Contextual Mentoring: Theory and Practice Alignment

Mili Saha, OISE/University of Toronto, Canada

Abstract: This research aims at investigating the extent to which mentoring practices are aligned with mentoring theories. Contexts of the study include formal and informal mentoring settings in five different countries around the world. A questionnaire containing eight multiple-choice and open-ended items, along with demographic items, was utilized to survey 20 experienced teachers who are either mentee or mentor in any one of those countries. Data were analyzed to examine the differences between the theoretical alignment of formal and informal mentoring practices. Results showed that formal mentoring was predominantly associated with career support, while informal mentoring was associated with psychological support for fellow workers.

Keywords: Formal Mentoring, Informal Mentoring, Theory, Practice, Alignment, Implementation

Introduction

Mentoring, either spontaneous or planned, is an interaction between experienced and less-experienced persons for attaining professional growth (Sheridan, Murdoch, & Harder, 2015). More specifically, Kram (1985) views mentoring from a practical perspective as an intense relationship that mentors (i.e., experienced teachers) build by providing advice, counselling, and developmental opportunities to mentees (i.e., novice teachers). Mentoring shapes new teachers' career experiences by providing both career and psychological support. It also has the essential features of a career development process that is supportive and helpful to novice teachers and that includes both pedagogical and reflective tools (Roberts, 2000).

Organizations structure formal mentoring and support with activities, while informal mentoring refers to a relationship developed spontaneously between the involved parties (Sheridan et al., 2015). A large body of literature recognizes informal mentorship as unrelated to formal mentorship and questions the legitimacy of informal and poor mentoring relationships. However, James, Rayner, and Bruno (2015) consider informal mentorship as more important and widely accessible than formal mentorship. Formal mentorship requires clear goal setting, long-term commitment, a specific hierarchical relationship between mentor and mentee, and a specific medium for interaction. On the other hand, informal mentors share their knowledge and experience with the mentees, build and keep warm or trusting relationships, and encourage mentees' viewpoints.

Mentoring involves implementing learning theories, locus of learning (i.e., learner perceptions about the causes of academic success or failure), purpose of education, educators' role, and issues in adult learning (Rice, 2006). These should be reflected in mentoring practices since theoretical or conceptual knowledge is formal, explicit, and general in nature (Heikkinen, Jokinen, & Tynjala, 2012) and can help the practitioners understand what they do and why they do it. In addition, Hennisen, Beckers, and Moerkerke (2017) mention that a gap is often observed between the practical and conceptual knowledge of novice teachers, which develops for different reasons, including socio-cultural differences, intra-professional variations, social prestige, and public perceptions.

Novice or beginner teachers start developing their own philosophy of teaching and combine them with instructional skills learned through professional training and experience. The firm and complex preconceptions can conflict with the theories, rational, or cognitive processes demonstrated by the mentors in real-life. While expert or experienced teachers are often aware of their teaching behaviours and monitor or adjust those to bring out the best of their students, novice teachers may find transferring learning to work and applying theories into practice difficult without experiencing the relevant concrete problems earlier. Most of all, theories often fail to reflect the real-life socialization processes that the novice teachers undergo and create "compartmentalization" of knowledge in memory if not connected directly to the possible implementation or teaching practices (Hennisen, Beckers, & Moerkerke (2017). Also, pedagogical concepts that are practically not integrated into teaching can create barriers to performing as planned by the new teachers. Therefore, investigating the points of dissimilarities between mentoring theories and practices initially can mediate the issue to some extent through connecting objectives to activities in mentorship. Also, investigating mentoring relationships and practices can illuminate the ways in which the gaps between pedagogical perceptions and actions are addressed using either formal or informal approaches.

Mentoring Theory

Mentoring is ill defined, badly conceptualized, and inadequately theorized. As it is in practice theory, practices comprise precise arrangements and conditions called practice architectures which are shaped by a particular context and prefigure individuals' practices (Colley, 2003). Practice architectures differ according to the circumstances, and practices do not occur in a vacuum. Kemmis, Heikkinen, Fransson, Aspfors, and Edwards-Groves (2014) introduced a framework comprising three elements called semantic spaces (i.e., the way mentoring is understood), physical spaces (i.e., ways of enacting mentorships), and social spaces (i.e., the way people relate in mentoring). Also, conceptualizing mentoring as supervision, professional support, or collaborative self-development would make a difference in choosing training activities, developing mentoring relationships, and preferring particular knowledge, skills, and values. Based on such notions, different aspects of mentoring, such as probing question, feedback, pre-supposition, attending fully, and listening have been inquired.

Mentors are considered as the growth agent having intention to mediate mentees' thinking by using a learning focus and applying "verbal and non-verbal toolkits" to stimulate thoughts. Mentors often mediate mentees' thinking by asking probing questions, positive pre-suppositions, pausing, paraphrasing, using plurals, pronouns (you, instead of I), and exploratory informational language. As Lipton and Wellman (2003) describe, "cognitive mediation is a three-point interaction between the supervisor (as a mediator), the teacher, and a focus, or third point" (p. 12). The third point refers to a focal or a third material item or a reference used in discussion to support thinking and problem solving. Third points can be external and observable or internal and referential. External focal points include photos, charts, data, lesson plans, notes, reports, student work samples, test results, tallies, digital artifacts, videotape, or student behaviour. Conversely, recollection, description of an event or problem, or a vocalized observation is the common internal third points in mentoring. Using externalized third points is helpful to concretize information and depersonalize a mentoring situation, while the use of evidence helps to clarify understanding. Both parties use a shared focus and think together about such evidence. This can help to de-escalate a conversation and assist in maintaining a fact-based orientation to the discussion by restricting emotions or impressions in problem solving through mentoring (Wellman & Lipton, 2017).

Little (1990) observed that educative mentoring goes beyond the traditional mentoring approaches focusing on situated change, technical advice, and emotional support to ensure effective teacher learning. Rather, it stresses mentees' inquiry stances, habit formation, and skills development to learn in and from the practice so that they can grow up to tackle the emergent and specific situations by themselves. Mentoring is not to ease the new teachers' entry into the profession but to assist them in confronting difficult situations in practice. Mentoring is an incentive for the novice teachers and a career opportunity for the experienced teachers who can challenge the new teachers' assumptions, interpret the reality, and suggest the necessary solutions. Besides, a support teacher allows the novices to recognize themselves both as teacher and learner by helping them grow professionally responsible. It is neither all about working with the mentor's views, nor being neutral with opinion. Frazer (2001, pp. 20-21) summarizes, the role is as "co-thinker," who can provide them with new perspectives and resolutions as an "educational companion" and recommends some strategies to enact the role of co-thinking by "showing respect and expressing commitment to base emerging practices." These include finding openings, pinpointing problems, probing novices' thinking, noticing signs of growth, focusing on the learners, reinforcing theoretical understanding, giving living examples of an individual's ways of teaching, modelling wondering about teaching, being more direct, and learning new approaches to writing.

Factors affecting high retention rates should be investigated and addressed. Examples are provided by Zwart, Korthagen and Attema-Noordewier (2015), who listed unsatisfying working conditions, work overload, undesirable student behavior, lack of support or supervision, and frustration for not achieving the target standard. Together, these factors allude to the necessity of preventing burn out and teacher turnover by increasing "job satisfaction, teacher efficacy, and engagement" (Zwart et al., 2012, p. 579). Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000) suggest focusing on strengths, positive emotions, and positive work-experience instead of the problems retaining teachers' long-term motivation. Utilizing teachers' personal qualities and individual strengths is much significant to ensure the "Quality from Within" (Korthagen, 2004) approach. Neglecting active and collaborative professional learning is resistive to teacher growth through "patterns of the fight (i.e., active resistance), flight (i.e., attempt to escape from the pressure) or freeze (i.e., becoming tensed up)" (Zwart et al., 2015, p. 581), which can lead to burnout. Teacher education needs to focus the ways teachers can cope or check stress. Korthagen (2004) recommended a multi-layered model of teacher education called the "Onion Model," consisting of six layers: "environment, behaviour,

competencies, beliefs, identity, and personal mission". Associating, which are considered the inner and outer layers of the model suggest utilizing teachers' core qualities as the driving forces against the obstacles impeding their optimal performance in teaching.

