however, remain available to guide and support mentees if assistance is required.

PHASE 5: CONTINUING INFORMALLY OR MOVING ON

During this phase, mentees and mentors still engage in interaction, participation and conversation, but maintain only a routine professional friendship (Clutterbuck & Lane, 2004).

Each phase involves an adjustment of mentors' behaviours, skills and competencies (Clutterbuck, 2005). The five phases are generally clearly observable in formal mentoring programmes but are more indistinct in informal mentoring settings. Mentoring conversations as discussed in § 3.3.2 may be either formal or informal, and each conversation tends to follow its own structure and phase. It is within these phases

of mentoring conversations that skilled mentors can weave the mentoring phases as posited by Clutterbuck (2005) effortlessly and seamlessly.

2.4.4 Roles and responsibilities in mentoring

2.4.4.1 Roles of mentors

The research literature concerning the roles and responsibilities of mentors indicates a great variety of multifaceted activities, behaviours and roles that are primarily of a helping, guiding and supporting nature (Clutterbuck & Lane, 2004; Hay, 1995). In a mentoring setting, mentors listen to mentees' ideas and concerns, talk through career issues, and utilise their own experience and knowledge to counsel and coach the mentees. In the main, therefore, the mentor's role is that of wise counsellor, trusted adviser, friend and teacher (Shea, 1997). Baird (1993b) adds further nuance to this view by means of similar qualifying adjectives: '*caring* listener, a *critical* friend, and a *concerned* adviser' (emphasis added). Provident (2005) aptly clarifies the role of a critical friend as that of a trusted person who asks challenging questions, provides information to be studied through another lens, and critiques a person's work as a friend. These different role aspects are vital in mentoring conversations and advice-giving because they contribute to creating a 'safe space' (see § 5.5.1) in which mentors can exercise their empowering function as their mentees' trustworthy counsellors.

Provident (2005) lists activities and behaviours that support mentees with developing a vision, provide feedback in non-judgmental language, challenge them to work towards their goals and facilitate learning and reflective practice. These activities and behaviours find constructive expression specifically in advice-giving aimed at guiding mentees towards deeper understanding and transformative learning in mentoring conversations (Provident, 2006). The specific skills, activities and behaviours for advice-giving are explicated in § 3.4.

Mentors perform their responsibilities in particular ways referred to as mentoring styles. Clutterbuck (2001) has distinguished between directive and non-directive, as well as nurturing (emotion-directed) and stretching (intellect-directed) mentoring styles.

Hennissen, Crasborn, Brouwer, Korthagen and Bergen (2008:174-175) describe the *directive* style as 'authoritarian, informing, critical instructive, corrective and advising'.

When mentors give direct, straight or explicit advice to mentees in a mentoring conversation, the mentoring style is strongly directive and generally identifiable as the mentoring style predominantly observed in untrained mentors. They tend to prefer an instructive and critical mentoring style in which limited opportunity exists for collaborative and reciprocal social construction of new knowledge.

Hennissen et al. (2008:174-175) describe a *non-directive* mentoring style as 'reflective, cooperative, guiding and elicitive', and the skills required for that are 'asking questions, guiding to develop alternatives, reacting empathetically, summarising and listening actively'. A non-directive mentoring style is one that would most likely meet the requirements and the features of professional learning as expounded in this chapter. Such a style will also be well suited to roles and role dimensions associated with effective mentoring.

A *nurturing* (emotion-directed) mentoring style implies the caring, developmental or encouraging style in which mentors interact with mentees. A *stretching* (intellect-directed) mentoring style refers to the way in which mentors probe, scaffold and stretch the intellectual capacities of mentees to guide them to a better, more insightful understanding of problems or new concepts (Clutterbuck, 2001).

A directive mentoring style is thus more prominent in the initial mentoring stages, but as the mentoring interaction progresses the style will gradually shift to a more stretching (intellectual) approach. The outcomes will be beneficial for mentors as well as mentees because they will co-construct 'new' knowledge and solutions for difficult concepts.

2.4.4.2 Roles of mentees

Although most of the sourced literature focused on the roles and responsibilities of mentors, mentees also have certain obligations to fulfil in the mentoring interaction. According to Provident (2005), mentees need to demonstrate the desire to learn, be able to communicate effectively, understand how to formulate questions, and listen attentively to establish an effective mentoring relationship with their mentors. Mentees also need to aspire to improve their array of skills and ultimately work toward a set goal for their careers. As mentees can initially feel intimidated by their mentors due to the 'perceived asymmetry' in the relationship, the responsibility for facilitating

'openness, trust, respect, and optimism' so that mentees may embrace their roles rests with mentors, whose behaviour should be 'invitational' (Van der Merwe & Van der Westhuizen, 2015:201-203).

2.4.5 Value of mentoring

Mentoring is not only beneficial for mentees, but also for mentors and the organisation. Clutterbuck (2009) mentions several mutual benefits for mentors and mentees.

Mentees derive benefit from mentoring settings as these provide valuable professional and personal learning opportunities. Apart from the advice and information provided by mentors – through which mentees will constantly be challenged constructively to reflect on their own practice and move towards professional learning as explicated earlier – there is also the benefit to mentees of developing a more nuanced view of their own capabilities through enhanced self-awareness and self-confidence (ibid., 2009).

Mentors benefit from mentoring in different ways than mentees. On the one hand, it provides an opportunity to mentors to reflect on and refresh own views of their knowledge, competence and skills. On the other hand, it enables mentors to develop professional relationships and proactive roles in learning in the reciprocal development with mentees during the process (ibid., 2009).

A significant mentoring benefit for any organisation is a higher staff retention rate since mentoring promotes a climate of professional development and encourages commitment of staff members to the institution. The mentoring process also enhances individual performance, communication skills and general well-being in an organisation (ibid., 2009).

Galbraithe and Cohen (1995:7) note that the benefits of mentoring are not only work related but also provide 'individuals with opportunities to enhance culture awareness, aesthetic appreciation, and potential to lead meaningful lives', which are important skills in dealing with diversity in the workplace and life.

2.4.6 Factors influencing effective mentoring

A variety of factors can influence the efficacy of mentoring. Mullen (1994) has noted that since mentoring relationships involve reciprocal perceptions and information

exchange between mentors and mentees, trust and respect are of the essence in regulating mentoring interactions. As a 'critical element in all human learning' (Rotter, quoted by Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999), trust is a vital component in any mentoring setting to enable effective and successful mentoring opportunities through relationship building and improving learning (Leck & Orser, 2013; Montague, 2010).

If mentors and mentees share common goals and expectations, both parties will benefit from the mentoring process. Differences in objectives and aspirations will, however, impair the mentoring process, mentoring relationship and learning experience (Jones, 2013). Particular consideration should therefore be given to potential obstacles posed in mentoring settings by the beliefs, values, language and background (culture) of mentors and mentees, which are more likely to differ than to accord (Provident,2005) Therefore, it is important for both parties to appreciate and accept each other's differences and capitalise on similarities.

Gender composition (same-gender or cross-gender) plays a significant role in the effectiveness of mentoring. A number of studies have indicated variations in the effectiveness of same-gender and cross-gender mentoring (Allen, Day & Lentz, 2005), considering the evidence that mentoring is most effective in same-gender relationships, especially if women are mentored by women (Leck & Orser, 2013). Cooper and Hingley (quoted by Leck & Orser, 2013), for example, have observed that women appear to interact more easily with female mentors, as female mentees find female mentors to be more consistent role models to reflect female behaviour, and also relate more easily to other women by whom they do not necessarily feel threatened in the interaction. Furthermore, female mentees find it more difficult to reflect the male behaviours or dispositions presented by male mentors in a cross-gender mentoring setting. Enhanced role-modelling behaviours seem therefore more likely to result from same-gender than cross-gender mentoring since effective, positive psychosocial mentoring experiences appear to be associated with same-gender mentoring (Allen, Day & Lentz, 2005).

The above factors are of great importance to determine the efficacy of mentoring, as well as the relationship between mentors and mentees.

2.4.7 Mentoring in teacher education

2.4.7.1 Introduction

According to Ambrosetti and Deckers (2010), mentoring in professional workplace contexts is well-established practice that has become more widespread in recent years, specifically in education and teacher education. Mentoring in education has increasingly been implemented as a way to support student teachers as they embark on learning to teach (Ambrosetti & Decker, 2010; Lui, 2014; Wong & Odell, 2002). Foci of mentoring in education in general and teacher education in particular have centered on mentoring of practising teachers by other teachers, mentoring of pre-service teachers learning-from-practice (also the focus of the current study), and mentoring of pre-service teachers learning-in-practice through learnerships in which practising teachers become the mentors.

Against the background of the factors that may influence effective learning (see § 2.4.6), heed must be paid to Fairbanks, Friedman and Kahn's (2000) caution that mentoring in teacher education should take note of the complex social interactions that mentor teachers and student teachers construct and negotiate for a variety of professional purposes, especially in response to the contextual factors that they encounter. Mentoring relationships are by their very nature assumed to be hierarchical, one-way relationships in which guidance is given by a more experienced mentor (in this study the lecturer) to a lesser experienced mentee (the student-teacher), primarily for the benefit of the mentee (Ballantyne, Green, Yarrow & Millwater, 1999; Kochan & Trimble, 2000; Mullen, 2000) and not necessarily that of the mentor.

Reciprocal mentoring, on the other hand, is mutually beneficial since exchanges taking place during the relationship lead to the learning benefit of all participants (Kochan & Trimble, 2000; Mullen, 2000). Such interactions involve dialogue and reflection, which are imperative in the deepening of understanding and in producing new knowledge. Reciprocal mentoring is therefore a pivotal strategy for ensuring effective mentoring to achieve knowledge-productive learning in teacher education (Tillema, 2012; Tillema & Van der Westhuizen, 2006).

Mentoring has been shown to be highly effective in assisting teachers to progress or evolve their personal and professional growth, and to enhance their self- and professional knowledge (Tillema & Van der Westhuizen, 2015). In particular, dialogues and conversations between mentors and mentees (lecturers and student teachers) should create safe spaces for student teachers to explore and ponder about their experiences, knowledge and own expertise (Pegg, 1999). Mentoring conversations should allow for the collaborative exchange of views on pre-service teachers' experiences of existing practices. Such socially constructed interactions will enable these teachers to reflect critically on their current knowledge and practices and how to add and apply 'newly' formulated knowledge to their own teaching practice (Lui, 2014). The main goal of mentoring conversations in teacher education is thus to enhance pre-service student teachers' professional knowledge and transform existing teaching practices (Hennissen, Crasborn, Brouwer, Korthagen & Bergen, 2010).

2.4.7.2 Effective mentoring in teacher education

Mentoring relationships, beliefs, values, language, background and gender composition were discussed in § 2.4.6 as possible factors that influence effective mentoring. Being a complex and significant component of any organisational structure (Fairbanks et al., 2004), mentoring is likewise perceived as an effective and powerful tool for technical, emotional and instructional support of student teachers in teacher education (Tillema & Van der Westhuizen, 2015). It is employed mainly for facilitating the professional development of teachers, either in practice or pre-service as in the case with student teachers (Lochran, 2003). The chief purpose of entering into mentoring interaction in teacher education is to identify and select the focus of such interaction. Three mentoring choices with an impact on the effectiveness of mentoring in teacher education are decisions about whether the focus of the mentoring is educative, discipline specific or invitational.

EDUCATIVE MENTORING

Educative mentoring as developed by Feiman-Nemser (2001) focuses on instructional support, its interactions being aimed at meeting the immediate needs of novice teachers while not neglecting long-term goals for growth of instructional efficacy. It is viewed as a personalised form of professional development in which mentors and novice teachers discuss issues pertaining specifically to the

instructional capacity of the novice teacher, collectively to arrive at alternative solutions in their co-inquiry relationship. Educative mentoring is based on a developmental perspective of learning to teach (Norman & Feiman-Nemser, 2005). The core principles of educative mentoring are: (1) 'cultivating a disposition of inquiry', (2) 'focusing attention on student thinking and understanding', and (3) 'fostering disciplined talk about problems of practice' (Feiman-Nemser, 2001:28). Such mentoring should therefore lead to greater expertise and personal belief in own ability to instruct and support learning in the classroom, as well as to fostering positive self-perceptions of being a professional teacher.

DISCIPLINE-SPECIFIC MENTORING

This mentoring focuses on the improvement of deeper understanding of discipline- and subject-specific knowledge and skills (Redmond, 2015). Apart from being mentored to 'teach well', student teachers need to be supported to understand the purpose of the specific discipline that they are teaching in the bigger scheme of life. Coe, Aloisi and Higgins (2014) have found that teachers' knowledge about their discipline and subject, and their understanding of how learners gain access to the subject knowledge, have an influence on how well students learn in that discipline or subject. This consequently relates to being well-versed in what important aspects to focus on at specific times, within specific contexts and circumstances, in teaching the subject matter and therefore selecting the most suitable instructional tools to do so. Feiman-Nemser (2001) acknowledges that more teachers are entering the teaching profession lacking content knowledge and insight into how to teach specific subject matter to diverse groups. Developing the 'theoretical' subject knowledge and subject-specific pedagogy will not necessarily add to developing expertise if they are not recontextualised for teaching in the classroom (Cordingley, Higgins & Greany, 2015; Firth, 2018). It thus becomes imperative that discipline-specific as well as educative mentoring be employed to develop pre-service teachers' abilities to transform subject knowledge by adapting their teaching strategies to teach certain topics in the subject based on how learners learn and understand that topic.

INVITATIONAL MENTORING

This form of mentoring entails interactions that 'cordially summon mentees to recognize their untapped potential (Novak, 2002), by intentionally inviting the

mentees at a personal and professional level towards "epistemic congruence"' (Van der Merwe & Van der Westhuizen, 2015:201). The role of knowledge in mentoring interactions is extensively described by Van der Westhuizen (2015), with specific reference to how the asymmetry in knowledge and the knowledge authority influences the mentoring interactions. Van der Westhuizen (2015:119) cites Stivers, Mondada and Steensig's (2012) view that participants in mentoring conversations take specific epistemic positions and enter these interactions with the current knowledge that they possess. Mentoring interactions also accept that there is an ascribed authority in the relationship – an authority that relates to the knowledgeability of the participants – thus assuming that the participants possess a certain status that may influence the comportment distance, familiarity and openness between them (Tillema & Van der Westhuizen, 2013). Mentoring interactions, by definition, are therefore asymmetrical and require a definite approach to arrive at the right comportment 'distance and openness' in the interaction to allow effective mentoring. Epistemic congruence thus relates to how the 'participants claim their right to knowledge (epistemic primacy), but even more so in how the epistemic stance is achieved' (Van der Westhuizen, 2015:122).

Arriving at epistemic congruence therefore implies interactions in which dissimilarities in knowledge are observed and acknowledged in interaction, but with a definite purpose to arrive at mutual understanding (Hayano, 2013). Invitational mentoring as reported by Van der Merwe and Van der Westhuizen (2015) is underpinned by three assumptions. The first is a belief that all people are valuable and able to participate in a meaningful and self-directed way. The second is the belief that people's perceptions are extremely important, which means that they justify due attention. The third assumption is that self-belief is necessary for maintaining internal motivation and the protection and improvement of the self (Novak, quoted by Van der Merwe & Van der Westhuizen, 2015).

Thus, acknowledging that the mentoring process is one in which the participants are not necessarily on equal footing serves as a stepping stone to the enlightening perception that each individual brings valuable expertise, experiences and insights which will support collaborative, reciprocal and mutual new understanding. Acting congruently with this perception enables invitational mentoring.

2.5   MENTORING TOWARDS KNOWLEDGE-PRODUCTIVE LEARNING

Becoming a professional teacher requires possession of the knowledge necessary for entering into that profession, but also of the ability to take action to continually adapt and renew this knowledge through professional learning (Edwards, 2013). According to Tillema, Van der Westhuizen and Van der Merwe (2015), professionals use knowledge for daily practice and challenges that may occur, but are also continually seeking to develop and improve knowledge in practice. The 'theory–practice divide' was mentioned in § 2.2.5, and Tillema et al. (2015) suggest that mentoring can support 'knowing' that relates to not only displaying knowledge in practice, but also to actively changing such knowledge when changing contexts and situations require that 'new' knowledge be created.

Mentoring thus provides learning professionals with a platform for collaboration and shared enterprise, from which they can extrapolate professional knowledge beyond mere transmission or pre- or post-activity reflection to contextually situated and distributed insight that is rooted in the professional community in action (Tillema et al., 2015). To assist professional learners in this venture, mentors should have a clear purpose for the mentoring activity and comply with the specific criteria conceptualised for measuring professional learning (Tillema et al., 2015). Tillema et al. (2015) propose three criteria for such evaluation:

UNDERSTANDING THE PROBLEM
Professional learners must be able to reflect deeply on the knowledge currently used in problematic situations and to perceive that this knowledge adds to their understanding and may therefore have application value in other difficult circumstances.

PERSPECTIVE SHIFT
During the mentoring interaction, different views and perspectives will be shared. A perspective shift involves the ability to realise that other perspectives are worthwhile to consider as potential means for effecting change in problematic situations.

This criterion reflects the ability to realise that 'new or adapted' knowledge will assist in renewing practice.

When these three criteria are met, 'knowledge productivity' has occurred and the inference can be made that professional learning has taken place (Tillema & Van der Westhuizen, 2006).

As indicated earlier in 2.4.7, mentoring can facilitate the development and professional learning of pre-service teachers. Mentoring conversations are interpersonal interactions in which the quality of the relationship, the particular approach and purpose of the conversations influence the development of professional knowledge and knowledge-productive learning opportunities (Tillema & Van der Westhuizen, 2015). Mentors are the main drivers of the mentoring conversations and will thus determine what is talked about, why it is talked about, when it is talked about and when it will be ended (Baron, quoted by Pretorius, 2015). Since they also implicitly hold the authority position, mentors should be aware how to approach this delicate interaction. Pretorius (2015) cites Tillema and Van der Westhuizen's metaphor (2013) of 'climbing a mountain' in proposing the structural dimensions that mentoring conversations toward knowledge-productive learning can take.

According to this metaphor there are two main avenues to the interaction, namely the 'low road' and the 'high road' (see Figure 3.6). The low road refers to activities in the conversation that seek to explore current practices. Such conversations primarily involve probing for access to issues that warrant deeper discussion, while also assisting in gaining a broad understanding of how things are now (Pretorius, 2015).

The high-road mentoring interactions are both aimed at the desired goal, namely knowledge-productive learning, and can be achieved by either prescribing, constructing or scaffolding conversations. These collaborative interactions challenge the current practices and require mentees to enter into the relationship with an open, non-judgmental and critical stance (Pretorius, 2015). The interactions are aimed at initiating the gradual process of changing current views, beliefs and practices relevant to the mentees' context and situation.

To achieve knowledge-productive learning, mentors thus need to orchestrate the mentoring interaction artfully and seamlessly by utilising both low-road and high-road propositions.

2.6   CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter addressed theory on professional learning and mentoring. Mentoring was furthermore explicated as an interactive relationship between a mentor (lecturer) and a mentee (student teacher) in conversations, with the aim to assist in bettering performance but more so to facilitate the development of knowledge-productive learning. Mentoring was described as a valuable, effective and gradual process of improvement in which several dimensions, factors and approaches were put forward.

In the next chapter a discussion of conversation and interaction in conversation will be provided. As this study was aimed at exploring and describing how advice is given in mentoring conversations to facilitate knowledge-productive learning, an extensive conceptualisation of advice-giving in mentoring conversations will also be presented.

CHAPTER 3
MENTORING CONVERSATIONS AND ADVICE-GIVING

3.1   INTRODUCTION

Following on the overview of generic theory relating to professional learning and mentoring, the focus in this chapter will shift to the specifics of conversation theory and types of conversations. Learning conversations will be considered as a form of interaction in mentoring before advice-giving will be explicated as a valuable element of mentoring conversations in supporting the learning outcome of knowledge-productive learning.

3.2   CONVERSATION THEORY

3.2.1 Introduction

Conversation theory is part of the broader field of communication theory and falls specifically under communication theories related to the behavioural and social sciences. Conversation theory was initially developed by Gordon Pask in 1975 to explain knowledge development in systems as a process entailing continual interaction with its users, the environment and technology ('machines'), and is regarded as a domain-independent model to demonstrate how one can 'come to knowing' (Scott, 2001:343). Scott (2008:9), as former collaborator of Pask, sums up this highly complex theory as follows:

> Conversation Theory in its larger context, as a cybernetic theory of culture, consciousness and social systems (Pask, 1979; Scott, 1983; Scott, 2001) ... is a cybernetic theory of observers and the communication between them. It is grounded in cybernetics, in particular, the cyber-netics of self-organising systems. As a theory of observers, it is reflexive: it gives an account of what cybernetics is and what cyberneticians do. To use von Foerster's terms, it "explains the observer to himself" (von Foerster, 2002).

This theory is also viewed as a transdisciplinary learning theory that foregrounds a dialectic framework in which apparent contradictions can be reasoned, argued, contended, discussed and debated within the system to arrive at a conclusion and thus to create knowledge (Boyd, 2001). Pask proposed that this theory could also be applied successfully to achieving insight into how conversations for learning unfold

and how participants attain understanding of one another in such conversations (Scott, 2001:343). Two very apt phrases have been quoted above about explaining the observer to himself and coming to knowing. These phrases underscore a crucial insight in communication in mentorship: the fostering of awareness of the self in developing knowledge, which implies empowerment in being able to transfer such knowledge to others more effectively through conversations – in other words, advice-giving as a central theme of this investigation.

3.2.2 Pask on conversation theory

According to Pask's postulates as considered by Buchinger and Scott (2010), the act of learning requires being challenged but not overwhelmed by the problem to be learned. In Pask's view, human beings are self-organising, dynamic and adaptive, with the ability to establish adaptive teaching systems that can be typified as 'conversations' in which 'teaching is the control of learning' (Buchinger & Scott, 2010:110). Pask regards humans furthermore as both 'mechanical individuals' (m-individuals) who embody and execute certain required procedures, and 'psychological individuals' (p-individuals) owing to their ability to produce and reproduce their thoughts, ideas and memories continuously (Buchinger & Scott, 2010:111). This concept implies that all learning is a result of people attempting to make their thoughts, views and ideas clear to others through conversation; thus, 'getting to know the self' and simultaneously 'getting to knowing'.

A critical method of learning according to Pask's conversation theory is 'teach-back', which implies that one person teaches what he or she has learned to another through conversation (Scott, 2001). Pask extends this explanation with reference to Maturana's concept of language as an instrument that allows people to share, agree and merge their perspectives through conversation and to experiences of eing self-aware and 'knowling with oneself' (Scott, 2001:347). Pangaro (2002) suggests that such merging of conversation between participants represents a 'becoming one with others' in the cognitive domain. People thus learn through their interactions and constructions in these interactions and invariably define themselves through conversation (ibid., 2002).

Pask proposed a framework for conversation (see Figure 3.1) in which questions and answers are central. Conversation theory distinguishes between two levels, namely

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'knowing why' and 'knowing how' (Scott, 2001:347). Knowing why to learn implies cognitive and conceptual knowledge gained, while knowing how relates to procedural and performance knowledge acquired. Knowing why presupposes deep under-standing and the probability to reproduce the knowledge, while knowing how presupposes the pragmatics of the understanding.

Conversation exchanges that occur horizontally are viewed as inducements for learners to demonstrate their knowledge and application of the concepts. Teachers describe, explain and demonstrate the construction and use of concepts during these horizontal interactions. Buchinger and Scott (2010:111) point out that learners are required to teach back what they know and understand during these horizontal exchanges, thus leading to the possibility that both parties will learn and change their expectations of the other (reciprocal expectations).

Conversation exchanges at the vertical levels of the framework (Figure 3.1) represent causal connections with feedback (Buchinger & Scott, 2010; Scott, 2001). Teachers and learners may use real-world examples and modelling accompanied by non-verbal demonstrations to represent and validate the concept to support the verbal explanations in an attempt to demonstrate understanding. Understanding and learning thus become a negotiation and agreement of the conversational exchanges between teachers and learners, as evidence in figures 3.1 and 3.2.
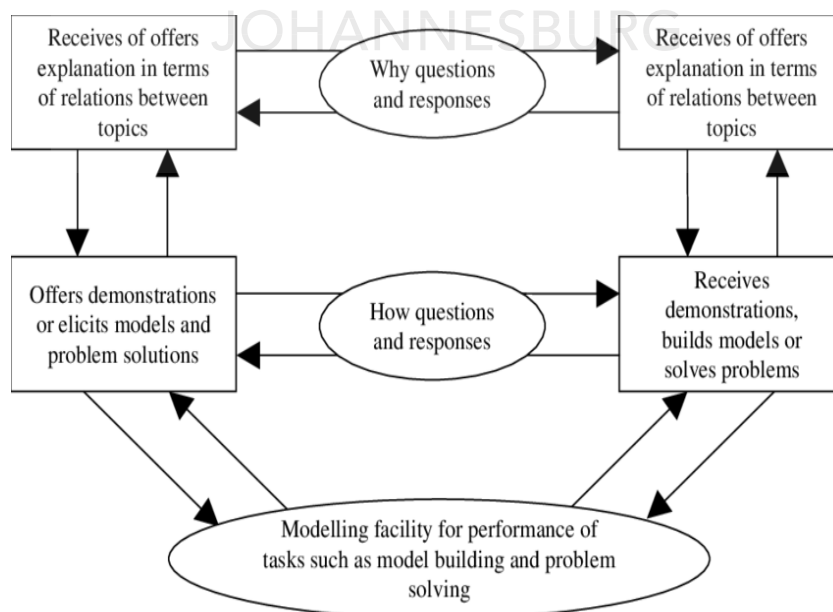
Figure 3.1: The skeleton of a conversation (Scott, Shurville, Maclean & Cong, 2007: 1502)

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For Pask, understanding a topic means that learners can effectively teach back the topic's conceptual knowledge (why) and procedural knowledge (how) by providing both non-verbal demonstrations and verbal explanations of why and how to the satisfaction of teachers. Pask's model implies three components for learning conversations, namely conversations about:

- the why and how of the topic;
- the how of learning about the topic (study skills, reflection on experiences); and
- the purpose of learning (why) for purposes of autonomy and personal responsibility for learning (Scott, 2001).

Boyd (2001:564) adds to this view with reference to Harri-Augstein and Thomas's (1991) clarification that these three elements respectively refer to conversations related to task focus, learning to learn, and life relevance.

Conversation remains fundamental for any society as it is the agency through which the social world is managed, the mode by which culture, tradition and conventions are sustained and renewed, and the medium through which each individual member of a society is acknowledged (Goodwin & Heritage, 1990). In addition to the three fundamental components put forward by conversation theory, five other basic elements for conversations have been suggested by further research, namely context, language, exchange, agreement and (trans)action (Pangaro & Blumenschein, 2012; see Figure 3.2).

Goffman (1974:36) has distinguished two approaches to defining conversations: first, conversation as the talk found in everyday situations and often referred to as casual conversation or talk, and second, specific talk as found in spoken encounters in which express structural organisational features are present which differentiate them from other forms of talk-in-interaction. When studying conversations, researchers should take account of the interactions in the language, the context in which the conversation takes place, the meanings assigned by participants and how they acquired such meanings, as well as the actions in the interaction.

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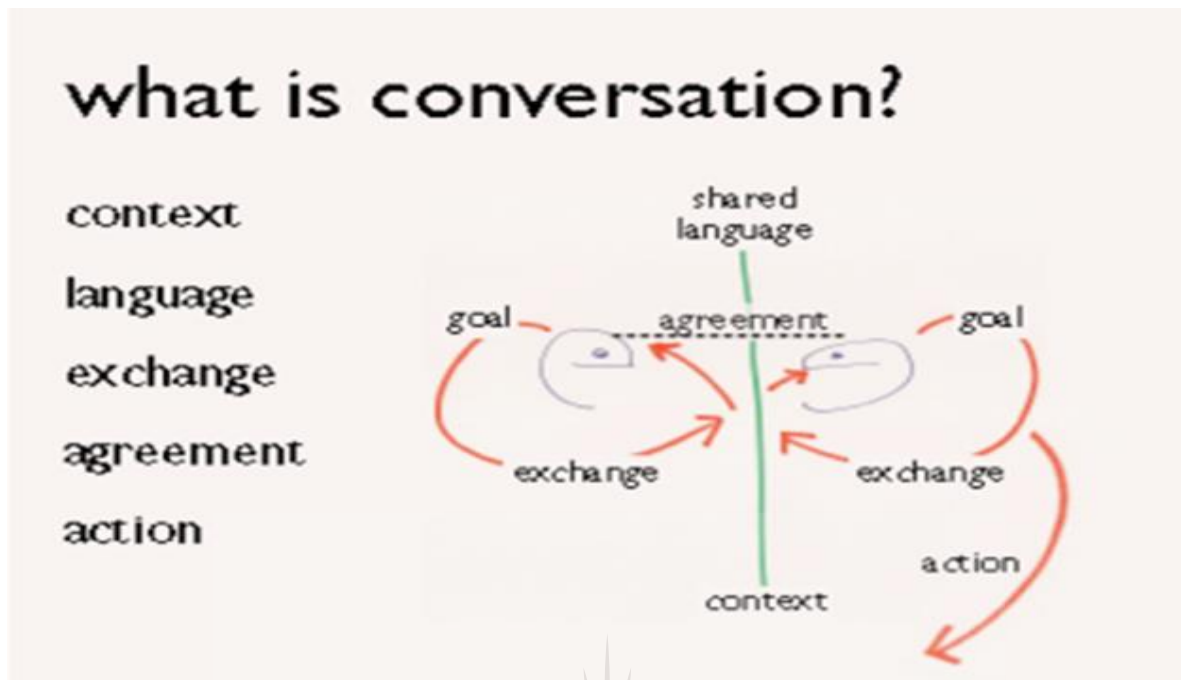
Figure 3.2: Visual presentation of 'What is conversation?' (Pangaro & Blumenschein, 2012:4).

