

Teachers' and students' experiences and perceptions of a school-wide mentoring programme in New Zealand

By

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Abstract

Schools in New Zealand play an important role in young people's academic and social development. Traditionally, schools have prioritised a focus on students' academic success, with pastoral care often seen as important but not deserving a focus in itself. In the past decade, concerns about students' wellbeing and mental health have increased and schools are tasked to find ways to deal with these concerns and demands effectively. As a strategy, many secondary schools in New Zealand have recently introduced stand-alone school-wide mentoring programmes to support their students' academic and social development and to improve students' wellbeing.

The focus of this study is on one example of a school-wide mentoring programme which applied a whole school approach using teachers as mentors. This programme was in contrast to most formal mentoring programmes which target 'at-risk' students using external-to-school adult mentors. This study explores the nature of the programme, its contextual factors and teacher-mentors' and students' experiences and perceptions of the programme.

This mixed-methods study collected teacher-mentors' and students' data in three distinct phases: adapted surveys from existing youth mentoring research tools (Match Characteristics Questionnaire (MCQ) and the Youth Mentoring Survey (YMS)), student World Café discussions and one-on-one interviews with teacher-mentors and students.

The thematic analysis of teacher-mentors' data identified the importance of how the intended mentoring programme was implemented, teachers' experiences and perceptions of their relationships with students and their adaptation to the teacher-mentor role. The thematic analysis of students' experiences and perceptions of the mentoring programme highlighted their varied experiences and perceptions which were shaped by the nature of the mentoring activities, the quality of their mentoring relationships and their perceived growth from mentoring. The study examined contextual factors which influenced the relationships between teacher-mentors and students by conducting an analysis informed by the principles of third generation CHAT.

The study showed that teacher-mentors' skills and their ability to form strong interpersonal relationships directly influenced students' experiences and perceptions of mentoring. Close personal mentoring relationships led to students' increased sense of wellbeing and personal growth. The key implications of these findings point towards the need for personal investment from teacher-mentors and students for mentoring relationships to be positive and successful. However, teachers' skills in mentoring were strongly shaped by previous professional experiences such as previous experiences in

pastoral care or experience of relational pedagogy in subject teaching, thus making the role more difficult for less experienced teachers. Teacher-mentor participants all noted difficulties in navigating the, at times, contradictory demands of the subject teacher and teacher-mentor roles. Ongoing professional learning about these challenges was largely absent. Students highlighted the significance of relational qualities of their mentoring relationships on their personal development, noting that these were undermined when the school changed their teacher-mentor or when a teacher-mentor left.

The study highlights the value of school-wide mentoring programmes to students. It raises significant issues to resourcing and ongoing professional learning schools experience when fulfilling an extensive pastoral role in addition to their expected academic functions. The study contributes to the growing body of research about group and hybrid mentoring, and in particular, some of the challenges associated with implementing such forms of mentoring in school-wide settings.

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Glossary

Terminology	Explanation
kaiārahi	Te Reo Māori word for mentor or guide, used in the research context to name the teachers holding a mentoring role
Level 3	NCEA Level 3, academic qualification students in year 13 work towards
manaakitanga	Displays of support, care and respect
Restorative circles	a tool used in Restorative Practice schools to build communities and develop relationships
Senior Students	students in year 11 to 13 in a New Zealand secondary school
Term	Approximately 10 school weeks, a school year in New Zealand consists of four terms
whanaungatanga	Close connections between people, family-like relationships

Abbreviations

Abbreviation	Meaning
BBBS	Big Brother Big Sister- global volunteer mentoring programme that can be community-based or school-based, originated in the USA in 1904
CHAT	Cultural Historical Activity Theory
NCEA	National Certificate of Educational Achievement- Educational Qualification of New Zealand
RP	Restorative Practice
SLT	Senior Leadership Team, consists of Principal, Deputy Principal and/ or Assistant Principal, at the school SLT had 4 staff members associated to the SLT
WC	World Café, research method used in this research

Chapter 1: Introduction

Dear Mrs Moehricke,

Thank you so much for being an inspiration for me this last year and a term. You've helped me with so much more than just school. You've pulled me out of my worst times and got me back on track and I'm so thankful for that.

You have made me realise how important school really is and you've also shown me to not be scared to share my problems when I need support.

Overall, you've just been such an amazing kaiārahi and I'm going to miss you so, so much.

I wish you all the best for your next journey,

Love Rose

These words were written on a farewell card given to me by seventeen- year-old Rose when I left the school, which I shall call Greenstone College in this study, where I had worked for seven years. I was a kaiārahi (Te Reo Māori translation: teacher-mentor; guide) to a group of 25 students for just over a year as part of a newly introduced school-wide mentoring programme which included all students at the school rather than specifically targeted 'at-risk' students. You need to imagine Rose as an average teenage girl, a few teenage dramas, doing ok at school and with supportive parents. She would not fit with any of the 'at-risk' criteria to be selected for 'traditional' mentoring programmes as she was neither 'vulnerable', 'underachieving' nor 'experiencing difficulties', to name just a few possible selection criteria. Still, as she expressed in her card, she felt, I had made a difference to her by being her kaiārahi. Up until this point, I had no idea about her feelings. To be honest, I had never asked any of the students in my group what difference they thought I was making to their lives. Somehow, I had assumed I knew when they were doing well or when they needed support.

I had never in my teaching career developed such close personal relationships with students until I took on the role of kaiārahi in the school-wide mentoring programme. I got on well with the students in my German classes. The nature of foreign language teaching means that students tell you a lot about themselves and their families. How else do you learn a foreign language other than by asking them in the language you are teaching "Do you have siblings?", "What is your favourite subject in school?" Mentoring was different. I had no academic content to teach them, but I had time (lots of it) to teach them study skills, life skills and to talk. We talked a lot about anything teenagers wanted to talk about either as a group or individually. I answered their many curious questions about myself, my life choices and my family. We played games. Charades was our favourite on a Friday afternoon. They

knew they could ask anything at any time. We laughed, we cried, we celebrated successes and birthdays, we mourned failures and pondered important life questions. The students of my group have now finished their secondary education, some are working, some are studying at university. I am proud of them when I meet them occasionally and hear they are doing well. Rose's card was one of many I received from my group on my last day, quite a few echoed Rose's words. Most of the students would not have fitted the 'at-risk' criteria, yet they felt our mentoring relationship benefitted them. My occasional glimpses I had of students' experiences and my experiences of being a teacher-mentor in addition to being a subject teacher and a member of the Senior Leadership Team (SLT) inspired this study.

Another motivation to complete this study has been my frustrations while working in leadership positions around the accessibility of research. School leaders are required to make important policy decisions and lead policy implementation. Yet, they often struggle to access current academic research which could inform practice. Someone in a leadership position in school needs to be enrolled in a tertiary programme so that the leadership team can access up-to-date research beyond government guidelines and policy documents.

1.1. The wider context of school-wide mentoring

To better understand the context of the study, I briefly outline two influential external aspects, first, the concept of mentoring specifically school-wide mentoring and second, the New Zealand educational policy context.

First, the concept of mentoring has its origins in Greek mythology of Homer's *Odyssey*. When Odysseus, King of Ithaca, prepared to leave for the Trojan wars, he wanted to ensure his son Telemachus was looked after in his absence. He appointed a guardian to act as teacher, friend and advisor for Telemachus. The guardian's name was Mentor. Similar concepts exist in groups across the globe and many indigenous groups have informal mentoring traditions of elders taking responsibilities for younger generations to pass on wisdom and knowledge. More recently, workplaces have developed formal mentoring programmes to provide networking opportunities, support career and skills advancement. However, formal mentoring has been criticised as being overused to solve various organisational challenges (de Vries, 2011a). Formal youth mentoring aims to provide selected young people with additional adult relationships which offer support and advice (Mentor National, 2021) and help young people develop a sense of identity and positive aspirations (NZ Youth Mentoring, 2021b).

Mentoring has been implemented in numerous contexts and for many purposes making it challenging to provide one coherent definition. Agreement across various definitions exists that mentoring involves the guidance and advice of a more experienced

person – the mentor – to a less experienced, usually younger person – the mentee – through a supportive and trusting relationship. Rhodes et al. (2002) have comprehensively defined mentoring as

a relationship between an older, more experienced adult and an unrelated, younger protégé - a relationship in which the adult provides ongoing guidance, instruction, and encouragement aimed at developing the competence and character of the protégé. (Rhodes et al., 2002, p. 11)

For the purposes of this study, mentoring is understood as a supportive, guiding and encouraging relationship with the intent to support a youth's personal and healthy development (Bruce & Bridgeland, 2014) and assist with new tasks and challenging situations (Flaxman et al., 1989).

School-wide mentoring programmes comprise a shift of attention from selecting 'at-risk' students to a strength-based approach with a focus on positive youth development for all young people. They assume that positive relationships at school can support young people, all of whom have at some point some relational difficulties with family members, social or emotional issues and feelings of insecurity about their education or future (DeJong, 2016). The 'at-risk' focus of many youth mentoring programmes poses ethical questions about how 'at-risk' is defined and who might or might not qualify for mentoring at the time of setting the selection criteria. Furthermore, it has also been questioned as to whether traditional formal 'at-risk' one-on-one mentoring such as the Big Brother Big Sister (BBBS) programme, which originated in the USA and is now an international programme, is the most effective and culturally appropriate style of mentoring for Aotearoa/ New Zealand as this form of mentoring might conflict with the social and cultural structure (Evans et al., 2005). It has also been suggested that mentoring programmes and the mentoring activities and relationships should reflect the cultural values of the societies where they are implemented (Goldner & Scharf, 2014).

A second influence is the policy context within which schools and their programmes operate. The school-wide mentoring programme this study focuses on took place in a New Zealand school. New Zealand educational policies are underpinned by the three key principles of Te Tiriti o Waitangi (The Treaty of Waitangi) – partnership, participation and protection. The inclusion of the Treaty's principles requires all schools to respect, understand and implement them in their policies and practices (Ministry of Education, 2020b; Riki-Waaka, 2015). Educational policies and initiatives including school-wide mentoring programmes in New Zealand should therefore be culturally responsive and reflect the country's bicultural foundations. Cultural values and Māori relational concepts of *manaakitanga*, displays of support, care and respect, and *whanaungatanga*, extended

family-like relationships or sense of togetherness should be embedded in educational practice.

New Zealand foundational education policy documents reflect New Zealand's cultural values with a strong emphasis on relationships. Key documents, i.e., New Zealand Curriculum (2007), *Tātaiako - the cultural competencies framework for teachers of Māori learners* (Ministry of Education, 2011a), *Tapasā- Cultural competencies framework for teachers of Pacific learners* (Ministry of Education, 2018b) and the Education Council's (2017) *Our Code, Our Standards*, which outlines the standards for New Zealand registered teachers, emphasise the need for positive student-teacher relationships. *The New Zealand Curriculum* (2007) follows a student-centred approach and emphasises academic and social development of students through its vision, values and key competencies. It also allows schools to design their own curricula and suggests a range of possible curriculum design ideas. While needing to be aligned to the national document, "schools have considerable flexibility when determining the detail" (*The New Zealand Curriculum*, 2007, p. 37).

Additional education policy documents focusing on Māori education further highlight the need for education in a relational manner within a culturally appropriate context. The *Te Kōtahitanga Project* (Bishop et al., 2003) aimed to conduct research to improve Māori educational achievement. The project found that the most important influence on Māori educational achievement was the quality of personal relationships and interactions between teachers and Māori students (Bishop et al., 2003). This report was the foundation for the Ministry of Education's Māori Education Strategy — *Ka Hikitia*— in 2008 (revised in 2020) and the implementation of the *Effective Teaching Profile* (Bishop & Berryman, 2009; Bishop et al., 2014) which emphasised that relationships between teachers and Māori students are central to student engagement and achievement (Ministry of Education, 2008).

The need for relational values and the importance of relationships are reflected in the adoption of Restorative Practice (RP) in many New Zealand schools. RP is a relational approach to addressing negative student behaviour through building and sustaining positive learning communities (Jansen, 2019). Since the early 2000s, RP was initially adopted as a school-wide behaviour management strategy as an alternative to the traditional punitive model. Since 2011, the Ministry of Education has promoted RP as the Positive Behaviour for Learning School-Wide strategy (PB4L-SW). PB4L-SW is a Ministry of Education strategy to fund support for schools to not only reduce suspensions and exclusions but also to improve school climate, student wellbeing, student engagement, increase student achievement and develop professional relationships (Ministry of Education, 2018a). RP/ PB4L-SW is implemented in schools through a variety of formal and informal forms, e.g., conferences, mediation, chats and circles, along with a set of school values to frame and structure the different forms of RP (Ministry of Education, 2011b). By 2017, 174 schools in New Zealand

had adopted PB4L-SW (Ministry of Education, 2017a, 2018a), although many other schools, the number of which is unknown, have adopted Restorative Practice without opting into the PB4L-SW programme.

While it is beyond the scope of the present study to go into full detail of RP, it is worthwhile to take a moment to explore RP philosophy and origins as its underpinning values and focus on relational qualities between teachers and students is also relevant for many of the aims of school-based mentoring. RP is based on Restorative Justice (RJ) philosophy for responding to crime, conflict and wrongdoing. This philosophy has expanded into sectors beyond justice such as education. Three principles of Restorative Justice (RJ) are integrated into RP; the need to respond to harm, active involvement of all participants and empowerment of communities (Strong & Van Ness, 2014). To remove the association of crime within the education sector, this philosophy is referred to as Restorative Practice (RP). RP in schools focuses on restoring relationships by resolving conflict not in a punitive manner but to resolve conflicts by repairing relationships (Zehr, 2002). This key principle renders RP as a well-aligned strategy within a New Zealand education context and the previously outlined need to focus on relationships.

In relation to wellbeing, several education policy documents inform schools' pastoral care programmes. An Education Review Office' report (2014) on raising achievement in secondary schools specifically recommended mentoring as a tool to support academic and social development, but this report was not specific about the types of mentoring schools should use. More recent government publications (Education Review Office, 2015, 2016; Ministry of Education, 2017b) explicitly stressed New Zealand's schools' role in their students' pastoral care and wellbeing. *Wellbeing for Success: A Resource for Schools* (Education Review Office, 2016) asked all schools and their leaders to "consider, promote, balance and respond to all aspects of the student, including their physical, social, emotional, academic and spiritual needs" (p.4) to encourage the incorporation of wellbeing and personal growth to address growing concerns around students' wellbeing and mental health. *Te Pahiaka Tangata Strengthening Student Wellbeing for Success* (Ministry of Education, 2017b) expressed an expectation of all New Zealand schools to incorporate wellbeing as an essential component of pastoral care and to develop wellbeing cultures within schools. These policies in addition to a growing need to address young people's wellbeing and mental health have helped to give support to the idea of school-based and school-wide mentoring in New Zealand schools. Within the last ten years school-wide mentoring programmes have become a New Zealand phenomenon to incorporate the demands on New Zealand schools for extended pastoral care and the focus on young people's wellbeing and to address various school specific needs in New Zealand secondary schools. However, as will become evident very little research has been conducted about these programmes.

1.2. School Context

This study focuses on a stand-alone school-wide mentoring programme implemented in a New Zealand secondary school, Greenstone College. The school is a medium sized co-educational school with approximately 830 students in Years 9 to 13. The student body is diverse on several different levels. It is a culturally diverse school with around 30 ethnicities and several students have bilingual backgrounds. Nineteen percent of students identify as Māori and five percent as Pacific students. Students come from all levels of socio-economic backgrounds. Students' parents have diverse educational levels. In the school's catchment area 17.7% of the population hold a bachelor's degree or higher as their highest qualification and 18.4% hold no formal qualification compared to the New Zealand average of 24.8% and 18.2% respectively (*Stats NZ Tatauranga Aotearoa QuickStats*, 2018). The school's school-wide mentoring programme included all senior students in Years 11 to 13 (aged 15 to 18) and did not seek out 'at-risk' students. The programme used the school's teachers as teacher-mentors rather than youth workers or outside adult volunteer mentors. The following paragraphs trace how and why the school decided to introduce the school-wide mentoring programme.

In the early 2000's Greenstone College faced large numbers of serious behavioural issues and became one of the first schools in New Zealand to adopt the Restorative Practice approach to manage student behaviour and improve the school culture. Despite improved student behaviour and student-teacher relationships, the school continued to face issues of students' low attendance rates, low engagement and low achievement rates into the 2010's, all of which were below national averages compared to schools of similar socio-economic background. In 2015 the school adjusted its senior curriculum by introducing cross-curricular contextualised courses to address these challenges which improved steadily throughout 2015 and 2016. Students' and parents' feedback from the first two years of the new curriculum indicated that students required more personal and academic guidance which led to discussions about a school-wide mentoring programme as a possible solution. The implementation of the new senior curriculum also coincided with a revisioning of the school's values and relaunch of Restorative Practice following the school's participation in the Ministry of Education's PB4L-SW programme (author's personal communication with school staff and school documentation) — both of which offered an opportunity to consider pastoral and relational care of students.

The school trialled different approaches to mentoring. Youth coaches from a local youth organisation worked with 40 'at-risk' Year 12 and 13 students between 2013 to 2016 to help them achieve their educational goals. Additionally, in 2015 the two assistant principals of the school (including myself) worked with 40 Year 11 students, each identified as 'at-risk' by the Year Level Dean. In 2016 the senior school tutors identified 'at-risk' students in Year

11 to 13. The Year Level Deans provided one-on-one mentoring for these students. These approaches had some impact, but the Senior Leadership Team (SLT), and Deans, felt a different mentoring approach could be more beneficial to further improve engagement and the sense of school belonging.

The development of the school-wide mentoring programme took place following a process of exploration, design, trial and implementation. Figure 1.1 shows this process and the timeline of the development of the school-wide mentoring programme. Teachers were invited to join the SLT and pastoral team consisting of Year Level Deans, career advisors and guidance counsellors to investigate options suitable for the school's context and the students' needs. Some teachers took up this invitation and participated throughout the whole development process. Some teachers were part of the initial school visits but then decided to withdraw because they felt that they were too busy fulfilling their regular teaching responsibilities.



Figure 1. 1 Timeline of the development of the school-wide mentoring programme

Initially, the team consisting of SLT, pastoral staff and teachers visited several schools around New Zealand which had trialled different 'at-risk' or school-wide mentoring approaches with teacher-mentors. Following these visits, the team concluded that a school-wide programme could be more valuable for all Greenstone College's students than the 'at-risk' mentoring approaches which were previously trialled at the school. As a member of the SLT from 2014 to 2018, I was involved in these visits, the development and subsequent introduction of the programme.

At the time we explored our options, one important piece to support the decision-making was not readily available: research on the benefits and organisation of school-wide mentoring, especially research of New Zealand school-based mentoring programmes. To date, most of the research had focused on 'at-risk' school-based or community-based mentoring with adult volunteer mentors. Research examining school-wide mentoring with teacher-mentors in-depth was lacking. The available mentoring literature of other settings

was mostly in consensus that mentoring has positive outcomes for young people. It also finds that the types of mentoring activities and the quality of mentoring relationships are influential factors (DuBois et al., 2011; Raposa et al., 2019). The general evidence gathered from the school visits and the literature of school-based and community-based volunteer youth mentoring was good enough for the Board of Trustees of the school to agree to the introduction of a school-wide mentoring programme for senior students (Year 11 to 13) at the start of the 2017 academic year. Junior students in Year 9 to 10 were initially not included, but a change to the junior curriculum allowed the inclusion of all junior student at the start of the 2021 academic year. This study focuses on the original mentoring programme for senior students only.

The SLT and the pastoral team, consisting of Year Level Deans, guidance counsellors and career advisors together with some of the teachers who volunteered to be part of the working party decided on the organisation of the school-wide mentoring programme and developed its content. The programme was designed to suit the specific needs of Greenstone College's students. The team identified the priorities and objectives for the programme and the expectations for the role of teacher-mentors who would implement the programme and work with students. The planning team identified the following intended outcomes. To:

- 1) Support students with identity development including aspects such as future choices, becoming responsible effective citizens, developing pro-social behaviours, dealing with a variety of challenging life situations;
 - 2) Develop a sense of belonging to the school, an improved connectedness of students to the school;
 - 3) Improve academic outcomes - increased percentage of students pass NCEA.
- (internal school documents)

Teachers who had volunteers to be part of the planning team trialled some of the content and activities with classes during 2016.

The programme was a stand-alone original programme which did not copy from other existing programmes. Its design was based on the five key competencies of the New Zealand Curriculum (2007), The Youth Development Strategy Aotearoa (2004) and its six key principles, the Five Ways to Wellbeing of the Mental Health Foundation (*Five Ways to Wellbeing*, 2021) and the Education Review Office's (2016) report *Wellbeing for Success: A Resource for Schools* as well as documents gathered during the school visits. Adjustments to the curriculum, timetable structure and supporting materials were initiated. Teachers, including members of the SLT, acted as teacher-mentors for all senior students in Years 11 to 13. Deans were available to support teacher-mentors with challenging students.

In the middle of 2018 when the programme was in its second year, I moved to another school. This move enabled me to research the mentoring programme from a

distance even if not completely an outsider and critically reflect on its intended outcomes while also being able to use some of my insider background knowledge of the school's journey and the programme to provide depth of understanding. For me, as an aspiring academic, I felt encouraged to contribute to mentoring research and explore the teacher-mentors' and students' experiences and perceptions of school-wide mentoring.

1.3. Aim and Scope of the Study

This study aims to understand teacher' and students' experiences and perceptions of a school-wide mentoring programme in a New Zealand secondary school. The aim is not to assess whether mentoring was beneficial for students or whether teachers were effective in their role as teacher-mentors. Therefore, I do not draw on any quantitative data measuring students' progress or achievement or teachers' effectiveness. My intention was to incorporate detailed teachers' as well as students' voices from surveys and interview strategies. I also hoped to find ways to acknowledge the importance of students' voices, in order to gain insights into their experiences and perceptions of this new programme and to enhance our understanding of students' experiences at school, their mentoring relationships and mentoring activities (Cook-Sather, 2018).

This study aims to contribute to the existing New Zealand and international research base of different forms of school-based mentoring (group mentoring, one-on-one mentoring and hybrid mentoring) through a thorough investigation of the participants' experiences and perceptions of the programme at Greenstone College.

1.4. Overview of the Study

This study is organised into seven chapters. In the present chapter, I offered my motivations for this study, its context, aim and significance.

In Chapter Two, I first situate this study in the field of educational change policy before exploring the field of mentoring in-depth. I outline the development of forms of formal youth mentoring and discuss different models of mentoring before identifying Rhodes' (2005) model of youth mentoring as the underlying theoretical model for this study. I also examine related mentoring research literature and provide a critical review of this work. Based on the review, I identify the most pressing gaps concerning this research and the research questions for this study.

Chapter Three begins by focussing on the theoretical foundations of this study and situates it in a socio-cultural constructivist paradigm. I introduce the historical origins, generations and principles of Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT) which I use as an

analytical tool in Chapter Six to explore the history and expansion of teachers' roles and the wider context of the mentoring programme. The second section of Chapter Three addresses methodological issues and research design considerations. It provides detailed descriptions of the research setting and recruitment before outlining procedural descriptions of data collection and analysis. I explore the ethical considerations of this study, its trustworthiness, significance and limitations.

Chapters Four, Five and Six detail and discuss the findings of all data collected. Chapter Four and Five present the key arguments which emerged from the thematic analysis of teacher-mentors' and students' voices. The first section of Chapter Four examines the nature of the mentoring programme and how the intended programme structure was implemented by teacher-mentors and possible reasons for inconsistency of implementation. The second section explores participating teacher-mentors' perceptions of their mentoring role in comparison to their subject teacher role. Chapter Five focuses on students' experiences with a particular focus on their perceptions of mentoring activities, mentoring relationships and perceived. In the first section, I examine students' views of the balance of different mentoring activities. The second section explores the nature of the mentoring relationships and how these compared to traditional student-teacher relationships before I examine, in the third section, how students thought being involved in mentoring influenced their academic, personal and social development.

The first section of Chapter Six synthesises the thematic analysis of teachers' and students' data into a CHAT analysis of the mentoring programme at the systemic level. An application of the five principles of CHAT outlined in Chapter Three enables a discussion of challenges experienced by teacher-mentors and students and limitations imposed on the mentoring programme by systemic tensions of external factors. I explore four levels of contradictions created by the introduction of the mentoring programme which presented challenges and opportunities for teachers and students. The second section of this chapter discusses key arguments identified in Chapters Four, Five and Six through an in-depth analysis of the experiences of three teacher-mentors and two student participants.