Feiman-Nemser (1998) uses educative mentoring to conceptualize mentoring as personalized professional learning aimed at improving teaching, instead of a temporary interference encouraging both socialization and retention. Educative mentoring is positioned in a continuum of ongoing teacher professional development and is enacted to improve teaching, and ultimately student learning. Educative mentoring is framed upon sociocultural learning theories assuming that learning is situated, collaborative, and scaffolded (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Mentors are supposed to apply their contextual understanding of a new teacher's practice to set their professional goals and subsequently scaffold the professional learning through reflections, analysis, and problem solving.

Conceptualization of educative mentoring and enacting the ideas into cooperative and collaborative ways by using observation and evidence as tools is essential in mentoring, as the quality of interactions between novice teachers and their mentors has a critical impact on the novice teachers' success (Johnson & Kardos, 2004) as well as relationships with their mentors. Stanulis and Ames (2009) suggest that the concepts of educative mentoring involve engaging both mentors and mentees in collaborative inquiries of the problems in teaching and cooperation in planning classroom management and student learning. Also, practicing educative mentoring requires concrete evidence and observation. Distinguishing between evidence and opinion or theory is crucial in any professional development training because the surfaced evidence of the impact a mentor creates with mentee's performances can ensure effective and educative mentoring in a context. Observation of the difficulties and conflicts in the mentoring relationships can encourage the parties to improve the quality of their own work.

Novice teachers' learning through apprenticeships, such as observing and imitating mentors is worthy of additional research. Teacher learners tend to hold the old "conservative values of schools" like craft model of apprenticeship while mentoring aims at developing shared understanding of teaching and strategies through social constructivism (Smith & Avetisian, 2011, p. 336). Mentoring is meant to show the novice teachers 'how to teach' through sharing first-hand experiences with learners, teaching contexts, classroom techniques and strategies, and subject matters and modifying these to fit into their purposes and schedules. In this process, novice teachers need coaching on instructional plans, strategies, and methods before they reflect on action (Wallace, 1991). Otherwise, they often observe and imitate the mentor teacher's styles and techniques while learning to teach. However, observation is not always meant to imitate; instead mentees are expected to reflect on that to accommodate into their own strategies.

Since mentor teachers have a crucial role of preparing, correcting, and developing pre- and in-services teachers, focus stays primarily either on the pupils' needs, readiness, purposes, or experiences, which might also be conflicting because of the difference between research and reality. Learner-centred mentoring involves providing the conditions suitable for learners' growth and autonomy by positioning the teacher as a learner, observer, and supporter. As a situated learner, mentoring takes the teacher's previous knowledge and current experiences into consideration to support the desired needs. During the process, teachers receive both constructive and critical feedback on their practices. Mentors usually approach by modelling roles, sharing knowledge, and providing experiences as well as constructing the mentoring conversation around problems of practice (Kolman, Roegman, & Goodwin, 2017). What mentors prioritize might shape the relationship and the feedback they produce. For that reason, investigating how teachers form a mentoring relationship using the novice teachers' individual needs and experiences has been considered.

Social and situated teacher-learning through belonging, becoming, learning, doing, and experiencing in a community of practice are immensely significant in this research for scrutinizing the nature of informal mentoring. Mentoring is a reciprocal way of learning for the mentors and mentees, and educative mentoring features reciprocity, collaboration, and openness in the relationship. Mentors can take a shifted stance other than expert and be a co-learner to promote the relationship. However, we often value the concept of professional learning as continuing, social, active, and practice relevant over professional development as more "connected to teacher deficits to be corrected". From the socio-cultural perspective, professional development can better be conceptualized as "a process of investigating and trialling different approaches to practice" (Trevethan & Sandretto, 2017, p. 127). Mentors gaining new ideas and reflecting on their own experiences from a new perspective based on mentees'

[1] A considerable number of teachers quit in the first five years and the rate of leaving teaching is higher than the other professions (Fischer, 2011; Ingersoll & Perda, 2012)

[2] One of the major concerns in school policy is retaining effective teachers (OECD, 2005).

interpretation can ensure co-learning. Such mutual engagement can form a community of practice where mentees learn and do as a legitimate member of a teacher community. Since relationships and collaboration are significant in mentorship, these factors need to be inquired in any mentoring context.

Mentoring underrepresented minorities (URMs) is a significant issue in education, since feelings of isolation, uncertainty about learning capabilities, and linguistic or cultural diversity can create differences in the way they perceive the mentoring process. URMs often need holistic supports in academic or psychological need, role modelling, and cross race or gender mentor relationship issues (Fries-Britt & Snider, 2015). Psychological support can raise URMs (as mentees) personal well-being, avoiding future pitfalls and building confidence in abilities as well as critically impacting trust, integrity, opportunity, and understanding. Researching the cross-race and gender issues associated with feelings of marginality, shared struggle, and reciprocity in the relationship can be significant (Patton, & Harper, 2003). Whether URMs receive additional guidance, support, or encouragement in a multicultural context like Canada is a crucial consideration for effective and successful mentoring in school settings. Griffin (2012) shows URMs seek meaningful relationship starting from formal connection developed through respect, ethics, care, assurance, and sincerity as well as going beyond traditional mentoring. Although transparency and trust are difficult to establish, a mentee needs to be allowed to express vulnerability without the fear of being considered as professionally weak. Moreover, mentoring relationships moving beyond formal roles indicate more reciprocity, depth, and growth in mutuality (Fries-Britt & Kelly, 2005).

Mentoring Practice

Mentoring is tricky to define (McKimm, Jollie, & Hatter, 2003) since it is anindirect help by a professional to other to make some significant transitions of knowledge, work, or perceptions (Megginson & Clutterbuck, 1995) and to be what a teacher wants (Montreal CEGEP, 1988). Although, both mentorship and supervision require interactions between a competent person and a less experienced person, Arnesson and Albinsson (2002) describe mentorship as a more democratic process that aims at deepening thoughts, reflections, and knowledge under supervision (Hultman & Sobel, 2013). Mentorship involves reflecting and analyzing discussion; supervision involves direct professional oversight using various elements of discussion and is devoid of the voluntariness that mentoring implies. Mentoring includes several general skills and competences:

- Seeking, assessing, and interpreting the relevant information;
- Discussing phenomena, issues, and situations critically;
- Identifying, formulating, and solving problems independently;
- Carrying out tasks within given time limitations;
- Presenting and discussing information, problems, and solutions both orally and in writing in dialogue with different groups (Arnesson & Albinsson, 2002).

Mentoring structure involves forms of interaction, the learning process for integration of theory and practice, workplace, related studies (Athanases & Achinstein, 2003). Also, theory and practice integration is an indispensable and central part in a mentoring program since it involves knowledge that is applied practically and anchored theoretically. Theory and practice are often referred to the dualistic and hierarchic thoughts (Saugstad, 2006). Learning is considered in a dualism between practice and theory, although theoretical and practical knowledge are rather to be perceived in a continuum and integrating theory and practice is an active interaction to create meaning of new knowledge (Grimmen, 2008).

Both formal and informal mentoring has different aspects beyond the binary categorization. According to Gee and Popper (2017), traditional mentoring entails a one-to-one relationship between a mentor and mentee; while peer mentoring is a more advanced process that involves an experienced teacher mentoring a new teacher may evolve the relationship into a peer-mentoring later. Team or group mentoring that engages a number of expert and novice teachers working in a group for a collaborative project or learning can be useful too. Mentoring forward means a senior teacher mentoring a novice teacher who might mentor a peer subsequently. Distant mentorship involves online or corresponding mentoring that can be both formal and informal. Mentor's interest in developing mentee's long-term skills and competence is the core of mentoring. Mentoring is different than advising and coaching regarding the focus on particular goal and changing attitude to develop skills to increase productivity. The task of advisor or coach naturally ends at the end of the course while mentoring views the tasks or skills "within a framework" of broader individual growth. Requiring time, effort and motivation mentoring is more difficult than

advising or coaching. Mentors benefit from increased inspiration and job satisfaction with better leadership skills, while the mentees grow with "maturity, confidence, and autonomy" by learning how to reflect on learning experiences intensely. A long lasting personal and professional relationship between expert and novice teachers along with improved effective communication skills and morale facilitate positive and productive work environment (Gee & Popper, 2017, p. 29).