Thus, the ordinary experiences of participants in conversation, the knowledge and understanding that they bring to the interaction, as well as their common-sense knowledge and their practical reasoning (Garfinkel, 1967), allow them firstly to be aware of and act in accordance with the real-world context in which they find themselves, secondly to understand the purpose and inspiration of the other, and thirdly to arrive at shared, reciprocal understanding (Goodwin & Heritage, 1990).

The characteristics of conversations in general and the fundamentals of conversation theory were considered in 3.2. The discussion below deals with conversation types (learning conversations in particular), the phases of conversations and two frameworks that have relevance for this in learning conversations. Section 3.3 concludes with an overview of mentoring conversations.

3.3   TYPES OF CONVERSATIONS

Different types of conversations are identified in current literature. These include learning conversations and mentoring conversations.

3.3.1 Learning conversations

Learning conversations are purposively focused on learning about a specific topic. Teachers have an 'epistemic authority' in such conversations and are generally also obliged to abide by institutionally determined conventions and rules as to how the learning takes place, as well as to the outcomes for the learning (Van der Westhuizen, Dunbar-Krige & Bachrach, 2018). Learning conversations also develop situationally (and are therefore adaptive and discursive), acknowledge the immediate context in which they take place (Laurillard, 2000), and serve as scaffolds to guide learners to reflect constructively on their learning progress (Harri-Augstein & Thomas, 1991).

Learning conversations focus on learning facilitation through interaction and conversation that consist of sequences of interactions, organised in terms of verbal and non-verbal utterances, turn-taking and repair. It is during interactions in such learning conversations that individuals come to note what they know and do not know, after which they are better able to construct new or refined ideas (Magano, Mostert & Van der Westhuizen, 2010). As stated in § 3.2.2, learning conversations imply an interactive sharing of presumed meaning (Pike, 2010) during which the participants are continuously making inferences about what the other means, possibly arriving at agreement through 'teach-back' sequences as implied by Pask.

Context remains a crucial aspect of the intersubjective meaning sharing, as participants make use of their knowledge and understanding of the context to gauge the suppositions underpinning what is said and done in the conversation to arrive at shared meaning (Mercer, quoted by Pike, 2010:164). How knowledge is viewed in a specific context may also influence the learning conversation. Stivers, Modada and Steensig (2011) have identified three specific domains of knowledge, namely epistemic access, primacy and responsibility. Epistemic access is defined as either knowing or not knowing, the degree of certainty of the knowing, having access to gaining knowledge, and expression of the knowing. Epistemic primacy is seen as the right claimed by a participant to be the authority in particular knowledge, while epistemic responsibility relates to the way that participants allow others in the learning conversation to engage with the knowledge (Stivers et al., 2011).

Van der Westhuizen et al. (2018) point to the significance of contextual and institutional rules and conventions, and their influence on how knowledge is used.

Participants in learning conversations have highly specific roles, functions and knowledge statuses. It is expected that teachers in learning conversations enter the interaction with a measure of epistemic access and right, but also with the epistemic responsibility to support the learners towards shared understanding. Regarding student-teachers who have experienced WIL, their epistemic access and rights are mutually recognised.

In relation to the current study, when lecturers and student-teachers interact in mentoring conversations, 'knowledge is neither accumulated nor discovered by learners: it is shaped by people's communicative actions' (Mercer, 2008:19). The interaction between the participants that leads to the intersubjective understanding may therefore be best understood from a sociocultural learning perspective (see § 2.2.2.5). The social interactions in learning conversations will thus be influenced by the shared understanding of language, signs and tools mediating learning and understanding (Wertsch, 2008).

Learning conversations can therefore be interpreted as conversations representing an outreach between minds. In the words of Zeldin (1993):

> '… *when minds meet, they don't just exchange facts: they transform them, reshape them, draw different implications from them, and engage in new trains of thought'*.

3.3.2 Learning conversation phases

3.3.2.1 Frameworks for analysing learning conversations

Conversations generally comprise different structures and phases, and the specific phases of a learning conversation as reflected in two frameworks are scrutinised here, namely Scharmer's (2000) four conversation fields, and Norris and Bullock's (2017) learning conversation phases as a style of feedback. These two frameworks were selected for the reason that they address respectively the fundamental issue of collaborative knowledge-productive learning, and the central activity of feedback and advice-giving in such learning.

3.3.2.2   Scharmer's four conversation fields

Scharmer's framework offers a significant contribution to the 'basic horizontal stages of conversation, group formation processes and rudimentary conversational practices that support personal and collective development' speech acts (Gunnlaugson, 2007:45). Scharmer posits that conversations commence with a *'talking nice'* field in which people sit together and talk in a polite manner. After attending to the more 'affective' and polite phase of a conversation, they move on to a more focused *'talking tough'* field in which they discuss and debate the problem or area of concern. Staying in this field will disrupt the flow of the conversation, which needs to be steered toward the *'reflective dialogue'* field in which the participants enquire, change and adapt their views and listen empathically. To arrive at learning as discussed in § 3.3.1, the conversation must flow to the *'generative dialogue'* field in which new dimensions and understandings are formed and boundaries collapse.

Figure 3.3 illustrates the four fields of generative dialogue as well as distinctive ways of listening, orientation to learning in relation to time, habits of attention and speech acts (Gunnlaugson, 2007. As used for describing different aspects of conversations, the framework's horizontal axis represents conversations operating on a continuum extending from group concerns to an individual focus. The continuum on the vertical axis represents the type of behaviours that the conversations prompt, ranging from being highly reactive to what is said, to being highly reflective about conversation content, as demonstrated further in Figure 3.4 (Magano et al., 2010).

Enacting Emerging Futures

generative dialogue	reflective dialogue
⇒ presencing, flow	⇒ Inquiry
⇒ time: slowing down	⇒ I can change my view
⇒ space: boundaries collapse	⇒ empathic listening (from within the other self)
⇒ listening from one's future Self	⇒ other = you
⇒ rule-generating	⇒ rule - reflecting

Primacy of the Whole   Primacy of the Parts

talking nice	talking tough
⇒ Downloading	⇒ debate, clash
⇒ polite, cautious	⇒ I am my point of view
⇒ listening = projecting	⇒ Listening = reloading
⇒ rule-reenacting	⇒ other = target
	⇒ rule-revealing

Reenacting Patterns of the Past

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Figure 3.3:   Four fields of conversations (Scharmer, 2003)

Reflective

Together	*Field 4: Flow* Creativity	*Field 3: Enquiry* Dialogue	**Alone**
	Field 1: Convention Sitting together and talking	*Field 2: Friction* Discussion, debate	

Reactive

Figure 3.4:   Scharmer's model of different phases of conversations (adapted from Magano et al., 2010).

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Regarding Figures 3.3 and 3.4, Field 1 conversations are group conversations in which participants adhere to the conventions of the context by engaging in polite conversation through reacting to its general gist. Field 2 is entered when the objectives of Field 1 have been fulfilled by achieving basic rapport.

In Field 2, different individual views are now aired, debated, opposed and argued. The individual, while still part of the group, now places own personal views in the open, still reacting to the other participants in the conversation. A danger in this field is that the participants may become defensive and the conversation does not progress further than mental defence of own position. Space-making and judgement suspension are posited by Magano et al. (2010:13) to counteract any breakdown in the conversation, thus allowing progression to Field 3.

In the latter, the objective is to reflect deeply on all ideas to explore and reinterpret them. Now, as a group in this field, participants are enabled to explore and engage critically with individual ideas and standpoints.

Field 4 allows the participants as a collective to think with imagination and creativity to transcend the limitations of current, individualistic views (Magano et al., 2010).

3.3.2.3 *Learning conversation phases of Norris and Bullock*

Originating in the field of medical and clinical science, the learning conversation phases proposed by Norris and Bullock (2017) relate to the style of feedback, which is more learner focused as required in such settings. Their learning conversation phases are indicated in Figure 3.5.

Of particular importance is the ability to engage in active listening, specifically within the context in which the framework originated. Active listening is the skill of hearing what the other person is saying at all levels – verbally, non-verbally and emotionally – and responding without judgement (Jahromi, Tabatabaee, Abdar & Rajabi, 2016). The importance of not only the speaker and the utterance, but also the listener, as well as cultural and maturational unlikeness between participants, should be acknowledged (Boudreau, Cassell & Fuks, 2009).

A learning conversation		
	Make an opening for the feedback process	
	↓	**Instructor role**
	Gather information	
	Preparation for feedback	Structuring feedback
	Establishing initial rapport	
Building the relationship	Allowing narrative phase	
	↓	
	Exploration of the students' thoughts	
Active listening	Allowing students to tell their narrative	Sharing issues, reflecting and mirroring
	↓	+ Summarising +
Non-verbal communication	Aiding recall and understanding	Clarifying
Developing rapport	**Share/explore the pertinent issues and solutions with students and team**	
Involving the students	↓	Sequencing and sorting
and team	**Advocacy with inquiry**	information,
	Achieved a shared understanding	paraphrasing, checking
	↓	
	Gems – listening for misinterpretation or misunderstanding	Non-judgemental phrases to elicit deeper reflection if needed
	↓	
	Emphasise key issues	

Figure 3.5: The learning conversation as proposed by Norris and Bullock (2017) (adapted from the Cambridge Calgary Observation Guide (Silverman, Kurtz & Droper))

Norris and Bullock use the acronym MESSAGE (Norris & Bullock, 2017:15) to explain the structure of the phases of conversations (as indicated in boldface below). This structure aims to assist instructors or facilitators (i.e. mentors) to develop, improve and master their skills to facilitate a learning conversation.

MAKE AN OPENING REMARK

This is aimed commencing the phase by providing mentees with the opportunity to gather their own thoughts and identify their problems or difficulties by self-reflection without interruption. The phase encourages joint exploration and reflection, carefully builds relationships through verbal and non-verbal empathic skills, and prepares participants for the next phase. It is therefore crucial in getting participants ready for inquiry and openness to new learning by creating a non-threatening, responsive space in which they feel free to explore and adapt their views.

EXPLORE

The phase allows participants to explore key issues collaboratively. To bring the mentees' knowledge to the fore, the mentors or mentors strive to find explanations for their thoughts and actions in this phase. The phase requires an empathic approach focused on building positive selves and a process of continual revisiting to comprehend problems fully, and to increase knowledge and skills through scaffolding and supporting approaches. Mentor interaction and guidance in this phase will depend on the ability of the group to reflect independently.

SUMMARISE AND SHARE

This phase entails summarising and sharing the identified issues or problems and reflecting it to the group. These summaries assure the participants that they have been heard and correctly understood, and put their minds at rest about group cohesion, honesty and constructive support. The importance of acknowledging each other and actively listening to all viewpoints is emphasised.

ADVOCACY WITH INQUIRY

During this phase, an impression garnered from questioning is addressed for greater clarification by 'advocacy' in the sense of 'speaking for it' and, while doing so, eliciting ('inquiring about') confirmation or rejection of it during more extensive discussion. Thus, the shared understanding gained is offered with the invitation to

delve deeper into an issue, and participants are invited to agree or disagree with the communicated understanding.

GEMS

As a function of mentors, this entails listening for specific misconceptions or misinterpretations – which represent gems of information – and 'bracketing' them in the memory for discussion during the deepening reflection. The timing of such interactions is crucial and requires sensitivity to the collaborative efforts of individuals in the group.

EMPHASISE KEY POINTS

This phase involves foregrounding of key learning points for action or further inquiry.

Careful, honest reflection and sensitive steering of the learning conversation are essential to building a trusting relationship for the purpose of maximising learning both for individuals and for the group. Mentors using these phases will also acquire a set of skills and knowledge to assist and scaffold mentees in reaching the desired outcomes, or in attaining a better understanding of identified problems that could bring about a perspective shift in applying solutions in different situations (Norris & Bullock, 2017). Mentors need to develop sound listening skills for the following reasons:

- understanding and interpreting problems experienced by mentees;
- relationship and rapport building;
- enhancing the skill to create a safe and relaxed space that is conducive to open conversation and learning;
- augmenting questioning skills to explore mentees' knowledge, knowledge gaps and understanding during the conversation; and
- amplifying understanding of scaffolding to guide mentees gradually in improving their understanding resolving the experienced problem (Phillps-Jones, 2003; Tillema,2012).

3.3.2.4 Mentoring conversations

Conversation is a form of interactive communication between two or more people in which rules of etiquette and order are followed. In interaction, whether face-to-face,

telephonically of via other media, people take turns to talk (Drew, 2013:131). Mentoring conversations are a form of conversation in which all participants in the process arrive at a goal of knowing and understanding (Tillema & Van der Westhuizen, 2015).

Professional knowledge is facilitated through conversation with mentors (Edwards, 1995), and how they structure and execute the mentoring conversation may consequently influence this facilitation. It is widely accepted that the mentoring conversation flow is determined by mentors (Strong & Baron, 2004; Tillema & Van der Westhuizen, 2015), since it is they who make decisions about where, when and how to start the interaction, how it progresses and when it eventually ends. They also select to a large extent what the focus of the conversation will be. A number of successful mentoring approaches are put forward by Tillema and Van der Westhuizen (2015:24) that highlight the salient aspects of successful mentoring: supporting and challenging; reflecting as a main focus; interpersonal and interactive skills; sense-making as fundamental; and relevancy as essential.

Mentoring conversations may also use specific styles best suited to the approaches followed by mentors, whether directive or non-directive (Hennisen, Crasborn, Brouwer, Korthagen & Bergen, 2008; see also § 2.4.4). In a directive style, mentors will assume a more direct, critical role of informing, instructing, correcting and advising with the aim to assess, to instruct, and to offer opinions, strategies and feedback. A non-directive style is characterised by reflection, cooperation, collaboration, guiding, prompting and supporting. Mentors using this style will allow for greater openness and reflection by employing questions, options, active listening, summary and empathic listening (Tillema & Van der Westhuizen, 2015).

Mentoring conversations are aimed at supporting and developing mentees' profes-sional expertise (Royeen & Kramer, 2013), and mentors play a crucial role in assisting them towards such professional proficiency (Ericsson, 2002). In this regard, mentors understand and know where mentees are in the process of development, and are therefore able to take control of the learning process to focus on the aspects of performance and skills that need to be enriched next (Ericsson, 2007). Taking cognisance of where mentees are and where they need to go in their development places greater emphasis on the guiding feedback and advice given by mentors.

Careful consideration should therefore be given in mentoring conversations to the manner in which support and guidance are offered to mentees in developing towards a desired goal, as well as to the manner that feedback is given on current performance. This requirement is in accordance with Ericsson's model of deliberate practice (2002) as illustrated in Figure 3.6.
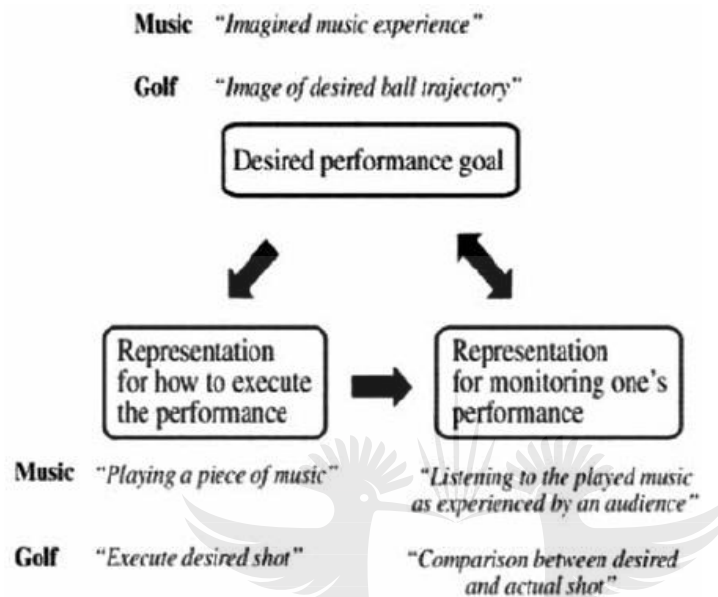
Figure 3.6: Model of deliberate practice by Ericsson (2002)

What mentors say and how this is communicated in mentoring conversations thus become pivotal. Mentoring conversations that lead to learning should be the outcome when this model of deliberate practice is foregrounded. Accordingly, Tillema combined elements from deliberate practice with Dawkins's metaphor of 'climbing Mount Improbable' to indicate how mentoring conversations can support and weave the threads of gradual learning and development of mentees together (Tillema & Van der Westhuizen, 2015:26).

Mentoring conversations are collaborative interactions aimed at spanning the 'disconnect' that exists on the one hand between what mentees already know, and on the other hand the new knowledge and learning, as well as unachieved expertise, by which they may feel confronted (Edwards, 2011; Tillema & Van der Westhuizen, 2006). According to Tillema and Van der Westhuizen (2015), bridging is achievable through focusing the mentoring conversation on three different planes (see Figure 3.7), with mentoring interactions located

- horizontally on the explorative plane, on which the current unstated and implicit knowledge of mentees and the knowledge to be learned are described and explored;

- on a diagonal plane on which mentees are supported and accommodated to develop towards the learning goal through co-construction, collaboration and scaffolding interactions (see § 2.2.2.5); and

- if necessary, also on a second diagonal plane that is more directive and prescriptive of the knowledge and skills required to reach the learning goal.

Desired goal: Higher teaching proficiency

Prescriptive proposition (P):   Constructive/Scaffolding proposition (S)

'Know how'; Advice-giving on how to execute ideal performance; modelling

Monitoring performance, reflection on practice, evaluating, guiding support

'High road'   **High road'**

Exploring current knowledge/current level of performance/current practice (E)

'Low road'

Figure 3.7:   Tillema and Van der Westhuizen's (2013) model of 'climbing Mount Improbable' (adapted by Pretorius, 2013:41))

Tillema (2011) further proposes that interactions in mentoring conversations on the explorative or descriptive plane are 'low-road' ones that allow time for all participants to familiarise themselves with existing beliefs and knowledge, which they can use as a point of departure for their journey to raise their proficiency level. He further proposes

that mentoring conversations may also require a more reflective approach to support mentees on the 'high road' (the diagonal plane of co-construction, scaffolding and collaboration) towards self-monitoring of performance, indicating a 'pull' towards the eventual level of proficiency. He finally proposes that the diagonal plane of directing and prescribing may reflect a 'high-road approach' that is more challenging, indicating a 'push' towards the eventual level of proficiency.

Advising mentees towards the required or expected level of proficiency is central to the support provided, irrespective of the particular plane of mentoring conversations as proposed by Tillema and Van der Westhuizen (2013). Advice-giving in mentoring conversations (the subject of the next main section) may by implication also manifest itself on the planes of exploration, co-construction and prescription.

This section described conversations, conversation theory, and the phases both of learning conversations and of mentoring conversations. The following section focuses on advice-giving in conversations, the modalities and intentions of advice-giving, as well as the different account positions of advice-giving. Conversational interaction patterns in advice-giving will be discussed and concluded with advice-giving in mentoring conversation.

3.4   ADVICE-GIVING IN CONVERSATIONS

3.4.1 Introduction

Although advice-giving may be considered as common practice in general conversations and mentoring conversations – also often being viewed as an intuitive practice (Kruglanski & Gigerenzer, 2011) – the discussed interaction patterns of mentoring conversations (see § 3.3.2) warrant a clearer conceptualisation of advice-giving for knowledge production. In this section, consideration will be paid to advice-giving as a pedagogical and social action in mentoring conversations and how it contributes to knowledge-productive learning.

3.4.2 Overview of advice-giving

3.4.2.1 Defining advice-giving and avoiding pitfalls

An array of definitions of advice-giving is presented in the literature. As a rule, it is seen as a pervasive everyday action (Shaw, 2012), a 'sharing of suggestions or

directives intended to shape others' ways of thinking, feeling or behaving' (Chentsova & Vaughn, 2012:688), and as encompassing a normative dimension in the recommendation for improvement (Jonas, 2017; Vehviläinen, 2001). Advising, as defined by Searle (1969), is any act in which one person advises another on performance or practice, on the grounds that the former believes it will be beneficial to the latter. This view suggests an assumed asymmetry and possible tension between participants, which will influence the *advice uptake* (as its acceptance or absorption is sometimes termed).

Advice-giving has become a popular topic for studies across the broad disciplines of psychology, counselling, linguistics, finance, communication and education. A general concern throughout advice-giving research on supportive communication and cognition in the organisational sciences has been to identify the common conditions that prevail when advice is accepted (Feng & MacGeorge, 2006; Shaw, 2012). Feng (2013) has singled out one such condition as that of providing emotional support for mentees in the conversation. Feng (2009) has further specified sequential dispositioning of advice in conversations as a crucial condition for its acceptance, which involves offering of advice in a sequence that consists of emotional support, followed by problem inquiry and analysis, and only thereafter the actual giving of advice (EPA). This sequence, in Feng's opinion, is decisive for the acceptance and effectiveness of advice-giving in interactions. Acceptance of advice, in lieu of the proposed model of mentoring for knowledge building (see § 3.3.2), is an important consideration as it may necessitate following Feng's suggested sequence in the initial stage of the conversation to gain trust and encourage collaboration. It may thus be reasonable to expect that most mentoring conversations will start with an exploration of current issues or practices. To a certain degree, both the co-construction and prescriptive mentoring interactions could be expected to include analysis and inquiry into the problem, interlaced with advice or even prescription towards the goal of intersubjective meaning making.

Difficulties and dilemmas in advice-seeking, advice-giving and advice-receiving are underpinned by the interpretation of the parties concerned that advice is 'never just information' (Goldsmith & Fitch, 1997), especially by recipients. In some instances, advice-giving may be perceived by advisees as 'butting in' and can be interpreted as

criticism and disapproval of, and even as threatening to, the receivers' feelings of competence and self-worth. In other instances, advisees may feel obliged to agree on and accept advisers' advice in order not to be disrespectful or appear ungrateful for their recommendations or concerns, which will usually be clearly linked to the particular discourse prevalent in the context in which the mentoring conversation is taking place. This may cause unnecessary emotional stress in that advisees may on the one hand wish to show gratitude and respect by following the advisers' advice, but on the other hand may wish to use their freedom to reject the advice and make their own decisions (Goldsmith & Fitch, 1997).

The concept of the assumed or established asymmetry of knowledge and skills between participants (Hutchby, 1995) is further supported by Edwards and Protheroe (2004:185) whose study established that 79% of the feedback which mentors gave to student teachers focused on descriptive restatements of what was observed, rather than providing feedback to assist them in developing 'organisational frameworks or schema' that would allow for the attainment of an enhanced level of professional proficiency.

The 'experienced' unevenness of status, stature, knowledge and skill between mentors and mentees may subsequently also lead to mentees/advisees perceiving advice-giving as a 'face-threatening' act (Waring, 2007:368), which includes a threat to being regarded as capable (the positive face) as well as not being forced, coerced, or obligated (the negative face). In order to defend the self against such instances, mentees may resist the advice offered by mentors (Heritage & Selfi, 1992; Waring, 2005). Such face-saving resistance is predominantly found in situations in which the advice is unsolicited or uninvited, but also in situations in which the advice is wanted. For instance, regarding conversations and advice-giving involving peer tutoring in writing centres with respect to counselling interaction in which this 'asymmetry' is assumed, research has indicated that the symmetry of the relationship and the accompanying acceptance of advice were the main focus, rather than nuanced advice-giving and its proper functioning in these relationships (Couture & Sutherland, 2006; Vehviläinen, 2001; Waring, 2005). Suggested ways of giving advice to minimise potential resistance could include tailoring the advice specifically to the advisee (avoiding general advice); keeping advice more vague, indeterminate and hypothetical

(using case studies); or simply providing positive advice before negative advice is given (Waring, 2007).

In summary, advice-giving in this study is not only defined as giving advice to individuals to develop their ways of thinking, feeling or behaving, but also to enhance their knowledge-productive learning through reciprocal conversation interactions, or, as Tillema (2011) expresses it metaphorically, enabling mentees to 'climb Mount Improbable'.

3.4.2.2 Advice-giving modalities

Advice-giving may occur in different modalities in everyday talk, interactions, conversations and/or mentoring conversations. The advice-giving modality depends on the type of conversation delivery between advisers and advisees (Waring 2005 & 2007), and can be solicited or unsolicited, direct or indirect, explicit or implicit, fit-for-recipient/situation or simply of a general nature.

Solicited advice is generally given when advice is requested, or if advisees show a desire for feedback, input or assistance from others whom they trust. Unsolicited advice, as uninvited counsel, may be necessary in certain instances but is generally unwelcome and therefore of little avail because advice uptake does not occur readily. Direct or explicit advice occurs when advice is communicated clearly and in an exact, detailed way to advisees, whereas indirect or implicit advice is an implied suggestion and not directly expressed. When advice is fit-for-recipients, advice-giving requires suggestions or information specifically relevant to recipients in their particular field of expertise or to their specific needs at that moment (Waring, 2007).

3.4.2.3 Advice-giving intention

Intentionality is an important term in philosophy, pertinently in Husserl's phenome-nology as a style of thought (McIntyre & Woodruff Smith, 1989). Intentionality refers in this sense to a feature of human mental states and experiences that allows human beings to be 'conscious' and 'aware' of the physical world, events, their own selves and others, and not merely being passively affected by what is in their environment (McIntyre & Woodruff Smith, 1989). Intentionality thus refers to people being aware of and consciously 'directed towards something'. This includes the concept of doing something intentionally or with intention (ibid., 1989:2).

Intent in its simplest form thus implies a purpose for action (Purohit & Pandey, 2019:3). To be intentional implies to act purposefully with an outcome in mind and a plan for achieving the outcome (Epstein, 2007). Intentional acts commence with careful thinking and planning, taking into consideration the possible effects.

At a fundamental level, Ziv, Solomon and Frye (2008:1238) explains intentionality in a school milieu as 'directed, designed interactions between children and teachers in which teachers purposefully challenge, scaffold, and extend children's skills'. If these ideas are transferred to the focus of advice-giving in mentoring conversations, it can be surmised that the intentionality of mentors (lecturers) is to advise students through mentoring conversations and scaffolding to a better understanding of experienced problems and the resolution of these problems after their compulsory school experience during work-related learning.

Advice-giving intentionality is rooted particularly in the awareness that

- affective aspects play a decisive role in effective offering and accepting of advice;
- a collaborative co-construction of shared meaning is essential in the process;
- mentoring conversations and interactions must have knowledge-productive learning as outcome (see Figure 3.6), which relates to Jonas's (2017) view that the intent of advice is to foster a sense of agency among advisees.

Accordingly, in advice-giving interaction, it is essential for advice givers to be conscious of *affective elements* that determine the flow of the conversation. The most important affective element is respect, which forms the cornerstone in enhancing trust and ensuring that advisees are more accepting of advice given by advisers (Jonas, 2017:817). When advisees experience care and an interest in their problems, they tend to be keen to participate and share their views in mentoring conversations. Sensitivity to affective aspects in advice-giving among advisers is not only essential in encouraging advisees to be open to accepting advice, but also in enhancing deep understanding of the advice given in the striving towards knowledge-productive learning (Waring, 2007).

Collaboration is defined as an action of people working in partnership to achieve a common goal (Copriady, Zulnaidi, Alimin & Rustaman, 2018:752) such as

accomplishing knowledge productivity. The intent to promote the *outcome of knowledge-productive learning* in conversation interactions entails gaining a clear understanding of issues or expected problem, altering and shifting perspectives relative to these issues, and committing to enactment of the new insights and perspectives in own practice (Tillema et al., 2015).

3.4.3 Advice-giving positions

3.4.3.1 Sequentiality

The sequential positioning of accounts in advice-giving can fluctuate from a verbal or non-verbal acceptance token to an explicit resistance (Waring, 2005). Waring (2007) identifies four sequential positions: First-position account: Pre-advice; Second-position account: Immediately post-advice; Third-position account: Post-problematic uptake; and Fourth-position account: Post-acceptance.