Finally, Chapter Seven is based on the analysis and discussions in Chapters Four to Six and offers a synthesis of the findings as well as discussions of implications and contributions of this study.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This chapter provides an overview of mentoring theories and research about formal youth mentoring. Being based in a school, the implementation of Greenstone College's mentoring programme involved a programme of school-wide policy reform. Therefore, before moving into further details about mentoring and youth mentoring research, the first section of this chapter discusses relevant literature on educational change policy to understand the complexity of education policy implementation processes. The second section includes an investigation of the development of formal youth mentoring internationally and in New Zealand and outlines the different forms of youth mentoring. In this section, I also discuss the importance of context-sensitive mentoring and the selection of 'at-risk' mentees. The third section analyses significant mentoring models and outlines why Rhodes' (2005) model of youth mentoring was selected as the underlying model for this study. The fourth section outlines research findings of different forms of mentoring and international research trends of youth mentoring. In the fifth section, I review significant research themes of youth mentoring relationships, activities, mentor skills and mentoring outcomes. Based on the analysis and critique of the literature, the chapter finishes with an identification of the focus for this study and its research question.

2.1. Educational Change Policy, Professional Learning and Teacher Identities

The introduction of the mentoring programme at Greenstone College represented a form of school-wide educational policy reform akin to multiple other policy reforms that are introduced to school communities. This section provides a discussion of literature on educational change policy, teachers' professional learning and the development of teacher identities as these are important to consider in the implementation of the new mentoring programme.

Successful educational policy implementation is a complex and challenging process which has been acknowledged by various authors (Fullan, 2007a; Fullan, 2020; Le Fevre, 2020; Spillane et al., 2002). A main requirement of successful, sustainable and lasting educational change is a culture change within schools which can only be achieved by collective action of all those professionals involved (Fullan, 2007a). Education policy theorists such as Fullan (2007a), stress that educational change and the associated culture change requires teachers to understand the principles and rationales behind the change (Fullan, 2007a) and emotional responses are necessary to achieve sustainable educational

change (Fullan, 2020; Hargreaves, 2005a, 2005b; Lasky, 2005; Saunders, 2013; Spillane et al., 2002). These authors have argued that the success of educational change depends on how teachers' professional beliefs, values, emotions and practices align with the principles and values of the educational change and how clearly the underlying principles of the educational change are communicated with teachers (Fullan, 2020). Le Fevre (2020) also stresses the significance of underlying personal beliefs and values for the successful implementation of educational policy. Most policy implementation often only addresses the superficial systemic change levels, i.e., curriculum and timetable structures, but not the deeper layers of pedagogy, i.e., emotional value of educational change (Fullan, 2020). Spillane et al. (2002) noted that teachers' prior beliefs and practices could pose challenges not only because of their unwillingness to change, but also because of their lack of understanding of the intentions of educational change. These findings were mirrored in a variety of studies exploring the process of policy adoption and the required changes in various educational settings, e.g., teacher agency and curriculum change (Priestley et al., 2012), assessment change (Bourke et al., 2013) and introduction of design thinking as an instructional approach (Hubbard & Datnow, 2020). Fullan (2007a) found that educational change policy needed to consider teachers' individual agency in addition to previously identified important factors of personal beliefs, values and attributes to create successful change.

The most significant challenge of the implementation of policy change and associated culture change is to align the new initiative with changes to values, beliefs and practices of all teachers involved and to ensure its consistency across the organisation. Implementation of educational policy involves enactment in various levels of schools, i.e., management and classroom level, and inevitably means that one can expect inconsistency in implementation (Le Fevre, 2020). A policy change, similar to the introduction of the mentoring programme at Greenstone College which required a culture change, and a fundamental change of practice was the introduction of Restorative Practice (RP) in schools. RP requires teachers to change their values and beliefs about relationships and dealing with behaviour in schools. A report evaluating the implementation of RP in New Zealand schools (Ministry of Education, 2018a) identified inconsistency in implementation of the new policy as one of the main hurdles to sustained application of RP. Staff not engaging in RP were noticed by students as well as fellow staff. The report identified the availability of sufficient time for professional learning and support, the accessibility to resources and ongoing support and commitment of schools' leadership as key reasons for hindering or slowing the implementation of RP.

Given the complexity of educational policy implementation, teachers require support through the provision of sufficient educational leadership and appropriate professional learning opportunities. The importance of leadership throughout a change process to

support teachers to understand the principles and rationale of change was emphasised by Fullan (2007b) who argued that “it matters less where the innovation comes from than it does what happens during the process of change” (Fullan, 2007b, p. 68). Elmore (2016) stressed that the nature of leadership provided throughout the professional learning needed to be one based on partnership, collective problem solving, transparency and explicit evidence as it made teachers feel confident to talk about their needs and learning. Professional learning about how to implement policy change is important but psychologically challenging for teachers (Timperley, 2007). In addition, this professional learning needs to be differentiated and to acknowledge the professional and emotional differences between teachers and their individual identities.

The professional identity of a teacher develops and changes throughout their career depending on experiences and expectations placed on them. Political and social contexts, together with teachers’ previous professional experiences, have been found to shape teachers’ most current identity and understanding of their teaching role (Lasky, 2005). The introduction of new policy further influences teachers’ professional identities. For teachers, identity means “how the teacher constructs/ understands [their] professional self with particular attention to [their] pedagogical commitments” (Buchanan, 2015, p. 704). The formation or alteration of identity is based on three assumptions. First, identity formation is influenced and formed by wider contexts. For teachers, the change of identity is influenced by the school environment, personal experience, professional context and external political and historical environment (Buchanan, 2015). Second, identities are shaped through relationships. Third, identities are unstable and constantly changing, meaning that professional identities are therefore neither set nor stable. Teachers’ changing identity is evident in adjusted classroom practices and relationships when student populations change (Kayi-Aydar, 2015) and in response to changing educational policies (Buchanan, 2015; Toom et al., 2015). In her investigation of changes and policies in different school contexts, Buchanan (2015) explored the impact of change on teachers’ identities and concluded that teachers “drew most heavily from their prior work experiences as they (re)-constructed professional identities” (p.701). These ideas are important for the present study because the mentoring programme required a lot of new learning and new practices from teachers.

Strong ties exist between identity and learning. Learning constructs identity and identity creates learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Unless outside circumstances increase identity awareness, identity formation is mostly unconscious (Erikson, 1968) and occurs through a continuous learning process which shapes identity (Wenger, 1999). Little is understood how taking on a mentoring role as either a volunteer or as a teacher-mentor might influence the professional identity of teachers. It is important to explore how teachers as teacher-mentors experience and perceive the educational change as these experiences and

perceptions shaped the introduction and implementation of the mentoring programme at Greenstone College. Understanding this programme can also inform broader studies of policy implementation in schools.

2.2. Formal youth mentoring

Broadly, mentoring can be divided into formal or informal mentoring. Formal mentoring, which is the interest of this study, takes place in distinct settings with deliberate formal meetings between mentors and mentees and specific outcomes. In contrast, informal mentoring has no formal arrangements of meetings and outcomes. Informal mentoring in New Zealand predates European settlement. It is integral to Māori culture and traditions of Tuakana/ Teina. Tuakana, the older and wiser person, supports Teina, the younger or less expert family member (Ministry of Education, n.d.). This section first traces the development of formal youth mentoring before explaining the different forms of formal youth mentoring and discussing approaches for mentee selection.

2.2.1. *International Development of formal youth mentoring*

Many traditions of formal youth mentoring originated in the USA. Community-based mentoring was first established through the Big Brother Big Sister programme (BBBS) in the USA in 1904. Since then, the popularity of formal youth mentoring has grown rapidly in the USA. In 2002 more than 4500 youth mentoring programmes were registered in the USA (Parra et al., 2002). This number has grown steadily to over 5000 programmes in 2020 with over three million youths involved in formal youth mentoring (Rhodes, 2020). Of all youth programmes registered in the USA, 28% were active school-based mentoring (Herrera & Karcher, 2013).

Globally, formal youth mentoring programmes with volunteer adult mentors have grown rapidly in the last three decades, e.g., in Canada more than 5200 formal programmes were active in 2014 (Goldner & Scharf, 2014). Formal youth mentoring programmes began in New Zealand in the 1990s. BBBS now operates in thirteen countries and was established as a formal youth mentoring programme in New Zealand in 1996 (*Big Brothers Big Sisters of New Zealand*). The earliest formal mentoring programme for ‘at-risk’ students in New Zealand was introduced in 1994 (Peters, 2000). By 2000, eight local school-based mentoring programmes and one national formal youth mentoring programme were known to work with young people in New Zealand (Peters, 2000). Since then, formal volunteer community-based mentoring and school-based mentoring youth mentoring programmes have continued to grow with 35 programmes officially registered on the Youth Mentoring NZ website in 2021

(NZ Youth Mentoring, 2021a). By 2010, school-based mentoring was the most common setting of formal youth mentoring in New Zealand (Farruggia, Bullen, Solomon, et al., 2011) and is still the most common form today.

In the last decade, many schools in New Zealand have begun to introduce their own school-wide mentoring programmes with group and one-on-one mentoring in which teachers, rather than outside volunteers, are mentors (teacher-mentors). While no formal data about these programmes is available, subscriptions to a national mentoring website reflect the interest in school-wide mentoring in New Zealand. By May 2021, 200 of 378 (*Education Counts*, 2021) secondary schools (53%) in New Zealand subscribed to the website mymahi.co.nz which provides access to mentoring support materials for teacher-mentors and mentees. 95% of these 200 schools had implemented school-wide programmes with group mentoring of at least one hour per week (J. King, personal communication, 20/05/2021). This interest highlights the growing use of mentoring for all youth as a means to support their growth rather than a prevention for 'at-risk' students. The interest in and implementation of school-wide mentoring programmes recognises Evans et al.'s (2005) suggestion that in New Zealand and Australia teachers may be the most natural mentors for Australasian youth but also the need of education in New Zealand to consider Māori relational values.

Concerns remain that traditional formal youth one-on-one mentoring such as BBBS, might not be the most effective and culturally appropriate style of mentoring in New Zealand (Evans et al., 2005). Critics have argued that programmes needed to be context specific and that programmes should be developed to suit the cultural context of their countries (e.g., New Zealand) rather than uncritically importing existing overseas programmes (Brady & Curtin, 2012; Busse et al., 2018b; Evans & Ave, 2000; Philip, 2003). Goldner and Scharf (2014) argued that culturally sensitive mentoring programmes "will be more effective the more they are aligned with the values of the culture within which the youth is embedded" (p.190). Evans et al. (2005) reasoned that formal youth mentoring in New Zealand was an import which did not develop from local traditions such as the Māori tradition of Tuakana/Teina. Therefore, one-on-one mentoring might contradict the social and cultural structure and could cause anxiety for some students, in particular, those with Māori and Pacific backgrounds (Peters, 2000). Afeaki-Mafale'o (2007), reporting on her work with Pacific students in New Zealand, argued that mentoring programmes needed to be sensitive to different cultural values.

In a New Zealand context, to respect Māori values and tikanga and implement culturally responsive pedagogy policy frameworks (such as those outlined in Chapter One, i.e., *Tātaiako* (Ministry of Education, 2011a) and *Tapasā* (Ministry of Education, 2018b)), it is important that school-wide mentoring programmes consider how Māori relational

concepts of *whanaungatanga*, extended family-like relationships, and *manaakitanga*, displays of care, support and respect, which emphasise the importance of relationships, can be embedded. Bishop et al. (2014) outlined that high levels of *whanaungatanga* in a school are reflected in high levels of students' engagement and high levels of achievement. They also identified the quality of in-class relationships and interactions with teachers as the main influences on educational achievement and student engagement. New Zealand schools' readiness for school-wide mentoring programmes is likely to be associated with the promotion of these highly relational approaches associated with Māori values and tikanga in the country's education policy documents.

2.2.2. Forms of Formal Youth Mentoring

Having traced the development of formal mentoring, it is now worthwhile to outline different forms of formal mentoring used in youth mentoring. Formal mentoring classifications distinguish between different forms of mentoring depending on the setting, the objectives of the mentoring programme, the type of mentoring and who the mentor and mentees are (for examples of classifications, see Busse et al. (2018a), Sipe & Roder (1999)).

Formal youth mentoring began initially as community-based mentoring with volunteer adults mentoring 'at-risk' youth in the community (Parra et al., 2002). Formal youth mentoring later expanded into school-based programmes with volunteer adults entering school grounds to meet with their mentees individually or in groups during break times or after school (Figure 2.1). School-based mentoring is often seen as a more cost-effective type with easily accessible venues.

Traditionally, formal youth mentoring took place on a one-on-one basis. This form of mentoring remains the prevailing form of mentoring, however, other forms have now evolved. The most common forms are shown in Figure 2.1. Approximately 35% of all youth mentoring programmes in the USA utilise group mentoring whereby one or two adults mentor groups of students. A further 12% utilise hybrid mentoring, which is a combination of at least two forms of mentoring such as one-on-one mentoring and group mentoring (Kuperminc & Deutsch, 2021). Figure 2.1 shows the variety of combinations of different settings, mentee selection, mentors involved in programmes and forms of mentoring which is possible in mentoring programmes. It has been argued that different settings and forms of mentoring may produce different kinds of mentoring relationships and different outcomes for mentees Sipe (2005).

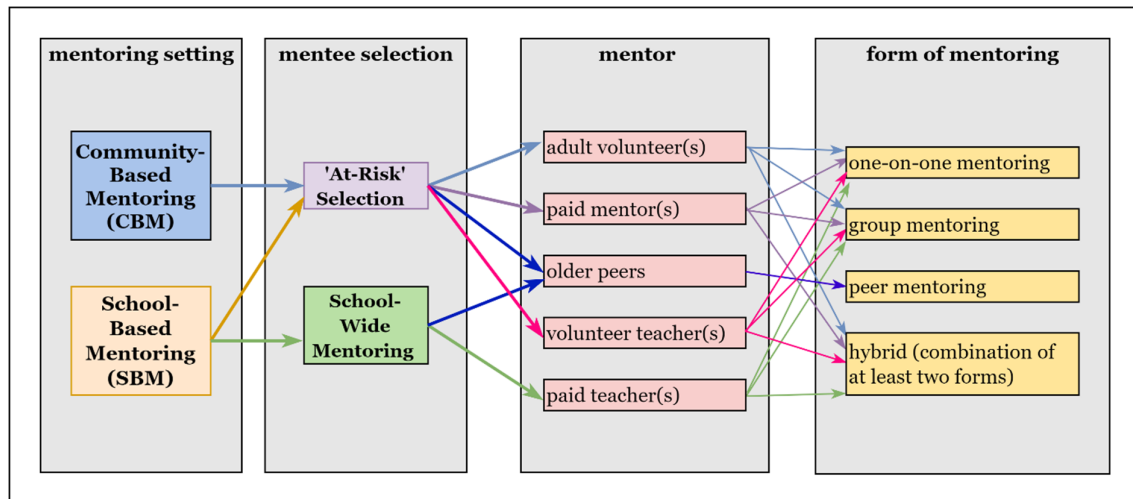


Figure 2. 1 Settings and forms of formal youth mentoring (Author's own)

2.2.3. Selection of mentees: 'At-risk' vs school-wide mentoring

The dominant approach for mentees selection for community-based mentoring and school-based mentoring programmes is to identify 'at-risk' youth. Such youth are seen to be 'at-risk' of being unsuccessful in completing education or 'at-risk' of not passing certain exams. The dominance of this deficit and selective approach is reflected in models of mentoring and mentoring research studies which assume only students from lower- and middle-income families can benefit from mentoring as they lack access to positive role models (Rhodes, 2002b). However, it has been suggested that while focusing only on 'at-risk' students for mentoring could be promising, this approach appeared to be no more than an underdeveloped form of risk-prevention (Cavell & Elledge, 2014). An 'at-risk' approach takes a deficiency perspective and sees mentoring as a preventative method (de Anda, 2001). 'At-risk' selection also poses ethical questions about how 'at-risk' is defined and who might or might not qualify for mentoring at the time of setting the criteria and carries particular dangers when labelling students as 'at-risk' especially when particular cultural groups are singled out (Evans & Ave, 2000). A wider approach to mentoring could lead to all young people benefitting from positive mentoring relationships.

As an alternative, many argue that moving from an 'at-risk' approach of mentoring requires a culture shift from deficit to positive attributes of youth (Ellis et al., 2001). This culture shift can provide more opportunities and views mentoring as a growth process (Wunsch, 1994). A school-wide mentoring programme assumes that at some point all students "grappled with major life issues, from deep relational difficulties with parents or siblings, feelings of failure and insecurity at school, and pessimism about their post-secondary school opportunities" (DeJong, 2016, p. 5). Advocates of school-wide mentoring suggest a shift employing a positive youth development perspective and strength-based

approach which sees all youth as needing development is required. The focus shifts from those who are broken and needing repair to mentoring as a positive development rather than prevention strategy (Lerner et al., 2005). Evans et al. (2005) stressed that “for the indigenous populations particularly, our analysis suggests there is a need to avoid mentoring as a charitable activity or as a way of mitigating social problems” (p.418). Based on a New Zealand study of mentoring, it has been suggested through a school-wide approach all youth including ‘at-risk’ youth could benefit without the associated stigma (Noonan et al., 2012). A school-wide programme rather than an ‘at-risk’ selection of mentees creates a sense of togetherness (*whanaungatanga*) through shared experiences and mentors help to optimise mentees’ development, open avenues which mentees are unaware of and offer practical information through *manaakitanga*. This position opens up a realm of youth mentoring programmes that seek to be beneficial for all young people.

2.3. Theories of Formal Mentoring

Having considered the development of formal youth mentoring, forms of youth mentoring and forms of mentee selection, I will now turn my attention to theories of formal mentoring.

Prior to the 1990s, research focussed on the psychological benefits of natural supporting relationships and youth’s relationships with non-parental adults which found that having at least one supportive adult had a protective and positive influence on ‘at-risk’ youth (Rhodes, 1994). Since the 1990s extensive research interest into formal workplace and youth mentoring and relationships has developed. Expanding research knowledge has led to the development of theoretical models for workplace and educational mentoring. In this section, I explore five models of mentoring which have emerged and informed mentoring research. Two of them, Kram (1988) and Clutterbuck (1985), were originally developed for in workplace settings and are still the most dominant models in this setting. Three models, Rhodes (2002b, 2005), Parra et al. (2002) and Larose and Tarabulsy (2005), are specific models for youth mentoring. An overview of these models and their key characteristics is provided in Appendix A.

In this section, I first describe each of the models before offering an evaluative commentary of them.

Workplace mentoring

The American workplace model of mentoring developed by Kram (1985) assumes that the mentor is an older, more experienced person who passes on their knowledge to a younger adult new to the organisation to foster career development. This sponsorship model has theoretical foundations in Erikson’s (1964) Life Cycle Theory. Prior to formulating her

model, Kram (1983) identified four distinct phases of the mentoring relationship which are characterised by the current career stage of both participants. Kram (1983) suggested that mentoring relationships were limited in time and would eventually dissolve. Kram's model assigns career and psychosocial functions to mentoring. The career function aims to bring about career enhancement and advancement for the mentee through the mentor's sponsorship, coaching and protection. The psychosocial function's intention is characterised by an increased sense of the mentee's competency, professional identity, effectiveness and self-worth through the mentor's role-modelling, friendship, and counselling. To distinguish mentoring from other supportive relationships, Mertz (2004), referring to Kram's model, identified that a mentoring relationship required intent and involvement. Mentor and mentee need to be able to identify a perceived purpose, invest time and effort to achieve the intent.

Published simultaneously to Kram's American model of workplace mentoring, Clutterbuck's (1985) European workplace model of mentoring emphasises personal growth and learning with the aim to develop mentees' social-emotional and task competence through a supportive relationship. This developmental model which has become an important model of preparation for career progression into management, proposes that the mentor uses their experience and wisdom to support the mentee in their development. Clutterbuck's initial model is based on case studies of mentoring in the UK and has since evolved through further research. Rather than, as in Kram's model, the mentor determining what the mentee needs to know and learn, in this developmental model the mentee is encouraged to become self-reliant and resourceful (Clutterbuck, 2004). Mentoring relationships are driven by the mentee who needs to possess a drive for achievement, autonomy, be proactive and ready to learn. Depending on the mentee's needs the mentor acts as a sound board, listener, coach, role model and counsellor. Kram's model assumes a clear hierarchy of expertise and knowledge. In contrast, in Clutterbuck's model the mentoring relationship is one of equals and depending on the knowledge required the roles of mentor and mentee can swap.

Youth Mentoring

The first theoretical model of youth mentoring was developed by Rhodes (2002b) and further expanded in 2005 (Rhodes, 2005) (see Figure 2.2). This model remains the most dominant and influential model of research of youth mentoring in community-based and school-based mentoring. Rhodes (2005) proposed this theoretical model of youth mentoring based on Freud's (1900) and Mead's (1934) theories of identification processes, Vygotsky's (1978) *Zone of Proximal Development*, Bowlby's (1988) attachment theory and on the

findings of her own research of formal youth mentoring and mentoring relationships (Rhodes, 1994; Rhodes et al., 2000; Rhodes et al., 2002). Since then, this model of youth mentoring has been used extensively to explore the significance and characteristics of youth mentoring relationships in community-based and school-based mentoring and many of the findings are documented on The Rhodes Lab (Rhodes, 2015).

Rhodes' model identifies that a mentor needs to act as a role-model and provide a sound base for dealing with challenges. Mentors need ongoing support to develop appropriate skills to support youth effectively. A close relationship can only develop if the mentee is willing to share feelings and is actively engaged in the mentoring relationship.

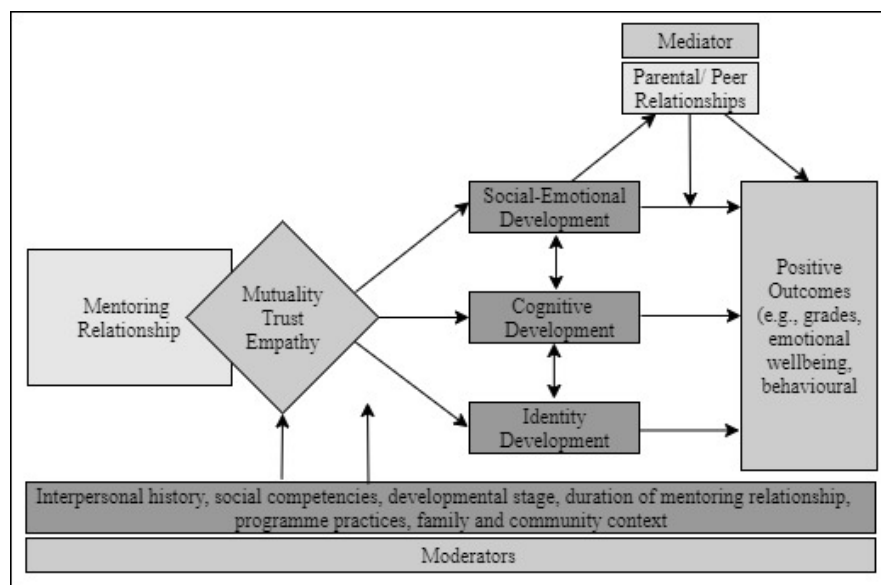


Figure 2. 2 Relational model of youth mentoring (Rhodes, 2005)

This relational model suggests that the mentoring relationship between an older experienced adult and a young person is the key tool to bring about change. The bond is the “active ingredient” which establishes mutuality, trust and empathy to impact on interlinked aspects of social-emotional, cognitive and identity development of the youth (Rhodes, 2002b). The relationship supports the mentees’ social-emotional development by enabling them to express themselves and regulating their emotions (Rhodes, 2005). The relationship encourages cognitive development by providing sufficient scaffolding to acquire new skills and facilitate identity development by providing positive role models for mentees (Rhodes, 2005).

The second model of youth mentoring by Parra et al. (2002) assumes that the training and support a mentor receives affects the mentor’s perceptions of the programme

and their efficacy and belief in being able to build a successful relationship with the mentee which in turn affects the outcomes for the mentee. This model places greater emphasis on the process of mentoring and its accumulative effects (Figure 2.3). It was developed based on previous Big Brother Big Sister (BBBS) mentoring research by Herrera et al. (2000), Rhodes et al. (2000) and Rhodes (2002a) but also refers to Bandura's (1997) theory of self-efficacy.