In contrast, mentees might be positively or negatively impacted by any prevailing mentoring culture or type at the beginning of their careers. Eby (1997, p. 126) explains mentoring as an "intense developmental relationship" comprising guidance, counselling, and improvement opportunities provided by a mentor to the mentee, which can be both formal and informal. Teachers receiving necessary mentoring might have greater professional satisfaction along with precise plans of further academic endeavours. In addition, organizations benefit from improved "promotion and retention" which encourage a rich learning environment (Haynes & Petrosko, 2009, p. 42).

Formal mentorship is a step ahead of professional mentorship used deliberately and encouraged by the organizations, which is a system or policy and a standard practice of management. Formal mentoring refers to "a compulsory and core component" in an institution's staff training programs. Formal mentoring programs are "assigned, maintained, and monitored by the organisation" (Douglas, 1997, p. 1).The best strength of formal mentorship is that it extends to individuals and minorities in any organization. The effectiveness of formal mentoring is also subjected to several factors like mentors' commitment, compatibility, and competence in terms of technical and interpersonal skills. Hence, it is not an automatic process (Ehrich & Hansford, 1999).

On the other hand, defining informal mentorship is difficult for not only being less recognized in literature but also mentoring relationship is less specified. Informal mentorship includes the conventional relationships among the senior–junior, groups, bottom-up, situational, lateral or peer mentorship requiring no long-term commitment or institutional support to initiate a relationship. Its flexible nature fits the priority of meeting mentees' needs and is suitable for the context where organizations do not officially appoint mentors and since new recruits cannot arrange physical meetings regularly. Also, distant or online mentoring relationships involve flexibility and benefit from it (Kang, 2007).

Teaching as a complex activity and creative task demands sustainable change in the school settings through developing learner centred, knowledge centred, assessment centred, and community centred framework (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005). Teachers working to conform externally imposed benchmarks are the risk of forming "the drones and clones of policymakers, anaemic ambitions" instead of generating creativity and ingenuity of the novice teachers by the highly skilled teachers (Hargreaves, 2003, p. 2). Teachers are often assumed to share their responsibility and knowledge as professionals. Mentoring is significant in making a professional connection and network among the teachers. Mentoring promotes managerial professionalism and democratic professionalism (Day & Sachs, 2004) besides subject knowledge or theory informed and evidence-based practices. Mentoring involves individual and professional development, pedagogical concerns, socio-political issues including unequal power relations between mentors and mentees (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2000). In addition to that, effective mentoring demands good understanding, planning, execution and evaluation on the part of a mentor and mentee, which engage both theory and practice (Best Practices: Mentoring, 2008).

As a teacher and teacher educator, I experienced both pre- and in-service teacher education often as reciprocal and network-based since social approach is significant in both learning and teaching. Since formal and informal mentorships entail socio-cultural learning and one-to-one or community relationships, necessity of more new knowledge or findings about mentoring theory and practice can equally enlighten the mentors and mentees about the ways effective relationships form.

Research on Mentoring

Very few of the findings among the studies about mentoring are sufficiently useful to meet expectations of readers because of skirting the fundamental conceptual and theoretical issues. For instance, there are many research findings about mentoring practices lacking required explanations of mentoring relationships (Bozeman & Feeney (2007, p. 720). Researchers focus overtly on how "individual careers can benefit from mentoring" and the organization to "develop ideas or findings aimed at improving organizational performance" (Bozeman &Feeney, 2007, p.720). Hence, theory is important to support the social and individual needs of the mentees using practical

findings. Though the practical utility flows more directly than the explanatory breadth, accumulated research findings cannot ensure growing knowledge without explanation (Kitcher, 1993). Also, conceptual problems can obstruct developing mentoring theoretical explanations and an integrated model of research framework (Burke & McKeen, 1997).

In-service and pre-service teachers bring previous experiences and beliefs to their mentoring relationships. These may contradict with their mentoring experiences impacting the outlook about the profession or inspiration for teaching later. However, new teachers often undergo a tension in between the school's enculturation atmosphere or promotion of self-beliefs and implications of mentoring. Nonetheless, such gap between expectations and practices can be reduced by using the theories in teacher education contexts. Theories can offer "insights into alternative approaches for strengthening teacher education and the career development of teachers" (Aderibigbe, Colucci-Gray, & Gray, 2016, p. 22). For example, the constructivist theory for professional growth (Savickas, 1997) and social-cultural or cognitive theory introduced by Bandura (1977) can generate ideas about interactive, observational, and collaborative learning in mentoring or teacher learning.

That is why researchers have been searching the ways of integrating theories into practice for theoretical knowledge, or conceptual knowledge, is formal, general and precise in nature (Heikkinen et al., 2012, as cited in Hennisen et al., 2017). Theory helps teachers with growing cognitive schemata grew, expanding conceptual knowledge, and perceiving the positive aspects of connecting it to pedagogical practices. Zellers et al.'s (2008) emphasis on respecting the faculty member's professional development (PD) needs in a higher education context and show mentoring is context-dependent.

Besides considering the necessity of using theories to improve practices, inadequate literature about the impact of integrating mentoring theories into teachers' practices is also ground for designing the current research. I have neither hypothesised any positive relationships between the theories and practice nor assumed that only theory-based practices are effective. I cogitate greater alignment between theory and practices can ensure more planned, effective, and detailed mentoring to improve teaching practices in any context. Further research could demonstrate whether mentees expect more implications of theories or could improve the mentoring relationship or not.

Researcher Positionality

Mentoring is a form of contextual learning for professional development, and it has gradually been enriched with new theories derived from practices (Zellers, Howard, & Barcic, 2017). Mentoring-culture and mentee-socialisation procedures need to go through regular evaluation ensuring the desired outcome in a particular setting (Wanberg, Welsh, & Hezlett, 2008). Mentoring is an exceptional instance of less theorized topic, although a range of new and relevant subject areas, such as personnel psychology or organizational support of mentoring have been developed. In spite of incremental progresses in the different fields of education, "there has been too little attention to core concepts and theory" (Bozeman & Feeney, 2007, p. 719) and theory-driven research in mentoring. Also, a few conceptual or analytical discussions on different mentorships and its impact on the recipients in varied contexts have been done. Explanations of the fundamental idea on mentoring have been discarded as well (Bozeman & Feeney, 2007, p. 719).

Moreover, I have learnt about several basic theories as the part of course readings that are completely new to me as an ESL teacher educator who aspires researching how to integrate structured mentorships in the second language teacher development program in a non-native context. These theories include onion model (Zwart et al.,2015), educative mentoring (Feiman-Nemser, 2001), conceptualizing and enacting mentoring (Stanulis & Ames, 2009), focal or third material or (Ministry of Education, 2017), encouraging inquiry stance (Dana,Yendol-Hoppey, & Snow-Gerono, 2006), pre-service and in-service mentoring (Smith & Avetisian, 2011), learner-centred mentoring (Kolman et al., 2017), utilizing CoP model of Wenger 1998 (Trevethan & Sandretto, 2017), mentoring outside the line (Fries-Britt & Snider, 2015).These are some prominent mentoring theories and are a potential to demonstrate that mentoring practices can be different based on the nature of appointment, mentorship structures, and context of supervision. Knowledge of these theories lets me reflect whether Canadian teacher candidates attending this course utilize the same mentoring elements in the real-life practices both as a mentor and a mentee. Subsequently, I wanted to draw details about formal mentoring culture in the school settings and examine the alignment of theories and practice in the different mentoring contexts, which I had not experienced in Bangladesh.