3.4.3.2 First-position account: Pre-advice

This position identifies the problem experienced. In identifying the problem, the advice giver requests the recipient (student teacher) to formulate the advice as an 'upshot' (Waring, 2007:376) of the problem of the experience. Safe-facing strategies in pre-advice are utilised to avoid the delicate and explicit advice-giving which may result from this interaction.

Accounts may be an answer, clarification or explanation of the 'why' question (Sacks, 1992). Accounts are used to 'save face', manage resistance (Waring, 2007) or to promote acceptance of advice-giving and knowledge-productive learning as in this study. An advantage of pre-advice accounts is that they encourage advisees to generate their own solution in the advice-giving sequence (Waring, 2006). This process can lead to self-directedness as indicated by Vehviläinen (2003) in career counselling.

Even though student teachers may fully agree with the assessment of the experienced problem as provided by lecturers or mentors, such agreement does not necessarily lead to their inferring focus of the advice. However, if pre-advice accounts are used appropriately, they not only diminish the loss-of-face threat inherent in the advice-giving act but also promote advice acceptance (Waring, 2007)

3.4.3.3   Second-position account: Immediately post-advice

Immediate post-advice takes place after advice has been given and forms part of the advice turn. The advice tends to be delivered with some mitigation because of the absence of the pre-advice and the face-saving value. The account appears to be problem oriented (Waring, 2007).

The second-position account is aimed at preventing the 'why' question from student teachers and thus forestalls possible advice resistance. Advice given in educational contexts is not only to be accepted, but also to be understood, and by underpinning advice in a critical reasoning format for advisees is fundamental to creating such an understanding (Waring, 2007)

3.4.3.4   Third-position account: Post-problematic uptake

Post-problematic uptake from student teachers (mentees) entails various response types, e.g. delay, repair, weak acceptance and resistance, but not acceptance. Weaker acceptance according to Waring (2007) may be more symptomatic of students' difficulty in understanding the problem than a stronger advice acceptance.

Accounts in this position explicitly address such problematic uptake and can be either problem or benefit oriented (Waring, 2007). Lecturers or mentors give third-position accounts as 'resistance-management devices' (Waring 2007:382) to direct student teachers' problematic uptake.

3.4.3.5   Fourth-position account: Post-acceptance

Waring (2007 views the fourth account position differently than the previous three account positions since advice resistance is no longer an interactional matter. Post-acceptance accounts are generally benefit-based and have a noticeable forward-looking quality. They undoubtedly play a consolidating role in advice as well as the already obtained acceptance (Waring, 2007). An important feature in this position is concluding the advice by summarising earlier accounts or adding supplementary benefits of advice.

3.4.4 Conversational interaction patterns in advice-giving

3.4.4.1 Interaction pattern types

According to Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson (1974), conversations are structured and organised according to set principles in dyadic and multi-person interaction based on alternating exchange of information between people. In the investigation of advice-giving between lecturers and student teachers in this research, the focus will be on interaction patterns such as turn-taking organisation, sequence organisation, adjacency pairs and repair organisation of advice-giving in conversations.

TURN-TAKING ORGANISATION

Turn-taking organisation is a central concept in conversation analysis that was first introduced by the sociologists Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson (1974:696) as 'a simplest systematic for the organisation of turn-taking for conversation.' Turn-taking implies the exchange between the role of speaker and hearer as a feature of the conversation (Coulthard, 1985). Only one individual talks in appropriate interaction during the process of conversation every time, and the words are continuous, which means that not all the participants involved in conversation are able to speak at the same time.

Turn-taking organisation consists of two main elements, namely the turn-constructional and turn-allocation components. The turn-constructional component is set by the speakers to construct a turn. The core part of a turn-constructional component is the turn-constructional unit (Shopen, 2007), which varies in type in different languages. In English, syntactically, there are four types of turn-constructional units: (a) sentential, (b) phrasal, (c) clausal, and (d) lexical. Each completion of a turn-constructional unit implies that one action is completed in one specific transition-relevance place, i.e., a turn is completed (Shopen, 2007). Thus, the transition-relevance place is the moment in a conversation when one speaker changes to the next and is marked by a noticeable short pause.

Turn-taking forms the basis of organising conversations (Shoppen, 2007), which may therefore have aspects of overlap during talk (Gardner & Mushin, 2007). Overlapping talk occurs when none of the participants talk alone but interrupt each other during a conversation. The importance of overlapping talk and meaning of

interruption in conversations, as well as the outcomes on advice-giving, were explored in this study.

SEQUENCE ORGANISATION

As mentioned in § 3.5.6.1, the dominant concept of a conversation is speaking in turns. Schegloff (2007) points out that sequential organisation is a common term in conversation analysis for referring to organisation that focuses on the positioning of utterances and actions. Liddicoat (2011) states that the clustering of turns at talk indicates the sequence organisation of a conversation. Led by preceding talk, responses show participants their understanding of the previous action (Slembrouck, 2004). Therefore, conversation interaction is considered sequential. Schegloff (2007) indicates that two actions constructed by alternate speakers and occurring adjacent to one another are referred to as adjacency pairs.

ADJACENCY PAIRS

This is a concept introduced in 1973 by the sociologists Schegloff and Sacks with reference to a class of units that encompasses the smallest units in conversation exchange, which also happen to occur in pairs. Slembrouck (2004) explains that turns in conversation occur minimally in pairs and that the second part of the pair is functionally dependent on the first. Examples of such sequential units are question/answer, greeting/greeting, invitation/acceptance or decline, complaint/ denial, or request/grant.

Upon the production of a first part of such actions, participants orient themselves to the relevant second part of the action. For instance, in the question/answer example, the question represents the first pair-part (FPP), whereas in the next turn, the answer represents the second pair-part (SPP) of the unit (Billig, 1999). Adjacency pairs are therefore composed by two utterances by two speakers one after another, with the second utterance identified as related to the first by being an expected follow-up to the first. In consecutive paring, the first utterance forms an FPP and the next an SPP during an interaction between conversational partners. Adjacency pairs can therefore be seen as the basic structural unit in conversation (Richards, 1980).

Adjacency pairs held particular significance for this study. The most basic feature of conversations is that talk by one person with another almost invariably contains an expectation of a response. The first speaker (as source of the FFP or first utterance) creates a conversational space that the second speaker is expected to enter and occupy in appropriate response. As the basis for a conversation, adjacency-pair analysis was incorporated into the study to enhance understanding of the conversational sequence in advice-giving responses between lecturers and student teachers.

REPAIR

Schegloff, Jefferson and Sacks (1977) explain repair as the procedure in which participants deal with the problems that may appear in speaking, hearing and understanding in conversations. In this study, repair actions were observed between lecturers and student teachers in mentoring conversations after the latter's WIL experience. During the mentoring conversations, special attention was paid to how advice was given and whether repair took place.

3.4.4.2 Summary

It is noticeable that individuals employ questions, requests and ways of responding to actions throughout conversations (as discussed in § 3.5.6). An inquiry process takes place in which knowledge production, resolving doubt or solving a problem are outcomes of the conversation. This research involved lecturers and student teachers who, in conversation, co-inquired in a collaborative way and encouraged each other to express their personal views, explore identified problems and guide each other towards arriving at solutions. This process, as observed by Abrahamson (2008), is a highly appropriate design not only for enabling students to develop better understanding and new insights, but also for capacitating lecturers to improve their mentoring practices (Abramson,2008).

3.5   ADVICE-GIVING IN MENTORING CONVERSATIONS

Since advice-giving can serve as an invaluable instrument for addressing several critical aspects during any mentoring conversation, mentors need to make critical decisions when considering to employ this instrument, such as when to give advice or not, or when to guide or ask stimulating questions. These decisions are determined by

the situation if directive advice is needed immediately, or if the mentor can support and what will the variety of helpful responses be (e.g. questioning, listening, scaffolding and so on) as well as where the ownership shall be (CIPD, 2016). The fundamental facets to keep in mind before giving advice in mentoring conversations are the advice-giving conditions, advice-giving ground rules and structuring of advice-giving (CIPD, 2016).

Regarding advice-giving *conditions* in mentoring conversations, it is essential to create a safe space (Pegg, 1999) in which mentees can gather their thoughts and reflect on the identified problem. It is the responsibility of mentors to create such a space where they and mentees can interact with each other and discuss problems through questions, answers, active listening and scaffolding in order to conceive solutions. Therefore, as Feng (2013) specified, providing emotional support to mentees is of the essence in facilitating acceptance and effectiveness of advice.

Ground rules for advice-giving are equally decisive in mentoring conversations. Mentors should possess a clear intent and plan to accomplish specific outcomes in an advice-giving situation (Epstein, 2007). They also need to ensure that mentees understand the advice through interaction and collaboration aimed at guiding students to knowledge productivity, as underscored by Tillema et al. (2015). Empowered in this manner, teacher students will consequently be better equipped to confront variable circumstances through an enactment of new insights and perspectives in their own practice.

The *structuring* of advice-giving plays a prominent role in the advice-understanding and advice acceptance of a person. Waring (2007) posits four positions of accounts in advice-giving as discussed in § 3.5.5. When given in the first position, advice serves as a face-saving strategy in which resistance is managed (Waring, 2007). If the pre-advice accounts are used effectively, it ameliorates the potentially face-threatening action of advice-giving and, in addition, encourages advice acceptance. Giving advice in the second position forestalls advice resistance. When advice is given in a critical reasoning format in this position, it determines the understanding of a problem (Waring, 2007). Advice and accounts given in the third position concentrate on problematic uptake and serve as 'resistance-management devices' (Waring,

2007:382). The fourth position has noticeable forward-looking qualities in that mentees find the advice relevant and useful for its being applicable to new situations.

Figure 3.8 is a diagram in which the advice-giving process is depicted.

Figure 3.8:   Diagram of advice-giving (researcher's design)

3.8   CHAPTER SUMMARY

From the analysis of perspectives on conversations, conversation theory, learning conversations and concepts of advice-giving it may be concluded that professional learning, as explored for the purposes of this study, is embedded in practice – the milieu in which learning through mentoring conversation, interaction and participation takes place. It is during mentoring interactions and conversations that meaning making is formed collaboratively between mentors and mentees. Advice-giving and mentoring facilitate the contribution of knowledge-productive learning in these conversations.

In the next chapter a detailed discussion of the research design and methodology will be provided.

CHAPTER 4
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The nature of a research investigation determines the selection of the fundamental research design and methodology, especially the essential choice between either a nomothetic or an idiographic approach; in other words, between a quantitative, measuring-directed or qualitative, interpretation-directed method. This chapter focuses on explicating and substantiating the chosen research paradigm, approach, design and methods employed in collecting and analysing data to answer the main research question posed in the study, namely how advice-giving in mentoring conversations contributes to knowledge-productive learning.

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.2.1 Introduction

Whereas research design creates and holds the structure of the study and leads to the general approach to or analysis of a problem, research methods mainly involve the specific techniques used for collecting and analysing the data (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014). Given the nature of this study as an investigation into meanings of events for individuals in social contexts – thus favouring a phenomenological perspective as opposed to a positivist measuring of variables – the reasons for the selection of the research design, methodology, data collection and analysis choices as appropriate to this investigation are expounded below.

The design and method choice directing this research inquiry included a qualitative research approach following an interpretative research paradigm, an ethno-methodological research design using a purposeful sampling procedure, video- and audio-recorded interviews as main data-collection instrument, and qualitative content analysis procedures accompanied by conversational analytic techniques. Employing these procedures and techniques was aimed at answering the research questions in relation to content as well as the conversational elements of the mentoring conversations. The measures to ensure trustworthiness and ethical compliance in the study are also presented in this chapter.

4.2.2 Research paradigm

As a framework of beliefs and practices that reflects a world view which encapsulates the nature of the world being investigated, as well as the individual's (researcher's) role in it (Bunniss & Kelly, 2010; Cresswell, 2014), a research paradigm also guides the research questions, methods and the criteria of trustworthiness (Tuli, 2010). The research paradigm consequently directs and influences not only the way in which the research is performed, but also the manner in which the researcher defines and reports on the information gathered. Three research paradigms are extensively used in educational research, namely positivist/postpositivist (quantitative), interpretative/ constructivist (qualitative) and pragmatic (mixed methods) (Bakkabulindi, 2015; Creswell, 2014; Schumacher, 2014). Whatever the type of paradigm utilised, however, they all follow certain principles that steer the research philosophy, namely ontological, epistemological and methodological (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Punch, 2013). The different positions of paradigms are embedded in important assumptions regarding (a) the nature of reality (the ontological perspective); (b) the relationship between the knower and the known (the epistemological perspective); and (c) the assumptions about methodological differences (the methodological perspective) (Bunniss & Kelly, 2010; Tuli, 2010).

Twinned with interpretivism, the broad paradigm of constructivist research was selected as the most appropriate foundation for this study since it acknowledges the subjectivist role of the researcher, whose aim it was to understand and describe how advice is given in mentoring conversations between lecturers and student teachers after the students' experience of work-integrated learning (WIL). The study thus focused on the social construction of understanding such mentoring conversations by deconstructing the text through conversation analysis (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2006).

Interpretivism has evolved from hermeneutics, the principal science of interpretation (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006; Nieuwenhuis, 2016). As observed by Tuli (2010), as well as Bunniss and Kelly (2010), an interpretivist paradigm describes the world as socially constructed, complex and consistently changing. Moreover, as noted by Mertens (quoted by Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006), it is in this environment that researchers aim to

structure an understanding of the social phenomena that they investigate. Conse-quently, the goal of research in the interpretivist paradigm is to comprehend and interpret the meaning of social interactions of humans instead of attempting to generalise and predict causes and effects (Neuman, 2000). It is essential for an interpretivist researcher to understand motives, meanings and reasons, as well as other individual experiences such as time and context (ibid., 2000).

Bunnis and Kelly (2010) furthermore underscore the phenomenological insight that knowledge is subjective and reality is based on varying interpretations. This implies that knowledge is constructed not only via the observation of phenomena – entailing *inter alia* interaction between humans or between humans and objects – but also by the description of intentions, beliefs, values and reasons, meaning-making and self-understanding, which essentially means that individuals create their own realities (Henning, Van Rensburg & Smith, 2004; Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2011). Although realities are constructed in this way, they cannot be ultimately understood or explained fully and research can only provide a specific perspective on them (Merriam, 1998). Furthermore, an interpretivist paradigm does not only exist as one way of gaining new knowledge, but is also based on personal perceptions and interactions interpreted to gain an in-depth understanding (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2011).

An interpretative research paradigm was, therefore, selected as best suitable for this study because of being most appropriate to analysing and interpreting advice-giving in mentoring conversations between lecturers and students as a form of meaning-making towards fostering knowledge-productive learning. Although studies seeking to investigate the social construction of knowledge favour the interpretative design as rooted in Western ontological and epistemological paradigms, the researcher acknowledges the risk that they may misconstrue the many and varied manifestations of human development through an element of subjectivity that is invariably present in any particular cultural hegemony or social ideology (Alcoff, 2007; Darder, 2015; Held, 2019). Nevertheless, for the current investigation, the interpretative paradigm correlates best with the environment of a university in which the pertinent hegemonies are generally accepted as the norm, in accordance with the recommendations of Darder (2015) and Held (2019). The study was furthermore informed by hermeneutics rather than post-colonial or critical discourses, departing simply from the perspective

that reality is co-constructed, subjective, context specific and context dependent (Chilisa & Kawulich, 2012).

4.3   RESEARCH APPROACH

The methodological approaches relevant to the interpretivist paradigm include descriptive, contextual and qualitative methods, which attempt to provide a platform for in-depth understanding of social phenomena particularly within educational settings (Lichtman, 2012). Additionally, qualitative research is aimed at facilitating a better understanding of the complexity of human interaction and behaviour in specific social contexts and settings.

As noted by Babbie and Mouton (1998), qualitative researchers endeavour to study human action from the perspective of the social actors themselves. In this study, the researcher focused the inquiry on the interaction between lecturers (mentors) and student teachers (mentees) in mentoring conversations after the students had completed a compulsory period of work-integrated learning in the form of teaching practice in schools. Although the explanation of human behaviour may be regarded as the chief purpose of qualitative studies, it is equally important in a qualitative approach to understand and describe actions and events from the perspectives of the social actors (Babbie & Mouton, 1998). This requirement received due consideration in the analysis and description of lecturer–student interactions and perceptions in the current inquiry, with specific attention being paid to participants' experience of advice-giving in conversations.

In sum, since qualitative research is by definition subjective in nature (Henning, Van Rensburg & Smit, 2004), the researcher serves as the main investigative instrument by taking an inductive approach to gaining a deeper understanding of the phenomena observed within a specific context in order to provide a tenable description of them.

4.4   RESEARCH DESIGN: ETHNOMETHODOLOGY

Given the purpose of understanding advice-giving in a specific higher education mentoring setting, the choice of design was ethnomethodology. Ethnomethodology involves a method of sociological analysis of the manner in which people construct a reasonable and shared view of the world through everyday conversations. As a research design it is not intended as a means for arriving at judgements on human

behaviour or its causes, but rather as a method for explaining how people interact with each other as individuals and with society at large (Flick, 2014; Heritage, 1984; Seedhouse, 2004). In other words, as a design it is most relevant to facilitating an understanding of 'the competent ways' that everyday actions of members of a community 'bring about their social worlds' (Davidson, 2012:28). The main tenet of ethnomethodology is therefore that social order – as a continuing result of face-to-face interaction between people – is something that presents itself in everyday ordinary interaction and is therefore observable to and reportable by not only researchers but all other members of society (Niemi, 2016).

Ethnomethodology was the most suitable choice for this study since it allowed the researcher to explore and describe the 'members' methods' that people use – as members of a social collectivity – for organising their everyday lives in a meaningful way, especially in view of the strong emphasis placed on analysis of verbal interactions in everyday talk or institutional or professional conversations (Flick, 2014; Garfinkel, quoted by Van der Westhuizen, 2012; Ten Have, 2002). In this study, the 'members' methods related to the interaction between lecturers and student teachers in mentoring conversations.

4.5   DATA COLLECTION, PROCEDURE AND ANALYSIS

4.5.1 Selection of participants

The study employed purposeful sampling for participant selection, which entails the deliberate selection of participants from a population of 'subjects' with certain features that will be informative about the topic of interest (Macmillan & Schumacher, 2014). Contextualising such sampling, Cresswell (2014:21) explains that 'the idea behind qualitative research is to purposefully select participants or sites (or documents or visual material) that will best help the researcher understand the problem and the questions'. Tshuma and Mafa (2013) in turn emphasise that researchers make use of their knowledge (or professional judgement) of the targeted population to decide on a purposive or judgemental sample best suited to the objectives of their study.

The context or natural setting of the current inquiry was a teacher education programme at a local university at which students had embarked on compulsory work-integrated learning (WIL) in the form of teaching practice in schools. The student

teachers were requested to discuss any notable matters of interest to them during their WIL with lecturers during a debriefing conversation. They were also asked to reflect on their WIL and provide written reports on their opinions and perceptions of problematic situations that they had encountered. In the debriefing conversation that focused on these written reflections, lecturers provided advice and feedback on students' perceptions of situations that they had experienced as perplexing and provided suggestions on how difficulties could be addressed.

In the first sampling stage, six mentoring conversations between lecturers and student teachers – who were part of the Mentor Conversation Research Project in the Department of Educational Psychology at the University of Johannesburg (see § 1.5.3) – were presented as data for the project as a whole. In the second sampling stage, those conversations that included *clearly identifiable episodes of advice-giving and feedback* were purposefully selected for inclusion in the present study. It proved that two transcribed conversations complied with this selection criterion (see Appendices A & B).

4.5.2 Data collection and procedures

In the initial Mentor Conversation Research Project, lecturers held first-stage mentoring conversations with student teachers after these students had completed eight weeks of WIL in the form of practical teaching experience in schools. The student teachers/mentees were requested to write reflection reports on their WIL teaching experience and to highlight their positive experiences as well as problems that needed further elucidation. The lecturers/mentors read the reflection reports and identified key issues for discussion prior to second-stage mentoring conversations.

Six mentoring conversations were audio- and video-recorded and were used as the main data source for the larger project. Purposefully selected from these were two conversations that met the criteria for data extraction towards resolving the questions posed in this study. This meant that two mentors would separately conduct reflective mentoring conversations with two mentees (see § 5.2.2). As this study employed an ethnomethodological design, data collection could consist of either direct observations of the unit of analysis, or indirect scrutiny through audio- and video-recording (Ten Have, 2008). Video-recording in particular is a valuable qualitative research technique because of capturing not only what was said but also how it was said – in other words,

vocal behaviours such as silences, pauses and laughter, and non-vocal behaviours such as gaze direction, body positioning and gestural displays (Clayman & Gill, 2004). A holistic interpretation of all such elements is therefore essential in gaining deeper insight into a research phenomenon.

Verbatim transcriptions were made of all the video recordings to format the research conversations into textual material (transcripts; see Appendix C) as the primary data source for analysis (Poland, 2008). Jefferson's (2004) transcription notations of natural speech were used since these conventions made it possible to identify specific information in 'the talk' between mentor and mentee, such as overlapping speech, incomplete sentences, emphasis on a word, change in tone of voice, occurrence of pauses, or repair being made in the conversation.

4.5.3 Data analysis

4.5.3.1 Introduction

Data analysis is a process of organising and ordering raw data to extract significant information and present the findings in a way that shares the most important characteristics (Clayman & Gill, 2004; Hancock, 2007). The process of organising and thinking about data is important for the researcher to gain a deeper understanding of data gathered through analysis and reflection (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2011).

As indicated earlier, the main focus of the study was to explore the role of advice-giving in knowledge-productive learning in a higher-education mentoring setting. The research subquestions were formulated as follows:

- What is the content-level description of an advice-giving episode in mentoring conversations?
- How is advice-giving conducted conversationally in the advice-giving segments of the episodes in mentoring conversations?
- What are the learning outcomes of advice-giving segments of the episodes in terms of knowledge-productive learning in mentoring conversations?

These questions were aimed at clarifying the content of advice-giving and interaction patterns in these utterances in relation to knowledge-productive learning. Knowledge-productive learning is operationalised in this study as the creation of 'conceptual

artefacts' by mentees who rely on reflecting on current conceptions through dialogue, the ability to self-direct learning and motivation, and the commitment to engage in a collaborative relationship with mentors (Tillema & Van der Westhuizen, 2006).

Specific theoretical bases were also used to develop a framework for the analysis of advice-giving in the mentoring conversations, namely the four layers of activity (levels of conversational data) (Clayman & Gill, 2004); the pedagogical task structure for limiting resistance to advice-giving (Waring, 2007); and structural model of mentoring conversations towards a higher level of proficiency, the 'climbing Mount Improbable' metaphor as coined by Tillema (2012). This theoretical framework for the analysis is illustrated in Figure 4.1.
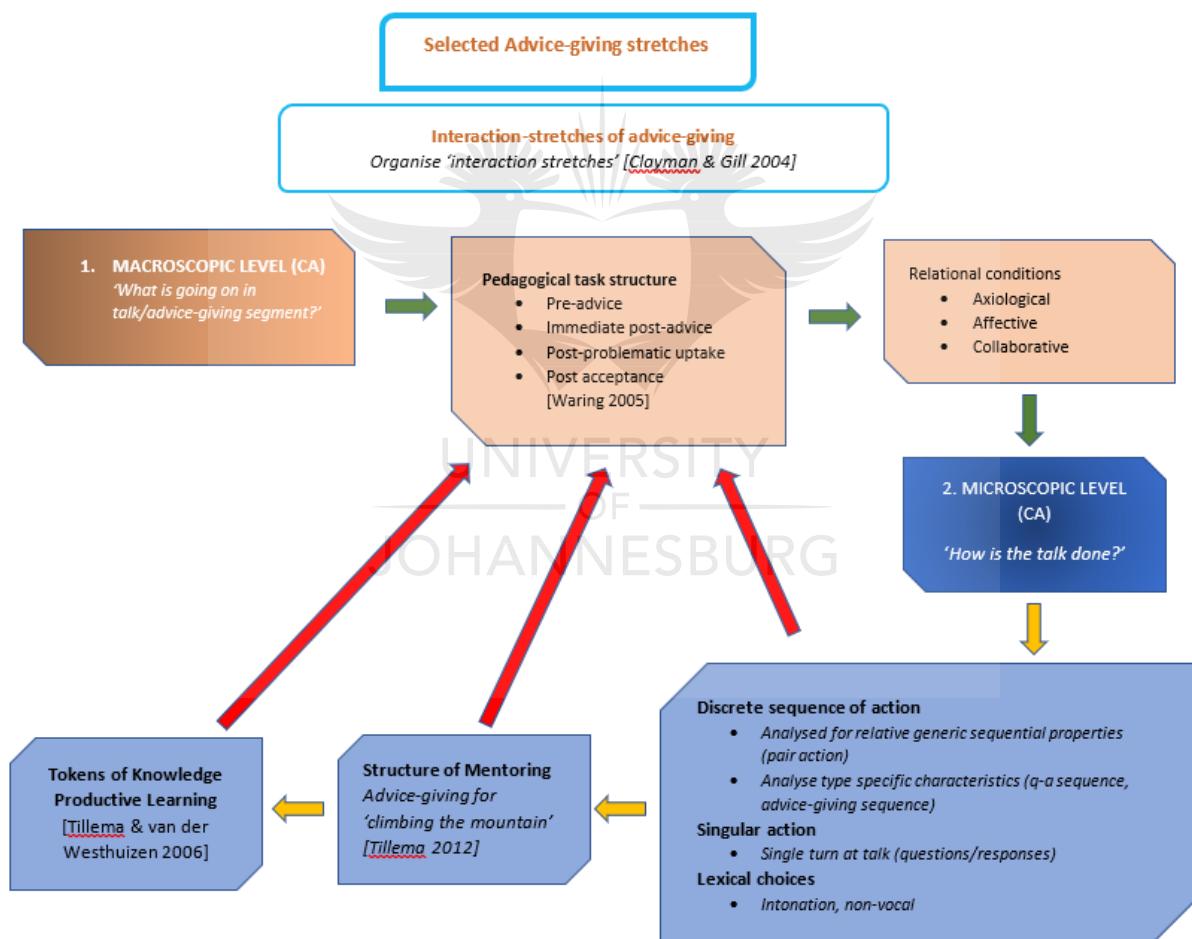
Figure 4.1:   Theoretical perspectives used for the analysis of advice-giving in mentoring conversations

The data analyses were performed on the originally selected two mentoring conversations for this study. These conversations were scrutinised for possible advice-giving interactions and resulted in two distinct advice-giving episodes, one in each mentoring conversation being noted (see MC 1 and MC 2, transcriptions of these advice-giving episodes, Appendix C).

The identified advice-giving episodes from the respective mentoring conversations were further demarcated into conversation phases in each episode. Lastly, 'potential advice-giving segments' were identified and delineated in each advice-giving episode of the respective mentoring conversations as the units for the analysis.

4.5.3.2   Analysis procedure

Assessment of the data was approached through two analytical tools, namely conversation analysis and content analysis, in the undertaking to answer the research subquestions as stated in § 4.5.3.1. The choice of the data-analysis methods was guided by the three research subquestions that formed an organisational framework for the analysis (presented in Figure 4.2).

Figure 4.2:   Framework for the analysis of advice-giving in mentoring conversations

Content analysis is generally used for analysing texts with the aim to describe the phenomenon being researched as systematically and objectively as possible (Elo & Kyngäs, 2007). This form of analysis allows the researcher to examine words or phrases and to organise them through interpreted shared meanings into content-related groups. Identifying evident themes in the data follows a process of subjective interpretation of the content of the texts, with a systematic classification of codes and themes (Elo & Kyngäs, 2007; Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). The recommended steps in analysing the data were followed in this investigation, namely preparing and organising the data and transcription for analysis; identifying segments in the data and ascribing codes; grouping the codes and categorising them into themes; and, finally, discovering broader patterns that aligned with theoretical bases for the analysis (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014).

The main aim of using content analysis was to draw tenable inferences from the data that, in context of the research and in accordance with the principles described by Elo and Kyngäs (2007), would yield greater insight into the uptake of advice-giving in mentoring conversations intended to promote knowledge-productive learning.

Conversation analysis was used to analyse the mentoring conversations in order to describe and understand the 'how' of the conversations in the form of interactions of the lecturers and student teachers in the talk. Conversations are structured and organised according to set principles in dyadic and multiperson interaction. Interaction is based on alternating exchange of information between people, in this case advice-giving between lecturers and student teachers as an exchange of information that is to lead to its uptake and production of an outcome (Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson, 1974).

The method most appropriate for this ethnomethodological study was conversation analysis as it allows for the scrutiny and interpretation of the patterns that people use in everyday interactions and conversations as the essential avenue for organising their social worlds (Clayman & Gill, 2004; Garfinkel, 1967; Riggenbach, 1999).

A more detailed discussion now follows of how each research subquestion was analysed.