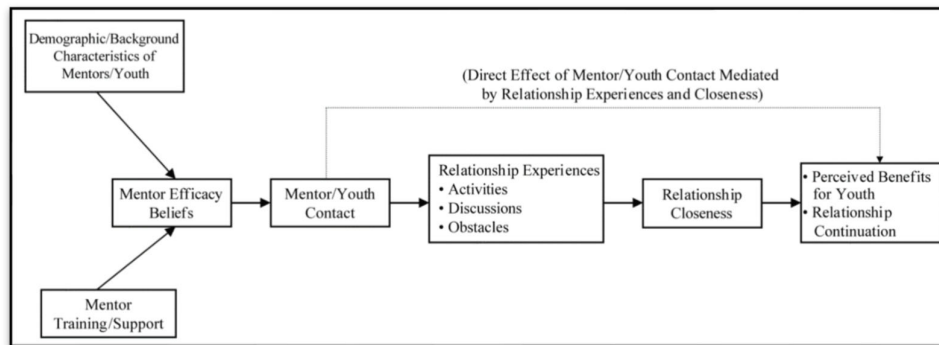


Figure 2. 3 Process-oriented model of youth mentoring (Parra et al., 2002)

The third model of youth mentoring by Larose and Tarabulsy (2005) (see Figure 2.4) focusses on academically 'at-risk' students in school-based mentoring only. It suggests that by providing structure through the involvement of a mentor mentees improve academically. This model is based on Connell and Wellborn's (1991) socio-motivational theory. Mentors' behaviour influences mentees' perceptions of their competence, relatedness, and autonomy. Mentees' previous attitudes to learning and relationships impact the outcomes of the mentoring relationship (Larose & Tarabulsy, 2005). For students to improve academically, the mentoring relationship needs to be characterised by a secure attachment between mentor and mentee.

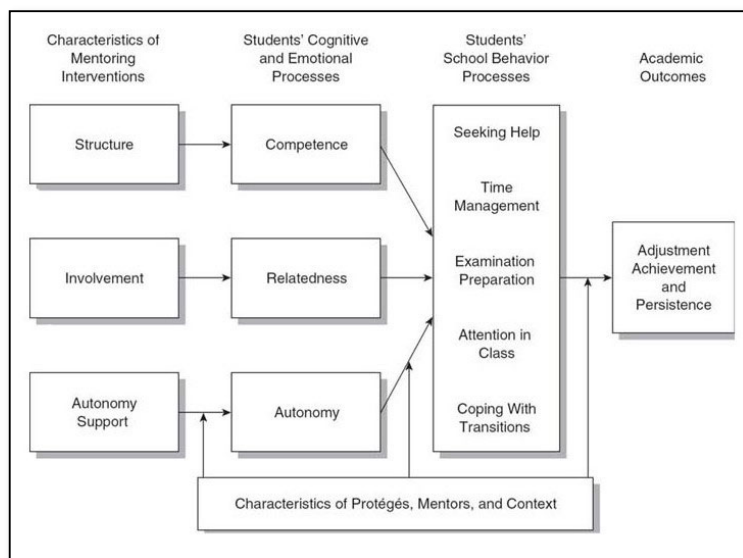


Figure 2. 4 Socio-motivational model of youth mentoring (Larose & Tarabulsy, 2005)

Across these five models some key influential factors of mentoring are evident such as the contextual influence on mentoring relationships and the influence of personal characteristics of mentors and mentees.

Evaluation of Models of Formal Mentoring

The models of mentoring introduced above highlight different purposes of mentoring which can be placed on a continuum of instrumental, developmental and transformative approaches (de Vries, 2011b). As Figure 2.5 shows, each approach differs in its focus and in the attitude of mentees' roles in the mentoring relationship. An instrumental approach to mentoring focuses on career and promotion, relying on knowledge transfer and an institutional need. A developmental approach focusses on the broader development of mentees and is mentee-centred, whereby mentors aim to guide and support mentees. The transformative approach sees mentors and mentees as equals, mentoring relationships and created partnerships can lead to institutional change (de Vries, 2011b). None of the five approaches explained in the previous section fit the transformative point of de Vries' mentoring continuum. I have included this approach in my analysis as an ideal approach to mentoring although in a school setting it might not be possible. De Vries' (2011b) continuum is helpful to evaluate the five models of mentoring in the following section.

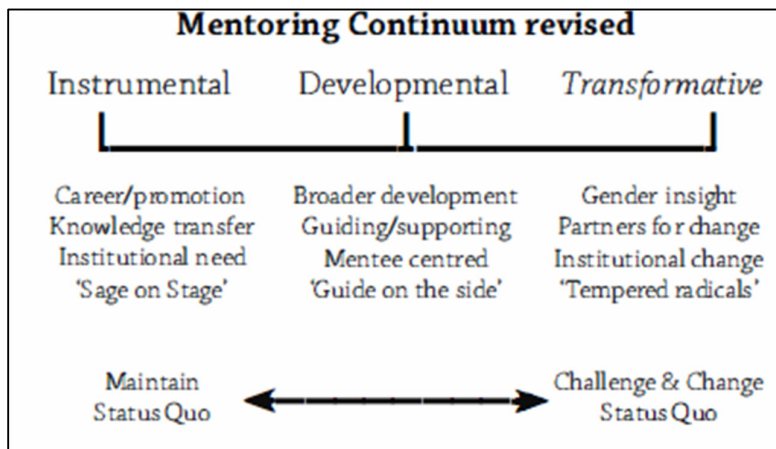


Figure 2. 5 Continuum of mentoring approaches (de Vries, 2011b)

Kram's (1985), Larose and Tarabulsy's (2005) and Parra et al.'s (2002) models of mentoring can be identified as instrumental mentoring (Figure 2.5 and Figure 2.6). In these mentor-centred models, the mentor supports achievement, shared knowledge and values (Ellis et al., 2007). The institutional need of career progression is evident in Kram's (1985) model through an emphasis on mentors' knowledge and power. Mentoring in Larose and Tarabulsy's (2005) model takes place because of an institutional need for academic success. In Kram's (1985) and Parra et al.'s (2002) models, knowledge is transferred to the mentee because of the mentor's knowledge. Larose and Tarabulsy's (2005) socio-motivational model is dominated by the instrumental function of mentoring to improve academic success. The outcomes in Parra et al.'s (2002) process-oriented model focus on the perceived usefulness of the relationship which is determined by the mentor's characteristics.

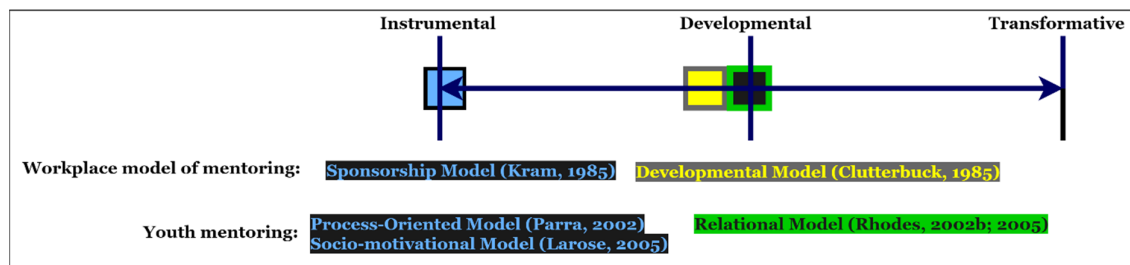


Figure 2. 6 Models of mentoring on continuum based on de Vries (2011b)

Clutterbuck's (1985) and Rhodes' (2005) models can be identified as developmental mentee-centred mentoring approaches as both focus on the wider development of the mentee. Rhodes' (2005) relational model identifies three key areas of development which fall into personal as well as academic development. In Clutterbuck's (1985) model, social-

emotional and growing professional competence are achieved, but this learning is identified by the mentee rather than set by the mentor. The role of the mentor is characterised as being a guide and support for the mentee. In both these mentoring models the social-emotional development of growing self-esteem, self-worth and positive life choices are as important as development of academic or career skills (Ellis et al., 2007).

The importance of mentoring relationships and the influence of previous experiences on the relationship are evident in all three formal youth mentoring models. The socio-motivational model (Larose & Tarabulsy, 2005) prioritises previous experiences of learning and perceptions of success in education. The relational model (Rhodes, 2005) considers the whole person and the influence of mentees' previous experiences on the mentoring relationship. The process-oriented model (Parra et al., 2002) considers mentees' characteristics as well as mentors' mentoring efficacy beliefs. All three models also highlight the influence of the mentor on the relationship. However, no model provides specific details on precise actions or behaviours of the mentor which support establishing trusting relationships. All three models deem the skills of mentors to be important. A strength of the process-oriented model (Parra et al., 2002) lies in its identification of the need for ongoing support for mentors to deal with challenges and the influence of mentors' confidence and self-efficacy on mentoring relationships.

The relational model (Rhodes, 2005) and the socio-motivational (Larose & Tarabulsy, 2005) model provide guidance on mentoring activities which should take place to achieve intended outcomes. In the socio-motivational model (Larose & Tarabulsy, 2005) activities focus on academic outcomes while the relational model (Rhodes, 2005) identifies that instrumental as well as developmental activities need to take place. The process-oriented model (Parra et al., 2002) does not elaborate in detail on activities only stating that programme relevant activities should take place.

The three youth mentoring models (Larose & Tarabulsy, 2005; Parra et al., 2002; Rhodes, 2005) identify intended outcomes of mentoring, but the breadth of identified outcomes vary. The process-oriented model (Parra et al., 2002) identifies the relationship experiences and the perceived benefits from the relationship as outcomes for mentees whereas the socio-motivational model (Larose & Tarabulsy, 2005) and Rhodes' (2005) developmental model identify more specific outcomes. Being specifically aimed at academically 'at-risk' students, Larose and Tarabulsy's (2005) model focuses solely on academic improvement. Rhodes' (2005) model identifies the most detailed outcomes for mentees and aims for growth in three key areas of social-emotional, cognitive and identity development.

The three formal youth mentoring models are explicitly aimed at 'at-risk' students. I have been unable to locate mentoring models which are school-wide, however, many similar

principles are likely to apply in these settings. These models identify ‘at-risk’ youth on the same basis as discussed in Section 2.2.3. Thus, they take a deficit approach rather than a strength-based approach to mentoring.

Although Parra et al.’s (2002) and Larose and Tarabulsky’s (2005) models incorporate important aspects of the mentoring process, this study will critically evaluate a school-wide mentoring programme based on Rhodes’ (2005) model of youth mentoring. Its focus on the development of the mentee as a whole and the centrality of the relationship to the mentoring process renders it appropriate for research into a mentoring programme in the context of New Zealand education which places relationships between teachers and students at the centre (Bishop, 2019). Rhodes’ (2005) model identifies factors which may be influential on mentoring relationships, for example, interpersonal histories and the community context thus rendering it suitable for the socio-cultural perspective of this study. Rhodes’ (2005) model can be used to investigate whether the characteristics of a mentoring relationship and the outcomes are evident in a school-wide setting. Rhodes (2005) recommends further research of different forms and settings of mentoring. Applying this model in a new context of a school-wide rather than ‘at-risk’ context with a combination of group and one-to-one mentoring will add to the existing research base.

2.4. Landscape of Mentoring Research

The review of the literature covers a range of studies of youth mentoring from 2002 to 2021. During this time frame research evidence about youth mentoring has grown significantly. The school-wide mentoring programme of Greenstone College was a form of hybrid mentoring which combined one-on-one and group mentoring and used its teachers as teacher-mentors. Given the lack of research into hybrid forms of mentoring, teacher-mentors and school-wide settings, this literature review includes research of youth mentoring by adult volunteers and volunteer teachers in school-based mentoring and community-based mentoring in one-on-one and group arrangements. In preparation of this literature review, I developed a table (Appendix B) to aide my understanding of mentoring programme locations, forms of mentoring and foci of research and to help elicit emerging themes in the literature review which I discuss in Section 2.5. In this section, I examine the research literature in relation to different forms of formal youth mentoring and international as well as New Zealand trends of research of formal youth mentoring.

2.4.1. *Research into different forms of formal youth mentoring*

Research focussing on one-on-one mentoring is the most systematically studied form of mentoring. Most research focuses on one-on-one mentoring especially the Big Brother Big

Sister (BBBS) USA programme in school-based and community-based settings. Research into group and hybrid mentoring has emerged within the last ten years and is less common (Appendix B). This section will outline key characteristics of group mentoring and hybrid mentoring which are relevant when examining Greenstone College's programme.

The small, but growing body of group mentoring research has shown that school-based group mentoring generally has positive effects for mentees' social-emotional, cognitive and identity development through interactions with a mentor as well as peers (Rhodes, 2005). A significant focus of group mentoring research has been on assessing its outcomes (for example, see Herrera et al., 2002; Kuperminc & Deutsch, 2021), (Appendix B).

Evidence has indicated that group mentoring impacts positively on social skills and relationships by building strong group identities and group cohesions with their mentor and peers in their group (Chan et al., 2019; Herrera et al., 2002; Karcher et al., 2006; Kuperminc et al., 2019; Kuperminc & Deutsch, 2021; Kuperminc & Thomason, 2013). Through group mentoring mentees learn from and share with each other in a safe environment. These interactions positively influence their social interaction skills not just with their peers but other adults (Herrera et al., 2002). Although relationships with mentors may not be as close and intense as in one-on-one mentoring, in group mentoring mentees benefit from social group interactions (Herrera et al., 2002; Kuperminc & Deutsch, 2021). Group mentoring can also increase resilience, positively promote mentees' wellbeing (Simões & Alarcão, 2014) and positively, but to a lesser degree, affect students' academic progress (Chan et al., 2019; Herrera et al., 2002; Kuperminc & Deutsch, 2021).

Some research suggests group mentoring is practical, cost-effective, resource-efficient and beneficial even if not an ideal form of school-based mentoring as it is less intense than one-on-one mentoring. Kuperminc and Deutsch's (2021) report on 40 US group mentoring programmes and Altus' (2015) study found that group mentoring took diverse arrangements and could be a practical solution to involve a larger number of students in mentoring. Pryce et al. (2019) examined the effects of a group mentoring programme for young migrants to Canada and concluded that group mentoring provided opportunities for young migrants to improve connectedness and belonging which supported their integration into Canadian society. By creating an improved sense of belonging in groups, group mentoring may also offer more culturally appropriate forms of mentoring for some ethnic groups (Kuperminc & Thomason, 2013). However, for mentors, group mentoring can be more challenging than one-on-one mentoring. Having responsibility for several mentees, means that mentors have to prioritise mentees' needs and ensure that all receive equal attention (Herrera et al., 2002).

Hybrid mentoring combines different mentoring forms and similar to group mentoring, research of hybrid mentoring programmes is limited. Kuperminc and Deutsch's

(2021) report concluded that hybrid mentoring required a set curriculum of meeting topics. However, if mentors adhered to the activities too rigidly, development of relationships and deeper conversations may have been prevented, limiting outcomes. Hybrid mentoring may benefit mentees and mentors who may initially be uncomfortable with intense one-on-one interaction. The group setting can provide a safe environment for mentors and mentees to become acquainted with each other before one-on-one interactions (Kuperminc & Deutsch, 2021). When examining a girls' hybrid mentoring programme, Deutsch et al. (2013) concluded that the presence of peers in the group mentoring aspect were an incentive for mentees to continue participation in mentoring. Therefore, combining forms of mentoring may counteract less connected one-on-one mentoring relationships as mentees can still connect with peers in their mentoring group (Deutsch et al., 2013). These readings suggest some potential for hybrid mentoring models but also a few challenges.

2.4.2. International research trends

Mentoring research internationally has focused mainly on adult volunteer 'at-risk' school-based and community-based mentoring. A large evidence base has emerged from the USA especially from Big Brother Big Sister (BBBS). In the last decade research literature from a range of countries and different settings of mentoring has started to emerge to contribute to the understanding of mentoring, such as, Irish volunteer teacher-mentors school-based mentoring (King, 2012), Canadian school-based BBBS mentoring (Larose & Duchesne, 2020; Larose et al., 2020; Larose et al., 2015), Portuguese volunteer teacher-mentors school-based mentoring (Simões & Alarcão, 2014), Slovakian school-wide mentoring with teacher-mentors (Laco & Johnson, 2017) and Australian school-wide mentoring with school staff (Ryan, 2017).

Even though schools and teachers are a natural context for mentoring as "teachers are the group most frequently identified as mentors by youth" (Portwood & Ayers, 2005, p.336), extended studies of school-wide mentoring programmes are lacking (Ryan, 2017). The dominant focus of research studies has been on 'at-risk' students with only a few studies examining school-wide mentoring programmes (Laco & Johnson, 2017; Ryan, 2017). These studies highlighted influential aspects worth considering. Ryan's (2017) qualitative case study in an Australian secondary school explored a school-wide mentoring programme for students in Years Seven to Twelve. These students were mentored in mixed year level mentoring groups by school staff including teaching and non-teaching staff. In a detailed examination of the creation and implementation of the mentoring programme and exploration of students' and mentors' experiences of the mentoring programme, Ryan (2017) found that mentoring activities needed to be age relevant. Furthermore, the mentoring

context, i.e., the frequency of meetings and mentoring relationships, was fundamental to the mentoring experience of mentors and mentees. The school setting needed to be a caring, supportive environment for mentoring to be influential. Another example of school-wide mentoring was the programme examined in Laco and Johnson's (2017) study of the perceived outcomes of a school-wide mentoring programme in Slovakia. The authors collected mentees' perceptions of the benefits of mentoring through the results of standardised quantitative questionnaires. This study did neither investigate in-depth mentees' individual experiences of mentoring nor give detailed teacher-mentors' perceptions of their experiences of the mentoring process. Laco and Johnson (2017) concluded that the investigated school-wide programme had personal and social but not academic benefits for students because of reasons specific to the programme's preparation and organisation.

A small body of work has investigated volunteer teacher-mentors in 'at-risk' school-based mentoring (King, 2012; Kuperminc et al., 2019; Larose et al., 2020; Simões and Alarcão, 2014). A standalone school-based mentoring programme which utilised one-on-one mentoring by teachers of students preparing for leaving exams in Ireland was investigated by King (2012). This study is one of few that collected in-depth students' and teacher-mentors' perceptions to understand how the programme might be improved. King (2012) found that formal student-teacher mentoring was effective especially for older students who reported more positive attitudes towards school. He concluded that the development of a positive meaningful relationship with an adult at school was one of the greatest perceived benefits of this investigated school-based mentoring programme.

Mentoring research is criticised for mostly overlooking contextual influences on mentoring relationships and outcomes (Brady & Curtin, 2012; Busse et al., 2018b), although Rhodes' (2005) model explicitly states that the wider context influences mentoring relationships. Studies into the implementation of BBBS in Ireland (Brady & Curtin, 2012) and on country and programme specific influences on mentoring programmes (Busse et al., 2018b) concluded that care had to be taken when importing programmes from other settings. Few studies of mentoring specifically considered mentees' cultural backgrounds, but those that did, highlighted that understanding the relational values of different cultural groups should inform mentoring programmes. A New Zealand-based systematic review of 26 youth mentoring programmes which evaluated the cultural appropriateness of mentoring programmes concluded that 'traditional' programmes were less appropriate for minority groups because these programmes appeared to be less effective for them (Farruggia, Bullen, Solomon, et al., 2011). In another cultural setting, it was observed that African American students were more responsive to mentoring if mentoring relationships resembled those of relationships with fictive kin, a friendship which creates a family-like relationship based within their culture (Grey, 2015). An investigation of Latina graduates and their perceptions

of the role of mentoring relationships on their pursuit of higher education found that the mentors' cultural competence and responsiveness was vital to the quality of the mentoring relationship (Garcia and Henderson, 2015). The findings of these studies confirmed Evans et al.'s (2005) and Goldner and Scharf's (2014) arguments that mentoring programmes depend on their context and their countries' or mentees' specific culture which should be considered when implementing mentoring.

2.4.3. New Zealand-based research

Given the relatively recent introduction of formal youth mentoring to New Zealand, only a small body of research evidence is available to understand effectiveness of mentoring on New Zealand youth in school-based mentoring and community-based mentoring. In 2005, Evans et al. (2005) declared that youth mentoring in New Zealand lacked research. In the intervening years, the situation has not changed. At the time of compiling this literature review, Farrugia, Bullen, Davidson, et al.'s (2011) work remains the only systematic review of New Zealand mentoring programmes. They concluded that only 35% of known, active programmes community-based mentoring and school-based mentoring had been evaluated (Farrugia, Bullen, Davidson, et al., 2011). The review found that of the 26 reviewed programmes, 96% had educational goals and 88% of the programmes were found to be effective to some extent.

In New Zealand school-based mentoring research has focused on the influence of relationship quality and perceived benefits of mentoring. Key attributes of relationships and mentors have been identified as influential to mentoring experiences. Farrugia et al.'s (2013) study of a hybrid mentoring school-based mentoring programme with a large percentage of non-European mentees found that mentees experienced high quality relationships when they perceived mentors to display warmth and trust. Dutton, Bullen, et al.'s (2018) and Dutton, Deane, et al.'s (2018) studies contributed to New Zealand-based insights into relationship quality. Both publications based on the same mentoring programme concluded that key influences on relationship quality were mentor attunement and mentor self-efficacy (Dutton, Deane, et al., 2018). Attunement is a concept in mentoring which emerged from therapeutic counselling whereby the therapist seeks to understand the patient's world. Attunement facilitates exploration, insight, genuineness and transparency (Pryce, 2012). Dutton, Bullen, et al. (2018) found that mentor attunement of programme staff was influential in providing mentor support.

New Zealand-based research validates Evans et al.'s (2005) argument that mentoring programmes' success depend on their consideration of their country's specific culture and context. Research such as the previously mentioned systemic review by Farrugia, Bullen,

Solomon, et al. (2011) and Noonan et al. (2012) have confirmed the influence of cultural appropriateness on programme outcomes' effectiveness. In assessing a school-wide peer group mentoring programme which aimed to support Year Nine students in transitioning to secondary school, Noonan et al. (2012) found that participating students learned how to make connections with peers and how to interact with their new school community. These connections strengthened participants' relationships with others and supported their development by offering opportunities of positive engagement. This mentoring approach was deemed to be effective in increasing younger students' school engagement particularly of Pacific students (Noonan et al., 2012). This work highlighted that culturally sensitive programmes could be especially beneficial for culturally diverse youth and showed the benefits of a school-wide approach coupled with benefits of group mentoring for specific cultural groups. The consideration of contexts is therefore particularly important during programme development and implementation (Noonan et al., 2012).

New Zealand-based research has not included teacher-mentors although the New Zealand Education Review Office's (2014) report on raising students' achievement concluded that effective mentoring by school staff could support students achieve in academic, sporting, artistic and social domains. The report concluded that mentoring provided by schools may motivate students to achieve and acquire new skills.

2.5. Findings of Mentoring Research

Mentoring research mainly focuses on evaluating mentoring relationship quality based on the premise that successful mentoring outcomes rely on the quality of the relationship. Other aspects of mentoring such as assessing outcomes of mentoring for youth, mentoring activities, mentor skills and identifying significant influential programme features are researched less frequently. This section discusses these themes of mentoring research.

2.5.1. *Relationships*

Mentoring relationships are central to the mentoring experience in all forms and settings. This section focuses on findings of three different types of youth's relationships: formal mentoring relationships, relationships with non-parental significant adults and student-teacher relationships. Understanding these different types of relationships is important in this study of Greenstone College's school-wide programme with teachers as teacher-mentors.

Mentoring relationships

The importance of mentoring relationships in achieving positive outcomes for students is evident in mentoring models outlined in Section 2.3 and is reflected in the large number of studies which examine them. Most of the studies' findings have concurred with Rhodes (2005) that "developmental outcomes are unlikely to unfold without a strong interpersonal connection, specifically one characterised by mutuality, trust and empathy" (p.31). An overview of mentoring research found that most research into different forms of mentoring has emphasised the importance of mentoring relationships by providing opportunities for young people to connect and improve their sense of belonging (Kuperminc & Thomason, 2013).