At the same time, my experience of informal mentoring in higher education has motivated me to know whether these theories are aligned with the unstructured mentoring at all. Informal mentorship, as James et al. (2015, p. 532-533) state, is better illustrated in the research literature and findings than any "simple textual definition." Reflecting on my experiences, I have been motivated to connect the concept to a new research. I experienced informal mentorship as a supportive relationship offering the same benefits of the formal mentorship between two persons or professionals "willing to work together in a mutually acceptable way to address the concerns of the mentee and to share relevant knowledge, expertise, and wisdom" James et al. (2015, p. 532-533) In spite of being crucial for in-service teacher development in a context like Bangladesh and the other Asian countries where there is no structured mentorship in teacher education, informal mentorship is limited in its ability and exposure since it relies on self-reported perceptions of remembered relationships. Barriers are there with opportunities, initiative, and openness of a teacher to informal mentorship despite wider accessibility. Also, informal mentors have to be proactive and indicate to newer professionals that they are eager to be supportive with the issues "beyond basic job requirements" while personality fit is also an issue in formal mentoring.

The research questions that I aimed at answering in the article are following:
- Which theoretical elements of mentoring are more frequent in practices?
- Is theory more aligned to practices in any particular context, such as formal or informal mentoring setting?
- Are the theories convergent or divergent to the practices?

Methodology

I have used a survey to investigate teachers' experiences and researchers' viewpoints regarding the connection between theories and practice in different mentoring contexts. It was primarily a quantitative research requiring less detailed data and yes-no answers to the research questions. The focus was more on 'what' than 'why' or 'how' and a quantitative method of research was chosen. Along with the quantitative part, the proposed research includes two qualitative questions used to examine an opinion related to participants' values and feelings.

Data Collection and Analysis

Participants. The respondents in this research were 20 mentors and mentees attending a course named "Mentoring as Learning" offered in the professional teaching programs at a university in Ontario, Canada. All of the participants were aware of the proposed theories in this research and had considerable amount of teaching and mentoring experiences either formally or informally in Canada or some other Asian countries. Thirteen of the respondents worked in different Canadian schools while others had worked in Bangladesh, China, Iraq, and Korea. Upon ethical clearance, Canadian school teachers responded to the survey during a tea break in the class time.

Similarly, five Asian school teachers responded to the questionnaire via e-mail, although two of them did it face-to-face. However, the intended sample size was 25 and 5participants declined to respond. Hence, the total sample of the study was following:

Table 1: Type of the Participants

Type	Total	Teaching Experience
Canadian mentors		
Formal mentors	10	1-10 years
Informal mentors	3	
Asian mentors		
Formal mentors	2	1-10 years
Informal mentors	5	

The study focuses on different contexts ranging from elementary levels to higher education where the participating mentors work. Hence, teachers practising at all levels have been selected as the participants of the research. Since

the purpose of the research was to explore theory and practice alignment in contextual mentoring, the sample was targeted to represent all possible varieties of mentoring beside the formal and informal binary categories including the following:

Table 2: Modes of Mentoring

Mode	Total
Process of Exchange	15
One-to-one	5
Group mentoring	
Designation	
Pre-service mentoring	7
In-service mentoring	13
Site	
Online	3
Face-to-face	17

To my knowledge and observation, formal mentoring is extremely limited in the South Asian countries and so, the study delved into the nature of formal and informal binary sections, instead of Canadian and non-Canadian, which essentially refers to the same categories.

Tools. An original questionnaire comprising eight Multiple Choice Questions (MCQs) and two open-ended options directly asking about the theoretical elements applied by the teachers in various mentoring contexts was used to gather data. Later, I discussed a few ambiguous issues that needed further clarification with two of the respondents since two of them who were working in Bangladesh responded as a coach of the grade 12 students and the other responded to the survey as the informal mentor of higher education learners in China. Clarifying the research purposes and nature to them was significant since this topic deals with professional mentoring instead of coaching or supervision. In addition, there was a section for the participants' demographic information at the top of the questionnaire to include maximum mentoring varieties and contexts to ensure representative sampling.

Analysis. Data collected for the inquiry were analysed in two stages. First, a reliability coefficient of the questionnaire was determined using Cronbach's alpha. A value of Cronbach's alpha of 0.89 indicated a high degree of consistency in the responses. Later, the data were analysed manually using percentages and descriptive analysis. Both the quantitative and qualitative data (the written statements) have been analysed. Data include the number of theoretical elements commonly aligned to the mentoring practices, type of the technical elements or alternatives favoured in any contexts, the reasons of preferring. At the beginning, participants' demographic information were sought out to categorize the mentoring contexts covered by the research. Next, quantitative data collected with the MCQ questions were analysed using percentage to find out the frequency of using theoretical elements by the mentors who were mentees in the same context earlier and thus, the pattern of theory and practice alignment in formal and informal mentoring contexts was inferred. Finally, the qualitative statements were presented to support the conclusions drawn from numerical findings.

Findings and Analysis

Table 3 shows that lesson plans (85% in formal settings and 71% in informal settings) are widely used while vocalised, photos, and tallies are least favoured. Description of an event or a problem has been found to be the next most significant (54%) in the formal mentoring, although it is the most preferred (86%) third point in the informal contexts. Also, the greater use of work samples (57% > 39%) in the informal mentoring contexts or charts and data (62% > 0%) in the formal contexts support the hypothesis that formal mentoring involves more research elements than informal contexts. Only six focal items among the thirteen are used by the informal mentors and those are more

general as data than the other seven concrete items. Ministry documents such as curriculum documents that have not been included by the author are also reported to be used as focal by one of the respondents.

Table 3: What are the most frequently used focal or third points?

Focal Name	Formal (%)	Informal (%)
Lesson plans	85	71
Work samples	39	57
Tests results	15	-
Video	39	-
Vocalized	-	-
Observation	46	43
Description of an event or problem	54	86
Photos	-	-
Charts & data	62	-
Notes	39	29
Tallies	-	-
Observational data	-	14
Digital artefacts	8	-

As Figure 1 shows, pinpointing problems is the most frequently used technique (69%) by the formal mentors as a co-thinker, although teaching new approaches to writing was the rarest (8%) one in both the contexts. Conversely, probing novice's thinking that is preferred most in an informal mentoring (71%) is the third most popular (54%) strategy among the official mentors. Giving living examples of a person's ways of teaching (62%) is second most popular in the formal mentoring settings. Higher percentages of using seven elements out of nine by the formal mentors lead to infer that theories are more aligned here than the informal contexts.
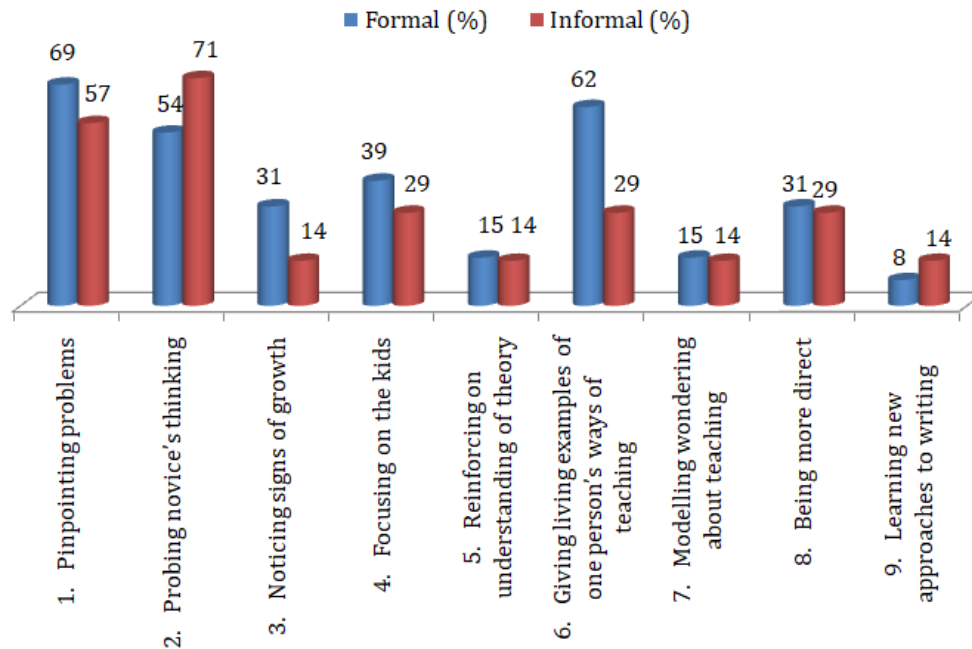
Figure 1: How Do Mentors Co-Think with Mentee?