4.5.3.3   Content-level description of the advice-giving episodes (RSQ 1)

Content analysis was performed on the conversation phases of the identified advice-giving episodes to understand and delineate the content-level description of the advice-giving episodes (Research Subquestion 1).

This analysis focused on the macroscopic level (Clayman & Gill, 2004), an approach that allows for an understanding of the organisation of conversations and the context in which it takes place. More specifically, what precedes the segment should also be considered since such analyses provide for the possible 'uncovering of underlying characteristics' in the conversation (Liddicoat, 2011; Maynard & Clayman, 2004; see also Figure 4.2).

In terms of the view held by Clayman and Gill (2004:595), analysing conversations is akin to charting the topography of the interaction, mapping the interactional patterns, and underpinning the methods and procedures of the interactions. When analysing conversations in this way, researchers use an inductive research method to move from the actual conversation itself to a more theoretical interpretation or understanding thereof. In this study, following Schiffrin's (1994) precepts, the entire conversation, its content, features, sequences and non-linguistic features were analysed within the micro-context of the mentoring conversations during pre-service teacher training at a local university in an attempt to understand the interaction.

Furthermore, Clayman and Gill's structural analysis framework of 'nested layers of activities' was firstly employed in the endeavour to understand the content flow of the conversation. The analysis of the collected data followed a sequential but overlapping process in which a description of the direction of the conversation was provided (Clayman & Gill, 2004). Clayman and Gill (2004) propose four layers of interaction to analyse the content and sequence of the utterances, namely the macroscopic level, the discrete sequence of action, the singular action, and the microscopic levels. The analysis of RSQ 1 focused only on the macroscopic level of interaction. The analysis for each advice-giving episode started with an initial overview of what was happening at the macroscopic level of the 'advice-giving talk' in each episode (Clayman & Gill, 2004).

4.5.3.4 How is advice-giving conducted conversationally in the advice-giving segments of the episodes? (RSQ 2)

In the analysis of how advice is given conversationally (Research Subquestion 2), the principles of conversation analysis were utilised. Inquiring into 'talk-in-interaction', conversation analysis is aimed at understanding how the structures of the talk are organised and how they would influence the interaction – as in this case, how the advice is given (Clayman & Gill, 2004). Thus, in essence, the current study was directed at understanding the practices of the participants in the conversations, which entailed examination of the ways in which they interacted, mutuality in the interactions, patterns of turn-taking, sequencing, relatively generic sequential properties such as paired actions, storytelling sequences or the type-specific characteristic such as question-answer sequences, invitation sequences and new delivery sequences (Clayman & Gill, 2004).

Concerning the role of sequenced organisation of turns in advice-giving segments, the researcher relied on the second, third and fourth levels of activity in interactions (Claymen & Gill, 2004) by analysing in particular how turns were taken in the interaction, how sequences were organised, and how repair took place (Coulthard, 1985; Liddicoat, 2011; Schegloff, 2007; Schegloff, Jefferson & Sacks, 1977; Yarah-madi & Sadeghi, 2012). Other aspects that were also analysed to arrive at a better understanding of the way in which the organisation of advice-giving interactions played a role in the presentation and uptake of advice, related to the manner in which sequential units were paired as discrete sequences of action (adjacency pairs as explained by Slembrouck (2004) and Billig (1999)), singular turns in the talk, and lexical choices, intonation and non-vocal behaviours at the more microscopic level of analysis.

At the microscopic level of the conversation analysis, the researcher examined the discrete levels of interaction, namely the single actions as well as the lexical choices. The single actions are normally accomplished through a single turn at talk, such as questions, requests, news announcements, or ways of responding to these various actions (Clayman & Gill, 2004). Lexical choices include intonation contours, non-verbal behaviours and other turn components that are mobilised within turns during talk (Clayman & Gill, 2004).

The researcher followed the suggested pathways into the data as proposed by Schegloff (quoted by Clayman & Gill, 2004:596) by firstly simply 'noticing' what the conversations were about without adhering to a specific agenda. To this end, the researcher 'mapped' the course of the conversation to clarify how advice-giving was conducted conversationally in relation to its outcome in the mentoring conversation.

Further to the analysis of how advice is given conversationally (Research Subquestion 2), content analysis was also employed to analyse each of the identified advice-giving segments in each of the two advice-giving episodes (or Mentoring Conversations 1 and 2, abbreviated as MC 1 and MC 2). To this end, the researcher incorporated the pedagogical task structures and relational conditions according to Waring (2007) as the theoretical lens to analyse the selected advice-giving segments. Waring (2007) proposes an interactional intent (the purpose or design) between mentor and mentee to describe what the advice-giving focuses on and how it is offered in interactions. The interactional intent or task structures contain four positions, namely pre-advice, immediate post-advice, post-problematic uptake, and post-acceptance as discussed in § 3.4.3. For this study, the researcher utilised analysis according to these task structures and relational conditions to understand when and how advice was given, and what the possible conditions for the acceptance of the advice would entail (see Figure 4.1).

4.5.3.5 *What are the learning outcomes of advice-giving segments of the episodes in terms of knowledge-productive learning in mentoring conversations? (RSQ 3)*

As this study is qualitative in nature, the researcher employed content analysis to describe and gain a deeper understanding of the possible learning outcomes in relation to knowledge-productive learning in each advice-giving segment within the advice-giving episode (Research Subquestion 3). The study also being fundamentally an investigation into mentoring, the researcher analysed the advice-giving segments by means of Tillema's (2011) structural model of mentoring. This model was particularly suitable for indicating the purposeful structuring of advice-giving in supporting the gradual growth of mentees towards attaining greater ability to deal with the issues reflected on after the WIL experience. To this end, the analysis focused on the propositions that mentors provided to mentees for acting on the issues that had been the subject of reflection. Propositions as viewed in this study, refer to the meanings of what is said and how it is said in the context of the conversation (Sullivan,

2009). Such meanings can be found in single sentences or can theoretically also be contained in more than one sentence.

Tillema's (2011) model for mentoring presents a metaphorical high road and a low road in the gradual development of mentees. This conversational model proposes that mentors' utterances can be categorised according to being merely 'exploratory' of current practice (possible low-road utterances); more 'prescriptive' and directive concerning practice (possible high-road utterances); or 'scaffolding' interactive when being constructively used in a collaborative effort to develop capacity in practice (possible high-road utterances). Tillema (2011) suggests that propositions at the prescriptive and constructive levels will progressively scaffold mentees towards knowledge-productive learning.

In addition, the advice-giving segments in the selected episodes were analysed by reflecting on 'components' of knowledge-productive learning, namely clarity of understanding shown, assessed relevance of shared knowledge, altering and shifting perspectives, new insights in own practice, and committing to enactment in own practice. The identified advice-giving segments and utterances were thus analysed and described in terms of the following 'tokens' of knowledge-productive learning, namely understanding the problem and making a perspective shift about it, followed by a commitment to applying enactment in own practice. Den, Yoshida, Takanashi and Koiso (2011) have indicated that in conversations, a listener not only hears the speaker's talk or utterance but also reacts with verbal and non-verbal expressions while the speaker's turn is in progress. Such verbal and non-verbal expressions function as verbal response tokens, which can be classified as continuers, acknowledgements, change-of-state, assessment or non-verbal tokens (Gardner, 2001).

4.5.3.6 Summary of data analyses

Given the purpose of the study as stated in § 4.1, a summary of the analysis procedures and decisions is presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3:   Summary of data-analysis procedure

Purpose of the analysis	Analysis procedure	Theoretical perspective for analysis
Identify advice-giving episodes in conversations	• Advice-giving episode (MC 1) • Advice-giving episode (MC 2)	• Appendix A • Appendix B
Demarcate conversation phases in advice-giving episodes	• Advice-giving episode (MC 1) • Advice-giving episode (MC 2)	• Seven conversation phases • Six conversation phases
Delineate advice-giving segments in advice-giving episodes	• Advice-giving episode (MC 1) • Advice-giving episode (MC 2)	• Four advice-giving segments • Three advice-giving segments
RSQ 1 What is the content-level description of the advice-giving episodes?	Content analysis of phases in advice-giving segments	Macroscopic level of interaction (Clayman & Gill, 2004)
RSQ 2: How is advice-giving conducted conversationally in the advice-giving episodes?	• Conversation analysis of advice-giving segments • Content analysis of advice-giving segments	• Microscopic level of interaction: second, third and fourth levels of activity in interactions (Claymen & Gill, 2004) • Pedagogical task structures and relational conditions in advice-giving (Waring, 2007)
RSQ 3: What are the learning outcomes of advice-giving in the advice-giving episodes?	Content analysis of advice-giving segments for tokens of knowledge-productive learning	• Analysis of the propositional level according to structural model of mentoring (Tillema, 2012) • Analysis for components and tokens of knowledge-productive learning (Tillema & Van der Westhuizen, 2006)

4.6   TRUSTWORTHINESS

4.6.1 Introduction

Trustworthiness, particularly in qualitative studies, refers to criteria according to which the qualitative inquiry may demonstrate the tenability of the findings (Given, 2008). Apposite concepts in the literature refer to generalisability, internal validity, reliability and objectivity as the qualitative terms used for indicating trustworthiness (Given,

2008). Krefting (1991), on the other hand, favours Guba's 1981 model because of best ensuring trustworthiness in accordance with the criteria of applicability, truth value, consistency and neutrality. The four criteria finally formulated by Lincoln and Guba (1985) for ensuring trustworthiness in qualitative studies revealed a slight shift in connotation, being expressed as credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. These four measures were observed to maintain trustworthiness in the current study.

4.6.2 Credibility

Credibility refers to the confidence that the researcher can evince with the truths of the findings based on the research design, participants and the context in which the study was conducted (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). To substantiate the endeavour to achieve credibility in this investigation, the context of the learning conversations within the broader project was explicated. The research design and methodology, including the data collection and analysis, were discussed in detail to ensure that appropriate scrutiny could be undertaken by independent readers. Established research methods aligned with the aims of the study were presented and explained (Shenton, 2004). In this respect, conversation and content analysis procedures were discussed. A person qualified to transcribe the recorded interviews in the Jefferson method was used, and these transcriptions were perused by members of the broader project for correctness and completeness. Coding and analysis of the collected data were discussed with independent members of the project, as well as the supervisor of the study, before the findings were formulated.

4.6.3 Transferability

Transferability in this study was achieved by providing detailed accounts of the conversational levels and examples of advice-giving to support the analyses and findings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Care was taken to align the analysis methods with acceptable conversation analysis methods as proposed by prominent authors in the field. Copious records of the data collection and analyses were supplied as appendices to allow for scrutiny and possible replication in similar contexts.

4.6.4 Dependability and confirmability

Dependability refers to the extent to which the research findings would be consistent if the research was replicated in similar contexts, while confirmability – as the equivalent of the criterion of neutrality – is reached when the truth value and the applicability of data are established (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). To address the issues of confirmability and dependability, a clear audit trail of the data collection and the data analysis was provided. This involved provision of all records of the learning-mentoring conversation, data-analysis process and notes, and all documentary evidence either as part of the report or as appendices.

4.7   ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

As the current study was part of the larger Mentor Conversation Research Project at the University of Johannesburg for which ethical clearance had already been given by the University's Faculty of Education Academic Ethics Committee (see Appendix E, the study qualified for ethical clearance given that the same participants, data-collection instruments and procedures, and written informed consent documentation were in place. The researcher nevertheless abided by the following ethical principles associated with studies of this nature.

4.7.1 Consideration of the University's protocol

This study was only undertaken once written ethical approval for it had been granted by the University of Johannesburg. The researcher committed to conduct the study in accordance with the prescribed protocol approved by the institution.

4.7.2 Informed consent

All participants in the study received written consent letters explaining the nature of the study (Appendix F. They were informed of their voluntary participation and of everything that might be required of them during the course of the research investigation. They were furthermore assured of their right to withdraw from the study without repercussions or penalties.

4.7.3 Self-determination

Consent forms, written in accessible language that provided a clear understanding of the nature of the study, were approved by UJ's Faculty of Education Academic Ethics

Committee. Participants were informed that participation was voluntary and that they were free to decline from participating and could withdraw from the study at any time.

4.7.4 Confidentiality and anonymity

All participants were assured that their privacy and anonymity would be protected in all respects (see Consent Form, Appendix F. They would not be identified in any way, nor would their identities be directly shared with anyone. They were further given the undertaking that the description of the mentoring conversations would be reported in such a way that they would remain anonymous, and that original data sets would only be discussed with the supervisor of the study. The researcher also assured the participants that the original data sets, as well as information gained from the mentoring conversations, would be kept securely at the University of Johannesburg where the project resides.

4.7.5 Minimisation of harm

The right to decline to participate or withdrawing at any time after having decided to participate, without any resultant sanctions in either case, was explained during the session when consent forms were completed. Participants were also assured that if their willingness to participate at any time caused unpleasant emotional experiences to arise, that such discomposure would be foregrounded and psychological assistance would be provided by the appropriate University structures. It was also clearly communicated that the study would not involve deception of any kind, as the researcher was only interested in gaining a deeper understanding of how mentoring conversations and the advice-giving in such conversations between lecturers and students occurred.

4.7.6 Candid feedback and distribution of findings

Participants were assured that the content and findings of this study would only be used for research and development purposes in the University, and that the final manuscript of the study would be available for perusal from the researcher. The study would also, after completion, become part of the University's repository of completed research available electronically in the UJ Library.

4.8   CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this study, the researcher adopted a qualitative, interpretivist and ethnomethodo-logical approach as the suitable approach and design to describe and observe the mentoring conversations and resultant advice-giving between lecturers and student teachers towards fostering knowledge production. In the next chapter a detailed analysis of the collected data will be provided.

CHAPTER 5
DATA ANALYSIS, FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reports the findings of the data analysis, as well as the interpretation of findings concerning advice-giving in mentoring conversations. An activity report on the research processes describes the way in which the procedures for data collection and data analysis were conducted, followed by a discussion of the findings.

The analyses and exposition of the findings were guided by the following research subquestions (RSQs as outlined in § 1.2):

- RSQ 1: What is the content-level description of the advice-giving episodes?
- RSQ 2: How is advice-giving conducted conversationally in the advice-giving segments of the episodes?
- RSQ 3: What are the learning outcomes of advice-giving in the advice-giving segments of the episodes?

5.2 ACTIVITY REPORT

The main procedures for this investigation entailed ensuring that ethical approval requirements were complied with, that data collection was conducted according to best-practice principles and that analysis was undertaken by means of validated research criteria.

5.2.1 Ethical approval and informed consent

Ethical approval for the Mentor Conversation Research Project, of which this study formed part (§ 4.7), was obtained from the Faculty of Education Academic Ethics Committee (ethical clearance number 211-131; see Appendix E). The ethical procedures included written informed consent according to which participating student teachers (mentees) and lecturers (mentors) in the mentoring project had to agree to the mentoring interactions being video- and audio-recorded for analysis.

5.2.2 Data-collection for the study

Procedures for the selection of the mentoring conversations for data collection were discussed in detail in § 4.5.2. Since two conversations were selected from the six intended for the larger study, it meant that for the purposes of the present study two lecturers/mentors consequently held further reflective discussions with respectively two student teachers/mentees.

Planning for both mentoring conversations followed the same pattern in that the mentors had requested the mentees to write reflection reports on their teaching experience on completion of their eight weeks of WIL as learning-in-practice at local schools. After reading the reflections and preparing for the conversations, the mentors invited the mentees to discuss their reports in the mentors' offices where they were comfortably seated at a table. The mentors held the report and their own notes made before the conversation in readiness for reflection at the start of the meeting. The mentors clarified what the focus of the conversation would be and requested consent from the mentees that their interaction could be video-recorded, which was subsequently granted. The videographer was initially present to set up the recording, but the mentors reassured the mentees of their commitment to confidentiality as agreed on in the written consent form and stated that the videographer would withdraw once the recording had started. When this had been done, the mentors expressed their gratitude to the mentees for their willingness to participate and initiated the conversation.

As noted in § 4.5.2, the audio- and video-recordings were transcribed verbatim and annotated using Jefferson's transcription notations and conventions. Owing to challenges presented by the speech tempos and accents of second- or third-language speakers, audibility and gestures, transcriptions were double- and cross-checked for reliability and rectified where necessary by a research assistant who was involved as a co-researcher in the larger project.

5.2.3 Data analysis procedure

The analyses of the two mentoring conversations were conducted separately. In each analysis, transcriptions were scrutinised for content and interaction as described in detail in § 4.5.3.2 to answer the stated research subquestions. Close examination of

these conversations was undertaken to identify distinct advice-giving episodes, which were first separated into phases for the purpose of content analysis and description of each conversation as a mentoring interaction. Both advice-giving episodes were also separated for analysis into identifiable advice-giving segments utilising the pedagogical task structure and relational conditions (see § 4.5.3.3). The objective was to ascertain how the advice was given conversationally and how the advice-giving segments reflected not only the components of knowledge-productive learning (i.e., understanding the problem, making a perspective shift, and committing to enact in own practice), but also the respective response tokens indicating such learning (see § 4.5.3.3).

For the analysis at the content level, the identified phases of each advice-giving episode were examined to arrive at an overview of what the interaction covered. To this end, the first level of Clayman and Gill's (2004) structural analysis framework was used and analysed at the macroscopic level for each of the two selected mentoring conversations, inclusive of the identified advice-giving segments in each of them.

Regarding how the advice was given conversationally in the identified advice-giving segments, an analysis at the microscopic level of each identified segment focused on discrete levels of interaction as well as lexical choices (Clayman & Gill, 2004; see also § 4.5.3.2).

Analysis of the conversation for possible tokens of knowledge-productive learning were undertaken in accordance with the precept of Tillema et al. (2015) that professional learning towards knowledge productivity should meet specific criteria (see § 2.5). All the identified advice-giving segments of the two mentoring conversations were scrutinised for possible response tokens of understanding, a shift in perspective, and commitment to apply.

5.3 FINDINGS OF THE ANALYSES OF ADVICE-GIVING IN MC 1

5.3.1 The content-level description of advice-giving in MC 1

RSQ 1: What is the content-level description of the advice-giving episodes?

Research Subquestion 1 focused on the content level of the advice-giving episode in the conversation. The researcher used conversational flow – the extent to which a

conversation is experienced as 'smooth, efficient and mutually engaging' (Kouden-burg, 2013:351) – to describe the content as it merged in the conversation. Advice-giving Episode 1 (MC 1, as identified and selected from Mentoring Conversation 1) commenced with a conversation between a mentor and mentee after the latter's WIL experience in her specialised subject, Life Orientation (LO). During their conversation on her written reflection report after the school experience, the identified advice-giving segment centred on the issue of note-taking in the LO class as well as her perception of how the class teacher could have dealt differently with the note-taking problem.

It was evident that the conversation in this episode progressed fluently and cogently through several phases during the flow to round off in eventual advice-giving. The researcher thus decided to utilise the phases of the flow to present the findings for this research question. These phases were designated according to the content levels in the episode (see Appendix D for the full transcription).

EXPOSITION OF PHASES IN MC 1 FOR RSQ 1

GREETING AND INTRODUCTION

This meeting in the episode commenced with the mentor's extending a personal greeting to the mentee (lines 1-2), expressing his appreciation for her participation in the mentoring project and enquiring about her WIL experience (line 5).

TOPIC OF DISCUSSION

Initiating the discussion by referring to the mentee's reflection on her school experience and salient issues that emerged from it, the mentor enquired after her view (lines 2, 5).

The mentee expressed her initial perceptions and expectations prior to her school experience of having rowdy learners in the classroom because of her school subjects being LO and English (lines 14-15) – LO in particular, as she explained later, being perceived by learners as a [free period] (lines 46-51).

FOCUSED DISCUSSION ON THE TOPIC OF NOTE-TAKING

The episode then focused on one of the mentee's main concerns. She voiced her unhappiness about learners' ability to take notes from the board and suggested that her feeling could be connected to her perception that technology could be

used instead of only copying notes from the board (lines 15-17). She had found the note-taking situation difficult because of her perception that the learners should have had more worksheets instead of having to copy the notes from the board. She suggested that worksheets would free up time, which would allow for more interaction and engagement between learners and the teacher (lines 18-19).

PROBLEMATISING CONCERNS

To engage her in deeper clarification of the issue, the mentor problematised the mentee's expectations and concerns about learners making notes all the time (lines 20-21). The mentee expressed her opinion on the absence of [actual] worksheets in the LO class (lines 22-25) and requested some confirmatory response from the mentor on her view since she repeated [if you get me] (i.e., 'if you follow my meaning') at the end of her turn (lines 23, 25).

The mentor's response, [Ja::] in line 26, invited the mentee to carry on problematising the issue. The mentee repeated her initial view that all the learners were spending hours copying from the board because they did not have worksheets (line 31).

PROBLEM CLARIFICATION

This phase was introduced by the mentor's question on what it was that troubled the mentee about learners' copying from the board all the time. He emphasised the word [there] to focus the clarification, and then paused (lines 32, 34).

The mentee clarified her view on why the current practice of note-taking was problematic in the LO class. She expressed her dilemma with reference to the manner in which the teacher interacted with the learners in the class. Her concern was that the teacher only instructed the learners to copy notes from the board without any interaction or engagement with them (lines 35-38).

The mentor responded to this clarification by paraphrasing the mentee's explanation and interpretation of this situation. He recapitulated her reasoning that the learners would sit and copy all the time. She affirmed his explanation with a simple [yes] in line 40, and in lines 42-43 repeated her view of what the issues were about.

ALTERNATIVE PRACTICE TO NOTE-TAKING

The mentor requested the mentee to recommend a different approach to note-taking instead of copying from the board (lines 44-45). The mentee emphasised that although the class teacher wrote all the notes on the board, she should interact more with the learners. The teacher should encourage better involvement and engagement from the learners otherwise learners would perceive the LO class as a free period (lines 46-51). The mentor then suggested that to sit and copy from the board was not hard work (line 52), which the mentee concurred with in line 53. Nevertheless, the mentor agreed with the mentee that an alternative in the LO class was to have more interaction, which might lead to more engagement in the learning (lines 54-59).

ENHANCING THE PRACTICE OF NOTE-TAKING

The mentor concluded his turn by asking the mentee where note-taking would fit into such interaction (lines 58-59). The mentee readdressed the note-taking problem by structuring the process of note-taking to the mentor. The mentee suggested that the teacher should explain to the learners what and how they should approach note-taking, as well as consider an alternative mode to it. This implied that learners first listen to what the lesson was about and then take notes or copy them, after which the notes could be explained to them during the next lesson (lines 60-65). The mentor affirmed her suggestion with a double [yes] (line 66), and then paraphrased with an extended suggestion that this would mean interaction using notes to assist in explaining and understanding (line 66). The mentee validated the mentor's suggestion with a vocal [yes] and a nod (line 67).

The mentor commenced his turn with a proposal that note-taking could also be used as a learning tool and observed that it was a skill (lines 68-69, 73).He requested the mentee to reflect on how notes were taken, and whether notes were made about what was taught in class, or whether they merely involved copying from the board (lines 73-75), to which the mentee replied in the affirmative to the latter (line 76).

The conversation then shifted to designing a lesson to accommodate note-taking with questions and possible suggestions from the mentor (lines 79-82). This led to a clarification-seeking response from the mentee in the form of a question (line

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83)*,* to which the mentor responded affirmatively (line 84)*.* The mentee took this opportunity to explain her own interpretation of the lesson design, which she did with accompanying non-vocal behaviour actions and intonation. She proposed that the teacher should interact with the learners, followed by the taking of notes (lines 85-88)*.*

The mentor summarised the mentee's suggestions and further proposed that the learners make notes on what they observed (lines 89-90)*.* The mentee agreed with a nod and a vocal affirmation (line 91).

After consolidating this initial shared understanding of note-taking, the mentor proceeded to suggest an alternative approach for it. He proposed that learners make notes while the lesson was continuing (lines 92-93), a recommendation seemingly as a follow-on from his earlier utterance in lines 73-75*.*

The mentee recognised this alternative from own experience and affirmed that this was what students did at university and that she was familiar with the process (line 94)*.* The mentor in turn affirmed her explanation (line 95), after which she demonstrated her agreement with this understanding a second time by nodding (line 96)*.*

The mentor then asked the mentee which skills learners would learn if they took notes during the lesson (lines 97-98)*.* The mentee responded that the learners' listening and writing skills would be developed (lines 99-100)*,* to which the mentor agreed with an affirmation (line 101)*.* The mentee confirmed that these were very good skills to develop (line 102)*.*

The mentor extended the alternative practice by suggesting that it was not only listening and writing skills that were taught to learners. They also learned to identify main ideas and to distinguish between relevant and irrelevant information, and were not merely learning the skills of copying everything from the board (lines 103-105)*.* The mentee correlated her insights with the mentor's explanation by giving a nod and adding that learners did indeed use reasoning for note-taking (line 106)*.* The mentee further articulated her understanding by referring to reflection practices used during note-taking (lines 108-109)*.* The mentor showed his agreement with this understanding (line 110).

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In summary, this mentoring conversation started with a definite 'warming-up and greeting' phase that created the opportunity to enter into the mentee's reflection on her experience of school practice and the problems that she encountered. The conversation shifted to one of the identified issues in the written reflection, namely a concern over note-taking, which was isolated as the topic for discussion. Hereafter the issue at hand was clarified in greater depth and problematised in terms of the mentee's experiences. The conversation then proceeded to the advice-giving episode via a discussion of alternative practices, as well as of the learning outcomes that such practices may have, which were deeply reflected on.

The advice-giving episode concluded with a summary from the mentor about the suggestions on note-taking as well as the mentee's explanation on the new insights gained about note-taking.

How the advice was given conversationally in the identified advice-giving segments of the mentoring conversation, as an answer to Research Subquestion 2, will be presented next.

5.3.2 How advice-giving was conducted conversationally in MC 1

RSQ 2: How is advice-giving conducted conversationally in advice-giving segments?

5.3.2.1 *Identified advice-giving segments*

To answer Research Subquestion 2, four distinct advice-giving segments were identified in MC 1 and reported on individually. The first segment was identified as 'pre-advice to account' and the second as 'accounts in advice-giving'. The third segment addressed 'scaffolding in advice-giving', and the fourth 'post-acceptance in advice-giving'. Each of these segments will now be considered.

5.3.2.2 *Pre-advice to account*

This segment did not show evidence of explicit or direct advice-giving, but indicated how establishing trust may facilitate gaining an entry point into the conversation (Hoover, 2010:20). This segment is also a first-position account (Waring, 2007) in which the pre-advice identifies the problem that the mentee is invited to formulate and agree on. Deliberate reflection in this segment on what the mentee's concern was,

allowed for entry points into the conversation to establish eventual trust and to 'save face' (Schön, 1983; Waring, 2007; Wenger, quoted by Tillema & Van der Westhuizen, 2006).

How a conversation is structured, further supports and develops reflection on a problem, as well as trust and openness to interaction. Mentoring conversations are structured as either explorative, constructive or prescriptive (Tillema, 2012; see also § 3.3.2.4). According to Tillema (2012), it is imperative to explore the problem well in mentoring conversations to develop such trust, to gain entry points, and to allow deeper reflection on the issue before advice is given. Table 5.1 serves to illustrate such exploration.

Table 5.1: Segment 1: Pre-advice to account

Line	L: Mentor S: Mentee	Transcription
20 21	L	You're talking about (.) your expectations:: before but then also finding children ahm (.) ah (.) making notes all the time?
22 23 24 25	S	Ye::s ((nodding)) ahm I think just writing all the time because it wasn't an actual ((gesture both hands)) handout (.) >if you get me <.especially in LO all they ha::ve is what they're ((right hand gesture)) given (.) if you get me (.)=
26	L	[Ja::]
27	S	=for tasks
28	L	[Ja::]
29	S	=and all their work they wrote out.
30	L	[Ja::]
31	S	There's no worksheets for them. So they spent many hours writing.
32 33	L	[So what was the:: (.) issue for you there? (1.0)
34 35 36 37 38	S	I think in a sense maybe expecting ((right hand gesture)) the teacher as well to interact with the children more↑ and to speak to them because literally (.) the children would come to class and then (.2) " ↑Morning, ↑afternoon class. Okay:: your work is on the board↓. Just write it out.↓" ((right hand waving gesture))
39	L	So they would sit and copy all the time
40	S	[Yes
41	L	Okay.

Line	L: Mentor S: Mentee	Transcription
42 43	S	=Sit and copy:: so:: that's why that(.) troubled me feeling that maybe she needed to interact with them more so.. ˚ja..˚

Establishing trust was observed by requesting clarification of the mentee's views in a questioning utterance (lines 20-21), which created the entry point into the conversation for the mentee in order to clarify the issue in line 31. This allowed the mentor to explore the mentee's knowledge status with a turn construction unit via a 'wh-question' and the lexical choice of 'there', which was intended to clarify the source of the trouble (line 32). A timed pause in line 33 allowed space for the mentee to answer. A second clarification question followed in line 39, which led to an elucidating reflection on what 'troubled' the mentee (lines 42-43).