The literature investigating mentoring relationships often assesses and describes relationship features such as closeness, dependency, mutuality, trust, and empathy without in-depth voices of all mentoring participants. Few studies of youth mentoring have incorporated the perceptions of mentees as well as mentors; studies have usually collected either mentors' or mentees' voices but rarely both. Mentees' perceptions are less commonly reported than those of mentors. Some of the few examples which incorporated both mentors' and mentees' perceptions of mentoring relationships and related mentoring activities are King's (2012), Ryan's (2017) and Dutton, Deane, et al.'s (2018) studies. The quality of mentoring relationships was investigated through mentors', mentees' and supervisors' perceptions in Dutton, Deane, et al.'s (2018) mixed-method study. Converging perceptions of mentoring relationships meant that relationships were positive and effective, while diverging perceptions could be indicators that the relationship was not as positive as desired and further support was needed. The authors concluded that by incorporating and comparing these different perceptions of relationship quality they gained better understanding of the complexity of mentoring relationships (Dutton, Deane, et al., 2018). These conclusions helped to confirm my interest in hearing from both teacher-mentors and mentee in this study.

Importance of Mentoring Relationship Style

The review of the literature indicated that the mentoring relationship style and the length of the mentoring relationships have been identified as most influential to outcomes for mentees. The following sections discuss these findings in more detail.

Two mentoring relationship styles of youth mentoring, the prescriptive or instrumental and developmental styles, were identified by Morrow and Styles (1995). These relationship styles influence the mentoring experiences and the outcomes for mentees and differ in the role of the mentor, their relationship characteristics and activities. Table 2.1

provides a comparison of the two mentoring styles. In mentoring research literature, the terms prescriptive and instrumental mentoring are used interchangeably. Prescriptive or instrumental mentoring focusses mainly on academic improvement. Research has shown that developmental relationships seek to influence personal growth and provide emotional support in addition to academic development (Ellis et al., 2007; Herrera et al., 2000). This work has placed the mentoring relationship at the centre of the mentoring process by providing opportunities for socialising, role modelling and an emotional connection. Ellis et al. (2007) in their study of a Canadian school-based mentoring programme with volunteer mentors concluded that mentors' willingness to listen and empathise empowered mentees to take risks and explore new activities and thoughts.

In developmental mentoring relationships, the mentor holds responsibility to establish effective emotional relationships through their behaviour and attitude towards the mentee to stimulate positive development. Developmental mentoring relationships are characterised by strong interpersonal connections, including mutuality, empathy, a sense of being understood, liked, and respected. They allow mentees to cope better than without a mentor. Because of the strong interpersonal connections, developmental relationships have been shown to have stronger influence on social-emotional development and academic skills through closer relationships than prescriptive mentoring (Buckley & Hundley Zimmermann, 2003).


	Prescriptive/ Instrumental Mentoring Relationship	Developmental Mentoring Relationship
		
Mentoring approach (based on de Vries, 2011)	Instrumental	Developmental
Mentor role	Mentor-centred, Mentor decides goals and activities	Mentee-centred, Mentor provides comfort zone, responds flexibly, goals negotiated with mentee
Relationship development	Activities and conversations focus on instrumental goals	Establish relationship first then work towards mentee determined goals
Relationship characteristic	Patterns of tension and discontent, avoidance to talk about issues rather than help-seeking	Feelings of empathy, mutuality, trust, collaboration, companionship, help-seeking
Goals/ Outcomes	Instrumental goals: Academic improvement	Psychosocial goals: Emotional, social development Instrumental goals: Academic skill improvement
Activities	Programme or mentor prescribed instrumental activities, non-negotiable Academic activities- goal-oriented	Some programme prescription Youth incorporated in decision-making, developmental and instrumental activities Balance of social and academic activities

Table 2. 1 Characteristics of mentoring relationship styles in youth mentoring (Author's own based on Buckley & Hundley Zimmermann (2003), de Vries (2011b), Morrow & Styles (1995))

The different mentoring activities of each mentoring relationship style may affect relationship quality and related outcomes. Developmental relationships which focus on fun and respect the youth's viewpoint are found to be more successful than prescriptive relationships where the mentor adopts authority and focusses on transforming the youth (Evans & Ave, 2000; Karcher & Hansen, 2014; Keller & Pryce, 2012; Morrow & Styles, 1995).

Developmental mentoring relationships are deemed to hold similar characteristics to psychotherapeutic relationships as in both settings these relationships play an important role in bringing about change. A positive affective bond has been deemed essential for youth to benefit positively from mentoring and requires a close relationship and a perception of the mentor as a significant adult in mentees' lives (Spencer, 2004). Empathic understanding, warmth, positive regard and authenticity have been identified as important to the success of relationships (Spencer & Rhodes, 2005). These attributes were found to create the impression for the mentees of being listened to and understood by experiencing the therapist/ mentor as trustworthy and helpful (Pryce, 2012). These findings mirrored Spencer's (2006) identification of four aspects of successful mentoring relationships- authenticity, empathy, collaboration and companionship.

The emotional connection in developmental mentoring relationships can create friendship-like relationships. When the mentor is seen as a friend who is responsive to a mentee's needs rather than as teacher or authority figure, the relationship offers opportunities for mentees to seek guidance, solve problems, build self-esteem and resilience (Spencer, 2006). Based on their literature review and analysis of a mentoring programme, Lindt and Blair (2017) concluded that a mentor's desire to build empathetic relationships which focus on the whole person was essential for mentoring to be influential. The importance of an equal relationship between mentors and mentees was also emphasised by Dutton, Deane, et al. (2018). The intensity of emotional connections has been found to influence attachment which Pryce (2012) describes as mentor attunement. Shared relational excitement about the relationship, experiential empathy and mentees being seen as equals have been identified as essential to create mutuality (Lester et al., 2019; Spencer, 2006). The importance of an emotional connection was also stressed in Converse and Lignugaris/ Kraft's (2009) evaluation of a school-based mentoring programme with volunteer teacher-mentors.

Importance of length of mentoring relationships

The length of mentoring relationships and the frequency of meetings influence the quality of both relationships and outcomes for mentees. Many methodologically diverse research studies of mentoring settings and forms have concurred that the longer the relationship

lasts, the better the outcomes are for mentees (Converse & Lignugaris/Kraft, 2009; Goldner & Mayseless, 2008; Gordon et al., 2013; Keller & Pryce, 2012; King, 2012; Larose & Duchesne, 2020; Pryce, 2012). These authors agreed that relationships were perceived as closer, trusting and more supportive when mentors and mentees spent more time together regularly. The impacts of short relationships or early terminated relationships on mentees are important to consider. Studies have found that these relationships could have negative impacts on mentees. About half of all youth mentoring relationships have been found to end prematurely after short periods of time for a variety of reasons (Grossman & Rhodes, 2002; Spencer, 2007). Two most common factors which contributed to mentoring relationship failures were inadequate mentor support and inadequate mentoring skills (Spencer, 2007). Mentors' lack of relational skills led to poor quality of mentoring relationships and eventual termination.

Relationships with non-parental significant adults

Relationships with non-parental significant adults are not formal mentoring relationships but this form of informal relationship holds many characteristics of mentoring relationships which are worth considering. Research has found youth from high-risk backgrounds, who found at least one non-parental significant adult, were more resilient and thrived in their development (Evans & Ave, 2000).

A small body of research has explored characteristics of young people's relationships with non-parental significant adults (Beam et al., 2002; Griffith & Larson, 2016; Liang et al., 2008; Spencer, 2004). Relationships with non-related significant adults have been shown to provide high levels of social support and play a significant role in the development of youth, regardless of the length of time of the relationship. Differences could occur in the duration and frequency of the relationships, but the perceived quality of received support remained the same (Beam et al., 2002). Youth who had close relationships with non-related significant adults experienced an interpersonally stronger and more influential supportive environment (DuBois & Silverthorn, 2005).

Research of informal relationships with youth has identified trust and mutuality as important relationship components reflecting assumptions in Rhodes' (2005) model of mentoring. When researching trust formation of young people with youth programme staff, adults' behaviour towards youth was found to be important to establish trust (Griffith & Larson, 2016; Griffith et al., 2018). In interviews with youth, Griffith and Larson (2016) and Griffith et al. (2018) found that trust grew through providing support, encouragement and empowerment as well as assistance and honest feedback in mutual conversations. Young people were more likely to listen to suggestions and to be motivated to continue to

participate in activities once trust was established because they felt a sense of obligation, loyalty and were encouraged to share personal issues (Griffith & Larson, 2016; Griffith et al., 2018). These studies demonstrated that mutuality was influential in relationships and was experienced if adults genuinely cared about young people as individuals and were open and active listeners (Griffith & Larson, 2016; Griffith et al., 2018).

Relationships with teachers at school

Positive close student-teacher relationships can resemble characteristics of close mentoring relationships. The characteristics of close student-teacher relationships have been shown to hold good potential for positive influence on mentees and have been deemed underused and underdeveloped in formal mentoring (Pianta et al., 2002; Portwood & Ayers, 2005). Other studies examining student-teacher relationships have highlighted the importance of school contexts for establishing close student-teacher relationships. The most positive and respectful student-teacher relationships were found in physically and emotionally safe schools which were characterised by high academic standards and strong support for teachers (Blum, 2005; Murray-Harvey, 2010).

Similar to positive mentoring relationships, studies on student-teacher relationships have agreed that supportive student-teacher relationships positively influenced students' social skills observed as social-emotional development (Reddy et al., 2003; Yu et al., 2016), greater emotional control, social competence and improved willingness to engage with challenges (Bergin & Bergin, 2009), improved social outcomes (Beutel, 2010) and greater confidence (Bernstein-Yamashiro, 2013a). Sellmann's (2009) study of students' perceptions of student-teacher relationships in a UK school concluded that students who perceived themselves having warm and emotionally close relationships at school viewed school more positively and were more positively engaged. Bishop et al.'s (2014) and Bishop's (2019) work on student-teacher relationships in the New Zealand context also found that the quality and depth of interpersonal student-teacher relationships were fundamental to learning. A teacher's ability to create *whanaungatanga*, family-like relationships, in their classrooms increased students' engagement in learning (Bishop, 2019; Bishop et al., 2014). Mirroring this argument, Greene Nolan (2020) concluded that a relational approach, whereby teachers took time to get to know their students, was more likely to make learning more meaningful for students. In Marsh's (2012) and Bernstein-Yamashiro's (2013a) research students described their improved engagement as being more motivated to attempt and complete work.

Some research of student-teacher relationships may be helpful to give insights into specific actions or behaviours of teachers which could lead to close relationships. Students

reported feeling closely connected to teachers when they were given responsibility, shown honesty, warmth, respect and trust (Lortie, 2002; Yu et al., 2016). It was important for students to know that their teachers cared about them and knew them personally (Klem & Connell, 2004). Relationships were perceived as close when teachers showed mutual understanding (Yu et al., 2016) and personal interest by interacting outside the classroom beyond the academic context (Marsh, 2012). By doing so, teachers were viewed to be respectful and to cross the age and status bridge between students and themselves (Klem & Connell, 2004). Studies on the influence of teachers' practices on students' development (for example, Lambert's (2015) study of the impact of different pedagogies on identity development and Calabrese Barton et al.'s (2013) exploration of girls' identity development based on opportunities to engage in science-related activities), found that teaching practices could intentionally and unintentionally inform young people's development. These findings provided some insight to inform teacher-mentor behaviour but require further research.

In summary, the review of the literature regarding relationships indicated that youth experience formal and informal mentoring relationships as well as supportive student-teacher relationships in similar ways and lead to similar outcomes. The importance of a developmental relational style to mentoring relationships characterised by trust, mutuality and empathy is clearly evident.

2.5.2. Programme structure and activities

The setting and programme structure are other factors which may influence mentoring experiences. Studies focussing on the nature of programme activities have argued that school-based mentoring spends more time on academic activities and generally has a more limited range of activities than community-based mentoring (Darling, 2005; Herrera et al., 2000; Kanchewa et al., 2021). However, authors have argued that a balanced approach to incorporate social and academic activities, regardless of the setting of mentoring, was needed (Herrera et al., 2000; Kanchewa et al., 2021). The small number of studies which specifically studied mentoring activities justify Darling's (2005) argument that a detailed understanding of the influence of specific types of shared activities is lacking and remains understudied.

Although social activities seem to have the strongest influence on positive relationship development and social-emotional development, they need to be balanced with academic activities. Findings of various studies have disagreed on the proportionality and timing of social and academic activities. Social activities, including playing games, sharing food and jointly planning activities, have been found to have the greatest impact on perceived levels of closeness and emotional supportiveness (Ellis et al., 2007; Herrera et al., 2000). Including fun and social activities can create a bond and trust in the relationship.

Methodologically diverse studies of different mentoring forms and settings have concluded that mentee-centred social activities provide valuable opportunities for mentees to be listened to, to exchange thoughts and experiences and for mentors to pay attention to mentees' cognitive growth and wellbeing (Keller & Pryce, 2012; Malen & Brown, 2020). Fun activities were found to enable greater responsiveness to academic aspects of mentoring in Ellis et al.'s (2007) study of a school-wide Canadian Big Brother Big Sister (BBBS) programme. Larose et al.'s (2015) study of a Canadian school-based mentoring BBBS programme concurred but also emphasised that social activities were required more at the beginning of mentoring relationships to create mentees' responsiveness as academic activities were viewed more negatively. These findings and those of Meltzer et al. (2020) and Kanchewa et al. (2021) emphasized the importance of a balanced spread of social and academic activities in mentoring programmes.

2.5.3. Mentors' skills and qualities

Mentors' personal skills and qualities such as being an active listener, showing genuine interest, empathy, providing constructive feedback and personal sharing, may also affect the quality of the mentoring relationship and the influence of mentoring on youth. Although Parra et al.'s (2002) process-oriented model of youth mentoring stresses the importance of mentors' skills and their self-efficacy, studies into the influence of mentors' skills and qualities on mentoring relationships are not extensive. Some studies have found that confident and knowledgeable mentors generally have greater success in overcoming challenges in mentoring relationships (Kanchewa et al., 2021; Larose et al., 2015; McArthur et al., 2017; Parra et al., 2002).

The ability to be responsive to mentees' needs and to take mentees' perspectives were identified as important skills to establish close mentoring relationships as argued in Pryce's (2012) work on mentor attunement. The importance of a mentor's ability to adapt to mentees' needs was further confirmed in McArthur et al.'s (2017) study of a Scottish community-based mentoring programme with volunteer mentors and in Larose and Duchesne's (2020) study of a school-based mentoring with volunteer teachers. These authors concluded that to be effective, mentors need to understand mentees' needs and to be relational in their approach. The ability to adapt and take mentees' perspectives was also stressed by Dutton, Deane, et al. (2018), Lester et al. (2019) and Spencer et al. (2020).

Mentors' relevant previous experience and self-efficacy have been identified as being important for mentors' confidence. Mentors with previous experiences of group mentoring and a higher skill set appeared to establish better group dynamics in hybrid after-school mentoring programmes than those with less experience (Deutsch et al., 2013). Other studies

have found larger impacts on mentees if mentors previously worked in helping professions such as teachers or counsellors (DuBois, Holloway, et al., 2002; McArthur et al., 2017; Raposa et al., 2019; Simões and Alarcão, 2014). Both professions require relational experts who are able to form and sustain close mentoring relationships. This observation underscores arguments of Portwood and Ayers (2005) and Simões and Alarcão (2014) that teachers as teacher-mentors appear to be an underutilised potential and could be considered the best mentors for students. Mentors' self-efficacy was also found to influence mentoring relationships and mentoring outcomes (Dutton, Deane, et al., 2018; Larose & Duchesne, 2020; Raposa et al., 2019). These studies concluded that due to the self-efficacy's influence on outcomes, less experienced mentors required adequate training and support. However, Simões and Alarcão (2014) highlighted that experienced mentors, such as teachers with relevant experience, also require support to grow their skills as mentors.

All three models of youth mentoring outlined in Section 2.3 emphasise the need for adequate training and differentiated ongoing support for mentors to support mentors' self-efficacy. Some evidence in the literature supported this claim. Ongoing mentor training has been identified as critical to the relationship development and the mentoring outcomes (Herrera et al., 2000; Larose & Duchesne, 2020; McArthur et al., 2017). This support helped mentors to feel confident in their role (Herrera et al., 2000) and prepared them for dealing with challenging situations and growing a better understanding for diverse backgrounds of mentees (McArthur et al., 2017).

2.5.4. Outcomes for mentees

Desired outcomes of formal youth mentoring are social-emotional, cognitive and identity development which bring about positive outcomes of improved behaviour, emotional wellbeing and improved attitude or grades in education. These outcomes have been confirmed in meta-analysis of mentoring outcome studies (DuBois et al., 2011; Raposa et al., 2019). Mentoring relationship styles discussed in Section 2.5.1 have also been found to directly influence outcomes of mentoring (Table 2.1).

Mentoring relationship quality directly influences mentoring outcomes. Positive engaging and authentic relationships generally lead to more positive outcomes especially if the mentor is perceived as a significant person by the mentee (DuBois, Neville, et al., 2002; Pryce & Keller, 2013). Positive relationships result in many mentees feeling empowered, listened to and validated by an adult other than a parent and therefore, result in positively perceived outcomes of mentoring (Keller & Pryce, 2012; Larose et al., 2015; Lester et al., 2019) and also influence mentees' perceptions of academic success (Converse & Lignugaris/Kraft, 2009; Dutton, Deane, et al., 2018; Keller & Pryce, 2012; Schwartz et al.,

2011). Therefore, understanding differences in relationship quality is important to understand different outcomes for mentees (Larose et al., 2015).

When mentoring relationships lead to improved levels of connectedness of mentees to their peers and environment, higher levels of social-emotional and identity development can be attained. Authors have agreed that connectedness needed to develop first before social-emotional development could occur (Gordon et al., 2013; Karcher, 2008; Rhodes, 2002b). The degree of connectedness differs between age groups and genders, but can significantly change attitudes of mentees (Converse & Lignugaris/Kraft, 2009). Better connectedness promotes identity and social-emotional development and leads to mentees' increased self-awareness of their skills, improved self-perceptions resulting in improved self-esteem, resilience and self-confidence (Gordon et al., 2013; Karcher, 2008; Noonan et al., 2012). Students, who improved their interactions with their community, were better able to listen to others and learnt to set goals (Noonan et al., 2012).

Studies of school-based mentoring have found that academic and psychosocial outcomes are interrelated (Gordon et al., 2013; Karcher, 2008; King, 2012; Pryce et al., 2019). These studies observed improved attitudes to school, increased motivation and self-confidence in engaging school activities. Reporting the survey results of a school-wide programme, Laco and Johnson (2017) found greater school engagement due to the perceived benefit of being able to share personal issues as well as students reporting greater social competency and personal growth. Many studies have observed academic improvement through better attendance, increased sense of school belonging, improved participation, less behaviour referrals and improved academic results (Gordon et al., 2013; Karcher, 2008; King, 2012; Schwartz et al., 2011). Degrees of developments varied significantly across schools depending on programme goals, but enhancing academic performance was emphasised by most school-based mentoring programmes (Altus, 2015).

2.6. The need for research

This literature review outlined various aspects of formal school-based mentoring which are well understood and supported by a substantial research base. The importance of mentoring relationships and their potential positive influence on mentees are well understood and emphasised in the models of youth mentoring. Some aspects, such as the influence of different forms of mentoring, different mentoring styles, mentors' skills and qualities and contextual influences, require more research to develop better understanding.

Throughout the literature review, I emphasized the importance of understanding perceptions of both mentors and mentees. I showed that few studies have included perspectives of both mentors and mentees, confirming Ehrich et al.'s (2004) observation

that few studies have collected in-depth mentoring experiences and perceptions of mentors and mentees in school-based mentoring programmes. Not only does the incorporation of both perspectives potentially increase in-depth understandings of the experiences and perceptions of all involved in mentoring relationships, but it also grows understanding of specific details on precise actions or behaviours of mentors which might support the development of trusting relationships and address questions of rights and power in educational research (Cook-Sather, 2018).

I identified specific details on precise actions or behaviours of mentors as absent in all three models of youth mentoring outlined in Section 2.3. Further research into experiential perspectives of mentoring has been recommended to understand the quality of mentoring relationships (Dutton, Deane, et al., 2018) as investigations of

mentors and mentees about their perceptions and experiences could enhance reflective practice insights and produce a more aligned, shared understanding of relationship quality. (Dutton, Deane, et al., 2018, p. 61)

It is important that more mentoring research in New Zealand is conducted to determine which forms and settings of mentoring are most influential for young people and different cultural groups in New Zealand. I showed in Section 2.4.3 that to date, a limited number of studies of school-based mentoring in New Zealand have been published. My research aims to develop an understanding of the implementation of a school-wide mentoring programme in a New Zealand secondary school with teachers as mentors in a hybrid mentoring programme and to understand teachers' and students' experiences and perceptions of mentoring relationships and mentoring activities of the programme. The school-wide hybrid mentoring programme contrasts the dominant 'at-risk' mentoring approach but is possibly more appropriate in a New Zealand context where the inclusion of group mentoring may be more supportive of some ethnic groups (Peters, 2000) and the one-on-one form of mentoring is not always fitting for the country's social and cultural structures (Farruggia, Bullen, Davidson, et al., 2011). As highlighted in my discussion a school-wide mentoring approach in a New Zealand context can potentially be more culturally appropriate and can incorporate local cultural practices (Bishop & Glynn, 1999).

With these prior studies in mind, the overarching research question in this study is:

How did teachers and students experience and perceive a school-wide mentoring programme in a New Zealand secondary school?

To support the investigation the following sub-questions will guide the research:

- 1) What was the nature of the mentoring programme, and which contextual factors influenced its implementation?
- 2) How did teachers as teacher-mentors experience and perceive the mentoring programme and how did it shape their practices and identities?
- 3) How did students experience and perceive the mentoring programme and how did it influence their educational experiences and personal development?

2.7. Chapter Conclusion

In this chapter, I located the present study of the implementation of Greenstone College's school-wide programme within the field of educational change policy and the more specific field of formal youth mentoring. Little research has been conducted into school-wide mentoring, although some research identified teacher-mentors as a valuable and underutilised potential for mentoring in schools. For teachers as teacher-mentors it is important to understand the influence of the mentoring programme as a form of educational change on their practices and identities. Of the five models of formal mentoring (Clutterbuck, 2004; Kram, 1988; Larose & Tarabulsky, 2005; Parra et al., 2002; Rhodes, 2002b), I identified Rhodes' (2005) model of youth mentoring as significant for this study in light of its strong relational focus which is in keeping with the relational focus of New Zealand educational policies and practices. To date, the vast majority of youth mentoring programmes select their mentees on an 'at-risk' basis. I argued that this approach may not be suitable for a New Zealand context and is unnecessary for inclusive school-wide mentoring programmes like the one of Greenstone College which I investigate in this study. Much of the mentoring research has focussed on outcomes of mentoring and relationships rather than underlying processes such as activities and mentors' skills. Based on the findings of the literature review, I identified that research does not always consider mentors' and mentees' perceptions. However, considering both perspectives can provide valuable insights into underlying processes of mentoring.

In its educational context, this study intends to more fully understand the experiences and perceptions of teachers who take on the role of teacher-mentors in addition to their subject teacher role. It also aims to understand students' experiences and perceptions of the school-wide mentoring programme. Collecting and understanding these experiences and perceptions requires appropriate theoretical and methodological frameworks. In the following chapter, I discuss the theoretical framework which informed the present study and outline the methodology applied in this study.

Chapter 3: Theory and Methodology

The focus of this chapter is to describe the theoretical paradigm and the research strategies employed in this study to understand teacher-mentors' and students' experiences and perceptions of Greenstone College's school-wide mentoring programme. The first section of this chapter describes the socio-cultural constructivist paradigm which underpinned this study. This section also introduces the theoretical and analytic framework supporting this study- Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT). The second section of this chapter outlines the research methods used to gather and analyse the data and discusses the study's ethical issues, significance and trustworthiness.

3.1. Theoretical Paradigm

Mentoring and mentoring relationships are complex systems of human interaction which require theoretical paradigms that consider the context and the processes involved where these relationships take place. In order to obtain authentic understanding the paradigms should also offer scope to develop an understanding of nuanced teachers' and students' perspectives of their mentoring experiences, activities and relationships.

3.1.1. Introduction to socio-cultural constructivist perspective

This study is set in an interpretivist, socio-cultural paradigm which seeks to understand how people see, think and feel about the world (Hammersley, 2012). It seeks an interpretive understanding of social action and of the complex links between perspectives and actions (Crotty, 1998). In the context of this study, it means to understand how participants experienced mentoring and how it contributed to teacher-mentors' perceptions of their role and practices and students' learning and development. A socio-cultural paradigm considers historically derived and situated interpretations of the social world of individuals. Individual backgrounds, historical experiences, values and expectations of their cultural group inform each individual's perspective. Differences can be explained and understood by considering individuals' backgrounds when examining mentoring through an interpretivist, socio-cultural paradigm.