However, some of the respondents stated 'Some of these strategies were used, but I do not think true 'co-thinking' was achieved' and 'By collaborating on plans and co-thinking about the future of the course', which were not listed in the questionnaire and indicate the concept of co-thinking deviates from the proposed theory.
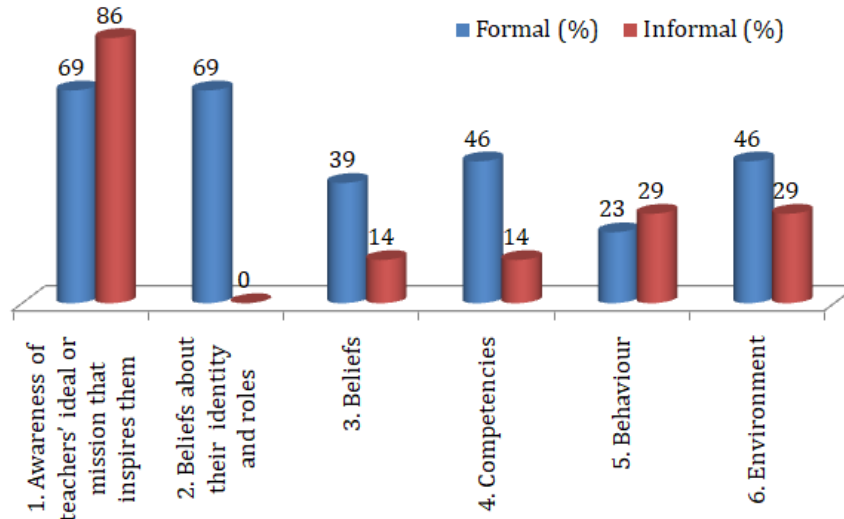

Figure 2: To What Extent Teachers' 'Core Qualities' are Utilized in Mentoring?

Next, awareness of teachers' ideal or mission and beliefs about their identity and roles are the two most commonly used (69%) core qualities in the formal mentoring. This element is more widely attached to an informal mentoring setting (86%) than the formal contexts. On the other hand, beliefs about their identity and roles are not considered at all in the informal contexts. Once again theories are more widely involved in formal mentoring, which suggests implementing theories make structured mentoring happen while informal mentoring involves mentee's will and awareness of the necessity of being guided by the senior colleagues to achieve any professional target (Figure 2).
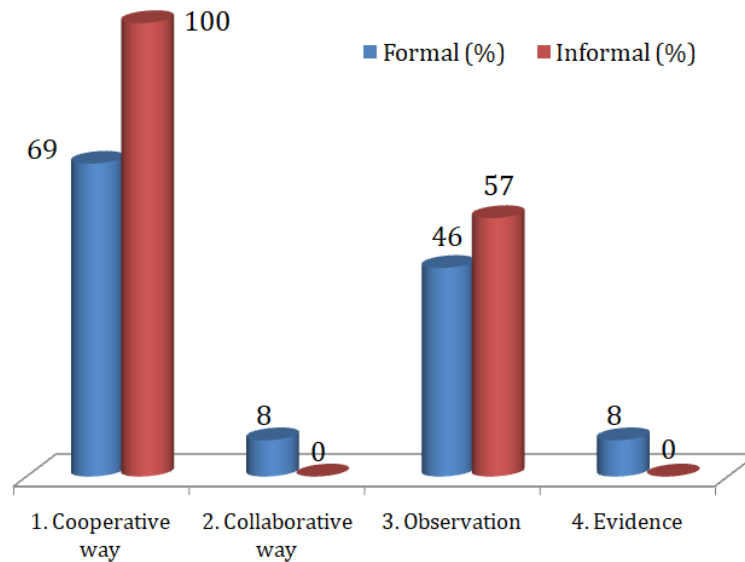
Figure 3: How is Educative Mentoring?

As Figure 3shows, Collaboration with the mentor in educative mentoring is quite rare (8% & 0%) in both the formal and informal mentoring settings, although cooperation (69% & 100%) is there. Equally, pieces of evidence are almost (8% & 0%) of no use in these mentoring settings while observation (46% & 57%) is preferred in both of the contexts. Unilateral preference for Cooperative way or Observation and complete rejection for collaboration and evidence indicate the similar theory focus in these contexts, although greater cooperation and observation-based learning in informal mentoring is reported. Also, formal mentoring conforms to the proposed theories about educative mentoring since it includes all four elements although 100% cooperation in informal mentoring indicates better relationships.
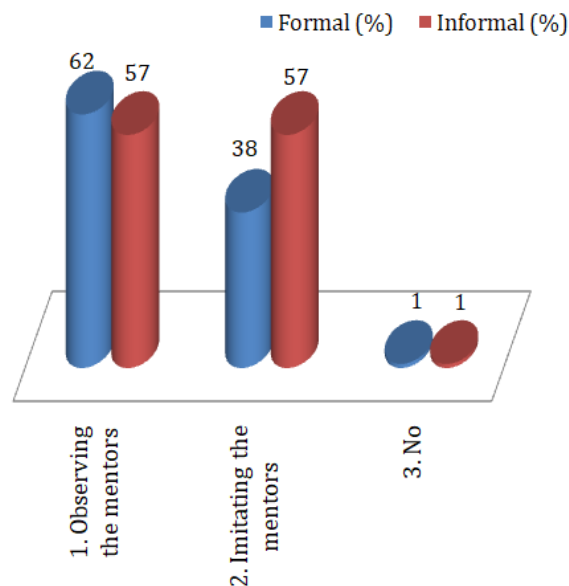

Figure 4: What makes apprenticeships happen; observation or imitations?

Figure 4 shows that Apprenticeship Model has been preferred by both types of mentors working officially and personally. 62% and 57% respondents were positive about observing mentors in formal and informal settings respectively. Imitating the mentors is equally favoured in the informal contexts and not abandoned in the other. However, 8% of the participants have used none of these.

As it is stated in Figure 5, mentees' Individual needs are the highest priority (77%) to the Canadian or formal mentors who make sure trainee-centred coaching and value novice teachers' reflections on their own needs. Yet, it is not equally (14%) valued in an informal setting. These elements have the most comparable pattern in the proposed theory and practice alignment.
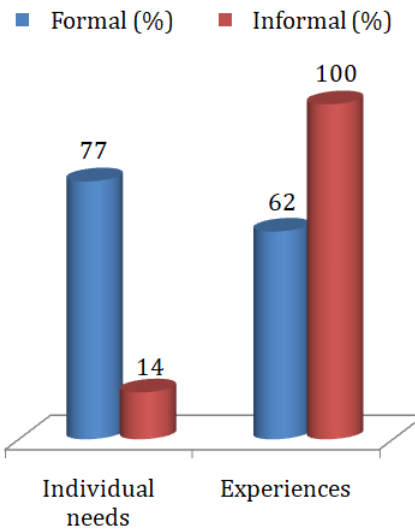

Figure 5: What are the Basics of Mentoring Relationships?

Using Individual experiences is also popular in both the contexts (62% & 100%), though is unquestionably favoured by the informal mentors. That is, mentors and mentees reflect regularly on learning and teaching.

Expectedly, individual needs are rarely implemented (14%) in the informal mentoring settings since such mentoring practices are often optional depending on availability. On the other hand, 77% formal mentors prefer using individual mentee's needs to build mentoring relationships extending professional cooperation to the novice teachers. Formal mentoring represents the proposed theory more than the informal settings where sharing experience is crucial for the relationships.
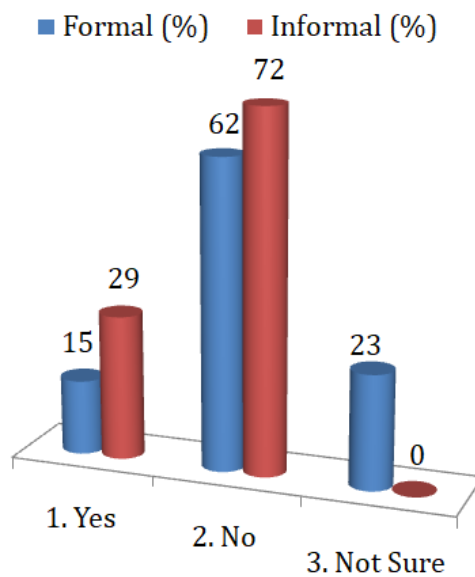

Figure 6: Is There a Community of Practice in Mentoring Relationships?