The observed sequence organisation in this segment was 'questions–answer–feedback–extended answer'. Questions and feedback were aimed at clarification, whereas responses/answers reflected on experience.

The mentee explained her view in response to the mentor's question (lines 34-38). The mentor summarised the mentee's explanation as a knowledge check turn (line 39), which was followed by incidental overlap by the mentee with an affirmation token (line 40). The mentor next used a try-marking in line 41 to invite further clarification by the mentee, which was succeeded by her establishing her knowledge status about the topic (lines 42-43).

The mentee's turn-taking (lines 42-43) indicated latching with no discernible pause. This turn added to her previous description of the note-taking problem (lines 22-24 and 34-38) for consensus of understanding between her and the mentor.

Specific lexical choices were evident in this segment. The word [there], occuring in line 32, was a lexical choice with intonation used by the mentor as a topic initiation for the mentee to reflect on. The mentee in turn used the lexical choices [think], [in a sense] and [maybe] (line 34) to indicate her possible lack of knowledge status about the topic at this time. Her lexical choices of [well], [more], [literally] and [then] indicated further exploration of her knowledge about the issue of note-taking by citing her experience of what happened in the classroom (lines 35-38). Rising intonation and prolongation,

indicated by the double colon transcription symbol (lines 37-38), were also used to further elaborate her view on note-taking. She also employed non-vocal behaviours as evidenced in lines 34 and 38 – [(((right hand gesture)))] and [(((right hand waving gesture)))] – in expanding on her view of note-taking.

The mentee also availed herself of the lexical choices of [troubled], [needed to interact] and [more] to indicate her knowledge status of the problem and active focus on reflection. Prolongation was also evident in this turn, which appeared to indicate reflection towards defining the problem on note-taking (line 42).

The different lexical choices, intonations and non-vocal behaviours employed in this segment explored and clarified the problem under discussion. Each of these word choices, accentuations and non-verbal gestures conveyed meaning, allowing the mentor to deepen the exploration of the issue and the mentee to deepen her reflection. Careful exploration, clarification and gaining trust came to the fore as elements needed for advice-giving in this specific example.

This segment showed first-position account in which the mentor requested the mentee to clarify the focus of the issues to be dealt with (lines 20-21), prompting her to elaborate on the issue of note-taking in class (lines 23-25). The request was repeated in lines 23-33 and the mentee provided an explanation of the problem in lines 34-38. This segment indicated pre-advice in the mentoring interaction.

5.3.2.3 *Accounts in advice-giving*

Table 5.2:   Segment 2: Accounts in advice-giving

Line	L: Mentor S: Mentee	Transcription
44 45	L	So what would be ↑bet↓ter than just sit and ah.. ah… copy notes from the bo::ard?
46 47 48 49 50 51	S	I feel that maybe even if she did write all those notes↑ maybe be more interactive with them and trying to teach them what's going on because even when she did stand up it was "Oh this is what's on the board, okay" you know feeling that she should interact with them more trying to get them invo::lved. You know it's more like a free period ….(…)
52	L	So its not hard work to sit and copy notes
53	S	No not at all .

Line	L: Mentor S: Mentee	Transcription
54 55 56 57 58 59	L	Jah::: Its also… its also.. ah.. ahm:: maybe establishing some kind of ah.. relationship where you don't have to <u>work</u> hard, you can just come here and make <u>notes</u>. Ah..and I think you're right ↑(.) the ah.. the alternative is to be much more interactive and ahm.. to let the learning happen in the interaction. And then where would the ah.. note-taking fit into such interactions? Ahm.. would you say..?
60 61 62 63 64 65	S	I think maybe firstly explaining what it is that they're doing. They can't take notes:: coming to cla::ss::.. "This is what we're doing↑ . This is what it's about↑." Ahm telling the students what they're doing. <u>Then</u> ↑they can write their notes, because they know what it is and they know what they're doing or alternatively let them write the notes and the next day explaining everything to them
66	L	So you're saying that they can do the interaction around the note=
67	S	Yes ((nodding))
68 69	L	But then the notes can also be used as a learning … as a learning tool↑..
70	S	Mmmm ((nodding head))↑
71	L	Because ah..ah::m taking notes is ..is a skill.↑.
72	S	[yes]
73 74 75	L	..is a skill↓. Have you seen a teacher doing that..letting ..you know (.) letting..ah (.) children taking notes from class? Or was it mostly copying from the board? ((left hand touching head))
76 77 78	S L S	Yes it was mainly ((nodding)) [Mostly that. Oh okay. Yes it was mostly tha:t.

Sequence organisation of this segment predominantly included question and answer statements. The conversational sequence commenced with a turn construction unit using a *wh*-question requesting clarification, followed by a clarifying answer (lines 44-51). This was succeeded by a reflective feedback on the answer and affirmation by the mentee (lines 52-53). The next sequence commenced with the mentor's confirming and extending the mentee's claim in line 53, with further suggestions for practice before ending the turn with an invitation to the mentee to account (lines 54-59). The mentee responded by accounting her personal understanding of the interaction on note-taking (lines 60-65).

The mentor continued with the same conversational pattern by again initiating a new topic sequence (lines 68-69), focusing on note-taking as a skill. The mentee elicited further explanation from the mentor (line 70) on his previous statement, which

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prompted the mentor to extend the topic further by using suggestion and reflective question statements with a view to cueing the mentee's response on the topic of note-taking as a skill (lines 71-75). The mentee claimed understanding in line 76, followed by overlapping repair by the mentor (line 77), upon which an immediate uptake of repair by the mentee took place (line 78).

The sequence organisation in this segment was mainly suggestive and reflective, characterised by elaborative questions and feedback followed by claiming and accounting responses. It should be noted that Hennissen et al. (2008:175), in describing a non-directive mentoring style as 'reflective, cooperative, guiding and elicitive', used the last-mentioned word as an equivalent for 'suggestive'. Although the term 'suggestive question' is prevalent usage in the fields of conversation and interview analysis, the more precise formulation of 'response-eliciting question' will be used in this study to clarify that a question of this type is posed to encourage a conversation partner to provide more detail pertinent to the topic under discussion.

At a microscopic level, specific lexical choice was evident in this segment, which indicated important aspects of the development of mutual understanding. Examples of this use were found in the lexical choices of both mentor in […↑bet↓ter …] with falling intonation (line 44), and mentee in [notes↑] (line 46), and […invo::lved…] with rising intonation (line 50). The mentor employed rising intonation and a noticeable pause in line 56 […you're right ↑(.)] to support the mentee's idea. The mentee further elaborated on this idea through accentuating it with rising intonation and prolongation in lines 61-62 [… what we're doing↑ . This is what it's about↑…]. The mentor responded by using repair action through partial repetition and rising and falling intonations in lines 68-69 [..tool↑..], prolongation and rising intonation in line 71 […skill.↑.] and falling intonation in line 73 […skill↓…] to support the mentee's perception that note-taking is indeed a skill.

Although no direct advice was given in this segment, the mentor provided second-position account opportunities to the mentee to support critical reasoning and understanding of the problem (lines 44-45; 52; 54-59; 68-69; 71-75). These turn-taking utterances of the mentor were exploratory and constructive towards immediate post-advice acceptance.

5.3.2.4 Scaffolding in advice-giving

A recognisable pattern in the preceding segments was observed, as the mentor initiated a topic using the previous discussions on note-taking to ascertain the mentee's knowledge of lessons that seemed to be encouraging note-taking (lines 79-82).

In Segment 3 under discussion here (see Table 5.3), the sequence organisation followed a similar pattern of the mentor's starting with a reflective and response-eliciting question statement (lines 79-82), but now with the mentee's posing a knowledge-check question requesting monitoring of her understanding from the mentor (line 83), which he confirmed with an affirmative token (line 84).

Table 5.3: Segment 3: Scaffolding in advice-giving

Line	L: Mentor S: Mentee	Transcription
79 80 81 82	L	How would a lesson like that wo:rk where you encourage ah (.) note-taking?(1) But not copying from the board ((gesture left arm)) but have interaction and then do notes. How would such a lesson work? ((gesture left arm))
83	S	Do you mean in the doing of the (.) the lesson?
84	L	[Ja]　　　　　　　[yes]
85 86 87 88	S	Ah::m (0.2) I feel that maybe in a sense integrating the two so you can have your lesson speaking to the students and then in a sense↑. asking them to write it after they've written so that it's a bit of both ahm (1.0) ((gesture))
89 90	L	Ye:s ((left arm gesture)) so first the lesson and then let them make notes about what they are (.) about what they observe.
91	S	((nodding))Ye:s.

The mentee responded with a reflective account using prolongation in her utterance regarding her developing claim of understanding and epistemic access (lines 85-88). The mentor summarised the mentee's account with advice based on reanalysis of the mentee's account (lines 89-90), to which the mentee responded with an affirmative token in acknowledgement of the mentor's prior utterance (line 91).

Sequence organisation in this segment suggested that question statements by the mentor, which invited reflective accounts and claims from the mentee, were followed by indirect advice from the mentor.

Examples of microscopic Levels 3 and 4 in this segment were non-vocal behavioural signs by the mentor evident in lines 80-82, and 89, as well as by the mentee in lines 85 and 91.

It was also evident in this segment that mentee accounts were scaffolded before direct advice was given. The mentor requested the mentee to confirm her understanding of the note-taking (lines 79-82) to provide opportunities for client-inferred advice.

5.3.2.5 Post-acceptance in advice-giving

Table 5.4:   Segment 4: Post-acceptance in advice-giving

Line	L: Mentor S: Mentee	Transcription
92 93	L	Okay. What about writing (.) ah notes ↑while ah the lesson is going on↓?
94 95	S	Oh yes that as well what we do ahm here at varsity. That also works.
96	L	That's how it works here.
97	S	Yes ((nodding))
98 99	L	So what do you teach them? What skill would you teach learners ah note-taking during a lesson.
100 101	S	Mmmmm I think it's the skill ((right hand gesture)) of being able to listen↑ and to also write↓.
102	L	Yes
103	S	It's a very good skill to do that (right hand gesture))=
104 105 106	L	So its listen and write but its also ((left hand gestures)) identifying the main idea a:nd you distinguish what's good, what's not good . I should write this and not tha::t and not copy everything.
107	S	((nodding)) It's like reasoning as well in a sense.
108	L	Yes ((nodding))
109 110	S	You're thinking about what you're writing and you're thinking about what you're hearing instead of mere (.) just copying.

The recognised pattern in the preceding segments was again observed in this segment as the mentor's first utterance was a topic initiation reflected (lines 92-93) in a *wh*-question. The mentee responded with a definite claim of understanding that alluded to a knowledge change status as she was able to associate her understanding with her practical experiences as a mentee (lines 94-95). This was followed by an

adjacency pair in which the mentor used an affirmative claim (line 96), in turn succeeded by an affirmative token of agreement by the mentee (line 97).

The mentor continued with another topic initiation utterance (lines 98-99) using *wh-*questions, requesting the mentee to reflect. The mentee accounted with a knowledge statement utterance (lines 100-101), which was affirmed by the mentor with an affirmative token (line 102).

The mentee claimed and accounted with the utterance in line 103 doing the work of a knowledge check, to which the mentor again responded by summarising the mentee's account not only with an utterance of appropriation to affirm the understanding, but also with reanalysis advice of the account (line 104-106). The mentee responded with an affirmative token that indicated a knowledge change status (line 107). An affirmation token followed for the mentor (line 108) with a concluding utterance claiming a change in knowledge status by the mentee (lines 109-110).

The previously observed sequence organisation of the foregoing segment was again evident in this segment. Reflective question-statements by the mentor invited reflective accounts and claims from the mentee, which were followed by indirect advice from the mentor and knowledge status claims by the mentee.

The mentor employed specific lexical choices using rising and falling intonation in line 92 [...notes↑..] and falling intonation in line 93 [...on↓? …] to focus the topic initiation utterance. The mentee utilised both rising and falling intonations in line 101 [...to listen↑ and to also write↓…].

Specific lexical choices at a microscopic level of analysis were evident in this segment, which indicated important aspects of the developing mutual understanding. Examples of these were found in the mentor's lexical choice of [...notes ↑..] (line 92) and [...on↓? …] (line 93), with rising and falling intonation to focus the topic initiation utterance. The mentee utilised both rising and falling intonations in lines 101 [...to listen↑ and to also write↓…] to emphasis her account. Non-vocal behaviour by the mentee was noted in lines 97, 100, 103 and 107, while non-vocal behaviour by the mentor was observed in lines 104 and 108.

Lexical choice coupled with the use of intonation and non-vocal behaviours was noted in these sequences as important speech acts in supporting accounting, claiming and reflecting in advice-giving in mentoring conversations.

This segment indicated a fourth position of accounts that addressed an understanding of the advice given, and not merely an acceptance thereof (lines 91-92, 97-98, 104 and 106-107). The advice given was indirect, with continual scaffolding. Post-acceptance of advice in this segment had a forward-looking quality (lines 106-107).

5.3.2.6 Findings: How advice-giving contributes to mentee learning (MC 1)

RSQ 3: What are the learning outcomes of advice-giving segments?

To achieve knowledge productivity in mentoring conversations, the interaction implies (1) gaining a clear understanding of issues during interaction, (2) altering and shifting perspectives relative to these issues, and (3) committing to enactment of the new insights and perspectives in own practice (Tillema et al., 2015). As indicated in § 2.5, the structural dimensions of the mentoring conversation (Tillema & Van der West-huizen, 2013) also influence the learning outcome of the mentoring.

For the analysis of the tokens of knowledge-productive learning in this mentoring conversation, the occurrence of tokens in each of the four identified advice-giving segments was identified while remaining cognisant of the phase of the conversation in which this advice-giving segment was introduced. Each advice-giving segment in the conversational phases was analysed according to the three elements of knowledge productivity enumerated in the previous paragraph, as well as the structural dimension of the mentoring conversation in which they were evident.

The tokens of knowledge-productive learning evident in the identified advice-giving segments in MC 1 are listed in Table 5.5 with an indication of the transcription line numbers.

Table 5.5: Summary of tokens of knowledge productivity in advice-giving segments (MC 1)

Advice-giving segment	Tokens of understanding	Tokens of perspective shift	Tokens of commitment to apply enactment in own practice
Segment 1: Pre-advice to account	Lines 22-30 Lines 34, 38 Lines 41-43	none	none
Segment 2: Accounts in advice-giving	Line 44 Lines 58-59 Line 67 Lines 70, 76, 78	Line 53 Lines 64-65	none
Segment 3: Scaffolding in advice-giving	Line 97 Line 100	Line 91 Lines 101, 103, 107	none
Segment 4: Post-acceptance in advice-giving	Line 94	Line 107 Lines 109-110	none

The tokens of understanding noted in MC 1 were:

MENTEE

- Showing understanding by non-vocal behavioural gesture (lines 22, 24, 25, 34, 38, 67, 76 and 97).
- Demonstrating understanding by affirmation utterance (lines 40, 43, 67, 70, 76, 94 and 97).
- Indicating understanding by affirmative claim (lines 53, 64-65, 103 and 107).

In terms of the structural dimensions of the conversation, the mentor initially sought to explore the current understandings and practices of the mentee, for example in lines 20-21, 32-33 and 92-93. More constructive/scaffolding and prescriptive utterances were evident in the development of the advice-giving episode. Constructive utterances were noted in lines 52, 54-59, 66, 68-69 and 98-99. Prescriptive utterances were noted in lines 73-75 and 104-106.

The tokens of perspective noted in MC 1 were:

MENTEE

- Indicating perspective shift by affirmative claim (lines 53, 64-65 and 101).

- Demonstrating perspective shift by affirmative claim and clarification (lines 109-110).
- Showing perspective shift by non-vocal behavioural gesture (line 91).
- Demonstrating perspective shift by affirmation utterance (line 91).

Regarding the structural dimensions of the conversation, the mentor used mainly constructive and scaffolding utterances to collaboratively co-construct new understanding aimed at challenging current knowledge and practices towards shifting mentee perspectives, for example lines 52, 54-59, 89-90, 98-99 and 108.

5.3.3 Summary of findings in MC 1

The findings of MC 1 are summarised according to the three research subquestions in Table 5.6

Table 5.6: Summary of Advice-giving Episode 1 (MC 1)

RSQ 1: *What is the content of the advice-giving?*	RSQ 2: *How is advice-giving conducted conversationally?*	RSQ 3: *What are the learning outcomes of advice-giving?*
Conversation phases	**Advice-giving segments**	**KPL* tokens in advice-giving segments**
1. Greeting and introduction	**Segment 1:** Pre-advice to account	Segment 1: **Understanding** Lines 22-25 Lines 34, 38 Lines 41-43
2. Topic of discussion	**Segment 2:** Accounts in advice-giving	Segment 2: **Understanding** Line 44 Lines 58-59 Line 67 Lines 70, 76, 78 **Perspective shift** Line 53 Lines 64-65
3. Focused discussion on the topic of note-taking	**Segment 3:** Scaffolding in advice-giving	Segment 3: **Understanding** Line 97 Line 100 **Perspective shift**

RSQ 1: *What is the content of the advice-giving?*	RSQ 2: *How is advice-giving conducted conversationally?*	RSQ 3: *What are the learning outcomes of advice-giving?*
Conversation phases	**Advice-giving segments**	**KPL* tokens in advice-giving segments**
		Line 91 Lines 101, 103, 107
4. Problematise concern	**Segment 4:** Post-acceptance in advice-giving	Segment 4: **Understanding** Line 94 **Perspective shift** Line 107 Lines 109-110
5. Problem clarification		
6. Alternative practice to note-taking		
7. Consolidation		
*KPL: Knowledge-productive learning		

5.3.3.1 *Analysis of RSQ 1: What is the content-level description of the advice-giving episodes?*

Seven phases were differentiated in the conversation of MC 1, which commenced with a greeting phase and was followed by the topic-of-discussion phase in which note-taking was identified as the main issue for the talk. The flow of the conversation developed through phases ranging from a more focused discussion on note-taking, problematising and clarification, to an alternative practice phase before concluding with a consolidation phase. The mentee progressed from a student teacher who experienced the problem on note-taking in class as a mere copying exercise for the learners, to a student teacher with a deeper understanding of this issue as well as possible solutions to what she perceived as a hindrance to effective learning in the classroom. The mentor spent time in crystallising the problem and provided numerous opportunities for the mentee to reflect critically on her own understanding and interpretations. The mentor allowed the mentee space to also proffer her own thoughts on possible reasons for the problem and ways to address it. Through careful scaffolding and support during the alternative practice phase, the mentor successfully guided the mentee towards gaining new insights for which she could take ownership.

The 'structure' of this conversation allowed for a flow that was more circular, interactive and inviting than linear and hierarchical.

5.3.3.2 Analysis of RSQ 2: How is advice-giving conducted conversationally in advice-giving segments?

Four advice-giving segments in MC 1 were identified, named and used as an organising principle for the further analyses. In each segment the mentor commenced with a *wh*-question. Such questions and their variants appeared to serve as invitations to the mentee to clarify, explain and reflect on the experienced problem of note-taking. The mentor utilised a scaffolding and constructive approach to support mentee learning by bridging the learning gaps and steering the mentee towards deeper insights and problem solving. Both the mentor and the mentee employed lexical choices and intonations in all segments to foreground their views on the problem and how to solve it.

5.3.3.3 Analysis of RSQ 3: What are the learning outcomes of advice-giving segments?

In answering this question, the researcher identified and discussed tokens of knowledge-productive learning in each advice-giving segment as well as the structural dimensions of mentoring towards this learning. The tokens identified varied among understanding, perspective shift and enactment of new insights in own practice.

It was clear from the analysis of MC 1 that the mentee gradually progressed from initial personal perception to a deeper collaborative and shared understanding that led to an eventual definite shift in perspective on the use of note-taking to assist learning in the classroom.

5.4 FINDINGS OF THE ANALYSES OF ADVICE-GIVING IN MC 2

5.4.1 The content-level description of advice-giving in MC 2

RSQ 1: What is the content-level description of the advice-giving episodes?

As stated in § 5.3.1, Research Subquestion 1, which focused on the content of Advice-giving Episode 2 (MC 2, as identified and selected from Mentoring Conversation 2), was analysed according to the phases that gradually became manifest in the flow of the conversation. Conversation flow is the extent to which a conversation is experienced as 'smooth, efficient and mutually engaging' (Koudenburg, 2013:351).

MC 2 was a conversation between a mentor and a mentee after her WIL experience in a Mathematics class. The mentor and mentee discussed her reflection report and the salient issue that emerged was the learning performances of learners, specifically how learners could improve their performance in Mathematics as well as their attendance of classes. Phases similar to those in MC 1 were identified in MC 2.

EXPOSITION OF PHASES IN MC 2 FOR RSQ 1

INTRODUCTION AND TOPIC PROCLAMATION

The mentor expressed his thanks to the mentee about the first issue that they had addressed after her school experience, but then requested that they move on to the second issue (lines 127-128), namely the mentee's expressed concern about the weak learners for whom she felt personally responsible (lines 128-133). The mentee cautiously agreed with the mentor's suggestion to proceed to the second issue (line 134).

PROBLEMATISING CONCERNS

The mentor then turned to the problematic issues experienced and immediately focused attention on the mentee's behaviour in this situation by asking her whether she thought that she had dealt with this situation satisfactorily (lines 135-136). He also asked if she could identify things that would make this situation easier after some time (lines 136-138). The mentee's responses, however, were attempts at clarifying her experience of the problem by explaining that the situation was one of serious concern because the learners did not even take the trouble to attend the Mathematics class (lines 139-140) – i.e., an extra after-school class for which she was responsible.

The mentee further problematised the situation by explaining that learners did not attend the class, achieved poorly in Mathematics and that she felt responsible for the class (possibly their poor performance), and even their lack of attendance (lines 141-146). The mentor, by responding with an encouraging interjection [°↓I::s ↑it°] (line 147), invited her to clarify the problem further. The mentee repeated that she was responsible for the class and therefore had to ensure the learners' attendance (lines 148-149).

The mentor did not heed the identification of the mentee's concern about her accountability for learners in the classroom immediately or directly at this time, but rather enquired whether it was a big class or a class of twenty learners (line 151). The mentee replied that they were few and the mentor repeated her words, [just a few of them] (line 153). She remarked that the learners involved usually arrived in groups of three or five (lines 154-155). The mentor further enquired if she could liaise with the teachers regularly as a way to support her in dealing with this issue. She replied that collaboration with the teachers might be an option (lines 159-160). The mentor responded with an interjection that invited further elaboration, [°Mmm – mmm°] (line 161), which prompted the mentee to suggest that the teachers should do the follow-ups and assist her in communicating with the learners as the teachers were trusted by them (lines 162-164). The mentor provided an affirmation for this view with a double [Ye::s yes] (line 165).

The mentee proceeded to explain that if a learner did not attend class, she felt the teachers should assist her and convince the learners to attend the extra class (lines 166-172). The mentor agreed with her and enquired whether she had had individual meetings with [those] learners (lines 173-174). She replied that she saw them individually after school, to which the mentor interjected with a questioning [°Is it°?] response (line 178). The mentee completed her sentence by adding that she saw them when they attended her class. The mentor replied with an affirmation of understanding (line 181).

The mentee further mentioned another approach that she followed to observe the class and attempt to communicate with them during the lesson observation (lines 182-187). The mentor apologised for his interruption and enquired if there was any value in making regular contact with learners and whether, in her opinion, the learners appreciated this or not (lines 188-192). The mentee hesitantly began to express her opinion (line 193) but before she could complete her sentence the mentor interjected with a question statement (line 194), to which the mentee replied in the affirmative (line 195).

PROBLEM CLARIFICATION

The mentor initiated this phase with a questioning statement concerning improved learner performance (lines 196-198). The mentee remarked that the learners had

recently written a test, to which the mentor quickly responded with a questioning affirmative (lines 199-200). She replied that the learners had done well in the test (line 201) to which the mentor again responded quickly with the same questioning affirmation, [yes] (line 202). The mentee provided a further explanation statement that the learners could [↑do°↓mo::re° (.)=] (line 203). The mentor requested further clarification with an interjection related to [more] also meaning [better] (line 204). She qualified this request with a statement that learners could perform better if they attended classes (line 205). The mentor responded with an invitation to continue, [mmm::] (line 206), to which the mentee provided a qualifying statement that class attendance was needed (line 207). The mentor interjected with an indication of understanding (line 208), while the mentee pursued her view that if she could ensure attendance by the (implied weaker) learners, she could assist them (line 209). The mentor encouraged the mentee with a [mm-m::] [mm::] (line 210) to complete her statement, which she did by noting that then she could assist the learners with the difficulties they were experiencing (line 211).

FOCUSED DISCUSSION ON THE TOPIC OF LEARNING PERFORMANCE IN MATHEMATICS

The mentor next posed the question whether learners were weak because they did not care to complete their Mathematics exercises (lines 212-214), to which the mentee remarked that she initially had not known but at present realised that it was rather a case of making an effort to complete their Mathematics exercises (lines 215, 217-218). The mentor used encouraging interjections to support the mentee's train of thought, [Mmm] (line 219) and [°Yes::°] (line 221). The mentee then further argued that the learners would not do well unless they made an effort to complete Mathematics exercises given to them (lines 218; 220). She expressed the view that learners should put in more effort (line 222), which was followed by an affirmative interjection by the mentor (line 223), and the mentee's conditional statement that when the learners were committed to their work, they could do much better in Mathematics (line 224).

ALTERNATIVE PRACTICE TO MATHEMATICS PERFORMANCE

In an unfinished open-ended statement to encourage completion, the mentor proposed that the learners might have the ability but did not clearly articulate a reason for their poor performance (line 225). The mentee immediately responded that she thought the learners might just need (line 227) – here interrupted by an

encouraging interjection from the mentor (line 228) – more time to practise, with the proviso that they attended the extra class (line 229). Another supportive [yes] interjection by the mentor (line 230) followed before the mentee could conclude that otherwise it was not going to make a difference (line 231).

As an interlude to his next direct question concerning this alternative practice in lines 242-243, the mentor responded by offering an alternative view to the mentee's by recounting his own experiences as a Mathematics teacher that one would have weaker learners in any average school (lines 232-243). The mentee responded to the mentor's question with a clarity seeking [The::?] in line 244, after which the mentor described the alternative as relating to a slower tempo by giving extra exercises to the learners or allowing them to do the exercises at their own tempo (lines 245-246). The mentee responded to this explanation by providing her own view that she would be worried about the fact that if such learners were given more work, they would not cope because of being weak learners. Her view was that if these learners were given fewer exercises, they might be better able to master the content (lines 247-253).

The mentor acknowledged the mentee's view and reframed an alternative way to improve the learners' performance for the mentee to contemplate. He requested her to consider that if the (weaker) learners were allowed to work at a slower tempo and do less than the other learners, it might assist them (lines 254-258). The mentee reiterated her point of view that it would not solve the problem because it still remained the volume of work the learners had to deal with that made it difficult for them to cope (lines 259-261). The mentor responded to the mentee's statement by repeating that the learners could not cope with that (line 263).

CONSOLIDATION PHASE

The mentee affirmed her position with an emphatic reason for the learners' poor performance (line 264) in spite of all the alternatives offered. The mentor acknowledged the mentee and accepted her views and reasoning. By means of a question, he further extended the enquiry to her feeling accountable for the learners' performance (lines 266-267). The mentee maintained that she was still personally responsible for them because the parents enquired about the learners'

marks and would confront her as to reasons for their poor performance in Mathematics (lines 268-273).

In summary, MC 2 started with an introduction and topic proclamation phase, followed by a phase in which concerns were problematised on grounds of the mentee's experiences during her WIL. This was succeeded by a focused discussion on the topic of how to improve performance in the Mathematic class, and on reasons for learners' poor learning performance in Mathematics. This was followed by alternative practices suggested by the mentor on learning performance in Mathematics. The mentoring conversation concluded with a consolidation phase during which the mentee's viewpoint on learners' learning performance in Mathematics was acknowledged.

5.4.2 How advice-giving was conducted conversationally in MC 2

RSQ 2: How is advice-giving conducted conversationally in advice-giving segments?

5.4.2.1 Identification of advice segments

To answer Research Subquestion 2, three distinct advice-giving segments were identified in MC 2 and reported on individually. The first segment was again a 'pre-advice to account', the second focused on 'immediate post-advice', and the third addressed 'post-problematic uptake in advice-giving', as discussed below.