The investigation of the programme is also informed by a social constructivist point of view which assumes that individuals construct meaning in social contexts. Social reality is constructed in the contexts of culture, values, beliefs and attitudes which shape the way individuals see, feel and perceive things (Crotty, 1998). Individuals actively seek out, select and construct their views (Cohen, 2018). The context where individuals learn and work is

influential in shaping their identity, how and why they act and think the way they do. Participation and context influence learning, and therefore, learning is not an isolated or internal activity (Rogoff, 2003). This perspective renders the socio-cultural paradigm suitable for this study into teachers' and students' experiences and perceptions of school-wide mentoring.

3.1.2. Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT)

I chose *Cultural Historical Activity Theory* (CHAT) as an analytical framework based on the appropriateness of its core ideas and principles for this study. CHAT as an analytical tool supports the analysis of complex systems, such as schools. It affords the analysis of various actions by various participants and views the activity, in this case mentoring, as the fundamental unit of analysis (Engeström, 1999). CHAT is founded on the sociocultural notion of Vygotsky's theory of learning that human learning is a social activity situated in physical and social contexts and distributed across subjects, tools/ artefacts and activities (Rogoff, 2003; Vygotsky, 1978). It is based on the core idea that humans learn by doing and can change their practice in social contexts using tools/ artefacts to meet new demands, for teachers this could be the implementation of new resources or teaching strategies. These tools/ artefacts take a variety of forms and are outlined later in this section. In the literature the terms 'tools' and 'artefacts' are often used interchangeably, however, for consistency and clarity I will refer to artefacts in the analysis chapters. It is largely acknowledged in the literature that their simultaneous use is acceptable (Engeström, 1999; Foot, 2014; Roth, 2007). CHAT allows us to develop an understanding of change and growth in teachers and students as they engage and interact in new activities.

Before I explore the application of CHAT for this study in more detail, I briefly outline the three generations of CHAT and describe the five principles of Activity Theory derived from Vygotsky's (1978) educational theory. Historically, CHAT has evolved in three distinct generations with each building on the previous one. The distinct generations of CHAT were conceptualised by Engeström (1996) based on Vygotsky's (1978) and Leontyev's (1981) work and are now used to situate research using CHAT. In this study I use the third generation CHAT and its five principles to analyse the programme which offers a framework to investigate its different layers, its implementation, its successes and challenges by considering the multiple roles and perspectives of people in the context of the school.

Generations of CHAT

The first generation was based on Vygotsky's original socio-cultural educational theory which assumed that learning occurred in social and cultural contexts using psychological

artefacts and mediation rather than in isolation (Vygotsky, 1978). Vygotsky identified that a mediating agent in the child's interaction with the environment was required to develop higher mental processes (Kozulin, 2003, p. 17). Mediational agents can be either human such as teachers or symbolic in nature such as the use of language or physical tools/ artefacts. The learning activity as an interaction of subject, object and mediated artefact was visualised as a triadic relationship shown in Figure 3.1. An example could be an artist (subject) using a new type of paint (tool) to create new effects (object) to complete a painting (outcome).

This first generation of CHAT focused on the individual only, yet individuals need to be understood within their cultural contexts and society and alongside individuals' agency. These individuals use and produce artefacts. Subsequent generations of CHAT considered the influence of the context on the mediated relationship.

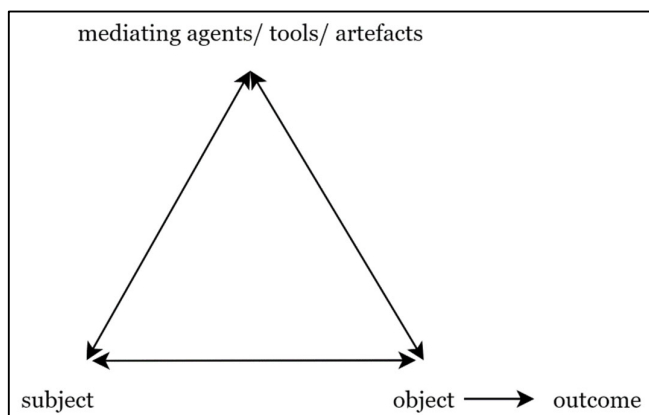


Figure 3.1 First Generation CHAT based on Vygotsky (1978)

The second generation CHAT expanded Vygotsky's theory further (Engeström, 1996). Inspired by Leontyev (1981) this generation introduced a differentiation between individual activity and collective activity by introducing the notion of division of labour. Analysis of activity systems of the second generation CHAT examines the relationship between individuals and their environment and views human activity as the core unit of analysis. People learn and develop through interaction of different components in an activity system. (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010). Leontyev never visualised his theory of an activity system. The triangle shown in Figure 3.2 was developed by Engeström (1999). It visualises all elements of an activity system and describes the relationship between the *subject* — the one who performs the action — and the *object* — the purpose or motivation of the action. Returning to the example of the artist: An artist (subject) uses paint brushes (tools) to complete his painting (outcome) to display in an exhibition (object). It could be that to exhibit his work,

he needs to be a member of an artists' society (rules) of his city (community). The artist may also be an art dealer and journalist (division of labour).

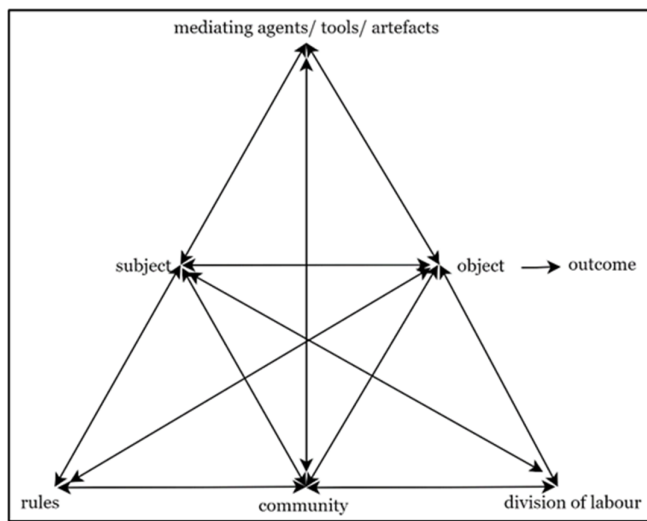


Figure 3. 2 Second Generation CHAT: Activity System Triangle by Engeström (1999)

The third generation of CHAT referred to as either CHAT or Activity Theory (Engeström, 1996) examines the interactions of different activity systems. Several activity systems together form a network. An analysis of the network examines the complexity of interactions and relationships in wider social, cultural and historical contexts. The third generation addresses the shortcomings of the second generation which did not consider diversity of viewpoints, cultures or perspectives by introducing the notion of multiple perspectives (Engeström, 1999). A network forms through the interaction of at least two activity systems (see Figure 3.3). No activity system exists in isolation, but each node is the object of another activity system. To return to the example of the artist one more time: in his role as an art dealer (subject) the outcome and object of the painting would be quite different to displaying his work in an exhibition. It would be his motivation to sell (object) the completed painting (outcome) for the highest price possible. The two objects of the two interacting activity systems — one of the painter as artist and the other as an art dealer — conflict with each other. As an art dealer the rules, tools and community would also either be complementary or contradictory to that of being an artist.

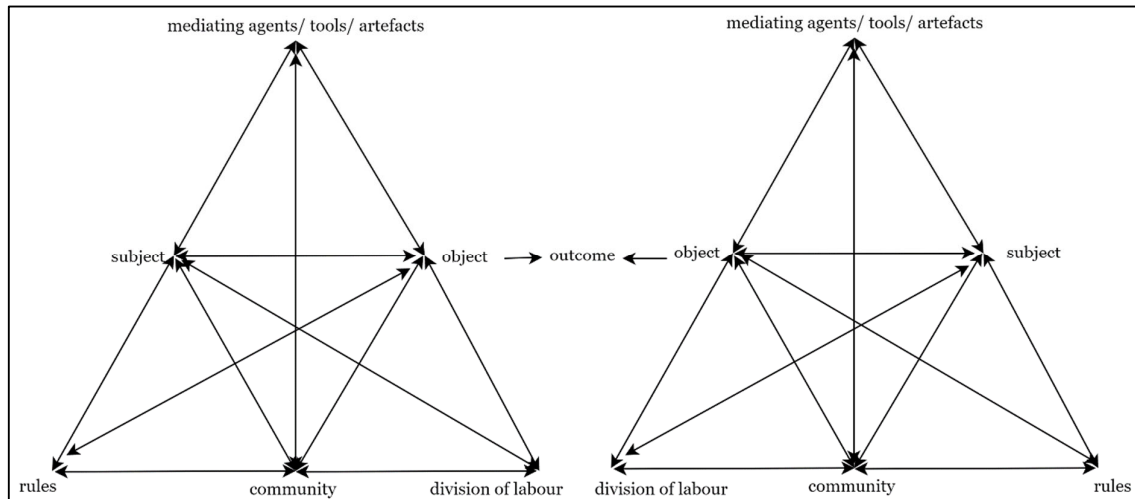


Figure 3.3 Third Generation CHAT based on Engeström (1999)

Principles of 3rd Generation CHAT – Activity Theory

Activity Theory is based on a framework of five principles proposed by Engeström (2001):

- First principle: the prime unit of analysis is a collective, artefact-mediated and object-oriented activity system;
- Second principle: an activity system is multi-voiced and multi-layered;
- Third principle: historicity — an activity system evolves and expands over time;
- Fourth principle: contradictions within and across activity systems drive the change and development of an activity system;
- Fifth principle: an activity system may change and be reconceptualised over time through cycles of expansive learning.

The following sections outline each of the principles.

First Principle: Components of an Activity System

A methodical activity system analysis facilitates an in-depth analysis of each component of an activity system as the prime unit of analysis (Figure 3.2). The *subjects* are individuals or groups participating in an activity working together in a common context, e.g., subject teachers. The *object* of an activity system is the reason why individuals or groups choose to participate in an activity and “the horizon of possible actions, a permanently unfinished project” (Engeström et al., 2002b), e.g., achieving educational goals. Activities are social practices oriented at objects. This element of the triangle holds all components of an activity together. *Tools/ artefacts* are the modes of communication used by the *subjects* to transform or expand the *object* and may also refer to material entities, abstract constructs, signs, language and symbols, which are used by the *subjects* to facilitate social mediation (Foot &

Groleau, 2011), e.g., different teaching and learning strategies. *Subjects'* actions are mediated by *rules* and *tools/ artefacts* available to them. *Rules, community and division of labour* form the bottom of the triangle. They affect *subjects'* actions and reflect the socio-historical collective nature of activity systems (Yamagata-Lynch, 2007). Formal or informal *rules* place varying degrees of constraint on activities in the activity system, e.g., rules of behavioural expectations. The *rules* shape the context in which the activity is taking place. The *community* forms the wider social group where the activity is taking place, e.g., the community of a school including all parents, teachers, siblings. The *division of labour* represents the different roles which members of the activity system fulfil, e.g., teachers in schools may hold additional responsibilities as Heads of Department or Year Level Deans. The interaction of *tools/ artefacts* and *division of labour* expand relationships through a dynamic interaction between agency, identity and context (Lasky, 2005). A change in learners is stimulated through enabling their understanding of themselves through the mediation of conceptual *tools/ artefacts* (Ellis, 2011). The *outcome* is the consequences of completed activities. The nature of each individual component of an activity system may create contradictions in the activity system as shown in the example of the artist.

Hierarchy of tools

A variety of tools/ artefacts are employed in an activity system. Wartofsky (1979) suggested that a three-tiered hierarchy of tools/ artefacts enabled a categorisation of the various tools/ artefacts employed in activity systems. Primary tools/ artefacts are those used unconsciously and directly in basic operations such as computers, pens and paper. Secondary tools/ artefacts are both the products of the primary tools/ artefacts such as emails or discursive constructs such as teachers' expectations, their professionalism and ways of working. The latter mediate how participants use primary tools/ artefacts (Cole, 1999; Foot, 2014). Tertiary tools/ artefacts are abstracts such as imagination, creativity and ideologies which influence the overall identity of an activity system. Tertiary tools/ artefacts form when professionals use their 'professional creativity' to respond to new situations with new ideas, new artefacts and concepts (Ellis, 2011).

Second Principle: Multi-voicedness and Multi-layeredness

Activity systems evolve from the different experiences and points of view of its participants. Multi-voicedness is created through the division of labour in activity systems which provides different perspectives on the activity. Through interaction of activity systems, different layers of tools/ artefacts and rules intertwine and create multi-layeredness. Some teachers hold additional responsibilities such as Heads of Departments which influence their perspectives

on education, students and learning. Each decision and action of teachers can be seen to be consequences of their past actions and the present context. Similarly, students' individual personal and educational histories, their roles in the school can develop different experiences and perceptions of their schooling.

Third principle: Historicity

Activity systems expand and evolve over periods of time. Understanding their history and development highlights their potentials and challenges. Differences between activity systems can be explained through historical influences on activity systems. As Engeström (1993) stated, each activity system always contains historical elements which are found in all components of activity systems, e.g., as outlined in Chapter One, New Zealand educational policies incorporate principles of the Treaty of Waitangi. The country's national curriculum allows schools to adjust their local curricula to suit their learners' needs. As needs of students change or new insights into pedagogy become more popular, schools' curricula are adapted. Each change, expansion or adaptation requires different ways of working and different tools/ artefacts. Analysing change helps to understand the challenges and potential of teachers planning and embedding new learning programmes, adjusting the conceptualisation of the teacher role as well as potentials and challenges created for learners.

Fourth principle: Contradictions

Four levels of contradictions exist within and across activity systems which enable expansive learning- the fifth principle. These contradictions manifest as problems, breakdowns and clashes and can be catalysts for development in organisations. They are not signs of weakness and have the capacity to modify the activity system rather than the activity system being fixed and static (Foot, 2001). Primary and secondary contradictions manifest in the activity system. They are internal contradictions. Tertiary and quaternary contradictions exist across activity systems and are external contradictions (Figure 3.4).

Primary contradictions (Figure 3.4 a) exist in each node of the activity system and are omnipresent in all activity systems of different settings. They are the fundamental contradiction of use and exchange value (Foot, 2014). Drawing on Marxist theory where education is seen as a commodity, each commodity/ activity is assigned a use and exchange value (Engeström, 2015). Use value is the social value attributed to the commodity or activity, e.g., acquiring knowledge and skills through education. Exchange value is the quantitative, monetary value attributed to commodity or activity, e.g., the amount of funding schools receive for staffing or equipment. This contradiction of use and exchange value may

be experienced by educators as tensions between limitations imposed on their work such as financial constraints of funding schools and the expectation of teachers to educate all young people to high standards and to respond to all learners' needs. In schools, financial constraints may result in the cancellation of some subject classes because of low student numbers. In New Zealand funding for state schools assumes that senior classes have a minimum of 12 students. A smaller number of students would not meet the exchange value and be costly for the school, therefore, smaller classes may be cancelled or merged across year groups creating tensions for subject teachers. The primary contradiction of use and exchange value can also be experienced by teachers when completing an activity which is perceived as an administrative demand rather than a useful tool/ artefact for educating young people (Foot, 2001). Even if all subsequent levels of contradictions are solved, primary contradictions remain (Foot, 2014).

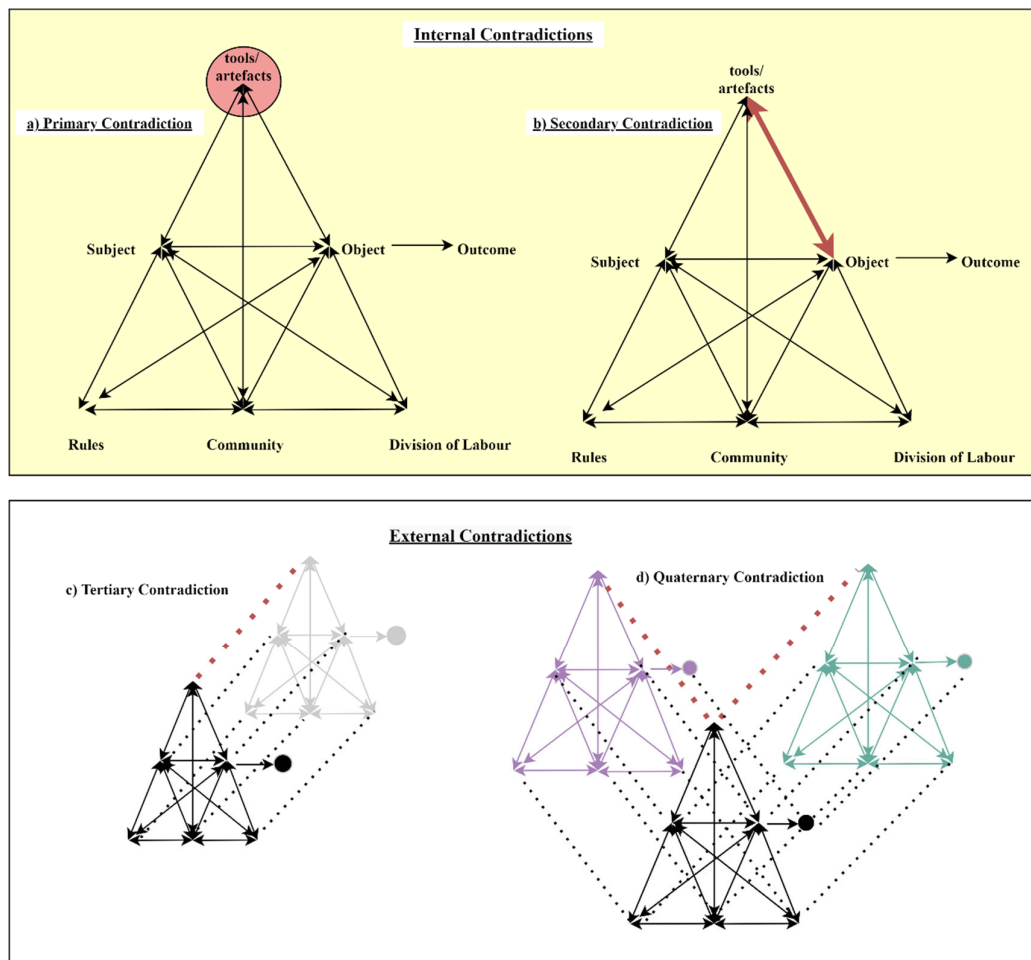


Figure 3. 4 Levels of Contradictions based on Engeström (2015) and Foot (2014)

Secondary contradictions exist as conflicts between two nodes of the activity system (e.g., tools/ artefacts and object in Figure 3.4 b). In education this contradiction could manifest by teachers being asked to complete administrative tasks which have no direct link to their object of advancing young people's academic knowledge, e.g., having to spend time to fix paper jams in a photocopier or having to complete additional paperwork. The above exemplified primary contradiction manifests itself as a secondary contradiction. Secondary contradictions can occur between any nodes of the activity system because of underlying primary contradictions or independently of primary contradictions and are the moving forces of disturbances and innovations (Engeström, 1993).

Tertiary contradictions arise when the object of the activity system is altered (Figure 3.4 c). The new object triggers change and development (Foot, 2014). Therefore, tertiary contradictions link to the third principle of historicity and the fifth principle of expansive learning. Some teachers who progress into new curriculum roles of higher responsibility such as Heads of Department may experience tertiary contradictions between old and new responsibilities.

Quaternary contradictions are a flow-on effect of tertiary contradictions from the central expanded activity system to neighbouring activity systems (Figure 3.4 d). The reformed object creates contradictions in interacting activity systems especially in neighbouring activity systems where the objects are intertwined in some way (Foot, 2014). In education quaternary contradictions are most prevalent in interactions of pastoral care activity systems and teaching activity systems.

[Fifth principle: Expansive Learning](#)

Following Engeström's (2001) fifth principle, each activity system may change and develop over time following an expansive learning cycle. This concept is based on Vygotsky's theory of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) (Vygotsky, 1978). Applied to the first generation of CHAT, the teacher's mediational function enables learners' academic growth. Vygotsky (1978) suggested the ZPD was the distance between the actual developmental level of a child and the level of potential development under guidance. A central task for teachers is to enable youth to progress their academic knowledge by introducing students to new knowledge and skills. Teachers create a ZPD through scaffolding and challenge in joint activities.

Applying the concept of ZPD to the second and third generation of CHAT means that each activity system has its own Zone of Proximal Development (Engeström, 2000). Learners can achieve cognitive, intellectual and emotional growth. Based on CHAT's fourth principle, contradictions between the object and subject in an activity system may exist in terms of their goals and values. These disagreements can either be restrictive or conducive to

expansive learning. These contradictions can energise new activities, some of which are systemic and drive organisational development. Systemic expansive learning creates new artefacts and patterns of practice (Engeström et al., 2002a). An object-oriented activity system requires expansive learning to reach the goal. In a collective object-oriented activity system collective action is required to produce new forms of collective activity.

Rationale for using CHAT as an analytical framework

CHAT focusses on structures, processes and contradictions in social activities. The focus of this study is the social activity of mentoring. CHAT has been deemed to be well suited for analysis of innovative learning (Engeström, 1999) and proven to be a suitable analytical tool of change in educational settings to analyse the impact of change on participants and the resulting tensions, e.g., Barratt-Pugh et al. (2018), Lim et al. (2020) and Taylor et al. (2019). In a review of studies which utilised CHAT in education, Batiibwe (2019) showed that the CHAT analytical framework was used in a variety of educational settings and contexts to illustrate contradictions of educational change such as the introduction of new technologies. In a New Zealand context, Bourke et al. (2013) utilised the third generation CHAT analysis to analyse tensions which arose through the introduction of a new assessment initiative. Thus, it is appropriate to use CHAT as a theoretical and analytical framework to understand a complex human learning situation (Engeström, 1999; Yamagata-Lynch, 2010) of collective and individual practices through an analysis of the enaction of new tools/ artefacts and created contradictions (Engeström et al., 2002a). Using CHAT allows an analysis and evaluation of the systemic external and internal contradictions rather than offer solutions for adjustment. Exposing the contradictions can be seen as starting points for suggestions for areas of further change and innovation to create sustainable change of practices. These insights can be used to provide suggestions for improvement to school-wide mentoring programmes.

In this study, I use the third generation CHAT analytical framework to analyse the teacher-mentors' and students' perceptions of the new activity of mentoring and how this new activity influenced teachers' practices and students' learning and development. The use of the third generation CHAT allows a synthesised analysis of multiple perspectives involved in mentoring. This focus was useful to consider when analysing organisational change and learning.

3.2. Methods of Research

A variety of methodologies and methods have been used in previous research of formal youth mentoring. Authors, e.g., DuBois, Holloway, et al. (2002) and Sipe (2005), have suggested that different forms of mentoring require different research designs to understand how external factors such as mentor and mentee characteristics and the context affected outcomes. Research designs utilising standardised *quantitative* methods allow for quantitative assessments before and after mentoring implementation and evaluations of programme effectiveness involving a large number of participants. Yet, they do not provide details of individual experiences and perceptions of participating mentors and mentees. This research design has dominated research evaluating outcomes of mentoring. These studies were usually randomised control studies of larger programmes like the Big Brother Big Sister programme (Appendix B). Quantitative mentoring research methods have been criticised for being over-reliant on self-report measures (Pryce et al., 2021) and the need for further development has been stressed (Nakkula & Harris, 2014).

Qualitative and *mixed-method* approaches have been prevalent in mentoring research exploring activities and mentoring relationships (Appendix B) and include experience-rich data. Qualitative methods allow the researcher to develop an understanding of meanings, processes and contexts (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003). *Qualitative and mixed-method approaches* provide in-depth insights and a wide range of perceptions not attained in purely quantitative studies. *Mixed-method* studies include multiple perspectives which offer a more nuanced richer understanding of experiences and perspectives than is obtained in purely qualitative or quantitative studies. They take advantage of the strengths of each method and mitigating their weaknesses. By investigating multiple layers mixed-method research recognizes the multiple roles and identities in various contexts which can provide useful insights into participants' priorities and understandings about their world (Kidman, 2014). Mixed-methods studies on mentoring (e.g., Dutton, Deane, et al., 2018; King, 2012; Pryce et al., 2019) have provided a rich understanding of participants' experiences and triangulation of different types of data in small scale studies. Although usually more small scale than purely quantitative studies, mixed-method approaches facilitate triangulation of data through several means of data collection and produce stronger arguments for the identified themes. Mixed-method studies of mentoring are often used to investigate mentoring relationships and activities, therefore, rendering this research method appropriate for this study.