Two large groups (72% & 62%) among the respondents rejected being in a community of practice while 23% formal mentors/mentees are not sure of experiencing situated learning. Community of practice is rarely implemented (15%) in the formal mentoring settings. Also, only 29% of the informal mentors/mentees learn in a community that make the informal mentoring possible. One of the underrepresented participants stated, "Relationship grew through sharing any problems without hesitating to be open."
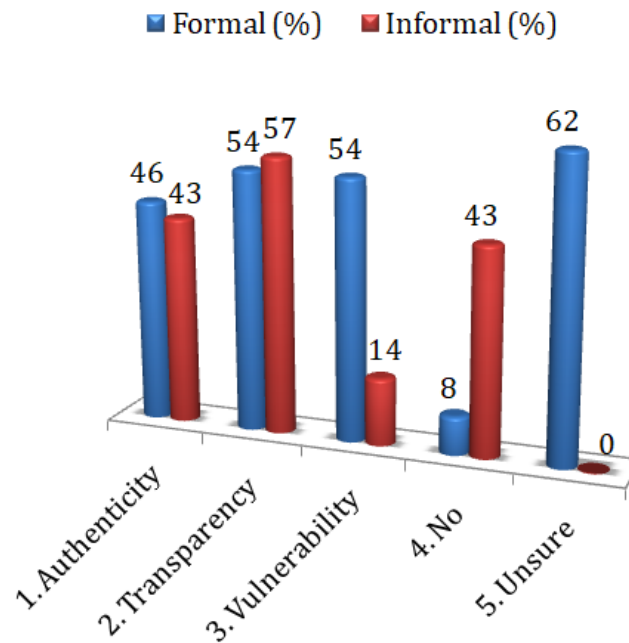

Figure 7: Is there authenticity, transparency, or vulnerability?

As Figure 7 shows, 46% and 43% respondents experienced authenticity in formal and informal mentoring respectively, while vulnerability (54%) is perceived mainly by the non-dominant or underrepresented identities in the formal mentoring settings. Although transparency is almost equally experienced by both formal and informal mentors and mentees (54% and 57%), 43% of the informal mentors and mentees experienced none of these and 62% Canadian participants are unsure of it. More occasions of vulnerability and authenticity in formal mentoring reveal the greater theoretical alignment too.

Two of the underrepresented participants have stated about their experiences, 'Authenticity came by sharing mentor's working experiences in confronting conflicts with the students', and 'That is the way we connected each other.'

Discussion

Overall, the findings show formal mentoring involves more individual needs and qualities of the mentees, formal mentees learn more from observing the mentors than imitating, formal mentors use more elements and third points more frequently for co-thinking than the informal mentors. However, co-thinking elements are not limited to the relevant ideas presented in this research and thus, this theory diverges from practices. Varied choices of mentoring elements in informal mentoring as well as the stable use of those in formal setting support the research question. In spite of the numerical differences traced in the data, formal and informal mentoring are equally aligned to a few items. However, literature suggests informal mentoring is often unstructured and more relation-focused. For instance, using lesson plans and description of an event or a problem widely as a third point in the formal mentoring settings indicates the mentoring culture is reasonably instrumental and purposeful in both contexts. However, formal mentoring is more example-specific while informal mentors engage in reporting. Also, greater use of probing questions in informal mentoring confirms the conversational and situated nature of teacher learning. Educative mentoring is the only concept where both types of mentoring show similar preferences and informal mentoring involves more cooperation and observation than formal settings. Also, informal mentees being inclined to imitate the

mentors differ from the formal mentees who observe and construct own strategies with structured guidance. On the other hand, least consideration for the individual needs and absolute reliability on experience expose the voluntary nature of informal mentoring.

As Mullen (2005) categorised mentoring into teachers' reform-minded professionalization and socializing or preserving existing cultural norms, Eby (1997) classifies it into instrumental or career support and psychological support. These are similar to Kram's (1985) two functions called advice or modelling about career development behaviours and individual support involved in mentoring. Findings of the current research infer that formal mentoring aims at more career support and implements more theory than informal mentoring. Whereas informal mentoring inclines more onto psychological support that formal and structured mentoring lacks, which acknowledge and conform the categorizing.

These results also align with James et al.'s (2015) conclusion, in that informal mentors do not identify themselves as mentors overtly and are usually asked in case of any career advices are needed either on a particular perspective or on any issue. Besides, informal mentees might seek assurance or morale boost from the expert colleagues who consider the mentee's interests and volunteer their opinions to solve the problems. Unlike formal mentorships, informal mentoring involves less literature or theories and happens casually.

Greater rejection for community of practices specifies the reduced scope of socio-cultural learning in formal setting while greater acceptance by the informal mentor is meaningful in open discussion with expert teachers. This can promote working relationships between the mentor and mentees without any concern of being undermined, which is a common fear among the formal mentees. In spite of the slight differences in the authenticity and transparency reports, massive differences in experiencing vulnerability by the formal mentors and no experience of that by nearly half of the informal mentors depict the stress in multicultural and formal mentoring setting like Canada. Again, formal mentors' little awareness of these elements complies with more authenticity and transparency there, although the underrepresented participants suffer more from racial, ethnic, and cultural diversities.

Mentoring programs are usually meant to address diverse learners' needs (Little, 1990). However, mentors often do not care about equity-focused works comprising situational adjustment, technical advice, and emotional support in practice. Also, theories are supposed to focus appropriate knowledge-base for dealing the complexities in mentoring practices (Achinstein &Athanases, 2005). Besides promoting growth and development, mentors can raise diverse teachers' courage to display vulnerability and avail the opportunities of learning and growing from mistakes or negative experiences in general (Giscombe, 2015). Mentors are also expected to help diverse teachers to establish positive self-esteem and create a safe space for learning, adaptation, and inclusion.

The theory of co-thinking looks diverging from the practice since one of the respondents questioned the correlation between practicing elements and co-thinking. The respondents are quite aware of the definition of co-thinking as a learner of 'Mentoring as learning' course and Canadian teachers. No other theoretical connections were questioned in this way. Hence, further research can be directed to investigate the ways mentees think co-thinking occurs in mentoring.

Also, minimum use of reinforcing the understanding of theory, wondering about teaching, and teaching new approaches to write exposes reduced theoretical interventions in mentoring. Although valuing teachers' beliefs about their identity, mission and roles indicate ensuring professional responsibilities, ignoring teachers' qualities and behavior exposes the necessity of individualizing the mentorships. However, practicing only cooperation through observation and excluding collaboration in mentoring might expose the less supportive environment. Another significant finding is, apprenticeship being considerably recognized in both the formal and informal mentoring contexts. Although apprenticeship has been criticized as an old and unproductive model in teacher education (Wallace, 1990, p. 7), it has unpredictably been utilised by the mentors working around the world despite the fact that many scientific models are discovered. Moreover, a large number of participants rejecting the idea of being in a community and reporting feeling of vulnerability expose the lack of psychological support received by mentees. That is, professional development is emphasized instead of individual growth.

Little psychological support in formal mentoring is also a crucial issue since Eraut (2007) conclude the organisation of work and working relationships manipulate mentees' expected progress and participation. Lofthouse and Thomas (2015) state, mentoring experience is more meaningful as collaborative. It means working together,

instead of working with trainee teachers towards achieving a common goal and solving problems. Collaborative teacher education allows the novice teachers practice informed decision-making and constructing a shared understanding about the desired learning outcomes and achieving those in a particular contexts. Collaboration is also meant to construct mutual professional learning (Burley & Pomphrey, 2011) through exchanging each other's teaching methods, ideas, and cognition. However, mentees have less self-reported behavioural change because of experiencing collaboration (Meirink, Meijer, & Verloop, 2007). Besides, teachers' professional experience may contradict school experiences focusing performativity, which is all about accountability employing judgements and comparisons. This displays as a way of control, attrition, and change (Ball, 2013). Again, as a broad concept mentoring is changing to be associated with collaboration, interaction, and collegiality (Heikkinen et al., 2012).