5.4.2.2 Pre-advice to account

Table 5.7:   Segment 1: Pre-advice to account

Line	L: Mentor S: Mentee	Transcription
127 128 129 130 131 132 133	L	Thank you for that. I'm gonna go on to towards the second thing that you listed here-.hhh <u>Initially</u> you felt that (1) you had a couple of kids that are >the so called <u>weak</u> learners °in the school°< and you were >sort of< (.) had the re- responsibility to <u>deal</u> with them (.) and you >↑sort of ↓felt< (.)↑<u>perso↓nally</u> responsible for them=
134	S	°Ye::s°
135 136 137 138	L	hh Ah (.) ↑would you say that you (.) ↑dealt with the situation satisfactorily or what (.) ↑what are the things that (.) after some time that>sort of<(.) ↑<u>made</u> this challenge ↑<u>easi↓er</u>?
139 140	S	The situation is ↑<u>very</u> ba::d at the mome::ntb'cause (1)they're not even (.) coming to classe::s =

Line	L: Mentor S: Mentee	Transcription
141	L	[°O::h°]
142	S	= they just (.) run away from the classes::(.)=
143	L	[°Oh°]
144	S	= and they're doing ↑very bad .hh (.)
145	L	[°Ye::s°]
146	S	= and I am <u>still</u> (1) responsible for them (.)=
147	L	°↓I::s ↑it°
148 149	S	= 'cause I am responsible fo::r ↑<u>that</u>↓class (1) I have to make sure that they atte:::nd (.) so-
150 151	L	[>Is it a ↑<u>big</u><cla::ss or is it twenty- >a class of twenty<?]
152	S	↑N:::o it's a fe::w
153	L	[°>Just a few of them<°]
154 155	S	But sometimes they come in fi::::ves- sometimes they come in three::::s (1) °Ye:::s°
156 157 158	L	hhh ↑Is there anything that you canah(.) do >to sort of make< (.) >to- to<lia↑ise with them on a <u>regular</u> ↑ba↓sis?
159 160	S	(2) You know Sir I th↑ink we should- ↑I should work (.) to↑get↓her with the teachers (3)=
161	L	[°Mmm – mmm°]
162 163 164	S	= The teachers should (2)↑do follow-u:::ps::- (.)↑help me to::: (.) to talk to the learners(1) 'cause they are (1)they are ↑<u>trust</u> teachers=
165	L	[Ye::s yes]
166	S	=If I just tell you that ah (1) learner X is not attending=
167	L	[Ye::s ye::s]
168 169	S	=[the class- I think] they should ↑just <u>help</u> me to talk about-to talk to=
170 171	L	[>to <u>talk</u> to the learners<]
172	S	[=the learners] to come to the extra classes
173 174 175 176	L	Yes. Would you have individual meetings with those studens->or not<↑really- >with those<- tho- those weaker learners – .hhh>would you see them individually< or ↑not ↑rea↓lly?
177	S	I – I ↑see them individually ↑after °schoo::l°
178	L	[°Is it°?]
179 180	S	[(when) they] attend my classes.
181	L	Oh I see

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Line	L: Mentor S: Mentee	Transcription
182	S	>Otherwise< I just go:: and obse::rve classe:::::s=
183	L	Yes
184 185	S	=and I ↑try to talk to the::m >during< the:: lesson observation::ns- =
186	L	Yah
187	S	=in that time

As indicated in § 5.3.2.2, trust fulfils a decisive role in gaining entry points into a mentoring conversation. The intent to establish such trust was evident at the start of MC 2 from the sequence organisation of this segment, which consisted of *wh*-question statements (lines 127-133, 135-138, 173-176) attempting to establishing a shared knowledge base to depart from, followed by affirmative token utterances (line 134) or explanatory and clarification account statements (lines 148-149, 159-160, 162-164, 177, 184-185), with interjections for encouragement (lines 141, 143, 145, 147, 161,165, 167, 178, 183). This sequence organisation appeared to be the dominant one in this conversation.

The mentor attempted to find an entry point through the *wh*-questions in lines 131-133, 135-138, 156-159 and 173-177, but did not allow the crystallisation of these entry points due to his continual interjections of encouragement and support (lines 141, 143, 145, 147, 161, 165, 167, 178, 183), or the introduction of a new topic (lines 173-176).

The mentor did not employ the entry point created by the mentee directly. This was seen in his response and interruption of the mentee's clarification and elaboration utterances with overlapping, softer utterances (lines 141-147). A similar pattern occurred in lines 149 and 150-151, in which the mentor again responded with an overlapping utterance and a new topic initiation. Again, the mentor overlooked the opportunity to take up the entry point created by the mentee to expand upon and clarify her issue (lines 154-155). The same sequence organisation pattern reoccurred, in accordance with which the mentor further introduced a new topic about liaising with the learners regularly (lines 156-158).

This sequence organisation was repeated, for example, in the mentee's expanded answer to the mentor's prior utterance (lines 159-172), in which the mentor responded

with a *wh*-question statement directed at initiating a related, but new topic (lines 173-176) in an attempt at fostering deeper reflection on the topic statement. No clear and explicit advice was given in this segment, which appeared to be aimed at gaining an understanding of the problematic issues that the mentee experienced without arriving at a clear entry point in the conversation. Specific lexical choice, rising and falling intonation, timed pauses, prolongation and repair were observed in the utterances of both the mentor and the mentee in this segment. These conversational elements were used to emphasise points for discussion, to show agreement by the mentor, or to request clarity, deeper reflection and further elaboration on the topic and specific aspects by the mentee.

The mentor, for example, used lexical choices with rising and falling intonation in an attempt to gain an entry point in

- line 28 [… Initially…];
- lines 130-131 […weak…deal…];
- rising and falling intonation in line 132 […↑sort of ↓felt…↑perso↓nally…];
- line 135 […↑would .. ↑dealt];
- lines 137-138 […↑made ↑easi↓er?];
- line 147 [°↓I::s ↑it°];
- line 150 […↑big<cla::ss …];
- lines 156-158 […↑Is there … to<lia↑ise … a regular ↑ba↓sis?];
- line 170 […talk …]; and
- line 176 [↑not ↑rea↓lly?].

These conversational elements were consistently used in the attempt to focus the conversation, to prompt further elaboration, and to knowledge check with a view to arriving at entry points for collaborative engagement.

The mentor also used overlapping, soft prolongation, [Oh] (lines 141, 143, 145), to indicate acceptance of prior talk as information (Heritage, 1984). Moreover, the mentor responded with an overlapping utterance and a new topic initiation in lines 150-151, which interrupted the mentee and 'stole the floor' to confirm the class size (Hilton, 2018), in line 153 to confirm the knowledge check of the prior utterance, in lines 156-

158 to initiate a new topic for discussion after a noticeable aspiration sign, and in line 167 (double prolongation) and lines 170-171 for agreement.

On the other hand, the mentee utilised specific lexical choices and rising and falling intonations in

- line 139 [...↑<u>very </u>ba::d...];
- line 144 [...↑very bad ...], with an aspiration sign and noticeable pause;
- line 146 [...<u>still</u>...], followed by timed pause and closing with a noticeable pause;
- line 148 [...↑<u>that</u>↓class ...];
- line 152 [↑N:::o it's a fe::w], repair with rising intonation and prolongation;
- lines 154-155, with prolongation, timed pause and closing with a soft prolongation;
- line 159 [...th↑ink - ↑I should ...], commenced with a timed pause;
- line 160 [...to↑get↓her ...] with a timed pause to close the utterance;
- lines 162-164 [(2)↑do ...(.)↑help ...↑<u>trust</u>...];
- lines 168-168 [↑just <u>help...];</u>
- line 177 [... ↑see...↑after ...]; and
- in line 184 [...↑<u>try</u> ...].

The mentee availed herself of these forms to announce a new topic, to highlight and claim the problem that she experienced in practice, to indicate her commitment to supporting the learners, as well as to accentuate her opinion about what needed to be done about the issues at hand. In this respect the mentee also used a soft tone with prolongation (line 134) in her affirmative token utterance, and explanation with soft prolongation (lines 177, 184-185).

The mentee furthermore used repair to the knowledge-check question with rising intonation and prolongation (line 152), as well as knowledge check for intersubjectivity (line 172).

Pre-advice to account (first-position accounts) was noticeable throughout this segment as a measure by the mentor to invite the mentee to formulate advice as a result of the experienced problem. Such first-position accounts were evidenced in lines 135-138,

156-158 and 173-176. Open-ended questions that initiated new topics were predominantly used by the mentor in these accounts.

5.4.2.3 Immediate post-advice in advice-giving

Table 5.8:   Segment 2: Immediate post-advice in advice-giving

Line	L: Mentor S: Mentee	Transcription
188 189 190 191 192	L	Would you ↑say that there's- >sorry for the interruption< from my side- that there's merit in>sort of< making regular contact with them- from ↑your side? .hhh>In other words< do they appr↑eciate that >or not< re::ally?
193	S	(2) I think they- (2) they (.)
194	L	>You're not sure<
195	S	°Yah°
232 233 234 235 236 237 238 239 240 241 242 243	L	Its ↑not gonna help (.) that's true. There is nothing else that you can do (.) if you think ↑back now (.) >in respect of the ↑weaker learners< (.) that >could have made a ↑difference<. Becau:se >in an average school< you will find this group of weaker ↓learners >that you have to deal ↓with<, and I found tha:t (.) ↑sometimes when you go at a ↑slower ↑tempo (.) let's say::↑ if you don't stick to the ↑schoo::l's (.) curriculum, you know when they do >this amount of maths in a week< they do just half of ↑that. It might work, but then of ↑course they need extra uh ↑exercises etcetera. Have you tried that↑ >or isn't it allo:wed in the school at the moment<?
244	S	The::?
245 246	L	Sort of uh giving extra (.) exercises or >sort of< ah (.) a following their own tempo?

Lines 188-192 indicated advice delivery from the mentor, who concluded it with a close-ended question. The mentee responded with hesitance as indicated by the timed pauses and a duplication word in line 193. The mentor stated that the mentee was unsure (line 194), to which she agreed. The mentor employed an agreement-statement (line 232), followed by an explanatory statement (lines 233-236). He further reflected on his own experience using epistemic authority and proposed possible solutions for the problem (lines 237- 242). He completed his utterance with a question statement (lines 242-243). In this utterance, the mentor gave explicit advice from his previous experience (lines 232-243). The mentee replied with a question statement while the lecturer resumed his advice on the problem.

The mentor utilised lexical choices with rising intonations in

- line 188 [… ↑say that …];
- line 190 […↑your …];
- line 191 […appr↑eciate …]; and
- line 192 [not< re::ally?].

He employed rising and falling intonations and lexical choices in lines 232-242:

- […Its ↑not gonna];
- [is nothing];
- [think ↑back];
- [the ↑weaker learners];
- [↑difference];
- [weaker ↓learners];
- [deal ↓with<];
- [found tha:t (.) ↑sometimes];
- [↑slower ↑tempo, say::↑ if you don't stick];
- [the ↑schoo::l's];
- [of ↑that, of ↑course];
- [extra uh ↑exercises]; and
- [tried that↑ >or…].

In this segment the mentor gave account after advising as part of the advising turn in lines 188-192, 234-237 and 241-243. This was immediate post-advice (second-position accounts) which eased the absence of pre-advice and tactfully allowed the mentee to respond with dignity.

5.4.2.4 Post-problematic uptake in advice-giving

Table 5.9:   Segment 3: Post-problematic uptake in advice-giving

Line	L: Mentor S: Mentee	Transcription
212 213 214	L	Are they- >are they<weak lea- learners because (.)>most of them don't actually< (care to do) their maths exercises etcetera?
215	S	At ↑first I ↑didn't↓kno:::w(1) =

Line	L: Mentor S: Mentee	Transcription
216	L	[Ah yes
217 218	S	= >about that< but <u>now</u> I can- I realise that they don't (.) put <u>effort</u> =
219	L	Mmm
220	S	= on their work (.) That is why they ↑don't do well::
221	L	°Yes::°
222	S	I think if they can put more ↑<u>effort</u> (1.0)=
223	L	°Yes::°
224	S	=dedicate to their work, they can do– do (much better).
225 226	L	>So they might have the ability< but they are not (.) necessarily …
227	S	[They might, they ↓might (.) they just need=
228	L	yes (.) yes
229	S	=more time to practi::ce. But if they run away from the
230	L	Yes
231	S	practices, its not going to ↓help.
232 233 234 235 236 237 238 239 240 241 242 243	L	Its ↑not gonna help (.) that's true. There is <u>nothing</u> else that you can do (.) if you think ↑back now (.) >in respect of the ↑weaker learners< (.) that >could have made a ↑difference<. Becau:se >in an average school< you will find this group of weaker ↓learners >that you have to deal ↓with<, and <u>I</u> found tha:t (.) ↑sometimes when you <u>go</u> at a ↑slower ↑tempo (.) let's say::↑ if you <u>don't</u> stick to the ↑schoo::l's (.) curriculum, you know when they do >this amount of maths in a week< they do just half of ↑that. It might work, but then of ↑course they need extra uh ↑exercises etcetera. Have you <u>tried</u> that↑ >or isn't it allo:wed in the school at the moment<?
244	S	The::?
245 246	L	Sort of uh giving extra (.) exercises or >sort of< ah (.) a following their own tempo?
247 248 249 250 251 252 253	S	I was <u>just</u> ↑worried about <u>that</u> sir (.) because if <u>they</u> (.) ↑say they are ↓weak ↓learners (0.4) they don't have to (0.2) have >a lot of work<. They just need to (0.2) ↑<u>get</u> maybe a piece of where they need to ↓practice and >go back go back< and get used to (.) the ↑content. If we ↑<u>load</u> ↑them with a lot of work (.) they will ↑<u>never</u> cope, because they >are going to< (0.5)
254 255 256 257 258	L	°yes° uh yes >I <u>hear</u> what you are saying< – so extra work won't work. But if we ↑give them <u>perhaps</u> (.) just a slower <u>tempo</u> (.) in other words >they do less than the others in respect of of a weekly load< (.) **that might** work ↑hey?=

Line	L: Mentor S: Mentee	Transcription
259 260 261	S	=I think it's ah <u>more</u> work, >its because< they they've been loaded with a lot of work (.)°that's why they can't cope°

Lines 212-261 provided the advice-giving segment in which ideas for alternative practice were shared. The conversational sequence identified in this turn construction unit started with a new topic question-statement by the mentor in the form of a suggestion (lines 212-214). The mentee responded with a seemingly uncertain attempt to answer (line 215) but afterwards provided a clarification statement (lines 217-218) that was resumed in line 220. This pattern was repeated in line 222 in which the mentee provided further clarification of her view on the problem, again to be resumed in line 224 after an interpolation by the mentor. The mentor responded in lines 216, 219, 221 and 227 with acceptance utterances of information from prior utterances of the mentee. The mentor commenced his utterance with a personal interpretation statement of the problem that was left as an open-ended question (lines 225-226). The mentee responded with a clarification on the problem (lines 227 and 229) and concluded her statement (line 231). The mentor responded with a double agreement (line 228) and an agreement (230) to indicate information acceptance derived from prior utterances.

The mentor employed an agreement-statement (line 232), followed by an explanatory statement (lines 233-236). He further reflected on his own experience using epistemic authority and proposed possible solutions for the problem (lines 237-242). He completed his utterance with a question statement (lines 242-243). In this utterance the mentor gave explicit advice stemming from his previous experience (lines 232-243), after which the mentee launched into her response without completing her utterance (line 244).

The mentor further expanded his clarification with a concluding question statement (lines 245-246), whereupon the mentee provided extended clarification and explanation on her prior utterance, resisting the mentor's advice and suggestions (lines 247-253). The mentor acknowledged the mentee's view but suggested an alternative to the specific issue response-eliciting question statement (lines 254-258),

to which the mentee resisted the mentor's alternative suggestions and closed her claim with a viewpoint of her own (lines 259-261).

Again, as observable in the previous segments, the sequence organisation commenced with a topic question statement by the mentor followed by a clarification statement from the mentee.

The mentor employed rising and falling intonations and lexical choices in

- line 212 [… weak …];
- lines 232-242 […Its ↑not gonna, is nothing, think ↑back, the ↑weaker learners, ↑difference, weaker ↓learners, deal ↓with<, found tha:t (.) ↑sometimes, ↑slower ↑tempo, say::↑ if you don't stick, the ↑schoo::l's, of ↑that, of ↑course, extra uh ↑exercises, tried that↑ >or…];
- line 254 […>I hear what you];
- line 255 [… ↑give …];
- line 256 […slower tempo…];
- line 257 […that might…]; and
- line 258 [… work ↑hey?=…].

The mentor utilised these intonations and lexical choices to foreground the problem and thus to convince the mentee to accept the alternative solution.

The mentee employed a lexical choice and rising and falling intonation in

- line 259 […it's ah more work…];
- line 215 [… ↑first I ↑didn't↓kno:::w…];
- line 217 [now];
- line 218 [effort =];
- line 220 [↑don't do well::];
- line 222 [more ↑effort];
- line 227 [they ↓might ..];
- line 231 [to ↓help.]; and
- lines 247-248 […just ↑worried …, …↑say they are ↓weak].

The mentee utilised the intonations and lexical choices to indicate her strong opinion on the problematic issues and to underscore her own viewpoint.

Indications of post-problematic uptake (third-position accounts) were observed in this segment. In lines 232-243, the mentor advised on ways to support learners with Mathematics in class, to which the mentee responded with a delay (line 244). The mentor's further explanation (lines 245-246) was met with weak acceptance by the mentee in lines 247-253 and 259-261.

5.4.2.5 Findings: How advice-giving in MC 2 contributed to mentee learning

RSQ 3: What are the learning outcomes of advice-giving segments?

The procedure followed for analysing the three identified advice-giving segments with reference to the possible tokens of knowledge-productive learning present in MC 2 was equivalent to the procedures described in § 5.3.2.6 of MC 1. (See Table 5.10 for line references to the tokens of knowledge-productive learning evident in the identified advice-giving segments in MC 2.)

Table 5.10: Summary of tokens of knowledge productivity in MC 2

Advice-giving segments	Tokens of understanding	Tokens of perspective shift	Tokens of commitment to apply enactment in own practice
Segment 1: Pre-advice to account	Lines 159-160	Lines 159-160	none
Segment 2: Immediate post-advice	none	none	none
Segment 3: Post-problematic uptake in advice-giving	Lines 247-253 Lines 259-261	Lines 247-253 Lines 259 -261	none

With reference to Table 5.10, the following tokens of understanding were observed in MC 2:

MENTEEE
Showing understanding by verbal utterances (lines 159-160, 247-253, 259-261).

Regarding the structural dimensions of the conversation, the mentor initially sought to explore the mentee's current understandings and practices, for example in lines 156-158, 232-243, 245-246 and 254-258. More constructive/scaffolding and prescriptive utterances were evident in the development of the advice-giving episode. Constructive utterances were observed in lines 254-258, and prescriptive utterances in lines 232-243 and 245-246.

The tokens of perspective shift observed in MC 1 were:

MENTEE
Indicating perspective shift by individual claims (lines 159-160, 247-253).

In terms of the structural dimensions of the conversation, the mentor used prescriptive and constructive utterances. The mentee constructed her own understanding to challenge current knowledge and practices and shifted her perspectives by individual personal claims, for example lines 232-242 and 245-246.

5.4.3 Summary of findings in MC 2

The findings of MC 2 are summarised in Table 5.11 according to the three RSQs.

Table 5.11:   Summary of Advice-giving Episode 2 (MC 2)

RSQ 1: *What is the content of the advice-giving?*	RSQ 2: *What is the content of the advice-giving?*	RSQ 3: *What are the learning outcomes of advice-giving?*
Conversation phases	**Advice-giving segments**	**KPL tokens in advice-giving segments**
1. Introduction and topic proclamation	**Segment 1:** Pre-advice to account	Segment 1: **Understanding** Lines 159-160 **Perspective shift** Lines 159-160
2. Problematise concerns	**Segment 2:** Immediate post-advice	Segment 2:
3. Problem clarification	**Segment 3:** Post-problematic uptake in advice-giving	Segment 3: **Understanding** Lines 247-253 Lines 259-261 **Perspective shift** Lines 247-253 Lines 259-261

4. Focused discussion on topic of learning performance in mathematics		
5. Alternative practice to mathematic learning performance		
6. Consolidation		
*KPL: Knowledge-productive learning		

5.4.3.1 Analysis of RSQ 1: What is the content-level description of the advice-giving episodes?

The researcher differentiated six distinct phases in MC 2. The conversation commenced with an introduction and topic proclamation, followed by a concern and clarification, and then a focused discussion on the learning performance in Mathematics. The mentee indicated tokens of understanding for the identified problem, namely weak learning performance of learners in Mathematics. Although the mentor provided advice and suggested alternatives to the mentee about navigating this learning performance problem, it appeared as though the mentee did not 'shift' her initial perspectives in this regard but rather crystallised them. It could thus be argued that the mentor's advice in this mentoring conversation was not accepted, and that a certain measure of resistance to the advice remained in the mentee.

5.4.3.2 Analysis of RSQ 2: How is advice-giving conducted conversationally in advice-giving segments?

The researcher also identified three main advice-giving segments in MC 2 to answer the question. In each segment the mentor employed directive questions and statements, apparently to invite the mentee to explain, clarify and reflect on her experienced problem of attendance and performance in the Mathematics class. The mentor utilised his own experiences as an alternative solution to the mentee's problem, which the mentee did not entirely accept. Both the mentor and the mentee employed lexical choices and intonations in all segments to highlight their views on this particular issue and how it could be solved.

5.4.3.3 Analysis of RSQ 3: What are the learning outcomes of advice-giving segments?

The researcher identified and discussed tokens of knowledge-productive learning in each advice-giving segment in MC 2. They mainly consisted of tokens of

understanding through the interaction, while some instances of perspective shifts as personal knowledge status claims were noted.

5.5   DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS: ADVICE-GIVING EPISODES 1 AND 2

The aim of this study was to analyse and describe examples of advice-giving in mentoring conversations and how such interactions contributed to knowledge productive learning. The analysis focused on the content of the conversations, the conversational methods followed, the positioning of accounts and the structural dimensions of the mentoring interaction.

The discussion of the findings will therefore address the three research subquestions formulated for the study as evidenced in both advice-giving episodes (MC 1 and MC 2).

5.5.1 RSQ 1: What is the content-level description of the advice-giving?

Conversational flow (Koudenburg, 2013) is fundamental in developing a sense of solidarity and belonging, and when achieved best makes the conversation feel effortless. Regarding mentoring interactions, particularly if advice is given in situations in which the relationship is inherently asymmetrical – as in the mentoring interactions in this study – mentors would be well-advised to reflect deeply on how the conversation flows. In the two episodes analysed, it became clear that both the mentors intuitively sensed this need for flow as they made a purposeful attempt to gain entry points into the conversation (Hoover, 2010).

Both conversations started with a clear intention to create a tone that was affectively neutral, non-threatening, supportive and personalised. As has been observed in the research literature, personalising a mentoring interaction with, for example, a person-alised greeting, a well-defined task-related focus for the interaction, and placement of the mentee as equally 'knowledgeable' about the task-related focus, becomes an invitation to the mentee to enter and fully participate in the interaction (Van der Merwe & Van der Westhuizen, 2015). Invitational mentoring thus values the abilities and possibilities of the mentee in the interaction by being based on mutual trust and respect (ibid., 2015). Van der Merwe and Van der Westhuizen (2015) foreground the development of epistemic congruence (Hayano, 2013) through acknowledgement of the inherent inequality of the participants, but also focus attention on acknowledging

the *expertise, experiences and insights* of both the mentor and mentee (Van der Merwe &Van der Westhuizen, 2015:201-202).

Invitational mentoring therefore relates to inviting the mentee to enter freely into the conversation as the mentor essentially begins to develop 'a safe space' for the mentee to interact with the issues and the mentor (Cook-Sather, 2016; Palmer, 2007). Safe spaces are seen to be spaces in which mentees may experience the feeling that no harm or risk will befall them (Cook-Sather, 2016). Such safe spaces may require a more nurturing mentoring style (§ 2.4.4), focused on creating caring, encouraging and growth-oriented spaces where mentees can freely interact. It was, however, noticeable from the analysis of the data that the mentee in MC 1 appeared to engage more freely and collaboratively, but also more self-directed as 'a knowledge-holder', than the mentee in MC 2.

It was also significant that both episodes started with advice-giving positions (Waring, 2007), indicating an attempt to employ pre-advice. Pre-advice requests accounts before any advice is given (Waring, 2007) and usually identifies the issue or problem. Both mentors in this study had the mentees' written reflections as aids to assist them in starting these conversations. It appeared from the analyses that the mentor in MC 2 had a greater propensity to return to pre-advice during the conversation, which may have compromised the development of epistemic congruency.

The conversational flow in both the mentoring conversations developed from this initial invitation to engage in deeper reflection on the problematic issues, which essentially followed an interrogation of the essence of the problem and the possible alternatives available to deal with it. Both mentoring conversations appeared to engage critically in identifying the problem, clarifying it and seeking out possible alternatives to cope with it. Both also evidenced attempts to reflect critically on experience and practice, and to construct new knowledge socially for practice (Lui, 2014). The conversational flow in particularly MC 1 appeared to extend the experiential learning (Kolb, 2013) by acknowledging the enculturation of the mentee during the WIL, through the social interaction and continual reflection and scaffolding of the mentor, to allow the mentee to develop deeper understanding and to offer own solutions for the problem (Eraut, quoted by Philpott, 2014).

It is, however, important to caution that conversational flow is a dynamic process (Koudenburg, Gordijn & Postmes, 2013) and that a singular view of one mentoring interaction between the mentors and mentees in this study may not sufficiently describe conversational flow in mentoring conversations in higher education.

5.5.2 RSQ 2: How is the advice-giving conducted conversationally in advice-giving segments?

Conversations were generally structured using a sequence organisation that consisted of an initiating question by the mentor, followed by an answer, feedback and extension/further exploration and extended answer. *Wh*-questions were observed predominantly in MC 1 and to a lesser extent in MC 2. Research has indicated that interrogative forms such as *wh*-questions, open-ended questions, rhetorical questions and response-eliciting questions act as indicators of the 'asker's' interests and knowledge (Flammer, 1977). Tracy and Robbles (2009) view questioning as the essential component of any discursive practice, considering that questions not only assist in reflecting the existing social world but ultimately also in constructing a new one. Using the interrogative words of *wh*-questions also suggests that questions are 'account seekers' and that this syntax is used as 'social action' which seeks information 'in the turn at talk' (Heritage, 1984:242). Thus, in essence, both mentors were clearly focused on creating opportunities for account from the mentees in the mentoring conversations.

It should further be considered that these identified sequences occurred in a particular context of conversation in which a matrix of implicit and explicit information abounded – including expectations, assumptions, explanations and arguments that would influence what would be regarded as of a possible reasonable response to questions set (Garfinkel, 1981; Schiappa, 2003). The context was that of initial teacher training and the conversational boundaries were defined by the academic structures, environment and the role definition of the participants in this study.

It was noticeable in MC 1 that the questioning interaction by the mentor tended to be higher-order questioning (Cotton, 1988) with open-ended, interpretative, reflective and evaluative questions being used. It was also noticeable that the mentor in MC 1 allowed the mentee to formulate own goals to an extent as part of the advising. This mentor used convergent, divergent and evaluative-thinking questions (Coley &

Rauscher, 2013) seamlessly in assisting the mentee to formulate own goals by activating existing knowledge, by asking her own questions, by directing her own inquiry and monitoring her own understanding (Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1991). Uptake of advice was created to a large extent but also allowed the mentee to establish own knowledge-building goals for the interaction (Ng & Bereiter, 1991).

The mentor in MC 2 tended to use lower-cognitive questions (Cotton, 1988) which were closed, directive, and focused on recall and knowledge, but also posed higher-cognitive questions. What became apparent was that his questions were often somewhat ambiguous and complex, addressing more than one focal point, and not clearly related to and developing from the previous questions and responses. Furthermore, the higher-cognitive questions tended to be more evaluative than convergent or divergent, which seemed to create defensiveness in the mentee and may clarify the apparent lack of epistemic congruence observed in this conversation.

Lexical choice coupled with the use of intonation and non-vocal behaviours was noted in the mentoring conversations. Lexical choices serve as important speech acts in supporting accounting, claiming and reflecting in advice-giving in mentoring conversations. Lexical choices with rising and falling intonations were also consistently used in the attempt to focus the conversation, to prompt further elaboration and to knowledge check with a view to arriving at entry points for advice-giving and collaborative engagement.

Lexical choices and intonations were evident in both MC 1 and MC 2 to support the development of mutual understanding of the identified problems. Non-vocal behaviours were observed in MC 1 only, while more prolongations were evident in MC-2.

In the positioning of the accounts with reference to how the advice was given, it was noticeable that both mentors in MC 1 and MC 2 employed pre-advice, which advantaged avoidance of face-threat and supported advice acceptance (Waring, 2007).

The mentor in MC 1 further developed accounts in the advice-giving through suggestive, reflective and elaborative questions, and feedback followed claiming and accounting responses. Although no direct advice was given in this segment, the mentor provided second-position account opportunities to the mentee to support

critical reasoning and understanding of the problem. A strong form of advice acceptance is evident when mentees can articulate the advice to themselves.