It was important to me, given my previous involvement in the school, that the selected research methods did not influence teacher-mentors' and students' interactions. Therefore, I used research methods allowing participants to be open and honest about their mentoring experiences. The inclusion of interviews or focus group of mentors and/ or

mentees in other studies permitted authors to explore participants' personal experiences and perceptions and offered opportunities for participants to reflect on these experiences (Liang et al., 2008; Spencer, 2006). Publications from Dutton, Deane, et al. (2018) and Pryce et al. (2021) have encouraged more direct observational methods for future studies to understand relationship dynamics. Direct observation has tangible benefits, however, the decision whether to include observations needs to carefully consider the impacts of observer's presence on interactions. I deemed observations as not suitable because of my personal connections to teachers and students at Greenstone College. When I worked at Greenstone College, observations were an integral part of my work to undertake teacher appraisal or to support teachers with behaviour management. Many of the teacher and student participants would have experienced me coming into their classes for observations. I did not want these previous observations to conflict or interfere with my role as a researcher.

This study employed a sequential explanatory design of mixed-methods whereby qualitative data collection followed quantitative data collection and analysis (Creswell, 2011). The initial quantitative data provided an overview of collective perceptions of mentoring and a more general understanding, while the qualitative data gave a more detailed understanding of different perspectives. Using this approach, I could develop an in-depth understanding of mentoring and relationships through multiple perspectives. This combination achieved richness, complexity and breadth, which I could otherwise not achieve (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011, p. 5). Combining methods was the most appropriate approach to achieve the aim of this present study of developing an understanding of the experiences and perceptions of Greenstone College's mentoring programme.

3.2.1. Research design

The data collection utilised three research methods: surveys for teachers and students with quantitative and qualitative questions, World Café groups for students and one-on-one interviews with teachers and students. Table 3.1 outlines the research design in detail.

Research Stage	Activity	Product
Quantitative Data Collection- Stage 1: Questionnaires	Questionnaire for teacher-mentors (quantitative section based on MCQ, own qualitative questions) N=9	Ordinal data of Likert scales Basic personal data such as demographic characteristics
	Questionnaire for students (quantitative section based on YMS, own qualitative questions) N=41	Text data (answers to qualitative questions)
	Quantitative data analysis: Data screening Analysis of Likert Scales Visual graphs of Likert Scales	Descriptive statistics, broad overview Identification of participants for further stages
	Participant selection based on answers in questionnaires Refine interview protocol	
	Developing topics for World Café with table hosts	Topic posters for World Café
Qualitative Data Collection- Stage 2: World Café Stage 3: Interviews	World Café with students (N=12)	Recordings
	One-on-one interviews with students (N=7)	
	One-on-one interviews with teacher-mentors (N=7)	
	Transcription of WC and interviews Summaries of World Café	Text data (transcripts of recordings) Summaries of World Café for students and school
	Qualitative data analysis using NVivo12 qualitative software, Within case and cross- case analysis	Codes, categories, themes
	Interpretation and explanation of quantitative and qualitative results	Discussion in Chapter 4 and 5 Implications Future research
	Interpretation of results in relation to CHAT	Qualitative data linked to CHAT Discussion in Chapter 6 Implication Future research

Table 3. 1 Research design stages

3.2.2. Ethical considerations

As ethical considerations influenced the research design, I outline these matters first before outlining my research design. The research setting was familiar to me. I previously worked at Greenstone College as a member of the senior leadership team and was part of the initial planning and implementation of the programme. I had left the school by the time the data collection for this study commenced. I knew several of the Year 13 students very well. I worked with them as a teacher-mentor for one and a half years until I left the school. Therefore, I decided that twenty students who were previously part of my mentoring group could not participate beyond the survey stage, i.e., in either the World Café or the one-on-one interviews, as our relationship was quite close. I had some in-depth knowledge of their personal circumstances, which could have influenced my questioning. However, the surveys were anonymous, and the students' identities were protected. Students only had to fill in

their details if they were interested in further stages of the research, but their answers could not be linked back by providing their details. As all students were 17 or 18 years of age and in their last year of secondary education, parental consent was not required.

My previous connection to the school meant that I also had close professional relationships with some participating teachers. I needed to consider this issue for my interviews with participating teachers. My previous position in the school was also the main reason I chose not to include observations in the research design. I felt that this method would prevent the usual interactions of mentoring groups.

Before I began recruitment for the research, I gained organisational consent from the school's Board of Trustees (Appendix C). Participation in all stages of the research was voluntary and all participants were provided with information and consent sheets for each stage of data collection prior to participation (Appendix D and E). Participants had opportunities to ask questions before recordings commenced and to withdraw.

All participants' confidentiality was protected by removing all references to names and replacing them with pseudonyms in all transcripts. All files were stored electronically, and password protected and will be destroyed on completion of this study.

I gained ethical approval from the Human Ethics Committee at Victoria University of Wellington in January 2019 [HEC #26845]. Main considerations of ethical issues focused on my own position as a researcher and the protection of participants' confidentiality and anonymity.

3.2.3. The research setting

The study was based in Greenstone College, a New Zealand co-educational secondary school, which introduced a school-wide mentoring programme in 2017. At the time of my research in 2019, the programme was in its third year. All students in Years 11 to 13 were involved in the programme and were assigned a teacher-mentor, who was also a subject teacher at Greenstone College. Mentoring groups consisted of 23 to 28 students. The groups met for 4.5 hours per week in three one-hour sessions, 4 fifteen-minute sessions and one 35-minute session. The Year Level Deans held responsibility for the overall programme design and implementation. Teacher-mentors decided how to implement activities of the programme with their groups. In the context of this school, teacher-mentors were referred to as 'kaiārahi' a Te Reo Māori word for 'guide'. Both terms (teacher-mentor and kaiārahi) will be used interchangeably throughout the following chapters.

During data collection, I met with one member of the Senior Leadership Team (SLT) to informally discuss the school's journey to enable an objective account of the setting and context throughout the study. Explanations of the context in Chapter One are based on this

conversation, SLT meeting notes, school documents and my experiences of being at Greenstone College.

3.2.4. Recruitment

I addressed Greenstone College teachers in a staff meeting to explain the aims and objectives of the study in February 2019. To encourage students, I attended a Year 13 assembly on the same day. Teachers indicated in their survey if they were interested in taking part in one-on-one interviews. Students could indicate in the survey if they were interested in taking part in the World Café as table hosts or participants and if they were interested in taking part in one-on-one interviews.

I created the teacher-mentor survey on the Qualtrics website and sent the link to all teachers by email. Using Qualtrics ensured anonymity of responses. The survey was available for completion for a period of 14 days in early March 2019 for 19 teaching staff at Greenstone College who were teacher-mentors at the time. Eight teacher-mentors completed the survey representing a response rate of 42.1%. Seven of these teacher-mentors also volunteered to take part in subsequent interviews which took place in late March/ early April 2019. To increase the number of participants, the survey was made available to staff on two further occasions. Unfortunately, these extra occasions coincided with other significant events for the school community (change of school leadership/ retirement of school principal and COVID-19 lockdown) and no further surveys were completed.

The student survey was also created on Qualtrics, and the link sent to all eligible students by email and available for students' completion during the same time frame. Research was aimed at the 2019 Year 13 students who were involved in mentoring since its launch in 2017. Of the 120 students in the year group 41 students started the survey. Thirty-four answers were collected for most sections representing a response rate of 28%. Eighteen survey participants volunteered to participate in the World Café. Twelve participated on the actual day due to clashes with other events. Twelve students volunteered to be part of the one-on-one interviews. Only seven of these were conducted due to participants withdrawing for a variety of reasons.

3.2.5. Data collection

This section outlines the three stages of data collection: survey, World Café and interviews.

Stage 1: Teacher-mentor and student survey

Stage One of the research consisted of separate online surveys for teacher-mentors and students containing quantitative questions using the Likert Scale as well as qualitative open-

ended questions. Various survey tools have been developed to quantitatively assess perceptions of mentoring relationships with various strengths and limitations. Nakkula & Harris' (2014) discussion of available assessment tools outlined varying assessment scales of all tools and varying validity evidence. I used selected questions from the Match Characteristics Questionnaire (MCQ) for teacher-mentors (Harris & Nakkula, 2008) and the Youth Mentoring Survey for students (YMS) (Harris & Nakkula, 2013). While originally developed for one-on-one 'at-risk' school-based mentoring, many of the questions could be applied to the school-wide context. I chose MCQ and YMS because they were the only survey tools specifically designed to be complementary, were easily accessible and easily administered. MCQ was the only available tool on relationship quality for mentors of youth in secondary school, which was not developed specifically for established mentoring programmes, e.g., the Strength of Relationship Measure mentor survey was developed for Big Brother Big Sister USA programme (Nakkula & Harris, 2014). The quantitative section of the MCQ consisted of three sections relating to *internal quality*, *structure* and *external quality* (Table 3.2) (see Appendix F for teacher-mentors' complete survey and responses). The quantitative aspect of the survey for students were adapted versions of questions from the internationally trialled YMS to gain a broad overview of how students perceived their mentoring relationships and mentoring activities. As shown in Table 3.2 the YMS measured *internal quality*, the way mentees felt about the mentoring relationship, and *structure*, how mentees perceived the activities (Harris & Nakkula, 2013) (see Appendix G for students' complete survey and responses). Both questionnaires assessed a wider range of items relating to relationship quality than any other questionnaires – YMS contained 50 items, MCQ 71 items - which meant a considerable time investment (approximately 20 minutes) was required. It is possible some participants who did not complete all questions either lost interest or did not have enough time available to complete all questions.

I modified the wording of some questions in both surveys to suit the school-wide aspect. Original questions assumed that only one-on-one mentoring with adult volunteer mentors took place. I re-worded some questions to reflect the terminology used in the school, e.g., 'kaiārahi' instead of 'mentor' and the mix of one-on-one mentoring with group mentoring which took place at Greenstone College. Some questions in the MCQ's external quality subscale were removed as they did not apply to teacher-mentors in a school-wide setting. I added some of my own additional qualitative context-specific questions to the end of both surveys (Table 3.2) to gather additional in-depth individual opinions in addition to Likert Scale evaluations.

	Teacher survey	Student survey
Quantitative section of survey:	based on MCQ (Nakkula & Harris, 2008) Internal quality Subscales: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Academic Support • Closeness • Compatibility • Discomfort • Handling/ Ability to Handle Issues • Non-academic support • Satisfaction Structure Subscales: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Academic purpose • Character development purpose • Fun purpose • Outlook purpose • Sharing purpose External Quality Subscales: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Parent engagement • Programme support • School programme specific (questions adapted to suit the specific mentoring setting) 	based on YMS (Harris & Nakkula, 2013) Internal quality Subscales: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relational Quality • Instrumental Quality • Prescription Structure Subscales: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fun focus • Growth focus • Sharing focus
Qualitative section of survey: own context-specific questions added to the survey	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Each kaiārahi/ mentor is unique, so each has a different approach. Please help me understand your approach by listing your three most important foci (things you want to do as a mentor). Please state them in your order of priority. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Describe the qualities of your mentor. • What influence has your mentor had on you? • Which activities do you do as a group that you think bring you all closer together? • What do you talk about in one-on-one conversations? • Other experiences of mentoring

Table 3. 2 Overview of survey sections (detailed questions in Appendix F and G)

The answers to these qualitative questions together with the preliminary results of the quantitative section informed the final framework of interview questions. Distribution of both surveys by email was a feasible and efficient method to administer the survey and served to gain an overview across a wide range of teachers and students involved in the programme and to recruit volunteers for the subsequent research stages.

A low response rate during the quantitative data collection stage meant that I prioritised the qualitative data study during the data analysis stage and in the following findings discussions. The small number of participants meant that the data was not significant enough to be cited with confidence numerically, e.g., by using percentages, and reduced its validity for quantitative usage. However, the data provided useful background information about the participants and their broad perceptions of the mentoring programme. The teacher participants in the survey and the interviews were the same. The qualitative data in their interviews was much richer and more detailed than the survey data. Although more students participated in their survey, I applied the same rationale. The survey data provided a broad overview, but the data from students' interviews and World Café provided more depth. To be consistent across Chapters Four and Five, where I present and

discuss the findings, and to enable me to present the findings in an engaging form, I decided to reduce the focus on the survey data and concentrate more fully on the qualitative data.

Originally, I intended that the results of the surveys could also be used to link to other research which previously employed these two questionnaires. However, one of the limitations of these surveys is that much of the evidence remains unpublished (Nakkula & Harris, 2014). Despite extensive research, I have found only one study with a different research focus which used and published selected results after administering YMS and MCQ (Dutton, Bullen, et al., 2018). Despite their limitations, both questionnaires provided valuable overview data of the mentoring relationships at Greenstone College which could be used to triangulate opinions from interviews and World Café discussions and were useful in recruiting participants for the following data collection stages.

Stage 2: Student World Café

During the second stage of data collection, I gathered data from groups of students using the conversational World Café method developed by Brown and Isaacs (2005). World Café is a particular form of Focus Group created specifically to facilitate knowledge exchange (Prewitt, 2011). This method is a social constructivist approach which views individuals as actively constructing their world through conversation with others. This method accepts that through conversation people are enabled to share knowledge, construct their perspectives and understand the world around them (Brown & Isaacs, 2005). The method uses a café style setting to create a relaxed atmosphere whereby

participants engage in a series of small group conversations with the intent of quickly transforming individual knowledge into something collective and more valuable. (Prewitt, 2011, p. 190)

Participants move tables and share their opinions with different people in different groupings. They are encouraged to write their comments or thoughts on the tablecloths or draw related pictures. Table hosts lead the conversations at each table. This method reduces researcher power and creates a more relaxed and less threatening atmosphere for participants. Thus, it empowers participants to have open and honest discussions. World Café can potentially generate a wider breadth of discussions than focus groups led by researchers (Löhr et al., 2020). The data collected through discussions can be used to explore perceptions in-depth (Weitzenegger, n.d.). World Café is both a technique for engaging people in group dialogue as well as a metaphor for the way we generate knowledge and make meaning of our world, using methods such as a collective mural and drawing/brainstorming on paper tablecloths creates meaning verbally and visually (Prewitt, 2011). To guide discussions, relevant focus questions and themes are provided to stimulate the production of relevant data with deep insight into the perceptions of individuals and the

group. The use of the World Café with students removed my influence as a researcher and allowed open and honest discussion and reflection between students in a relaxed atmosphere which provided valuable insights into their experiences and perceptions of mentoring at Greenstone College.

I invited 18 students who indicated an interest in the World Café for an information meeting in April 2019. All 18 attended and discussed questions they had with me during the information session. For the World Café organisation, I decided to deviate slightly from the actual format. Rather than students moving groups and tables after certain intervals, I decided a better approach to time management, organisation and students' comfort was to fix the groups who would then change discussion topics after a certain time limit. This adaptation also allowed students to choose groups which they felt comfortable with to have open discussions. During the preparation meeting, students organized their groups and decided on their table hosts. After this meeting, I met separately with four table hosts to discuss and develop themes and topic posters for their use during the World Café and discussed expectations of them as a table host. The table hosts were responsible for guiding the groups through three topics and operating the voice recorders. Tables hosts decided on three topics which also fitted this study's aims: brainstorm of mentoring activities and their strengths and weaknesses, qualities of a mentor and relationships in school. Appendix H shows the posters and themes which I developed with the table hosts in preparation for the World Café. The table hosts were rewarded for their extra responsibility with a canteen voucher at the end of the World Café session.

The World Café was held in mid-May 2019 in a portable classroom away from the main school building to allow privacy and quiet while the students were working in their groups. I set up each table with café style food such as sausage rolls and brownies, three topic posters, a range of pens as well as a voice recorder. I placed different coloured tablecloths on each table (see Figure 3.5).



Figure 3. 5 World Café setup

This arrangement created the café setting and aided my identification of each group during the transcription phase as I named each group after the colour of their cloth. I later replaced the colour names of the groups with letters to enhance confidentiality of the participants. It was impossible to identify individual students in the recordings and subsequent transcriptions of the World Café groups. Therefore, when referring to these discussions in the following chapters, I refer to the quotations in the following manner: 'WC Group A/ B/ C'. On the day of the World Café, at short notice another event was announced at the same time at Greenstone College which meant that only 12 students could participate in the actual World Café session. Instead of the anticipated four groups, students worked in three groups of four. The groups discussed each topic for roughly 15 minutes before being prompted to move to the next topic.

Stage 3: Interviews

During the final stage of data collection, I conducted one-on-one interviews with teacher-mentors and students. The purpose of interviews is to understand themes of the lived daily experience from individuals' perspectives. Interviewing is an active process where interviewer and interviewee are actively involved to create knowledge together (Kvale, 2015; Roulston, 2011) but focuses strongly on the individual's subjective experience (Kvale, 2007). The researcher can develop a subjective understanding of individuals' perceptions, values and goals (Witz et al., 2001). The form of interviews can vary from a structured and controlled approach with prepared questions to an informal, unstructured format like a free conversation. This study used one-on-one in-depth focused interviews guided by a

framework of topics which allowed me to follow up on and probe responses, experiences and perceptions. In this type of interview, “the interviewer leads the subject toward certain themes but not to specific opinions about these themes” (Kvale, 2015, p. 34). Certain questions are asked, but subsequent questions may vary between participants to allow further in-depth investigation. I drafted the framework of questions (Appendix I) used for teachers and students before the research started and finalised it after an initial analysis of the survey and my first impressions of listening to World Café recordings to allow a deeper exploration of what was indicated before. This approach produced rich data with more depth on an individual level providing opportunities for participants to reflect on their experiences and perceptions and allowing further exploration of perceptions of mentoring relationships and detailed account of mentoring activities.

I covered all topics in each of the interviews using the semi-structured approach but allowed participants space to expand in as much detail as they felt comfortable with. I did not present these questions to participants before the interviews to gather as authentic and spontaneous responses as possible. My previous knowledge of the research setting was helpful in asking further questions as I fully understood the programme and the terminology used on site. It reduced the need for further clarifying questions in relation to the organisation of the programme, meaning that the questions could solely focus on individual experiences of the programme.

I recorded each interview with a voice recorder app on my cell phone. After the transcription of the interviews, I sent each participant a copy of their interview and I asked them to comment on the interview and make changes to the transcripts but did not receive any suggestions for change.

A) Teacher-mentor interviews

I interviewed seven teacher-mentors in late March and early April 2019. I negotiated a time and place with each participant suitable to their needs. The interviews took place either in teachers’ classrooms, workspaces or a café near the school.

B) Student interviews

In late May 2019 I invited 12 student volunteers to meet with me for an interview. My availability through my work and the school’s timing of the mentoring session determined the timing of the interviews. The principal stipulated that no-one should be missing subject classes for the interviews. After sending the draft schedule to all volunteers, two of them decided to withdraw. A further three students were unavailable when I was available to

conduct the interviews due to their involvement in extra-curricular activities. I interviewed seven students in total.

3.2.6. Data analysis

Data analysis of each research method initially occurred independently of each other. First, I analysed the data of the survey's quantitative aspect. Then, I undertook the thematic data analysis of all qualitative data from surveys, recordings of World Café and interviews (Table 3.1). Finally, the CHAT Analysis was used to examine all the data. This approach provided insight into the different foci of this research and facilitated answering each sub-question in detail. This data analysis process involved

organizing, describing, understanding, accounting for, and explaining data, making sense of data in terms of the participants' definitions of the situation (of which the researcher is one), noting patterns, themes, categories and regularities, all of which are the task of the qualitative researcher. (Cohen, 2018, p. 643)

A) Quantitative data analysis

The quantitative data provided an overview of the perceptions of mentoring of participating teacher-mentors and students arranged in the subscales (see Table 3.2 for subscales and Appendix F and G for detailed subscale results). The responses from the MCQ (n=7) and YMS (n=41) were analysed using the tools provided by the developers (Harris & Nakkula, 2013). Although theoretically, it would have been possible to undertake statistical analysis, I did not complete these calculations due to the small number of participants. For the same reason, I incorporated the quantitative data where appropriate into the qualitative data analysis to verify whether overall perceptions corresponded with deeper layers of meaning rather than present the quantitative data as a stand-alone data analysis. I included selective results in Chapters Four and Five as cumulative bar charts as appropriate.

B) Qualitative data analysis

The data analysis of the gathered qualitative data occurred in four phases: first, transcription and coding, second, comparison of codes and grouping into categories, third, identifying emerging themes and fourth, linking themes of the thematic data analysis to the main components of CHAT and contradictions. The initial thematic analysis allowed me to identify and discuss key arguments about the programme and relationships which emerged from my participants' experiences and perceptions. The subsequent CHAT analysis enabled a broader organisational and systemic analysis of the context of the programme with a particular focus on the influence of change on teacher-mentors and students by considering the historical

and cultural setting of the school. Figure 3.6 illustrates the phases of the qualitative data analysis in relation to the activity system element of ‘Hierarchy of Tools’.

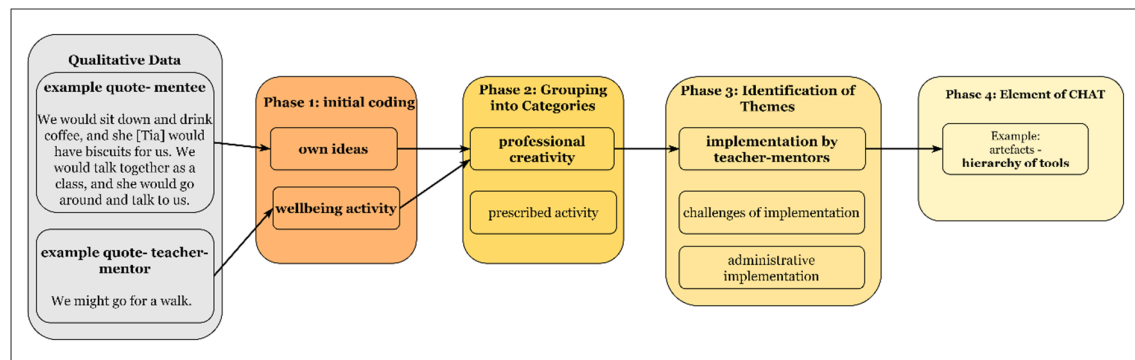


Figure 3. 6 Excerpt of phases of qualitative data analysis with examples

Thematic coding and analysis

Initial transcriptions of the interviews and World Café were completed with a free transcription service called Otter. This service is fairly accurate although each transcript required careful individual proof-reading and checking as Otter was unable to accurately transcribe Te Reo Māori words used in conversations. Upon completion of the transcripts, I spent a substantial amount of time ‘data cleaning’, e.g., removing off topic discussions, repeatedly used fillers, false starts and hesitations. I also prepared and emailed a summary information sheet of the World Café for the school’s leadership in June 2019. At the same time, all World Café participants received a much briefer more visual summary. The summaries included brief overviews of conversations and were helpful in identifying some common patterns between the three groups. Before further analysis, I wrote summaries of each interview and created an overview document of participants’ personal details relevant to mentoring. This participant information is included in Sections 4.1. and 5.1 and Appendix K for the in-depth cases which form the basis of Chapter Six.

This first phase also included the initial and separate coding of each transcript. Initial codes for within-case analysis were at first guided by the research questions to achieve a rounded understanding of each participant and to facilitate later cross-case comparisons. I analysed all transcripts as well as the qualitative questions of the survey with the assistance of the qualitative data analysis software NVivo 12 and repeated close reading of the transcripts. While not strictly following the process of developing a grounded theory the initial coding was based on intensive, systematic ‘open’, ‘selective’ and ‘axial’ coding to ground some ideas in the data and identify discrepancies and omissions, rich detail and lateral connections (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). Data relating to more than one code was

double-coded. I completed further rounds of coding within the initial codes to identify more refined categories and themes. The second phase consisted of cross-case analysis to group and compared the codes in all qualitative data. The process included an organisation of the initial codes into categories (Figure 3.6).

During the third phase, categories were organised into emerging themes which I identified in close relation to the research questions (Figure 3.6). I understood themes as analytic reflections of the codes and categories (Saldaña, 2016) to identify relationships between codes and identify their significance (Gibson & Brown, 2009). NVivo 12 supported this sorting process by enabling the arrangement of themes into parent (categories) and child nodes (codes) and producing a visual representation of these nodes as coding trees. The findings identified key themes for teacher-mentors and students separately and common themes across the participant groups. Relating to the example of coding shown in Figure 3.6, examples of emerging themes were administrative implementation, implementation by teachers, challenges of implementation. I compared the themes of different qualitative sources and looked for overlaps and differences. I discuss pertinent emerging themes in Chapters Four and Five.

Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT) analysis

The fourth phase applied the principles of the third generation CHAT framework and synthesised the thematic analysis to components to enable an analysis of the network of interrelated activity systems. The CHAT framework linked the in-depth analysis and interpretation of teachers' and students' perceptions to the organisational level of mentoring to identify underlying contradictions and to identify specific actions which took place in a network of activities. I completed the analysis explicitly applying the five principles of Activity Theory proposed by Engeström (2001) and outlined in Section 3.1.2. of this chapter.

Two stages of activity systems analysis took place to incorporate all principles of CHAT. The first stage applied the first, second and fourth principle of CHAT (see Section 3.1.2.). I examined individual activity systems, allowing me to focus on individual participants, i.e., teacher-mentors or students, the organisation of the programme and internal contradictions. The emerging themes of the thematic analysis were linked to nodes of the different activity system (first and second principle) or contradictions (fourth principle).

The second stage analysed interrelated activity systems, their interactions and external contradictions allowing me to identify aspects of the third, fourth and fifth principles of CHAT, for example it drew attention to interactions of activity systems and their external contradictions as participants moved between roles and as activity systems expanded their objects.

An analysis using the third generation CHAT presented an opportunity to understand different perspectives of mentoring. The focus on the five principles of CHAT foregrounded rules and tools/ artefacts of the mentoring programme which shaped the social context for participants' experiences but also contradictions. The CHAT analysis allowed an exploration of the influence of change on all subjects partaking in a collective institutionalised activity (Lim & Hang, 2003), in this study the mentoring programme, by examining the historicity of the mentoring role, the arising contradictions and occurring expansive learning prompted by the introduction of mentoring. A focus on the principles of contradictions and expansive learning enabled an in-depth analysis of how the introduction of mentoring influenced teachers and students.

As a stand-alone analytical method CHAT provided a specific lens on the programme and highlights some aspects which may have been neglected through other frameworks. The network of activity systems developed an understanding of interactions in a collective context, but sometimes the interactions were more complex than networks of triangles could illustrate. Linking CHAT with other analysis allowed triangulation and together they provided a rounded view of the programme. The findings of the CHAT analysis are presented in detail in Chapter Six.

C) Presentation of findings

Chapters Four, Five and Six present and discuss the findings of my data analysis. Throughout Chapters Four and Five I include diagrammatic continua figures for analysis and evaluation of different aspects of mentoring like the programme structure, programme outcomes and mentoring relationships. Their design originated from the de Vries (2011b) continuum of instrumental and developmental mentoring, which I used in Section 2.3 to evaluate models of mentoring, and the tensions between instrumental and developmental mentoring relationship styles and their accompanying different outcomes first introduced by Morrow and Styles (1995) and discussed in Section 2.5.1. I included summative data from surveys and summative impressions and interpretations of the qualitative data to decide placement on the continua. These figures are intended to aid the discussion of the findings. Figure 3.7 shows the template of these figures.

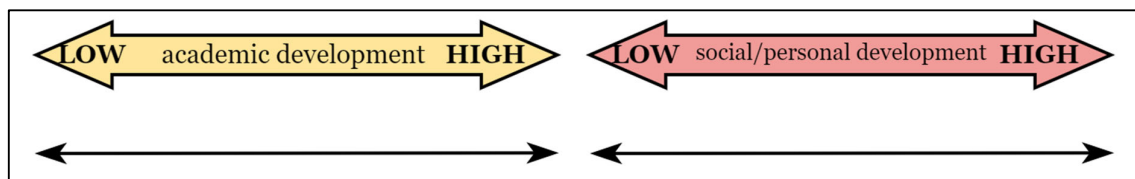


Figure 3. 7 Template of diagrammatic figures used in Chapters 4 and 5 (Author's own based on de Vries (2011b) and Morrow & Styles (1995))

3.3. Significance and Trustworthiness

As a small-scale mixed-method project, this study did not produce generalisable conclusions but focused on the detailed nuances of participants' experiences and the influence of organisational change the mentoring programme had in this specific setting.

A combination of methods allowed for triangulation and validated the collected data. The initial surveys, interviews and World Café groups produced different perspectives on the same issues which facilitated an investigation of agreement or difference in perceptions. The combination of data collection methods collected participants' perceptions in different settings. The group setting facilitated the collection of a wider rather than deeper range of opinions and experiences whereas interviews allowed to go deeply into personal and social matters. Cross-case thematic analysis reinforced the validity of this study and enabled theoretical elaboration.

A combination of methods mitigated for the limitations and challenges of each method thus ensuring that the information gathered was credible, transferable and dependable and the research process transparent. Throughout the research process I aimed to be as transparent as possible. I ran information meetings, worked with the World Café table hosts, provided summaries to World Café participants and the school and asked all interview participants for feedback on their interview transcripts and summaries. This transparency addressed some aspects of power imbalance between me as the researcher and previous member of the school community and the study's participants. Collaborating with the students and co-constructing the topics for the World Café helped to minimize inequalities which the students might feel during the research thus creating credible data through active involvement of the participants in the study (Creswell & Miller, 2000). By involving the students, the study went a small way towards "the obligation under the UNCRC: to enable the child the opportunity to express his or her views freely and then to give the child's views 'due weight' " (Lundy et al., 2011, p. 731). This approach also acknowledged that "the voices and experiences of children and young people are integral to our understanding of both the ends and means of education" (Bourke & Loveridge, 2018, p.3).

The study was limited to one school and one example of school-wide mentoring yet through in-depth descriptions of the context the study was given transferability. Its relatively small sample size limited possibilities to generalise, but the first-hand experiences of all participants provided a comprehensive picture of the programme. Choosing a specific analytic perspective provides a specific lens on the issue which highlighted some things but perhaps neglected others. The CHAT lens highlighted aspects additional to the thematic analysis but did not offer solutions for identified challenges.

3.4. Chapter Conclusion

In this chapter, I discussed the appropriateness of the underlying methodological constructivist paradigm and the analytical framework of Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT) applied to explore the mentoring programme and mentoring relationships. This study used the third generation CHAT and its five principles allowing me to consider the context of the mentoring activity and possible sources of contradictions prompting a change to relationships and practices in the school (Engeström, 2001).

The complexity of the mentoring programme required the collection and analysis of multi-voiced data to produce broad but also in-depth accounts of mentoring. The mixed-method approach enabled the collection of the necessary data. The following three chapters present the findings of the thematic analysis and CHAT analysis of participating teacher-mentors' and students' experiences and perceptions of mentoring at Greenstone College. In the following chapter, I begin with teacher-mentors' experiences.

Chapter 4: Teacher-mentors' experiences and perceptions

This chapter focuses on the teacher-mentors' experiences and perceptions of the mentoring programme at Greenstone College. This chapter draws mainly on qualitative data gathered from teacher interviews and qualitative sections of the MCQ to illustrate detailed points of view. Where relevant, I draw on quantitative data gathered from the surveys. The detailed results of the surveys are presented in Appendix F. I also use a template based on de Vries' (2011b) continuum of mentoring introduced in Chapter Two to illustrate teacher-mentors' experiences and perceptions and different facets of mentoring.

The socio-cultural perspective informing this study views the context of activities as influential to participants' experiences and perceptions and hence, I begin by examining nature of the programme. After an initial introduction of the teacher-mentor participants, I explore how the programme structure was implemented by teacher-mentors. In the final section, I investigate teachers' experiences and perceptions of how the programme influenced their identities and practices.

4.1. Teacher-mentor participants

At the time of data collection, 19 teachers at Greenstone College were teacher-mentors of senior classes. Eight of these teacher-mentors completed the survey and seven participated in interviews. Their teaching experience varied from under five years to more than 10 years. The duration of their relationships with their mentoring groups also varied (see Table 4.1). Only one teacher was male. This distribution was in-keeping with the higher proportion of the school's female teaching staff.

Name of teacher (Pseudonym)	Teaching Subject	Length of teaching	Length of mentoring relationship
Emily	English	More than 10 years	1 year, 2 terms
Julie	English	More than 10 years	2 terms (since start of academic year), previous group- 2 years
Karmen	Languages	Less than 5 years	2 terms (since start of academic year)
Maria	Performing Arts	More than 10 years	2 years, 2 terms (since introduction of mentoring programme)
Mike	Physical Education	More than 10 years	1 year, 2 terms
Susan	Social Sciences	Less than 5 years	2 terms (since start of academic year)
Tia	Performing Arts	5- 10 years	2 years, 2 terms (since introduction of mentoring programme)

Table 4. 1 Overview of teacher-mentor interview participants

4.2. Nature of the programme

The school-wide mentoring programme at Greenstone College was in its third year at the time of this study. This section explores the intended programme outcomes and their implementation by teacher-mentors.

4.2.1. Intention of the mentoring programme

Three programme outcomes identified by the planning team consisting of the SLT and Year Level Deans were to support the identity development of students, to increase the sense of belonging to the school and to improve the academic achievement of students. It was intended that these outcomes consisted of a balance of academic and social development. The first outcome of supporting identity development involved balancing academic and social development, as this outcome incorporated aspects such as considering future choices, becoming responsible, effective citizens, developing pro-social behaviours and dealing with a variety of challenging life situations. The second outcome of increasing the sense of belonging to the school aimed to make students feel more connected to the school and its community. This outcome targeted students' personal and social development. The third outcome of improving academic achievement was to improve students' achievement and lift the school to or above the national average. The desire for a balance of academic and social development outcomes reflected the characteristics of school-based mentoring highlighted in the literature review (Ellis et al., 2007; Herrera et al., 2000; Kanchewa et al., 2021; Larose et al., 2015). The illustration in Figure 4.1 and subsequent figures based on de Vries' (2011b) mentoring continuum are not a scientific device. Placements on the continuum are based on my interpretations of teacher-mentors' experiences and perceptions of the programme. Figure 4.1 illustrates the outlined aims of the intended programme outcomes and whether the programme outcomes were to support students' academic or social/ personal development.

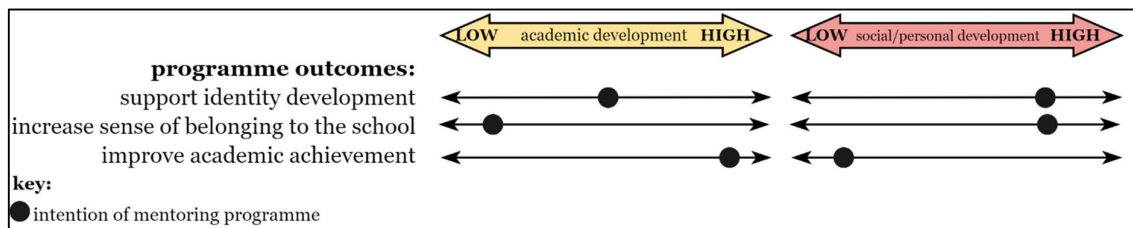


Figure 4.1 Intended mentoring programme outcomes (Author's own based on de Vries (2011b))

4.2.2. Implementation of the mentoring programme

The intended outcomes were reflected in the programme structure. Three one-hour slots per week were assigned different foci by the planning team: one of learning, one of wellbeing and one of study with an opportunity for one-on-one mentoring (Figure 4.2). This arrangement created opportunities for group and one-on-one mentoring and reflected a programme design which incorporated the programme outcomes and was sensitive to the school's own context (Evans & Ave, 2000) (Table 4.2).

Programme structure component	Supports outcome 1: Identity development	Supports outcome 2: Increase sense of belonging to the school	Supports outcome 3: Improve academic outcomes
Learning hour	✓		✓
One-on-one mentoring	✓	✓	✓
Wellbeing	✓	✓	

Table 4. 2 Link of programme components to programme outcomes

In the year prior to the introduction of mentoring, the planning team mapped out the programme to align it to specific needs of each year group (school documentation). The programme structure and activities were reviewed regularly. All mentoring groups in the school met simultaneously. Maria explained:

Mondays is a learning life skill, what you're going to need to know [in] the big wide world. Wednesday is our independent study. And then Friday is our wellbeing time. So, Mondays are fairly structured. YY [the Dean of the year level] has said [what to do], she'll give us some stuff to go over, but then it's a great opportunity just to talk about life. Wednesday is an opportunity to have one-to-one check.

Learning Hour

The learning hour was intended to be mainly academic and designed to support the outcomes of identity development and to improve academic achievement (Table 4.2). It was the most prescriptive hour of the week as Deans decided the foci of the activities and provided the resources. The activities covered a range of topics such as budgeting skills, life skills, e.g., changing tyres and life management skills, e.g., renting accommodation. In Julie's opinion in the learning hour *"there [were] some real-life skills, practical stuff"*. Emily's statement showed the limited autonomy teachers had over this hour: *"It is teaching and learning, which is focused around our goal for our Year 12. And that's set and decided by the Dean"*.

Despite the prescriptive nature of the learning hour, implementation varied widely between mentoring groups. Whilst activities and resources were provided, teacher-mentors could use their professional judgement as to what they thought would work best for their students. Emily felt that *“we’re quite trusted in the way that we do things. I don’t think all school environments are like that”*. Teacher-mentors identified four main reasons why the set activities varied in their implementation, changing the intended nature of this programme component and leading to differences between the intended and implemented programme structure.

First, some mentors found it more important to adjust the activities to suit students’ needs rather than push ahead with prescribed activities. Students felt pressured by NCEA assessments and displayed resistance to some mentoring activities. They wanted to study rather than participate in team building activities or the topics of the learning hour. Susan noticed this pressure students felt and noted:

Sometimes the students just want to study during mentoring. They don’t always see the point of the activities. Students seem to get quite stressed when there are a lot of deadlines. As a kaiārahi, you notice a big thing [assignment] due in Bio.

Second, the activities did not always appear relevant to all teachers and students so they would not attempt them. Most teacher-mentor participants expressed a liking for the structure of the programme and knowing the foci for each hour but wanted to know the rationale behind the activities. Students did not always accept the new style of activities, e.g., some teacher-mentor participants experienced resistance to role-play activities practising job interview skills. This attitude caused conflicts between teachers and students when students resisted different activities. Teacher-mentors had no immediate way to gauge if new activities would meet the approval of students and how they would react to them. Emily explained:

I’d like to have a more structured programme, to know the research behind this work. And then I like to have flexibility within that and cater to where kids are at and what’s going on for them and what’s happening at school and individual needs.

Third, some teacher-mentor participants did not always feel comfortable with the learning activities as they felt that they lacked a sense of purpose. Susan said, *“If I can’t see the point then how am I able to convince the students”*. Others, for example Tia said students questioned the rationale of activities: *“If they can’t see the purpose of what you’re doing, they’re not going to engage that much, and it just gets pointless”*.

The nature of the assessment system was the fourth reason some teacher-mentors avoided set activities. Karmen noticed her students’ attitudes:

A lot of them ask, 'Well, why am I wasting my time when it's not going to give me credits?', 'If you organize your time better, and you learn the study techniques, the credits are going to come easier, and they're going to be better credits'. They're still not really interested; they are subject credit driven. That's what the system does, the system asked them to gain credits. But it's a double-edged sword, isn't it?

Karmen's quote illustrated how the assessment system had created a culture between students whereby some only wanted to engage in activities if they were rewarded with credits. This attitude caused challenges for mentors to engage students in set activities.

One-on-one mentoring

One-on-one mentoring incorporated academic and personal development of students and intended to support all three intended outcomes of the programme (Table 4.2). Teacher-mentors were to have conversations with individual students while the other mentees of the group were studying independently. These conversations were opportunities to build relationships with individual students. Because of an average group size of 25 students, teacher-mentor participants reported that they had only one one-on-one conversation per term with some students. They discussed having used different systems, such as sticker charts, to decide which students they needed to meet with.

Topics discussed in one-on-one conversations and their depth varied depending on closeness of mentoring relationships and teachers' confidence of conversation strategies. Some teacher-mentors felt more confident to talk about academic rather than personal matters. One-on-one conversations mostly focused on academic issues with some opportunities to discuss personal issues and future plans. Teacher-mentor participants perceived that most students appreciated opportunities for one-on-one time with many students showing willingness and enthusiasm to share and talk about themselves. Emily thought that her students were *"feeling quite anxious about things, wanting to talk and begging for interviews: 'When can you ask me those questions, Miss?' That was really interesting"*. Teacher-mentors acknowledged that the conversations helped getting to know students. Karmen said *"I've been able to get a better idea of what's actually going on for students"*.

A template of suggested conversation topics and a school-wide digital document called 'Traffic Light' were developed to support teacher-mentors with one-on-one conversations. The template of suggested conversation topics provided by the Deans assumed that teacher-mentors' needed support to structure their conversations with students, although most teacher-mentor participants appeared to be confident to have in-depth mentoring conversations. Some teacher-mentor participants, such as Mike, perceived

that the provided template was “a little bit closed ended” and did not fully address the students’ needs: “They [the suggested questions] are all very ‘Yes’, ‘No’ ”. He felt one-on-one conversations needed to expose difficulties: “If you’re trying to get out of them [the students] what’s not going well for them, there’s a lot of denial”. Teacher-mentors who felt comfortable in one-on-one conversations reported that they deviated from the template. To feel comfortable teacher-mentors needed to be able to be flexible in their responses, have a range of communication skills and knowledge of support systems available to students.

Maria explained her strategy:

I ask, ‘What’s on top for you.’ And then delve. You don’t know what path it’s going to take. It’s difficult to prepare for a one-to-one check because you want to be able to meet the needs.

The school-wide digital document ‘Traffic Light’ was developed by Deans and shared with all subject teachers at Greenstone College. It was intended to keep teacher-mentors informed about their students’ progress in their subject classes. Subject teachers were expected to update the document in regular intervals and rate students’ progress in their classes using the colours of the traffic light with ‘red’ being of high concern and ‘green’ being up-to-date with academic work. The intention was that teacher-mentors had access to a quick visual tool to gauge mentees’ progress in subjects. While perceived useful by teacher-mentors, an inconsistency in its adoption limited teacher-mentors’ ability to use it effectively. Karmen explained how the ‘Traffic Light’ worked to track students’ progress:

*I can click into any class and know what each class should be doing. And then once I see a student is on red, I can say, ‘You need to be doing **this**’.*

Teacher-mentors found the document valuable and as Julie explained “helps to fuel the discussion”. Mike thought that the document was useful “because we were able to see if students were [performing] in a certain subject and we get to see why, that is the case, so certainly a handy tool”. Teacher-mentors’ ability to use the document to its full intended effect was limited. Not all subject teachers consistently updated the document. Susan felt that the ‘Traffic Light’ system “is helping them [the students] stay on track. But it is quite frustrating when different teachers don’t update”. The inconsistency in implementing the ‘Traffic Light’ affected teacher-mentors’ ability to effectively monitor students’ academic progress and effectively inform their interactions with mentees.

Wellbeing

The wellbeing hour was intended to support students’ social development and increase their sense of belonging to the school (Table 4.2). This hour gave teacher-mentors freedom to

implement activities which they were comfortable with. Wellbeing activities were expected to take place weekly, but activities were not prescribed. Teacher-mentors received an outline for the weekly wellbeing focus relating to the Five Ways of Wellbeing which is a framework of wellbeing promoted by the New Zealand Mental Health Foundation (*Five Ways to Wellbeing*, 2021) and was adopted by the school as its model of wellbeing.

The differences in implemented wellbeing activities reflected variations between teacher-mentors' understanding of mentoring and wellbeing and their propensity to design new activities. All survey responses rated having fun and a good time with their students as important (Appendix F). In their interviews, teacher-mentors referred to activities like yoga, mindfulness, positive affirmations, games, food, team building activities, personal sharing time, restorative circles and taking students outside for a walk. Karmen worked on a community project with her first group of students. Mike's approach was different again. *"I'm a big lolly fan and always carry them in my pocket, so we had quizzes"*. Decisions for wellbeing activities were often made in consultation with students and teacher-mentors considered students' needs. Emily noted that she decided on activities depending on stress levels based on *"where we are with the term, whether they need time because they're all stressed out or tired"*.

Most teacher-mentor participants viewed activities, including food and games, during the wellbeing hour as opportunities to build relationships between students and themselves. In some groups weekly shared food became a routine for groups to meet and reflect. Mike explained its importance to him: *"Just even having a relax, just chillin out with them having a chat and food I think it's a big one, sharing a meal even if it's just snacks"*. Games such as team building games, board or card games or regular quizzes were opportunities to connect with students and teacher-mentors enjoyed engaging with students in these games. They felt that these activities created a 'culture of caring' (Shann, 1999) in their groups. Emily explained the reasons for her choice of activities:

My focus for this year was trying to build them as a team a lot more and bringing them together. I'm focusing on more group activities, and they've really enjoyed them. Let's have some fun, let's enjoy this relationship.

Most teacher-mentor deemed restorative circles, a tool of Restorative Practice (RP), useful to connect with students and discuss issues of importance. Restorative circles are a semi-formal tool of RP and create opportunities to build relationships and develop positive communication skills (Ministry of Education, 2011c). Different restorative circles can be used to meet different purposes which are outlined in Kete Three of the Ministry of Education series (2011d). Five teacher-mentor participants discussed how they included the established routine of restorative circles in wellbeing activities as a relationship-building activity. As

outlined in Chapter One, the school had like many other New Zealand schools, implemented the Restorative Practice (RP) approach when working with students in the 2000’s and was taking part in the Ministry of Education’s Positive Behaviour for Learning (PB4L) initiative (school documentation). Restorative circles were already embedded in the school’s culture but had normally been used to solve conflicts between students. Julie believed that “*the restorative circle stuff is vital because it brings the group together*”. Their implementation in wellbeing hours as a discussion and relationship building tool gave the activity a new meaning.

Differences in implementation

Despite the intended outcomes of the programme to balance academic and social development, some teacher-mentors struggled to balance these outcomes with the emphasis falling more on academic rather than social development activities. As shown, the implementation of the programme components of learning hour, one-on-one mentoring and wellbeing varied widely between teacher-mentors. These differences are shown in Figure 4.2. The shaded boxes are based on my interpretations of participating teacher-mentors’ experiences and perceptions of the three components of the programme. While the implementation of the learning hour and one-on-one mentoring varied widely between teacher-mentors, the wellbeing activities differed very little from the intended focus of this hour.

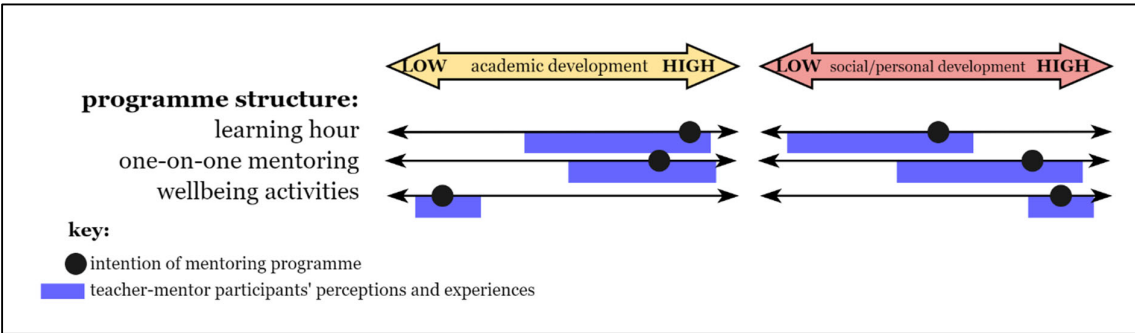


Figure 4. 2 Teacher-mentors’ perceptions of implemented programme structure (Author’s own based on de Vries (2011b))

The programme structure provided a scaffold for teacher-mentors to structure their work and activities with their groups. The context of the programme, i.e., the set programme structure, defined programme outcomes and the provided resources, influenced to some extent how teacher-mentors could enact their mentoring role, supporting Wenger’s (1999)

argument that conditions, resources and demands shaped practice. The following sections explore variations in implementation of the three programme components.

4.2.3. *Reasons for differences of implementation*

The range of teacher-mentors’ experiences and perceptions illustrated in Figure 4.2 originate for a number of reasons. In this section, I explore two of them— lack of opportunities for professional development and the influence of prior relevant experience.