On the other side, complete cooperation, popularity of probing questions, utilizing mentees need-based experiences, less vulnerability and sharing within a greater community ensure more psychological support or relationships in informal mentoring. In spite of the same qualities expected from a formal and informal mentor, "feelings tended to be stronger for informal mentors" (James et al., 2015, p. 534) while formal mentors are more neutral in sharing and less frequent in conversations. Even though, the elements concerning career or professional development which are ignored in such contexts let it look 'no mentoring, no theories.'

Simmie and Moles (2011, p. 465-466) propose productive mentoring is an academic, caring and professional practice within a continuum of teacher education. Inquiry-driven models of mentoring can incorporate critical thinking and professional agency to ensure contextually responsive teacher education. Productive mentoring "uses an evidence-informed lens and addresses a multiplicity of mentoring relationships of learning". Care for mentor teachers refers to creating a public space where mentor teachers can "debate issues and have their voice and contributions valued". Using dialogical approach, mentor teachers can connect to sharing values of mutuality and democracy by motivating professional agency. Zachary's (2005) framework can be implemented for diagnosing, analyzing, and prioritizing the areas of increasing strengths and mitigating gaps in a mentoring culture. The focus should be shared on mentoring and culture, instead of mentees (Wanberg et al., 2003). Many of the researchers talked about factors related to informal or formal relationships and increased job satisfaction instead of what was attributed to mentoring. The author has found no research addressing mentoring theory and practice alignment at cultural or organizational level.

Quantitative methods are used to consider numbers for generalizing a conclusion about a proposed hypothesis and an objective scale of measurement helps to analyze a phenomenon, while qualitative methods explore the phenomena by gaining understanding about the participants' values or beliefs. Considering the research problems and the direct nature of information needed, I have decided to use a single source of data since multiple sources could extend the research structure beyond the design with new data. Hence, limitations of the research include the small number of respondents, lack of qualitative data, and nuclear source of data. Although the context and types of sample are representative, different age groups, other population, and different contexts could produce different results.

Moreover, the survey was conducted using a researcher-developed questionnaire that might not capture the respondents' true concepts about the theoretical elements. Some teachers might be confused or misunderstand any items and could produce faulty data. A qualitative approach like interviews, observations, or case studies would elicit more detailed and accurate data of their perceptions about the theories and implementing those in practices. Also, how do the mentors interpret the gaps between these two could have been investigated. In addition to that, some recommended research directions 'how to increase psychological support in mentoring' or 'if is it needed or not' and 'how to implement theories to make mentoring more useful' could be beneficial.

REFERENCES

Achinstein, B., & Athanases, S.Z. (2005). Focusing new teachers on diversity and equity: Toward a knowledge base for mentors. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 21*, 843-862.

Arnesson, K., &Albinsson, G. (2012). Integration of theory and practice in higher education. *International Journal of Educational Research, 53*, 370-380.

Aderibigbe, S., Colucci-Gray, L., &Gray, D. (2016). Conceptions and Expectations of Mentoring Relationships in a Teacher Education Reform Context. *Mentoring & Tutoring: Partnership in Learning, 24*, 8–29,

Athanases, S.Z., &Achinstein, B. (2003). Focusing new teachers on individual and low performing students: The centrality of formative assessment in the mentor's repertoire of practice. *Teachers College Record, 105*, 1486-1520.

Ball, S.J. (2013). *The education debate*. Bristol, United Kingdom: The Policy Press.

Bandura, A. (1977). *Social Learning Theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Bozeman, B., & Feeney, M.K. (2007). Toward a useful theory of mentoring: A conceptual analysis and critique. *Administration & Society, 39*, 719-739.

Burke, R.J., & McKeen, C.A. (1997). Benefits of mentoring relationships among managerial and professional women: A cautionary tale. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 51*, 43-57.

Burley, S., & Pomphrey, C. (2011). Mentoring *and coaching in schools; professional learning through collaborative inquiry*. London, United Kingdom: Routledge.

Colley, H. (2003). *Mentoring for social inclusion: A critical approach to nurturing mentoring relationships*. London, United Kingdom: Routledge Falmer.

Dana, N., Yendol-Hoppey, D., & Snow-Gerono, J. (2006). Deconstructing inquiry in the professional development school: Exploring the domains and contents of teachers' questions. *Action in Teacher Education, 27*, 59- 71.

Darling-Hammond, L., & Bransford, J. (2005). *Preparing teachers for a changing world what teachers should learn and be able to do*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Day, C., & Sachs, J. (Eds.). (2004). *International handbook on the continuing professional development of teachers*. Berkshire, United Kingdom: Open University Press.

Douglas, C.A. (1997). *Formal mentoring programs in organizations: An annotated bibliography*. Centre for Creative Leadership, Greensboro, NC.

Eby, L.T. (1997). Alternative forms of mentoring in changing organizational environments: A conceptual extension of the mentoring literature. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 51*, 125-144.

Ehrich, L.C., &Hansford, B.C. (1999). Mentoring: Pros and cons for HRM. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources, 37*, 92-107.

Eraut, M. (2007). Learning from other people in the workplace. *Oxford Review of Education, 33*, 403–422.

Feiman-Nemser, S. (1998). Teachers as teacher educators. *European Journal of Teacher Education, 21*, 63-74.

Feiman-Nemser, S. (2001). Helping novices learn to teach: Lessons from an exemplary support teacher. *Journal of Teacher Education, 52*, 17-30.

Fischer, B.B. (2011). *Mentoring in medicine: Forms, concepts and experiences*. A Report on Mentoring Programs at the University Hospital and in the Medical Faculty of the University of Zurich.Zurich, Switzerland.

Fries-Britt, S., & Kelly, B.T. (2005). Retaining each other: Narratives of two African American women in the academy. *The Urban Review, 37*, 221-242.

Fries-Britt, S., & Snider, J. (2015). Mentoring outside the line: The importance of authenticity, transparency, and vulnerability in effective mentoring relationships. *New Directions for Higher Education, 171*, 3–11.

Gee, K.L., & Popper, A.N. (2017). Improving academic mentoring relationships and environments. *Acoustics Today, 13*, 27-35.

Giscombe, K. (2015). Emotional resilience and failure. In M. Davidson, L. Wooten, & L.M. Roberts (Eds.), *Positive organizing in a global society: Understanding and engaging differences for capacity-building and inclusion* (pp. 85–95). New York, NY: Taylor & Francis.

Griffin, K.A. (2012). Learning to mentor: A mixed methods study of the nature and influence of Black professors' socialization into their roles as mentors. *Journal of the Professoriate, 6*, 27-58.

Grimmen, H. (2008). Profession and knowledge. In A. Molander& L.I. Terum (Eds.), *Profession studies*. Oslo, Norway: Universitetsforlget.

Hargreaves, A., & Fullan, M. (2000). Mentoring in the new millennium. *Theory into Practice, 39*, 50–56.

Hargreaves, A. (2003). *Teaching in the knowledge society: Education in the age of insecurity*. New York, NY: Teachers' College Press.

Haynes, R.K., &Petrosko, J.M. (2009). An investigation of mentoring and socialization among law faculty. Mentoring & Tutoring: *Partnership in Learning, 17*, 41–52.

Heikkinen, H.L.T., Jokinen, H., &Tynjala, P. (2012). *Peer-group mentoring for teacher development*. London, United Kingdom: Routledge.

Hennisen, P., Beckers, H., &Moerkerke, G. (2017). Linking practice to theory in teacher education: A growth in cognitive structures. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 63*, 314-325.

Hultman, J., & Sobel, L. (2013). *The mentor: A practical guide*. Stockholm, Sweden.

Ingersoll, R., &Perda, D. (2012). *How high is teacher turnover and is it a problem?*Philadelphia,PA: University of Pennsylvania, Consortium for Policy Research in Education.

James, J.M., Rayner, A., & Bruno, J. (2015). Are you my mentor? New perspectives and research on informal mentorship. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship, 41*, 532–539.

Johnson, H.R., &Kardos, S.M. (2002). Keeping new teachers in mind. *EducationalLeadership, 59*, 12-16.

Kang, I. (2007). Mentoring for new teacher–librarians: How to find and build a network of trust. *Teacher Librarian, 14*, 52–54.