The mentor in MC 1 also provided extensive scaffolding towards a knowledge-building goal through actively listening to the mentee and using follow-up questions according to the zone of proximal development, allowing the mentee to seek and find solutions to the problem independently. Mentee accounts were scaffolded before direct advice was given and opportunities for client-inferred advice were created for the mentee to show understanding and insight. Post-advice in MC 1 was indirect, with continual scaffolding, and required understanding of the advice given or suggested, and not merely unthinking, heedless acceptance. As such, it had a clear knowledge-building goal with a forward-looking quality (Waring, 2007).

The mentor in MC 2 seemed to revert to pre-advice and topic initiation throughout the conversation. He appeared to create ample entry points to deepen the accounts but made less use of scaffolding to allow the mentee to identify knowledge-building goals. Although this mentor attempted to support the mentee's reflection on the problem through continual affirmative and motivating interjections, these interjections functioned more like interruptions and precluded co-construction and gradual improvement of understanding the problem through the exploration and scaffolding of ideas (Bransford, Brown & Cocking, 2000).

The MC 2 mentor furthermore appeared to sense the contradictory understanding (Flammer) and apparent lack of reflective thinking (Malthouse, 2015) in the hesitant answers of the mentee, and consequently attempted to implement second-position accounts (immediate post-advice). Immediate post-advice is also problem-oriented and less overt than pre-advice accounts, but tactfully allows the mentee to respond with dignity – thus forestalling potential resistance (Waring, 2007). Although the mentor used immediate post-advice in two explicit turn-takings, weak acceptance by the mentee of the proffered explanations and support prevailed, which indicated post-problematic uptake (third-position accounts) (ibid., 2007).

It could be argued that the utterances of the mentor in MC 2 were less responsive (Koole & Elbers, 2014) and thus not conducive to scaffolding the mentee's ideas and understanding towards knowledge-productive learning. The mentor's continual

disruption of the mentee's reflective thought through well-meaning, supportive interjections, as well as his apparent inability to listen for the core issues that the mentee experienced, may also have contributed to the weak acceptance of the advice.

It was, moreover, significant that the two advice-giving conversations differed in respect of entitativity, which refers to the social cohesion created through conversations, particularly in groups (Koudenburg, Postmes & Gordijn, 2013). Research has indicated that when conversation between unacquainted participants flows smoothly, it also assists in developing greater social accord and agreement (Koudenburg, Gordijn & Postmes, 2014). In MC 1 it appeared that greater cohesion, collaboration and co-willingness were generated to satisfy the mentee's social, learning and knowledge-building needs, whereas the unintentional disruptions in MC 2 compromised these needs and possibly impeded knowledge-productive learning. Koudenburg, Postmes and Gordijn (2011) also suggest that effortless transition between turn-taking increases experiences of alignment of thought and understanding as found in MC 1, but to a lesser extent in MC 2, leading to a sense of shared cognition (Koudenburg, et al., 2014). These authors also posit that achieving such shared cognition results in establishing and maintaining interpersonal relationships, as well as a feeling in mentees that the environment and mentoring relationship are sufficiently stable and predictable to ensure validation of their experiences, views and self.

5.5.3 RSQ 3: How does the advice-giving contribute to knowledge-productive learning in advice-giving segments?

Knowledge-productive learning, as conceptualised in this study, relies heavily on the structural dimensions of the mentoring conversation as outlined in § 2.5 and as evaluated against the criteria for understanding, perspective shift and commitment to apply (Tillema et al., 2015; Tillema & Van der Westhuizen, 2013).

There were clear indications of tokens of understanding throughout all phases of MC 1, as well as numerous tokens of perspective shifts, some even initiated by the mentee herself. It was evident that the mentee had dampened her resistance to the advice offered in MC 1 and therefore appeared to remain more open to the interaction with and suggestions from the mentor.

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The MC 1 mentor utilised a variety of instructional techniques to engage in conversation with the mentee, as discussed earlier. He used open-ended questions to invite the mentee to participate in the conversation and to state her own opinion on the problems identified and experienced. The mentor also provided several opportunities for the mentee to formulate her view by suggesting alternative ways of solving the problem and then requesting her to either elaborate on or even question his suggestions. It appeared that the mentor paid careful attention to the mentee's views by regular employment of probing questions, paraphrasing, or sketching scenarios to clarify the mentee's understanding. A noticeable technique that the mentor used was the continual scaffolding and integration of ideas to illuminate the problem as well as the mentee's understanding.

In the reflection on professional learning theory (§ 2.2.2), it became clear that theories such as learning through reflective practice, professional learning in the workplace, communities of practice, and particularly socio-cultural learning (Vygotsky, 1987) rely on collaboration and co-construction of knowledge and understanding. In this process, mediating and scaffolding of the particular conceptual, material and linguistic tools and technologies are essential components for professional learning.

Scaffolding – a way of describing the 'zone of proximal development' – is frequently used to bridge the learning gaps that mentees experience in any mediated learning situation (Feuerstein, Klein & Tannenbaum, 1994; Kinginger, 2002; Vygotsky, 1978). It can be used at any point of an interaction between mentors and mentees with the express goal to provide input and explanations, to model and to assess.

During the interaction in MC 1, the mentor used scaffolding to navigate the mentee gradually towards a deeper understanding and eventually to a greater autonomy in her learning process. It is evident in MC 1 that the mentee moved from her initial understanding to a well-considered solution for a problem involving note-taking. Making use of more scaffolding and exploring options during the interaction in MC 1 could be equated to a mentoring style that endeavours to take the 'high road' in mentoring to effect meaningful and sustainable learning (Tillema, 2015).

It is also noticeable that the mentor in MC 1 showed clear indications of using interactive responsiveness (Koole & Elbers, 2014) to scaffold and support the

development of knowledge-productive learning. Responses to the mentee's answers, queries and suggestions were clearly conversational techniques skillfully applied in this mentoring interaction.

Although the mentee in MC 2, too, developed tokens of understanding and to a lesser extent tokens of perspective shifts, such understanding and shifts appeared to be less creative, novel or collaborative. The tokens observed appeared to be an extension of the initial concerns expressed by the mentee and might be suggestive of an implicit resistance to the advice given by the mentor (Waring, 2007). The mentee gave strong indications of having arrived at her conclusions not so much because of the mentor's intermittent attempts at scaffolding the learning, but rather in spite of them. The mentor's predominant use of declarative statements and direct instructions appeared to have set an authoritative tone from the outset, which was exacerbated by his use of frequent interjections that occasionally impinged on the mentee's ability to complete trains of thought. Instances of the mentor's completing the mentee's sentences also disturbed the flow of the conversation in MC 2. On the one hand, interruption in any human interaction and conversation may be the hallmark of lively discourse (Lestary, Krismanti & Hermaniar, 2017), but may on the other be indicative of a domineering relational element (Goldberg, 1990). If such an element becomes manifest, it may be considered impolite because of being experienced as rude and undermining of the other's talk (Slembrouck & Hall, 2019). Psychosocially, involvement in such a conversation can be challenging as continual small interruptions can drain the energy and potential from effective communication (Hilton, 2018).

Mention has been made in § 2.1 of the potential hazard of asymmetry in a mentoring relationship, especially in a higher education teaching–learning environment that is intrinsically hierarchical in structure. Authentic, effective knowledge-productive learning may be compromised if mentoring is only a unidirectional guidance process that disregards balance or tact in, for example, epistemic authority. Traces of such a risk were observable in MC 2 on account of the mentor's attempts to impel the mentee towards a specific understanding of the problem that she experienced with the poor performance of learners in the Mathematics class. On the one hand, his citing of examples derived from his own experiences could have served as useful entry points for the mentee if presented tactfully and allowing her to respond without constraint, but

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on the other hand he proceeded to provide alternative suggestions to the discussed problem from his own perspective with insufficient regard for that of the mentee. Such an approach may overlook the contextual, cultural and gender determinants that may either foster or impede the uptake of advice. Advice given without due regard for the mentee's self-perceived situatedness in a specific problem context may compromise uptake by being experienced as unsolicited and face-threatening – thus eliciting resistance. Idiosyncratic views on the mentor's part may therefore not be relevant to the mentee's experiences in diverse teaching contexts. This pattern as observed in MC 2 may have resulted in the mentee's establishing her epistemic authority (as the knowledge-holder having experienced the context of her WIL) and negating the proffered advice.

Safe spaces in mentoring conversations as outlined in § 5.5.1 are also defined by Shapiro (2016) as spaces in which diverse participants are afforded opportunities for dialogue and learning. Arao and Clemens (2013) has enlarged on this conception by coining the apt phrase of 'brave spaces' in which varying opinions are accepted, participants have the freedom to enter into or withdraw from challenging conversations, mutual respect abounds, and intentions are to support and uplift.

It became clear from the analyses that the mentee in MC 1 possibly experienced the advice-giving conversation not only as a 'safe' space but also as a 'brave' one because of the mentor's proficient continual validation by way of scaffolding, careful listening and acknowledgement of her epistemic authority and primacy. The mentee in MC 1 was thus allowed to present her own views and realisations, which facilitated her reflecting on and voicing of own concerns about the problem.

It was by contrast significant that the mentee in MC 2, who may not have experienced the same quality of safe space as her counterpart in MC 1, appeared to establish an own 'brave space' by emphasising her epistemic authority and primacy amid the idiosyncratic solutions presented by the mentor. The apparent lack of mutual understanding and collaborative knowledge building may have contributed to the weak acceptance of the advice offered.

5.6   CONCLUSION

This chapter provided an analysis of the two mentoring conversations between university mentors and mentees regarding problematic issues experienced by the latter during their WIL. The conversations were transcribed and analysed using conversation analysis and qualitative content analysis procedures to answer the three research subquestions. The analyses of the findings indicated the value of the conversation structures and phases, how different conversation phases set the tone and flow of the conversation between the participants, how different layers on conversational interaction influenced the flow and content of the advice given in the conversations, and how the positioning of the accounts in advice-giving led to acceptance of or resistance to the advice given. Finally, the analyses indicated that the establishment of social validation and brave space for interaction cannot be underestimated.

In the final chapter of this dissertation, a summary of the findings, results and conclusions will be presented before recommendations emanating from the investigation will be formulated. A critical discussion of the limitations of the study will be provided in closing.

CHAPTER 6
SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS, LIMITATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

After the analyses of the data collected according to the three research subquestions in the previous chapter, a summary of the findings, a discussion of the results and conclusion drawn from the analyses are presented in this chapter. Recommendations emanating from the study are also formulated, and the chapter concludes with a critical reflection on the study.

The purpose of this study was to analyse and describe examples of advice-giving in selected mentoring interactions, and how these mentoring interactions contribute to knowledge-productive learning. A descriptive, qualitative approach – mainly employing qualitative content-analysis and conversation-analysis techniques – was followed to evaluate audio- and video-recorded mentoring conversations between university lecturers and student teachers.

The three main objectives in answering the research questions were formulated as follows:

- Identify and describe the content level of advice-giving episodes in mentoring conversations between teacher educators and student teachers in a selected higher education institution.
- Explore and describe how advice is given conversationally in advice-giving segments of episodes in mentoring conversations between teacher educators and student teachers in a selected higher education institution.
- Describe the learning outcomes of the advice given in advice-giving segments of episodes in mentoring conversations between teacher educators and student teachers in a selected higher education institution.

6.2 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

Two distinct advice-giving episodes (MC 1 and MC 2) were identified from the two purposively selected mentoring conversations. Advice-giving Episode 1 (MC 1)

yielded four advice-giving segments, while Advice-giving Episode 2 (MC 2) yielded three. MC 1 and MC 2 and their respective segments were analysed using the research subquestions as an organising principle. Summarised findings for each of these research subquestions are presented next.

6.2.1 Research Subquestion 1

What is the content-level description of the advice-giving episode in mentoring interactions?

Definite conversation phases were identified in each of the advice-giving episodes (MC 1 and MC 2). Both episodes began with an introductory and greeting phase to create a relaxed atmosphere in which the mentees could feel comfortable and at ease. This phase was followed in both episodes by a second one in which the topic for discussion was identified in an attempt to gain an entry point for the mentoring interaction. The subsequent phases in each episode, though, proceeded differently.

FURTHER PHASES IN MC 1

The next phase in MC 1 problematised the concerns that the mentee had experienced. This phase kept the broader focus on the initial entry point and focused the conversation on the main issue for discussion, namely copying notes from the board. The succeeding phase in MC 1 clarified the problematic issue more clearly and led to a collective agreement on what the essence of the issue of copying notes in class was. These phases predominantly required the mentee to account for specific views through consistent requests by the mentor to reflect on the pertinent experiences.

The conversation in MC 1 then developed through interrelated phases that progressed from focusing on and scaffolding the finding of alternative practices for note-taking in class, to enhancing the practice of note-taking, and finally to attaining a shared understanding of different practices on note-taking and related skills. Reflective and suggestive (response-eliciting-questions) questions in particular were instrumental in paving the way for ultimate shared understanding to be recognised and affirmed.

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Following the introductory and identifying phase in this conversation, the next phase in MC 2 focused on the mentee's experience of concern about the poor performance of learners in Mathematics, their poor class attendance, as well as her commitment to personal responsibility for the class. The succeeding phase clarified and elaborated on the problem experienced. These phases predominantly required the mentee to explain her views to the mentor, but they failed to achieve consensus about a mutually acceptable resolution to this problem.

The conversation in MC 2 then focused on finding alternative practices for the learners' inadequate class attendance and poor performance in Mathematics. The mentor suggested alternative practices from his personal experience, whereas the mentee originated solutions from her own perspective and experience. The final phase of the conversation appeared to be a reiteration of the initial issue that the mentee had encountered with no real resolution to her concern being offered.

6.2.2 Research Subquestion 2

How is advice-giving conducted conversationally in advice-giving segments of the episodes in mentoring interactions?

The findings to this question addressed conversational elements at the macroscopic and microscopic levels of interaction, as well as the positioning of the account to advice as evident in each advice-giving segment of the two advice-giving episodes, MC 1 and MC 2. Distinct segments were identified in both by considering how the content of each segment addressed the position of accounts in advice-giving (Waring, 2007).

Four segments were identified. The sequence organisation of the first segment, pre-advice to account, was question-answer-feedback-extended-answer. *Wh-*questions predominated and supported the exploration and withholding of giving advice, since the focus was on creating entry points and safe spaces for the interaction. Specific lexical choices, often supported by intonations and non-vocal behaviours for emphasis, created opportunities for exploration, elucidation and reflection.

The second segment, accounting in advice-giving, extended the initial sequence observed in Segment 1 by containing mainly response-eliciting and clarifying questions followed by clarifying and reflective answers, as well as feedback requiring accounting answers. Lexical choice combined with the use of intonation and prolongation was noticeable in these sequences, and focused on activating deeper reflection and accounting for views and understanding. The structure of the conversation in this segment suggested the further establishment of the non-threatening collaborative activity evident throughout MC 1.

The third segment, scaffolding in advice-giving, addressed the previously identified entry points and accounts, particularly additional note-taking practices. The sequence organisation followed a similar pattern as for the previous segments, namely question-statements/invitations, followed by reflective accounts and claims, as well as indirect advice, mostly through scaffolding questions, suggestions and second-position account opportunities. Microscopic elements such as intonation, noticeable pauses and prolongation supported lexical choice aimed at developing mutual understanding of the issue under discussion. Few non-vocal behavioural signs were evident in this segment, and those that were employed mainly constituted affirmations for and on previous utterances.

The last segment, post-acceptance in advice-giving, followed a similar sequence organisation as observed in the previous segments. It was noticeable that the sequence organisation contained more topic-initiating questions, followed by claims of understanding and affirmations. The topic-initiating questions were, however, closely associated with the issue under discussion and scaffolded the crystallising of the understanding of the issue. The advice given was indirect, continually scaffolded and augmented, and forward-looking. Similar use of lexical choices combined with the employment of intonation and non-vocal behaviours was noted in these sequences as important speech acts in supporting accounting, claiming and reflecting in advice-giving in mentoring conversations.

Advice-giving segments in MC 2

Three segments were identified. The sequence organisation in Segment 1, pre-advice to account, was question-answer-feedback. The mentor tended to use *wh*-questions requesting clarification and explanation accounts, with affirmative token

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utterances intended to encourage the interaction. It was noticeable that these utterances assumed the form of continual interjections, and although well-meaning, may have disrupted the conversation flow and impeded deeper engagement with the issues discussed. The mentor also managed to create entry points through the sequence organisation of topic-initiating questions followed by clarification and elaboration answers, with continual affirmative interjections. The entry points created were not successfully accessed, which resulted in the mentor's continually initiating related topics but not allowing for deeper reflection on certain issues. Lexical choices and intonations were similar to those used for emphasising important issues and viewpoints in MC 1. The mentee employed lexical choices and intonations to highlight the experienced problem, to indicate her commitment to addressing it and to accentuate her viewpoint and solution.

Segment 2 provided immediate post-advice where the mentor again used new topic-initiation questions or statements followed by requests-for-clarification answers. Question formulation in this section was more explicit and directive, tending towards being closed-ended. The mentor attempted to encourage the mentee to interact and collaborate by presenting longer explanations and reflection on personal experiences, thus furnishing indirect advice that was not entirely clear to the mentee. The mentor again used lexical choices with intonation to emphasise his account after giving the advice in an endeavour to support the mentee tactfully in responding to it.

The third segment was post-problematic uptake in advice-giving. A similar sequence organisation was found in this segment as in the previous two segments. The mentor began the segment with topic-initiating questions or statements, followed by the mentee's clarification and explanation answers, which were continually interrupted by the mentor's interjectional affirmative and supportive tokens. Also observed in this section were two examples of immediate post-advice in which the mentor again proffered advice implicitly in an attempt to elicit a response. Lexical choices combined with the use of intonations and prolongation were noted as used by the mentor to foreground the problem and to convince the mentee of the proposed solutions. The mentee, on the other hand, also used specific lexical choices and accompanying intonations to support her strong

opinion on the issue, as well as indicating her weak acceptance of the advice proposed.

6.2.3 Research Subquestion 3

What are the learning outcomes of the advice-giving segments in the episodes of mentoring interactions?

Professional learning in mentoring (Tillema et al., 2015) is equated to knowledge-productive learning distinguished by the three criteria of tokens of understanding, perspective shift, and commitment to enact and apply (as stated in § 5.5.3).

The mentoring behaviours in the data revealed that the mentors in both the advice-giving episodes engaged in mentoring at the explorative plane to accommodate and guide the mentees' understanding. In both MC 1 and MC 2, mentees were encouraged to share and reflect on their experiences with acceptance and without judgement by the mentors. This did indeed result in the sharing of numerous tokens of understanding by the mentees, which could serve as a springboard for deeper reflection and create the space for the potential development of perspective shifts.

The mentor in MC 1 in particular used open-ended questioning, statements and scenarios to allow the mentee to reflect, elaborate and even question mentor observations. The mentor thus engaged more on the constructive plane of mentoring. It was, in addition, clearer in MC 1 that the mentor proficiently employed listening skills, scaffolding and interactional responsiveness that appeared to generate increased opportunities for perspective shifts and for more self-directed and autonomous learning.

Although the mentor in MC 2 developed opportunities for tokens of understanding and perspective shift, the engagement appeared to function mainly on the explorative plane. The mentor's attempts were indeed intended to be constructive, but he preferred to engage on a predominantly directive or prescriptive plane from a contextual and cultural perspective. Consequently, the mentee appeared to experience the development of an unevenness or asymmetry between her and the mentor, resulting in her establishing epistemic primacy and claiming authority regarding the tokens of understanding and perspective shift.

It was also noticeable that the mentor in MC 2 tended to overuse interjections to encourage interaction, but these efforts served to interrupt rather than support conversational flow and may have compromised the mentee's perception of parity in the relational element and politeness in the interaction.

Although no clear tokens of commitment to enact and apply were noticed in either MC 1 or MC 2, the level of understanding and perspective shift shown by the mentee in MC 1 regarding the experienced problem of note-taking, might have acquired the status of enactment of new insights in own practice as the mentee was still engaged with her school experience.

6.3   CONCLUSIONS DRAWN FROM THE FINDINGS

The study set out to describe and understand how advice was given in mentoring conversations in initial teacher education in a selected higher education institution. The findings from the analyses implied a number of important conclusions and recommendations to be put forward.

Effective mentoring requires that certain conditions be met when mentees are supported and advised towards professional knowledge and growth. Mentors need firstly to be reminded that mentoring interactions are 'face-threatening' and that the creation of 'safe spaces' is prerequisite before any advice-giving should be attempted. Safe spaces have been advocated by pre-eminent researchers such as Shapiro (2016) as important milieus for diverse opportunities for learning through interaction and dialogue. Mentors who wish to create conditions for advice-giving and its acceptance thus need to create spaces that are cognitively and affectively non-threatening, neutral and supportive. Mentors should realise that advice will be more easily 'heard' and more readily accepted when such conditions prevail and where mentors are seen to take on a supportive role of critical and trusted 'other' (Provident, 2005). When professionally sound safe spaces have been created, mentors have the opportunity to challenge mentees through incisive yet supportive questioning and suggestion to reflect critically on their own practices and experiences. Mentors therefore need to develop the skills and abilities to 'help-or-guide', to support, and to critique knowledge, beliefs and practices to enhance professional learning (Clutterbuck & Lane, 2004).

Providing emotional support in such a safe yet critical mentoring space requires that any advice given should be placed sequentially (Feng, 2013). Mentors must remain sensitive to acknowledging the 'threat' as viewed from the mentees' perspective in any given situation. In this respect, therefore, Feng (2009) has proposed that the sequence in which the mentor provides advice will be crucial for its acceptance. Feng has furthermore suggested that if the intent at the start of the conversation is to create a safe space and to support the mentee affectively, then exploration of the topic or issues under consideration would be most appropriate. This would be followed by problem inquiry and analysis, and then, if possible, by actual giving of advice (EPA). As stated in the analysis of the two mentoring interactions in this study (§ 5.3 and § 5.4), this sequence was noticeable in both interactions. It may therefore be concluded that mentoring for advice-giving should consist of a definite exploration phase in which mutual trust and collaboration are established – especially so if it is a mentoring situation where the mentor and mentee are interacting for the first time or if an asymmetry in status, knowledge or ability should prevail. Reflection and co-construction of knowledge-productive learning could then gradually follow in the subsequent analysis of and inquiry into the problem. Advice-giving could then be interlaced into this inquiry and analysis phase in either constructive or prescriptive ways towards attainment of the goal of intersubjective meaning and knowledge-productive learning. An adroit mentor may in this respect strive for a seamless change-over reminiscent of the music or film technique of segueing.

The research confirmed the importance of skillful application of the principles of all three planes of the 'climbing Mount Improbable' metaphor in supporting gradual learning in the development of mentees (Tillema & Van der Westhuizen, 2015). It appeared from this study that the co-construction, collaboration and scaffolding of mentees' understanding and knowledge production – particularly through critical reflection – were advisable in relation to the inherent asymmetry of the mentoring relationship in initial teacher education. The value of reflection in the development of professional practice as highlighted in Chapter 2, and the significance of the mediating qualities and abilities of the mentor, thus came to the fore as pivotal in the provision and potential acceptance of advice in mentoring interactions.

The mentor as the mediating agent enters into the interaction with specific intentions and goals for the mentee's professional proficiency and learning. Mediated learning theory is concerned with the freeing up of the untapped learning potential and capacities of all learners in general (Kozulin, 1999; Tan, 2003; Vygotsky, 1978), which is equally essential for the development of student teachers in mentoring interactions in particular. Mediated learning experience posits that 'an intentional' other is pivotal in the quality of interaction between a learner and the environment (Tan, 2003:55). Intentionality in mentoring was discussed in § 3.4.2.3 and shown to be of importance in offering and accepting advice. Intentionality was also associated with the concept that mentoring should be collaborative and co-constructed towards shared meaning, and aimed at fostering the agency of mentees (Jonas, 2017).

This is also reminiscent of Edwards and Protheroe's (2004) finding (see § 3.4.2) that a large percentage of feedback or advice from mentors focused on descriptive restatements of what was observed, rather than on stimulating interaction to develop new schema for the attainment of an enhanced level of professional proficiency.

Of equal importance to intention in mentoring interactions is reciprocity, which refers to the mentor's alertness towards how the mentee experiences and responds to the interaction (Tan, 2003). Thus, being aware of the conditions for mentoring conversations that support advice as discussed, the mentor should become attuned to the mentee's experiences, fears and hopes. Moreover, becoming aware of own expectations, perspectives, preferences and limitations as a mediating mentor is equally critical in advising mentees towards knowledge-productive learning in professional learning situations in teacher education.

Aside from the sequencing of advice mentioned earlier, the study also clearly indicated the positioning of accounts for advice-giving as important for effective mentoring interaction and satisfactory outcomes of advice-giving. It was evident that commencing with pre-advice was needed for mentees to start reflecting on problems experienced. Deferring the giving of advice directly or explicitly is a skill and disposition that mentors should acquire and cultivate, as it affords the mentees opportunities to engage and reflect in non-threatening and safe spaces. Regarding this study's focus on the decisive role of mentoring in the development of knowledge-productive learning, it should be borne in mind that pre-advice accounts allow mentees to generate own

understanding and potential solutions (Waring, 2006) that lead to greater self-directedness (Vehviläinen, 2001) – an objective not necessarily attained in MC 2.

The second-position account, immediate post-advice, was noted in the interactions in which the mentor gave advice owing to the absence of pre-advice. Although this second-position account did not apparently invite the mentee in MC 2 to generate own understanding and solutions, it remains an important skill for mentors in advising towards knowledge-productive learning. Mentors may need to use second-position accounts to mitigate the absence of mentee pre-advice accounts and for face-saving value, as well as to forestall possible advice resistance. Waring (2007) has observed that advice needs to be understood for it to be accepted and thus requires a critical reasoning format. This raises the question of whether the mentor possesses the ability to guide the flow of the conversation through subtle, response-eliciting and reflective questioning to engage the mentee. Mentors need to develop skills in questioning, listening and responding to mentees, as well as in identifying and probing central issues that have the potential for knowledge-productive learning. As Waring (2007) has indicated, post-problematic uptake from mentees may be more symptomatic of the mentee's difficulty in understanding than of a need for stronger advice acceptance. It remains the mentor's epistemic responsibility to guide and create such understanding of the problem and to allow mentees to enter a 'brave space' to co-construct understanding and solutions.

Given the above conclusion and that mentoring is an intentional, nurturing and insightful process (Wong & Premkumar, 2007) in which mentors gradually and reciprocally support mentees towards knowledge building and professional learning (Luneta, 2013), it is evident that mentoring skills such as listening, questioning and counselling are crucial in facilitating desired outcomes in the advice-giving. Keeping in mind the potential face-threat of providing advice in mentoring interactions, the researcher has concluded that mentors need to develop and continually refine their ability to engage in dialogic conversations (Boyd & Markarian, 2015).

Dialogic conversations require a questioning stance, accommodation of multiple perspectives, openness to criticality, and collaboration in negotiating new meanings. It also requires that the expected, inherent inequality between mentors and mentees, as considered in this study, be navigated carefully through communicative and

counselling skills by mentors as part of their function to act as role models in helping and guiding mentees (Clutterbuck & Lane, 2004). Pask's proposed framework for conversation (see Figure 3.1) also placed questions and answers at the centre of such dialogic conversations. This theory distinguished two levels of questions and answers (Q&A), namely 'knowing why' and 'knowing how' (Scott, 2001) – with the former presupposing deep understanding and probable knowledge-productive learning, and the latter the pragmatics of the understanding.

It was noticeable in this study that open-ended questions, reflective questions and scaffolding questions appeared to create more opportunities for dialogic interaction between mentors and mentees. It was further observable in particularly MC 1 that these questions focused on knowing 'why' rather than 'how' and appeared to revolve round the task or issue at hand, rather than the person (mentee), by being predominantly solution-oriented. It transpired that these questions were more conducive to collaborative *advice-finding* and *-giving.* This was particularly noticeable in MC 1 in which the mentor *artfully* interrogated the task, issue or problem with little reference to the practice of the mentee (Royeen & Kramer, 2013:26). This appeared to distance the issue from the mentee, limited the face-threat to the mentee, and allowed the mentee to engage freely, collaboratively and creatively in arriving at a possible solution. It thus warrants the inference that a more non-directive style, characterised by reflection, cooperation, collaboration, guiding, prompting and supporting, and using questions and options focused in the *why* and task, appeared to allow for openness and reflection towards advice-giving (Tillema & Van der Westhuizen, 2015).

By contrast, although probably well-meaning in an attempt to assist the mentee with own practice, the mentor in MC 2 focused most of the questions on what the mentee could do or had done, i.e., typical 'knowing how' questions. As discussed earlier, this resulted in the mentor having to engage in second-position accounts to assist the mentee to generate own understanding and solutions. This mentor consistently formulated questions that appeared to have a more 'person-oriented' focus which eventually resulted in post-problematic uptake. It was, however, interesting to note that given the earlier conclusion that safe and affectively supported spaces represent conditions best suited to advice being considered or even accepted, it could be

assumed that had the mentor in MC 2 possessed greater awareness of this, he would possibly have been more person-oriented than task-oriented. The inverse was found in this study.