Kemmis, S., Heikkinen, H.L.T., Fransson, O., Aspfors, J., & Edwards-Groves, C. (2014). Mentoring of new teachers as a contested practice: Supervision, support and collaborative self-development. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 43*, 154-164.

Kitcher, P. (1993). *The advancement of science*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Kolman, J., Roegman, R., & Goodwin, L. (2017). Learner-centered mentoring building from student teachers' individual needs and experiences as novice practitioners. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, *44*, 93- 117.

Korthagen, F. (2004). In search of the essence of a good teacher, towards a more holistic approach in teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 20*, 77-97.

Kram, K.E. (1985). *Mentoring at work: Developmental relationships in organizational life*. Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman & Co.

Lave, J., & Wenger, E. (1991). *Situated learning: Legitimate peripheral participation*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Lipton, L., & Wellman, B. (2003). *Mentoring matters: A practical guide to learning-focused relationships*. Sherman, CT: MiraVia LLC.

Little, J.W. (1990). The mentor phenomenon. In C. Cazden (Ed.), *Review of research in education* (pp. 297-351). Washington, DC: American Educational Research Association.

Lofthouse, R., & Thomas, U. (2015). Concerning collaboration: teachers' perspectives on working in partnerships to develop teaching practices. *Professional Development in Education, 43*, 36–56.

McKimm, J., Jollie, C., & Hatter, M. (2003). *Mentoring: Theory and practicedeveloped from the Preparedness to Practice Project, mentoring scheme. July 1999*. NHSE/Imperial College School of Medicine.

Megginson, D., & Clutterbuck, D. (1995). *Mentoring in action: A practical guide for managers.* London, UK: Kogan Page.

Meirink, J.A., Meijer, P.C., &Verloop, N. (2007). A closer look at teachers' individual learning in collaborative settings. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice, 13*, 145-164.

Ministry of Education, (2017). *Mentoring for All eBook.*Retrieved fromhttps://spark.adobe.com/page/7i0u3HyjZ6WMg/

Mullen, C. (2005). *Mentorship primer* (Vol. 6). New York, NY: Peter Lang Primer.

Patton, L.D., & Harper, S.R. (2003). Mentoring relationships among African American women in graduate and professional schools. In M. F. Howard-Hamilton (Ed.), *Meeting the needs of African American women. New Directions for Student Services*, (No. 104, pp. 67-78). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Rice, K.L. (2006). A comprehensive look at distance education in the K-12 context. *Journal of Research on Technology in Education, 38*, 425-449.

Roberts, A. (2000). Mentoring revisited: A phenomenological reading of the literature, *Mentoring & Tutoring, 8*, 145-170.

Savickas, M.L. (1997). Constructivist career counselling; Models and methods. *Advances in Personal Construct Psychology, 4*, 149-182.

Saugstad, T. (2006). Aristotle's thoughts on professional vocational education and training. In A. Brnäs& S. Selander (Red.), *Reality, reality. Theory and practice in teacher education* (p. 58-73). Stockholm, Sweden: NordstedtsAkademiskaFörlag.

Seligman, M.E.P., & Csikszentmihalyi, M. (2000). Positive psychology: An introduction. *American Psychologist, 55*, 5–14.

Sheridan, L., Murdoch, N.H., & Harder, E. (2015). Assessing mentoring culture: Faculty and staff perceptions, gaps, and strengths. *Canadian Journal of Higher Education, 45*, 423-439.

Simmie, G.M., & Moles, J. (2011). Critical thinking, caring and professional agency: An emerging framework for productive mentoring. *Mentoring & Tutoring: Partnership in Learning Aquatic Insects, 19*, 465-482.

Smith, E., & Avetisian, V. (2011). Learning to teach with two mentors: Revisiting the "two-worlds pitfall" in Student Teaching. *The Teacher Educator, 46*, 335-354.

Stanulis, R.N., & Ames, K.T. (2009). Learning to mentor: Evidence and observation as tools in learning to teach. *Professional Educator, 33*, 1-11.

Trevethan, H., &Sandretto, S. (2017). Repositioning mentoring as educative: Examining missed opportunities for professional Learning. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 68*, 127-133.

Wallace, M.J. (1991). *Training foreign language teachers: A reflective approach*. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge, United Kingdom.

Wanberg, C.R., Welsh, E.T., &Hezlett, S. (2003). Mentoring research: A review and dynamic process model. *Research in Personnel and Human Resource Management, 22*, 39–124.

Wellman, B.M., & Lipton, L. (2017). *Mentoring matters: A practical guide to learning-focused relationships* (3rd ed.). Sherman, CT: MiraVia, LCC.

Zachary, L. J. (2005). *Creating a mentoring culture: The organization's guide*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Zellers, D.F., Howard, M.V., & Barcic, A.M. (2017) . Faculty mentoring programs: Re-envisioning rather than re-inventing the wheel. *Review of Educational Research, 78*, 552-588.

Zwart, R.C., Korthagen, F.A., &Attema-Noordewier, S. (2015). A strength-based approach to teacher professional development. *Professional Development in Education, 41*, 579-596.

ABOUT THE AUTHOR

Mili Saha is an Assistant Professor of English at Jagannath University, Bangladesh and recent M.Ed. graduate from OISE/University of Toronto. Her research interests include second language acquisition, teacher education, and online learning. She works to improve equity and quality of higher education instructions in Bangladesh and Canada.

APPENDIX A

Questionnaire on 'Implementing Theories into Mentoring Practices'

Demographic Information

Name: Sex:

The institution where you are studying: Program:

The institution where you work/worked: Year of teaching experience:

Research Questions

(Put a tick on / circle around on your answer. You can choose more than one answer, where applicable)

1. What type of mentoring you received or provided?
   a. Formal   or   informal
   b. One-to-one   or   group mentoring
   c. Pre-service mentoring   or   in-service mentoring
   d. On-line or face- to- face

2. Did you or your mentor ever use any one of the following you found being used by you/ your mentor as the *Focal* or *Third point* of discussion?
(a) lesson plans (b) work samples (c) test results (d) video (e) vocalized (f) observation (g) description of an event or a problem (h) photos (i) charts & data (j) notes (k) work samples (l) tallies (m) observational data (n) digital artefacts
If none of these, what is that you/ your mentor used?
……………………………………………………………………………………………….
……………………………………………………………………………………………….

3. How did you / your mentor become **'Co-thinker'** to the mentee?

By using: a) pinpointing problems,   b) probing novice's thinking,   c) noticing signs of growth, d) focusing on the kids, e) reinforcing on understanding of theory,   f) giving living examples of one person's ways of teaching,   g) modelling wondering about teaching,   h) being more direct,   i) learning new approaches to writing
If none of these, what is that you/ your mentor used?
……………………………………………………………………………………………….
……………………………………………………………………………………………….

4. Did you or your mentor ever associate your/your mentee's *Core Qualities* to deal with the berries of successful teaching?
   a) awareness of teachers' ideal or mission that inspires them, b) beliefs about their identity and roles, c) beliefs, d) competencies, e) behaviour, f) environment
If none of these, what is that you/ your mentor used?
……………………………………………………………………………………………….
……………………………………………………………………………………………….

5. How did you /your mentor conceptualise *'Educative Mentoring'* and enacting the ideas into practice?
a) **Cooperative** or **collaborative** ways, b) Using **observation** and **evidence** as tools.

6. Did you or your mentee learn through *'Apprenticeships'*, that is through:
a) **observing,** b) **imitating** the mentors.

7. Did you / your mentor would form '*Mentoring Relationships'* on the student/novice teachers' a) **individual needs** and/or b) **experiences?**

8. Did you/your mentor create/ experience social and situated teacher-learning through belonging, becoming, learning, doing and experiencing in a Community of Practice?
a) Yes b) No.
If yes, how did you do that?
……………………………………………………………………………………………..
……………………………………………………………………………………………..

9. Did you/your mentee create/experience **authenticity/ transparency/ and vulnerability** in mentoring relationships as a dominant/ non-dominant or underrepresented identity?
Is there anything important about the mentoring experiences you wish to inform?
………………………………………………………………………………………….
………………………………………………………………………………………………