This study also showed that the ability to listen actively for understanding was a crucial skill to understanding 'the other' verbally, non-verbally and emotionally, as well as to responding to this other without judgement – an accomplishment of paramount importance for advice acceptance (Jahromi, Tabatabaee, Abdar & Rajabi, 2016). In addition, counselling skills to assist in interpreting problems experienced by mentees, in building relationships and in establishing rapport are required to create a safe and relaxed space that is conducive to open conversation, advice-giving and learning.

A notable conclusion drawn from the study relates to the gender, cultural, maturational and knowledge status unlikeness between mentors and mentees (Boudreau, Cassell & Fuks, 2009). Gender influences in mentoring interactions were discussed in § 2.4.6 with specific reference to the effectiveness of mentoring in same-gender conversations, particularly where women were mentored by women (Leck & Orser, 2013). It was further noted that enhanced role-modelling behaviours may be more likely in same-gender mentoring than in cross-gender mentoring (Allen, Day & Lentz, 2005) owing to more positive psychosocial mentoring experiences in such relationships.

Both mentors in this study were white Afrikaans-speaking males, mature academics who had not actually taught the participant students at any time during their teacher education. Their only interaction would have been the single school visitation during WIL. Both mentees were black female, English second-language speakers in their fourth year of undergraduate study. It could therefore be concluded that the advice-giving in these mentoring conversations may have been clouded by the unlikeness between the participants, particularly with relation to the relative age and 'assumed' knowledge status differences. Different belief, value, language, cultural and maturational backgrounds could therefore have influenced the advice-giving in these mentoring conversations.

In concluding this section, one could ask the critical question whether advice-giving in mentoring interactions as described in this study is easily attainable. Giving advice by

implication creates an asymmetry between mentors and mentees, as it is assumed that 'someone' has advice to give and that the 'other' is of necessity in the position of having to receive it. *Coming* to advice is possibly a more apt description as a collaborative and co-constructive process in which it is envisaged that the mentor establish safe and even brave spaces for the mentee to participate freely in the conversation. Mentees thus have the freedom and security to voice their opinions in this non-judgmental situation. It is also necessary that mentees understand the experienced problem, shift their perspective and show a willingness to apply the co-constructed knowledge in practice. In essence then, advice-giving in mentoring conversations should be co-constructions according to which mentees become self-regulated thinkers who resolve problems and produce self-advice.

6.4   RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This study has indicated the value of mentoring conversations that contribute to knowledge-productive learning. However, the investigation has also produced some additional insights related to ancillary issues not central to its main purpose. These insights could be the focus of new research to extend understanding of advice-giving for professionals in mentoring conversations.

Research into the possible influence of gender in advice-giving for knowledge-productive learning in mentoring conversations is a highly relevant topical issue in education, especially in South Africa as a society still in the process of socio-political transformation. The importance of gender in mentoring in general has indeed been researched worldwide, but even in global context not specifically with a focus on how giving advice for professional learning by teacher educators as mentors may be influenced by gender. The value of matching the gender of the mentee to that of the mentor may shed more light on how advice-giving in mentoring conversations may enhance knowledge-productive learning even further.

Research into how advice is given in peer-mentoring conversations towards knowledge-productive learning may also be considered as having great topical relevance. Aligned with the conclusion that beliefs, maturation and knowledge status exert an influence on how advice is accepted, research may be extended into how students can act and function as 'more equal' partners in a peer-mentoring relationship, and how this seemingly more 'symmetrical' relationship can contribute to

the generation, acceptance or rejection of advice in such mentoring relationships. Such research may furthermore shed light on the theory of what mentoring is, who mentors are and how the roles and functions of mentor and mentee may become interchangeable in peer mentoring contexts.

Further research possibilities lie within the realm of the conversational features of communicative elements identified in this study. Research into questioning with specific attention to how it is used in mentoring conversations as an instrument for contributing to advice-giving and learning, the content of questions, and the timing of questions and answers could add insight into how advice is given and when it is accepted or rejected.

This study indicated the need for counselling skills as part of mentors' repertoire for generating and dispensing advice in mentoring interactions. One particular conclusion indicated that advising for solutions appeared to hold special promise for advancing knowledge-productive learning in mentoring conversations. Much research into solution-focused counselling has seen the light in the field of Psychology, and research into 'solution-focused' mentoring for advice-giving towards professional learning may add valuable approaches and skills for mentors in a diverse field of application.

Further research could also focus on the structural dimensions of mentoring as discussed in this study. Each dimension of Tillema's model could be studied over a longer period of time, allowing for lengthy engagement with several mentoring interactions to investigate how these dimensions are articulated in terms of the approaches and skills used by various mentors. The main focus of such research would then fall on how mentors support mentees towards knowledge-productive learning.

6.5   LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study was completed as part of a larger mentoring project and thus relied on data collected for that project. As such, the data may not have been gathered with the explicit focus on advice-giving as a contributory stimulus to knowledge-productive learning.

The study was also undertaken by selecting from the broader project two mentoring conversations that were qualitatively judged to meet the criteria for the analysis of the data. It could be argued that identifying specific mentoring interactions with the explicit aim of describing how advice-giving contributed to knowledge-productive learning in mentoring conversations over a longer period of time, and prolonged engagement therein, may have yielded different outcomes. The researcher is of the opinion that mentoring conversations require time to establish relationships of mutual trust, openness and respect. Consequently, single, non-serialised mentoring conversations such as those used for this study may preclude the fostering of reciprocal confidence in mentoring relationships and thus not yield the best answers for the research questions posed.

A limitation specific to this study may be implicit in the design of the larger project for which mentors were requested to identify mentees who were to write reflection reports that would then be the focus of the conversation. It may be argued that the mentoring conversation and resultant advice-giving may to some extent have been curtailed because of the boundedness of the written reflection. The researcher is of the opinion that structured mentoring conversations, such as those used for this study, may not be conducive to authentic advice-giving interactions towards knowledge-productive learning.

As indicated in the discussion of the conclusions, the possibility of inherent asymmetry in the mentoring conversations between student teachers as mentees and the university lecturers as mentors may have influenced how they interacted and how advice was subsequently given and accepted or rejected. The fact that the conversations were video-recorded in the lecturers' offices may have further contributed to this limitation.

Finally, gender, age difference and knowledge status were mentioned in the discussion of conclusions as problematic features that may have exerted an inhibitory effect on the spontaneity of and unconstrained sharing by mentees in the mentoring conversations. That the conversations for this study took place between male mentors on the one hand and female mentees on the other in a language that was the mother tongue of none of them may have served as further impediments to the free expression of views and clear understanding of communication among all the participants.

6.6   CONCLUSION AND REFLECTION

This study was aimed at describing how advice was given in mentoring conversations and how such advice contributed to knowledge-productive learning. The study was embedded in professional learning theory and situated in professional preparation of teachers in higher education. Royeen and Kramer (2013) have proposed a descriptive model for professional preparation for practice that resonates well with the views on advice-giving as discussed in this study. These authors posit three metaphors to describe the activities of professional preparation, and for that matter then professional learning, namely habits of the mind (to think), the hand (to act) and the art (to complete skillfully) (ibid., 2013:26).

Habits of mind in advice-giving would require being knowledgeable about and critically inclined towards the professional practice and learning for which advice is being sought. This would require up-to-date, relevant and contextually apt knowledge of professional practice and learning. Habits of hand in advice-giving would require unique accomplishments such as interpersonal and counselling skills, conversational prowess such as questioning skills, reflecting and guiding skills, and mediation and scaffolding skills to support critical engagement by the mentee. Habits of the art of advice-giving would require using the knowledge and skills intuitively, creatively and with great sensitivity to support mentees in responding to changing situations. Making these habits part of advice-giving in mentoring conversations could thus support mentees in 'expertly using practical reasoning to make professional judgements' (Royeen & Kramer, 2013:29), and in a sense in arriving at knowledge-productive learning.

In conclusion, the researcher acknowledges the face-threat of advice-giving in mentoring interactions, and therefore views the essence of advice-giving in mentoring conversations to lie in the advising, helping, caring, guiding and critically befriending of the mentee. The researcher imagines advice-giving to be like snow. When advice is provided with the above in mind, and a safe space has been created, the advice may be experienced as softly falling snowflakes, and sink even deeper where mentees are co-constructively supported to ponder and reflect on practice and the advice. The outcomes of such advice-giving may potentially become visible cognitively, affectively and behaviourally in the professional learning of mentees.   Thus:

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Mentoring advice is like snow,

the softer it falls,

the longer it dwells upon,

and the deeper it sinks…

To settle in the mind, in the heart and in the hand.

SJ Coleridge adapted by Van der Merwe, 2019

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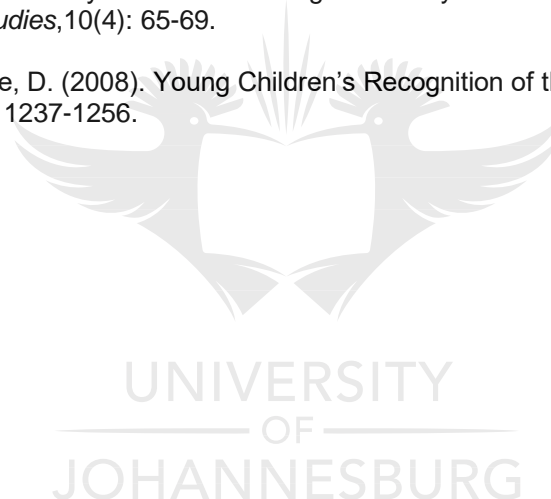
APPENDIX A

Extract from: MENTOR CONVERSATION ONE (MC1)

TRANSCRIPTION

1 L Okay (S name) thank you very much for ah:: for participating in ahm in this

2   ah::recording and in our project. So we are talking about school experience

3   and ah::(0.2)

4 S [yes]

5 L (0.2) how it went for you::(0.3)

6 S [ye::s]

7 L (0.2) and we are also talking about your reflection notes..ah:: so if you want to

8   maybe ah::: (.) ah:: ah::m:: (.) start by er:.... raising some.. some of the

9   issues or points that are prominent for you ahm from your experience and

10   then (0.2) you know that came out of your reflection notes as well

11 S [my reflection]

12   Ahm.. so I thi::nk ahm. one of the biggest things is definitely before going

13   there everybody's perceptions of the school and I'm kind of like what am I

14   going to expect ahm.. expecting rowdy children because I did LO and

15   English and ahm.(0.2) I think also I just find it very sad for me (0.2.) maybe it's

16   just technology (0.3) how they write notes..on it every day and like six pages

17   and so many notes on the board and that's all they're doing. So I think I really

18   find it really bad maybe it's just me feeling they should have had more

19   notes and more time to interact with the teacher.

20 L You're talking about (.) your expectations:: before but then also finding

21   children ahm (.) ah (.) making notes all the time?

22 S Ye::s ((nodding)) ahm I think just writing all the time because it

23   wasn't an actual ((gesture both hands)) handout (.) >if you get

24   me <..especially in LO all they ha::ve is what they're ((right hand

25   gesture)) given (.) if you get me (.) if you get me (.)

26 L [Ja::]

27 S =for tasks

28 L [Ja::]

29 S =and all their work they wrote out.

30 L [Ja::]

31 S There's no worksheets for them. So they spent many hours writing.

32 L [So what was the:: (.) issue for you there?

33   (1.0)

34 S I think in a sense maybe expecting ((right hand gesture)) the

35   teachers as well to interact with the children more↑ and to speak to

36   them because literally (.) the children would come to class and

37   then (.2)_' ↑Morning. ↑afternoon class. Okay:: your work is on the

38   board↓. Just write it out.↓' ((right hand waving gesture))

39 L So they would sit and copy all the time

40 S [Yes

41 L Okay.

42 S [Sit and copy:: so:: that's why that(.) troubled me feeling that maybe she

43   needed to interact with them..more so.. 'ja..'

44 L So what would be ↑bet:ter..than just sit and ah.. ah... copy notes from

45   the bo::ard?

46 S I feel that maybe even if she did write all those notes↑ maybe be

47   more interactive with them and trying to teach them what's going on

48   because even when she did stand up it was "Oh this is what's on the

49   board, okay." you know feeling that she should interact with them

50   more trying to get them invo::lved. You know it's more like a free

51   period __(...)

52 L So its not hard work to sit and copy notes

53 S No not at all..

54 L Jah::: Its also... its also.. ah.. ahm:: maybe establishing some kind

55   of ah... relationship where you don't have to work hard, you can just

56   come here and make notes. Ah... and I think you're ↑right (.) the ah_

57   the alternative is to be much more interactive and ahm ...to let the

58   learning happen in the interaction. And then where would the ah

59   note taking fit such interactions? Ahm would you say?

60 S I think maybe firstly explaining what it is that they're doing. They can't

61   take notes:: coming to cla::ss "This is what we're doing↑ This is

62   what it's about↑." Ahm telling the students what they're doing. Then

63   ↑they can write their notes.. because they know what it is and they

64   know what they're ↑doing or alternatively let them write the notes and

65   the next day explaining everything to them.

66 L Ye:s yes So you're saying that they can do the interaction around the notes=

67 S [Yes ((nodding))

68 L But then the notes can also be used (.) as a learning (.) as a learning

69   tool↑

70 S Mmmm ((nodding head))↑

APPENDIX B

1 Extract from :)MENTORING CONVERSATION TWO (MC2)
2 TRANSCRIPTION
3
4 L: We're are going to the interview here- ah lecturer and
5 (student's name) and ah she's a <u>fourth</u> year
6 Mathsstudent a::h Maths Educationstudent.
7 ah(name) >thank you very much for your ↑time< =
8 S: _[((student's response
9 is unclear))]
10 L: = (1) and ah let's talk about the reflection report that
11 you've written in (.) in respect o:f your experience at (.)
12 St Mary's(.) a::h School for ↓Gi:rls in >Pretoria<
13 Yes
14 Ah(.) >you've listed a number of things but I wanna ask-
15 kick off with a general question<(.) ah(.)if you ↑have (.5)
16 the opportunity ↑now – and you started there a long
17 time ago – is there ↑anything that you would have done
18 ↑differentJy (2) when you think back now
19 S When I think ba::ck (1) ahm the most ah things ah– I
20 had challenging moments (.) like arriving
21 la::tesometi::mes (.) I just got(1)used to the routine and-
22 L _[Is there
23 something that you had to change in your schedule or
24 things that you do(.) >to sort of< overccome those
25 challenges?
26 S Ye::s sir (.) I had to::- I used to wake up at five=
27 L _[Ye::s]
28 S =so I had to wake up at four=
29 L _[at ↑four o'clock]
30 S =so that I get there (early)- So I had to adjust my
31 (.) °my_life°.
32 L ↑My::: ↓goodness. ((laughs softly)) Is there something
33 (.) some_message that you would have for (.) for (.) for
34 teachers who actually .hhhad to start school everyday
35 (1)>quite< ↑ea::rly? .hh Should they- should theyah be
36 there >quite early in the morning<?
37 S Ye::s its very important to be early in the environment
38 (1) .hh so that you get(.)rela::::xed and sort everything

39 out before you- you start (2) cause it helps you to:: to
40 be ↑more organised=.
41 L _[Ye::s]
42 S =Cause if you start your things
43 la::ter you will be disorganised.
44 L >That's true=.hh. Would that be a message that's
45 (forthcoming) also from the teachers, you would say=
46 perhaps some of the HOD's? (>Talking about thats) .Or
47 isn't (.) isn't it necessary to address .hh let's say that
48 you must be the::re ea::rly and you must >sort of< find
49 ti::me 'n everything?
50 S N:to::its for ↑everyone – for HOD::'s, for the tea::chers –
51 ↑just to organise your things. Its not good fo::r (1) =
52 L _[(laughs)][↑anyone]
53 S =↑anyone to be late.
54 L _.hh Would yo::u (.) would yo::u get used to that in
55 future? Would you say you (1) - >in other words< do
56 you still want to be a teacher and be there (.) >very< (.)
57 bright and ↑early in the mornings?
58 S ↑Yes Sir ↑yes::
59 L So there's a ↑lot of ↑merit in that.
60 S Yes.
61 ↑L >Yes<And even working late (2) =
62 S _[°Yes°]
63 L =in the afternoons?
64 S Ye::s (.) Working la::te (.)
65 L ((laughs))
66 S Yes it ↑he::lps, it helps (.) cause it's for a ↑purpose.
67 L _.hhhThefirst few weeks were very hectic. You
68 mentioned that it was >sort of<different from the other
69 school practicums that you've experienced=
70 S _[Ye::s, yes]
71 L _.hhh =>It was ↑quite ↓hectic<. You had to become
72 ↑used toto a new routine (.) and you had to travel from
73 Jo'bu::rg (.) .hh↑ What are the things that you've done
74 (or or) to get used to that - to overcome this challenge
75 of:: of being ↑hectic>over the first few weeks<

1

2

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APPENDIX C

5.4.2.1 Advice-giving segment 1: Advice giving for reflective practice

Underlining – sound louder/lexical choice

127	L	↑Thank you for that. I'm gonna go on to towards the
128		second thing that you listed here- hhh Initially you felt
129		that (1) you had a couple of kids that are >the so called
130		weak learners °in the school°< and you were >sort of<
131		(.) had the re-responsibility to deal with them (.) and
132		you >°sort of↓felt< (.) ↑person↓ally responsible for
133		them=
134	S	°Ye:s°
135	L	hh Ah (°) ↑would you say that you (.) ↑dealt with the
136		situation satisfactorily or what (.) ↑what are the things
137		that (.) after some time that>sort of<(.) ↑made this
138		challenge °eas↓er?
139	S	The situation is ↑very ba:d at the mome:ntb'cause
140		(.) they're not even (.) coming to classe:s =
141	L	[°O:h°]
142	S	= they just (.) run away from the classes (.)=
143	L	[°Oh°]
144	S	= and they're doing ↑very bad .hh (.)
145	L	[°Ye:s°]
146	S	= and I am still (1) responsible for them (.)=
147	L	°I:s it°
148	S	= 'cause I am responsible fo:r ↑that class (1) I have to
149		make sure that they ate:nd (.) so-
150	L	>Is it a °big<class or is it twenty->a
151		class of twenty<°]
152	S	↑N::o it's a fe:w
153	L	[>Just a few of them<°]
154	S	But sometimes they come in fi::ves- sometimes they
155		come in three::s (1) °Ye:s°
156	L	hhh °is there anything that you can↑h↓ I do >to sort of

Handwritten annotations (right side):

- Overlapping – with previous turn – beginning of sentence
- Dash – sharp cut off
- Noticible pause/delay + Timed Pauses
- Degree sign – softer utterance
- (.)>< inwards arrows – faster speech
- vertical arrows = change in pitch
- = equals signs – no descernible pauses
- Degree sign – softer utterances
- Noticible pause
- Inward arrows – faster/speed up
- Arrows – change in pitch
- Underlining – louder sound/lexical choice
- Vertical arrow – pitch change
- Colon – stretch proceeding
- Noticible pause + Timed Pauses
- overlapping, degree sign/softer
- Colon, stretch proceeding
- Equal signs • Noticible pauses delay, colon
- overlapping – degree sign/softer
- Equal sign
- Noticible pause ↑ Vertical arrows
- aspiration sign – breathing or sighing
- Overlapping – degree sign/softer and colon – stretch
- = equal sign – latched no silence between them
- Underlying lexical choice • Noticible pause + Timed pause
- Degree sign and vertical arrows
- Equal sign • Noticible ↑ timed pauses
- Colon – stretch Underlying – lexical choice
- Vertical arrows
- sharp cut off
- Overlapping • Inwards arrows – faster
- Colon – stretch
- Vertical arrow
- Colon – stretch
- Overlapping – degree sign/softer, Inward arrow
- sharp cut off
- Timed pauses
- sharp cut off
- Vertical arrow
- aspiration

Handwritten annotations (far right):

① The lecturer responded with an overlapping (line 141)

= equal sign no descernible pause

The "oh" in ≠ soft prolongation "oh" in (line 141). The "oh" indicated acceptance of prior talk as information (Heritage 1984:335)

APPENDIX D

MENTORING SESSION 1: S-RQ2: *How is advice giving conducted conversationally?*

5.3.1.1   Advice-giving segment 1: Advice giving for reflective practice

32	L	[So what was the:: (.) ↑issue for you there?
33		(1.0)
34	S	I think in a sense maybe expecting ((right hand gesture)) the
35		teacher as well to interact with the children more↑ and to speak to
36		them because literally (.) the children would come to class and
37		then (.2) " ↑Morning, ↑afternoon class. Okay:: your work is on the
38		board↓. Just write it out.↓ ((right hand waving gesture))
39	L	So they would sit and copy all the time
40	S	[Yes
41	L	Okay.
42	S	=Sit and copy:: so:: that's why that(.) troubled me feeling that maybe
43		she needed to interact with them more so.. 'ja.'

Handwritten annotations:

I think

underlining — sound louder / lexical choice

→ Noticible pause / Timed pauses

↓ Overlapping with previous turn
→ colon — stretch preceding sound
→ Vertical arrow ↑ change in pitch
lexical choice louder
→ Noticible pause | Timed pause
→ Vertical arrows change in pitch
○ not behavioural signs

→ overlapping

→ Equal signs — no discernible pause
— notisible pause
colon: stretch preceding

the::
there
Word search marker
Topic initiation
Generate & launch new topic
What
Definition Q

APPENDIX E

Ethics Clearance for the Mentor Conversation Research Project at the University of Johannesburg

ETHICS CLEARANCE

Dear Prof Gert van der Westhuizen,

Ethical Clearance Number: 2011-031

Re: The role of knowledge in mentoring conversations.

The FAEC has decided to

[X] Approve the proposal
[ ] Provisionally approve the proposal with recommended changes
[ ] Recommend revision and resubmission of the proposal

Sincerely,

Professor Alan Amory
Chair: FACULTY ACADEMIC ETHICS COMMITTEE

15 August 2011

APPENDIX F

Faculty of Education – Research/Education Project Information
The role of knowledge in mentoring conversations

Background to the study

Interactions between mentors (ie teacher educators, experienced teachers) and learners (ie student teachers, novice teachers) have been shown to be critical interventions in teacher professional learning (Tillema and Orland Barak 2006, Kwan Lopez-Real 2005). Such interventions in contexts of teacher preparation or continued professional development are seen as opportunities to transform practices of student teachers in significant ways (Tillema and Orland Barak 2006).

This inquiry is into the effectiveness of mentor-student interactions and the ways in which such interactions are shaped by the knowledge of good teaching. It is about understanding what knowledge the teacher educator as mentor has of the student, how such knowledge is used for the benefit of the student. The purpose is to analyze samples of mentor-student/novice teacher interactions in terms of content, beliefs and conversation in order to make recommendations about the role and use of knowledge in teacher professional preparation.

From literature, we have some understanding of the nature of teacher knowledge (see Tillema and Orland Barak (2006), Edwards (1997). We also know that teacher knowledge of good practice is dynamic and changing (Clark 2001), and socially co-constructed (Feldman 1999). What we do not know, is how such knowledge comes into play in mentoring relations, and to what extent mentor/teacher knowledge is congruent with student actual knowledge of teaching in mentoring settings. The argument is that incongruence may cause inadequate learning benefits for student/novice teachers which amount to ineffective mentoring.

We assume that mentoring strategies in conversations are aimed at eliciting and partly reconfirming what mentors know or assume about the learner. It is therefore of interest to gauge what mentor knowledge of the learner/student is reconfirmed or (deliberate or not) discarded within face to face interactions with the learner. We assume that teachers (=teacher educator as mentor) have representational knowledge of the student's learning problems, learning needs, conceptual misunderstandings, and that they intentionally deploy conversations to partly acknowledge and partly search for new relevant learner knowledge to arrive at and determine possible learning routes and learner support.

The teacher educator's task and aim in mentoring conversations therefore is to determine a) what the student needs to know, relative to b) what the student brings into the interaction, given c) reference to the standard to be attained (achievement as expected/conceived by the mentor). We believe there is a discrepancy or difficulty for teachers (mentors) to bridge the knowledge of what they think they know about the students and what students actually bring into such interactions as learners.

Intention of the project

Research associated with this project attempts to:
understand the role of knowledge in mentoring conversations, what the understanding is mentors have of a students needs, and how the mentor uses his/her knowledge to help students meet learning needs related to practice teaching. The project also attemtps to use specific conversation analysis methods to describe the flow and focus of the interaction between lecturer and student.

Procedures involved in the project

The research has been planned to involve UJ staff members and a limited number student teachers who will be completing school experience during July August 2011. Students will be requested to submit a reflection document of 2 to 3 pages to their lecturer, and then have a discussion meeting of not more that 45 minutes. This is seen as a mentoring conversation between lecturer and student, to be video taped and transcribed.

Data gathering for the pilot project per participant will involve questionnaires, interviews and video recordings of interactions. Lecturer/mentors will be requested to complete a questionnaire on mentoring

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styles and a pre-interview about the student reflection report and a post-interview about the mentoring conversation. Students will be requested to complete a questionnaire about the outcome of the mentoring conversation.

The research is being coordinated by prof Gert van der Westhuizen. He is based in the Dept of Educational Psychology of UJ, APK Campus. [Office B421, tel 011 559 3332]. This study is parallel to a similar pilot project by Dr. Harm Tillema based at Leiden University who will be conducting a similar pilot at the institution where he works in the Netherlands.

Data analysis and reports will be written by the researchers of this pilot project which include prof van der Westhuizen, Dr. Magano and Dr. Sedibe. Findings of the study will be published in an academic journal.

Potential Risks
The interaction between lecturer and student needs to be followed up so that the benefits of the mentoring interaction may be taken forward.

Potential Benefits
For lecturers to understand their own practice of mentoring, and for students to gain from the actual feedback and interaction.

Confidentiality for Research Projects
Every effort will be made to protect (guarantee) your confidentiality and privacy. I will not use your name or any information that would allow you to be identified. However, we are often identifiable through the stories we tell. Furthermore, if information you have provided is requested by legal authorities then I may be required to reveal it. In addition, all data collected will be anonymous and only the researchers will have access to the collected data that will be securely stored for no longer than 2 years after publication of research reports, or papers. Thereafter, all collected data will be destroyed.

Confidentiality for Educational Projects
While your name will remain confidential, the information collected for educational purposes can be made available to third parties. The confidentiality and privacy of all other individuals, such as learners in a classroom, will be protected, through the distortion of any audio and video recording.

Participation and withdrawal
Your participation in this study is voluntary. You may withdraw your consent to participate in the project at any time during the project. If you decide to withdraw, there will be no consequences for you. Your decision whether or not to participate in the study will not affect your continuing access to any services that might be part of this project.

Future interest and feedback
You may contact me (see below) at any time for additional information, or if you have questions related to the findings of the project.

Prof Gert van der Westhuizen
gertvdw@uj.ac.za
0722267709

Co-researchers:
Dr. Dinah Magano
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Informed Consent/Assent Form

Project Title:
The role of knowledge in mentoring conversations

Investigator:
Prof Gert van der Westhuizen

Date:
5 July 2019

I hereby:
☐ Agree to be involved in the above research/education project as a participant.
☐ Agree to be involved in the above research/education project as an observer to protect the rights of:
    ☐ Children younger than 14 years of age;
    ☐ Children younger than 18 years of age that might be vulnerable*; and/or
    ☐ Children younger than 18 years of age that are part of a child-headed family.
☐ Agree that my child, _____ may participate in the above research/education project.
☐ Agree that my staff may be involved in the above research/education project as participants.

I have read the information sheet pertaining to this research/education project and understand the nature of the project and my role in it. In addition, I have had the opportunity to ask questions about my involvement in this project and to receive additional details I requested. I understand that I may withdraw from the project at any time.

☐ Please allow me to review the report prior to publication.

Name: _____

Phone or Cell number: _____

e-mail address: _____

Signature: _____

If applicable:
☐ I consent/assent to audio recording of my/the participant's contributions.
☐ I consent/assent to video recording of my/the participant's contributions.
☐ I consent to the use of audio and video recordings to be used for educational purposes under the proviso that I am the only one who can be identified in these recordings.

Signature: _____

* Vulnerable children refer to individuals at risk of exposed to harm (physical, mental, emotional and/or spiritual).

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APPENDIX G

APPENDIX H

Language Editing

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Tim Pretorius

BA (cum laude); BA Hons (cum laude)
Former: Senior Editor, HAUM Educational Publishers
Language Adviser, Technikon Witwatersrand

3 July 2019

To whom it may concern

I confirm that I was responsible for the grammatical editing of the body text of the following dissertation:

Advice-giving and learning in student teacher mentoring at a higher education institution

by

Charlotte van der Merwe
University of Johannesburg

T.I.M. Pretorius