Lack of opportunities for professional development

One possible reason for the range in implementation was that time and opportunities for teacher-mentors to share experiences and develop a shared understanding were limited, leading to differences in implementation of the intended programme structure. Deans met weekly for 30 minutes with teacher-mentors of their year group. These meetings were administrative in nature, concentrating on the foci of upcoming mentoring learning hours and issues with students rather than allowing time for discussions of individual approaches to mentoring. Although Julie described these meetings as having an opportunity to “exchange ideas for how to do things”, other teacher-mentor participants felt that these meetings did not meet their needs.

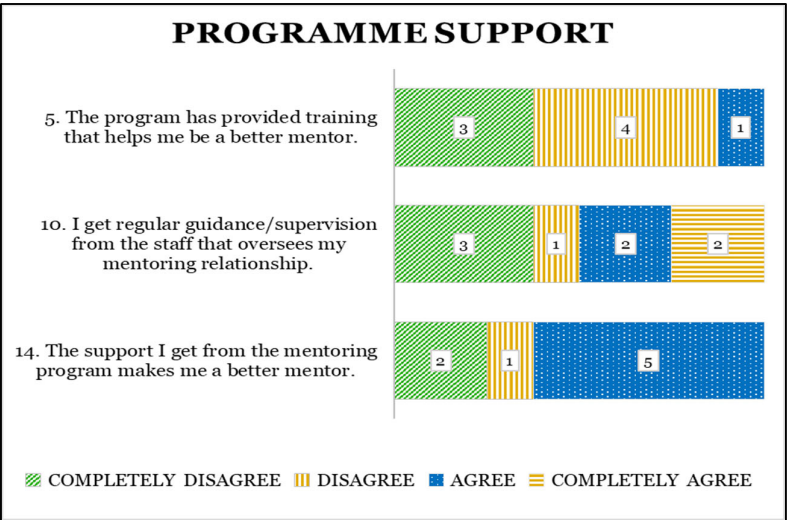


Figure 4. 3 Teacher-mentors’ survey responses ‘Programme Support’

As Figure 4.3 shows, teacher-mentors expressed some dissatisfaction with programme support. They were critical of the professional development support given to them as

teacher-mentors and most survey responses suggested that teacher-mentors did not receive regular guidance and the provided training did not equip them with the appropriate skills. Karmen suggested that *“a better understanding of what [teacher-mentors] should be doing”* was needed. Providing teachers with activities and an attitude of *“just make the best of it”* (Susan) was not helpful for teacher-mentors to develop a shared understanding of the mentoring role or for those who had no previous experience of dealing with pastoral issues.

The allocated meeting time of 30 minutes was also not deemed sufficient to develop a shared understanding of the role and a shared repertoire. Teacher-mentors required support to develop effective strategies and new ways to think about relationships with students. Teacher-mentors signalled they would like more guidance. Emily thought that *“everybody could do with support, guidance and instruction. Development is an ongoing thing”*. Teacher-mentor participants indicated that they received some professional development on skills before the programme was introduced. The training focused on effective listening, possible techniques for one-on-one mentoring and ideas for team building. However, some teacher-mentor participants, like Karmen, remained unsure of the expectations: *“I don’t really know what I’m doing. There’s not really been a lot of guidance around this”*.

Developing a shared understanding of the teacher-mentor role required them to interact with colleagues outside their subject area which is not common practice in secondary schools. Teachers in secondary schools usually connect within, rather than across, subject areas and teachers form their identity around their subjects. Their own subject areas were influential in their understanding of the teacher-mentor role and in their available repertoire of strategies to fulfil the teacher-mentor role. Teacher-mentors of a given year level were from different subject areas and so had to establish new connections first before frequent sharing of experiences and activities could take place. Therefore, opportunities for establishing new connections and sharing experiences needed to be created to support the development of a shared understanding. Talbert (1993) argued that frequent sharing of strategies could empower teachers to try out new approaches and could create a supportive learning environment for adults and students.

Teacher-mentors had no previous opportunities to observe an enacted mentoring role and the lack of allocated meeting time did not provide sufficient opportunity to develop the necessary shared understanding and shared identity. The mentoring role was an evolving one at Greenstone College, allowing variety in implementation and understanding. The teacher-mentor participants signalled the need for more professional learning opportunities rather than working on the assumption that mentoring skills would grow naturally with experience. Susan explained that over time *“you get more used to mentoring, the skills naturally grow”*. It has been argued that support given to teachers should not assume that they would discover new practices or change by being presented with new strategies, but

teachers needed to be engaged actively as learners themselves to develop and improve (Peterson et al., 1997). Other research has shown that ongoing support for mentors to develop appropriate skills was vital to develop their self-efficacy for this role and to grow their understanding of mentees (Herrera et al., 2000; Larose & Duchesne, 2020; McArthur et al., 2017).

Influence of prior relevant experience in enacting the mentoring role

A second possible reason for the differences in programme implementation was the influence of previous relevant professional experience on teacher-mentors enacting the mentoring role. Less experienced teachers appeared to struggle with this role more than more experienced ones. Teacher-mentor participants' previous relevant professional experience, their own subject teaching techniques and prior experiences of mentoring influenced their enactment of the mentoring role and their confidence in establishing personal relationships with students. Five of teacher-mentor interviewees, Mike, Julie, Tia, Maria, Emily, were mostly comfortable with the mentoring role and discussed more positive experiences and perceptions. These participants had previous experiences as Deans or Heads of Department and in addition to being subject teachers had developed additional identities. Mike and Julie had prior experience as Deans. Mike likened the experiences as teacher-mentor to this responsibility as he was able to give personal support to students. He remembered that *"I've definitely had some students come to me in desperate times, and I've had my door open for them"*.

Teacher-mentors whose curriculum area had required them to develop pedagogical strategies which enabled them to engage relationally with students found the transition to being a kaiārahi easier and were more confident in this role. Tia felt taking on the mentor role did not require her to adapt due to the nature of her teaching subject:

[in my subject] you really have to know your students' lives anyway, because you're asking them to be quite vulnerable quite frequently. I feel like for a lot of my kids I always know a bit of the bigger picture. And so, for some I was a support anyway.

The same applied for Mike who thought *"we're lucky as PE teachers that we have the skill set"*. It is also likely that the school's lengthy involvement in Restorative Practices contributed to more experienced teachers being more confident with restorative and relational activities such as the restorative circles. These teachers would have had more opportunities to undergo extensive restorative training over a number of years growing their relational strategies, thus allowing them to adapt to the relational teacher-mentor role more easily than less experienced teachers.

Previous own experience of being a mentee was also helpful in relating to the role of mentors and mentees. Two of the teacher-mentor participants, Maria and Mike, had experiences of formal mentoring during their last year of high school. Their experiences were influential in completing their secondary education and career decisions. Maria recounted her own experience:

It was a mentor programme where you chose a teacher and would meet with that teacher for, I think half an hour a fortnight and just talk how everything was going. And it was that, that actually got me through.

In contrast, teachers without relevant prior professional experience lacked confidence in the role, lacked in-depth knowledge of dealing with pastoral issues and of possible support agencies inside and outside the school. Teacher-mentors without the experience were insecure, which influenced their self-efficacy and abilities to advise mentees. Two teacher-interviewees, Karmen and Susan, had the least teaching experience and no previous relevant experiences and were at times unsure how to enact the role as mentors. Karmen discussed the demands of teacher-mentors:

There's such a complete range of what's going on for them [the students], and they're all going through a really turbulent time in their lives, and they're all feeling all these really intense emotions, and I'm going 'Okay this is how we deal with this emotion and that emotion' when I really don't know.

Teacher-mentors without relevant subject strategies lacked confidence and required more support to become confident with mentoring activities. Karmen felt that her subject did not prepare her well for the mentoring role. She felt that different subject teachers had better dispositions. She thought that “*PE teachers tend to find it [team building activities] a lot easier because they do a lot of [them] anyway*”. Teachers, like Karmen and Susan, whose mentoring strategies were inconsistent with their existing teaching practices required more time and commitment to develop new skills (Timperley, 2007). For teachers like them, who had no relevant prior experiences, workload and time issues were prevalent points of discussion in their interviews.

The relationship of confidence and self-efficacy evident here has been discussed in detail in the process-oriented model of mentoring (Larose et al., 2020; Parra et al., 2002) and in meta-analysis of mentoring research (DuBois et al., 2011; Raposa et al., 2019) which noted that a lack of confidence and self-efficacy impacted the outcomes for mentees of these mentors. For teacher-mentors without prior relevant knowledge, like Karmen and Susan, the experience of becoming teacher-mentors can be likened to being trainee teachers. They needed to consider all their actions to fulfil their role of teacher-mentor which could have been stressful and they required more support (Chaplain, 2008). The relevance of previous

experience has previously been stressed as it would allow teachers to adjust to new responsibilities with more ease (Clutterbuck, 2004; Priestley et al., 2012). Research of group mentoring has shown that mentees in mentoring groups who had mentors with more established skills sets reported higher satisfaction and more positive social interactions (Deutsch et al., 2013). Less experienced mentors need to be provided with adequate training and support to ensure equal outcomes for all mentees. Research has shown that when a reconstruction of professional identities is required, teachers relied heavily on their prior work experiences where they could draw on their own culturally and historically situated experiences and understanding (Buchanan, 2015).

Teacher-mentors experienced the role as being different to a subject teacher leading to differences in understanding the mentoring role and differences in mentoring styles with some prioritising academic activities and development. They enacted their mentoring role differently “through choices and actions they take within the opportunities and constraints of history and social circumstance” (Elder et al., 2003, p. 11). Individual expansions of the new mentoring identity depended on how teachers placed themselves in the field of mentoring, what they deemed important and where they chose to direct their energies.

4.3. Expansion of the traditional teaching role

The school’s choice of the term ‘kaiārahi’ (Te Reo Māori: guide) to label the mentoring role indicated a difference of expectation of the role compared to a subject teaching role. Teacher-mentor participants were in consensus as to how the mentoring role should be defined. Susan defined the teacher-mentor role as “*someone who gives guidance to different groups of students and all aspects of their lives, academic, sometimes personal, sometimes with different relationships*”.

4.3.1. Expansion of purpose

While participating teacher-mentors agreed on the definition of the mentoring role, a perceived lack of a shared understanding among all teacher-mentors of the school led to differences in understanding of its purpose which were evident in survey responses (Appendix F for all responses, excerpt shown in Figure 4.4). The programme organisation intended to balance academic and social development outcomes, but teacher-mentors’ responses in the survey suggested that they valued the social and personal development objectives more. As shown in Figure 4.4 the ‘outlook purpose’ ranked highest and focused on supporting students’ development beyond school, but the desire for character development was also ranked as very important.

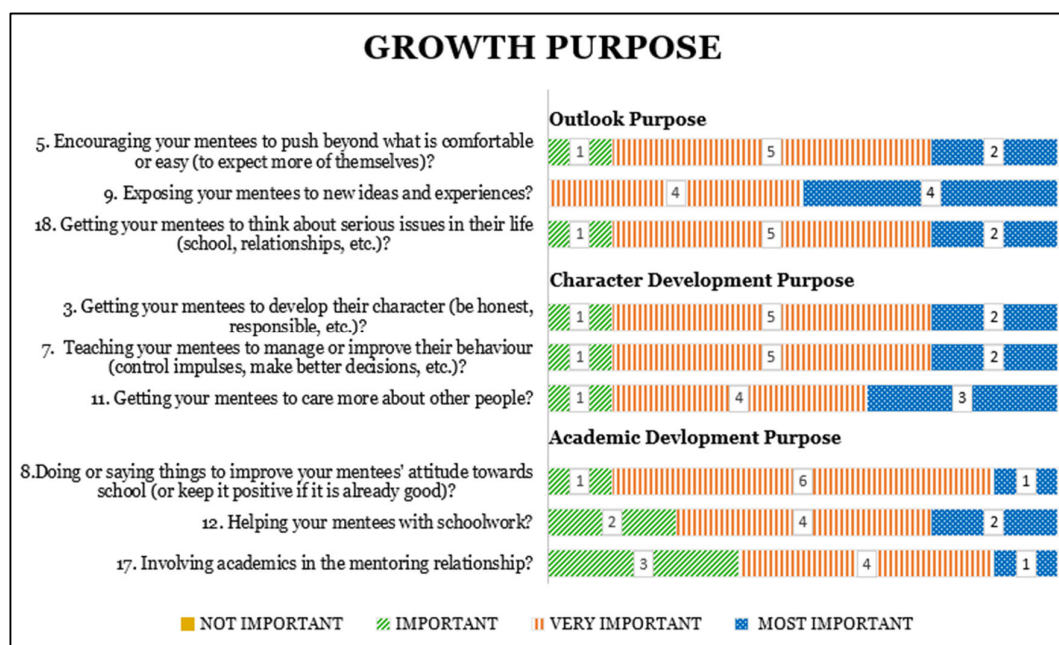


Figure 4. 4 Teacher-mentors' survey responses 'Growth Purpose'

The difference in understanding the role was evident in responses to the instruction “List your three most important foci as mentor” of the teacher-mentors’ survey (Table 4.3). Each teacher-mentor defined their mentoring purpose differently. The examples in Table 4.3 show a variety of foci which could have influenced how teacher-mentors implemented the intended programme structure based on their subjective understanding of the role.

Themes in responses to survey statement “List your three most important foci as mentor”	Example responses from survey	Supports programme outcome: 1. identity development 2. belonging to the school 3. improve academic outcome
Relationships with students	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Connect with them, show them that I care about them as people, being open, honest and approachable 	1. identity development 2. belonging to the school
Improve students' wellbeing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Looking after their total wellbeing, Help them cope 	1. Identity development 3. improve academic outcomes
Character development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Build confidence, Get them out of their comfort zone 	1. identity development
Look after academic progress	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Help them track their progress, Set academic goals 	3. improve academic outcomes
Prepare for after school like/ life skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Get them prepared for life after school, Lifelong learning 	1. Identity development 3. improve academic outcomes

Table 4. 3 Teacher-mentors' responses to "List your three most important foci as mentor"

The lack of a shared understanding or shared foci was one reason which led to an inconsistent implementation. Maria pointed out that consistency was “*difficult across the board and not all have been on board*”. Inconsistency was noticed mainly around relationship building which Julie identified as the greatest challenge. She explained:

There are just some teachers who aren't good at it [relationship building]. They just don't see it, they see the job is imparting knowledge, open the lid up, pour the knowledge in and close it, then you're done.

In contrast to subject teachers who passed on knowledge, which was widely accepted and stipulated in a curriculum, but they made choices about modes of presentation (Engström & Carlhed, 2014), teacher-mentors needed to make decisions based on promoting their mentees' social development and wellbeing while also respecting the expectations of the programme and the school as an institution. These aspects were at times in tension as Mike explained that he “*would have done less with the fun stuff. Not because I don't think that's important, but the kids are there to learn and to gain qualifications*”. The conflict reflected in Mike's discussion indicated that he understood his main role to be to ensure that students were successful in their education. This opinion showed the influence of his teacher identity and its academic purpose. Other teacher-mentor participants showed that social development was more important to them. Julie understood her mentoring role to be “*more of a social aspect and a pastoral aspect as opposed to just the academic aspect or the teaching and learning relationship*”. Julie's response showed that she clearly differentiated between her identity as subject teacher and teacher-mentor by contrasting the two. Susan explained:

I think my main role is actually to develop better citizens, conscious citizens to think about their choices because I have some students in my group that just aren't very academic but are really kind and caring people. I want them to know that those skills are valued as well.

The obligation to enforce school rules for the sake of mentoring relationships illustrated the conflict between the teacher-mentor role and the expansion of their professional identity required with the introduction of the mentoring role. Some teacher-mentors grappled with moral dilemmas, conflicts of identity and loyalty. Interviews highlighted moral conflicts students posed at times on how to deal with unacceptable rule-breaking behaviour without compromising their mentoring relationships and their obligation as teachers to uphold the school rules and values. Tia described her experience:

They turned up with their nose studs, and it felt like they were trying to make me choose between my relationship with them and enforcing the school rules. I found that really difficult.

Figure 4.5 illustrates the different purposes of the teacher-mentor and subject teacher roles and how I interpreted teacher-mentor participants appeared to perceive these roles. While individual understanding of each role varied, i.e., some teacher-mentor participants perceived the teacher mentor role to be more academic than intended, participants' perceptions were consistent in the opposing purposes of the two roles, i.e., the extent of the social/ personal development purpose of the mentoring and the subject teacher roles. These differences in purpose caused conflicts and insecurities for teachers. Teacher-mentor participants were conflicted between the mainly academic purpose of being subject teachers — conveying subject knowledge — and the social development pastoral role of being teacher-mentors which focused on a holistic outcome for students' academic and social development.

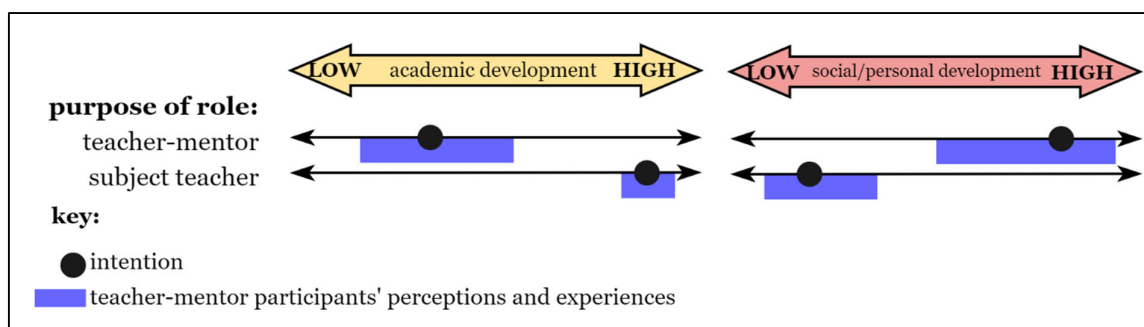


Figure 4. 5 Teacher-mentors' perceptions of differences in purpose of roles (Author's own based on de Vries (2011b))

4.3.2. Expansion of relationships

Becoming a kaiārahi required teacher-mentors to form closer developmental relationships with students than they normally would in subject teaching to achieve the intended outcomes of mentoring. Therefore, teacher-mentors needed to adopt the developmental rather than the prescriptive/ instrumental mentoring style. I discussed these different mentoring styles in Section 2.5.1. Through these relationships teacher-mentors developed a better understanding of students' backgrounds, issues and opinions. Teacher-mentors had to be prepared to move out of their comfort zone, to share personal information, to provide adult support and to take a genuine personal interest in their students to enable the development of developmental relationships.

One of the ways teachers worked to move out of comfort zones was to display an 'open vulnerability' which created trust, emotional understanding and a 'culture of caring' in mentoring relationships. Teacher-mentor participants understood the importance and felt by opening up they could show that they were human and vulnerable in their students' eyes.

Mike noted:

It's being open and honest and vulnerable, and having that door open. But also, you're being realistic, and you've got to find out what's making these kids tick. So many of our kids got issues in their lives, but you just have to give examples from your own life.

Emily remarked that by being open "you tell your own stories. It's being human". Shared experiences helped students to have real life examples when discussing future plans and ambitions. Maria felt that it was important for mentees to know that their teacher-mentor was "giving no falsities and demonstrating that you care. They are important to you and to the world". These examples reflected strategies identified in the literature that increased mentors' authenticity (Lasky, 2005; Shann, 1999; Spencer, 2006).

Learning about students' personal backgrounds created a sense of obligation in teacher-mentors that they needed to offer personal support to their students. Karmen realised that some of her students did not have much support at home and as a teacher-mentor she could make a difference:

I think it's always nice to have someone who believes in you. A lot of our kids don't have that. It's nice to give them a point of reference, that would be a huge impact for some of our kids who come from really difficult backgrounds.

At times dealing with students' issues were beyond teachers' comfort zones, but they felt compelled to deal with them. Fulfilling the mentoring role needed courage as Susan explained:

Someone who can build really good relationships with students, that's patient and can listen, not scared of tackling big issues. Sometimes it's easier to ignore things because it makes your life easier as a kaiārahi, but then you're doing a disservice to the students.

By creating a 'culture of caring' through sharing personal information and emotional involvement, teacher-mentors became students' support persons beyond mentoring hours. They developed a 'commitment to care' for their students. Some teacher-mentor participants identified as parents-at-school. Their personal investments in relationships with their students was reflected in their examples. Julie explained:

They see me as a mother at school, and I play that role for them, so they'll come to me for a huge range of reasons to ask advice or questions. It's not just their academics and it's not just the social stuff, there is a really good balance.

Susan also identified with the parent role based on how students related to her. She explained:

They'd say that maybe I'm strict probably sometimes boring sometimes motherly. Actually, I get that quite a lot. Last year, a big group of boys started calling me 'Mother [using her surname]'.

Some teacher-mentors took on the role of advocate for their students which placed them in the role of mediator between their mentees and subject teachers. Being advocate and mediator potentially created tensions between them and their colleague as their behaviour could be perceived as not enforcing school rules. Susan reflected:

Sometimes I tactfully ignore those things and try to focus on his [the students'] achievement. They have a whole lot of issues [but] it's hard when I receive five complaints about how the student had behaved in other classes. Sometimes it's quite tricky.

Teacher-mentors perceived other teachers' critiques of their mentees as reflections of their effectiveness as teacher-mentors. Susan sensed that sometimes "it's really hard with other subject teachers complaining to you, like that's a reflection on you".

Mentoring relationships expanded beyond allocated mentoring times. All teacher-mentor participants discussed examples where they dealt with students' personal issues during break times or sometimes while they were teaching showing their sense of obligation and 'culture of caring'. Maria recalled an interaction when a student requested a meeting outside mentoring hours:

'Miss, can I come see you at break time?', 'Of course, you can.' She [later] said, 'I thought we needed to hang, so, I could tell you about Geo. I didn't want to say it in front of the class'.

Personal commitment heightened teachers' investment in their mentoring role (Hargreaves, 1997) and reflected the expansion of the mentoring role beyond traditional teaching roles which was necessary to make the youth feel supported (Jucovy, 2001; Sipe, 1998) and achieve the intended personal and social development outcomes of the programme.

Teacher-mentors became students' trusted adults who students felt they could confide in. Maria remembered one of her students:

She's opened up completely. I'll say to her, 'Hey, how's home?' She'll go: 'Oh, actually quite good'. Sweet. But other times she'll come to me, tears. That trust is there. The relationship is there.

Emily remembered one student with a difficult home life who struggled to recognise the importance of education. She established a close mentoring relationship with the student and felt that this connection allowed her to show him that school could be a source of support. She felt she was in a position to “*offer him that relationship, ‘we like you’*”. Teacher-mentors’ support also became vital for students who wanted to leave school and needed advice on their next steps like some of Tia’s students who “*didn’t quit school without a plan*”. In some circumstances teacher-mentor participants perceived that they were not just a parent-at-school but took the role of a guidance counsellor reflecting the ‘culture of sharing’. Julie gave one example:

She saw in me somebody that she could confide in around what was happening for her at home and that actually gave her an outlet, somebody to talk to. She wasn't interested in talking to a guidance counsellor.

Taking a genuine interest in students was essential for mentoring relationships to create a ‘culture of caring’ and to make a difference for students. Genuine interest allowed mentors to take a holistic view of mentees. Teacher-mentors took interest in other areas of the school that some had not taken an interest in previously. Mike explained how he developed an interest in the school production for the first time in his teaching career because of one of his mentees. In Maria’s view taking an interest was about “*trying to find common interests, or you are starting right from basics and just simply taking an interest*”. Teacher-mentor participants realised taking an interest in a new area meant a lot to their students as they showed they were “*approachable and that they know that you care for them, and you have their best interests at heart*” (Julie). By taking an interest, they were able to establish trust in the relationship with students allowing students to be open about their challenges.

Close trusting relationships allowed teacher-mentors to make a difference for their students. Teacher-mentors were able to instil self-belief in students, helped them become more confident and offered realistic perspectives for their future lives. All teacher-mentor participants thought that students they had developed good relationships with were more successful in school. Tia thought that “*a lot of them have done better. The journey through high school has been smoother than if they didn't have a kaiārahi at all*”. By taking on the mentoring role, teacher-mentors were able to support students to get out of their comfort zone and helped them make a difference for themselves. Mike explained:

Take them on the learning journey. Give them the options and the knowledge to be able to make the right decisions for themselves regarding where they should go and where they need to be.

‘Open vulnerability’ and a ‘culture of caring’ created close personal mentoring relationships which expanded traditional teaching relationships and positively influenced students’ academic and personal development. Most teacher-mentor participants were comfortable with this change in relationships and indicated in the survey as shown in Figure 4.6 that they felt close and comfortable with their relationships.

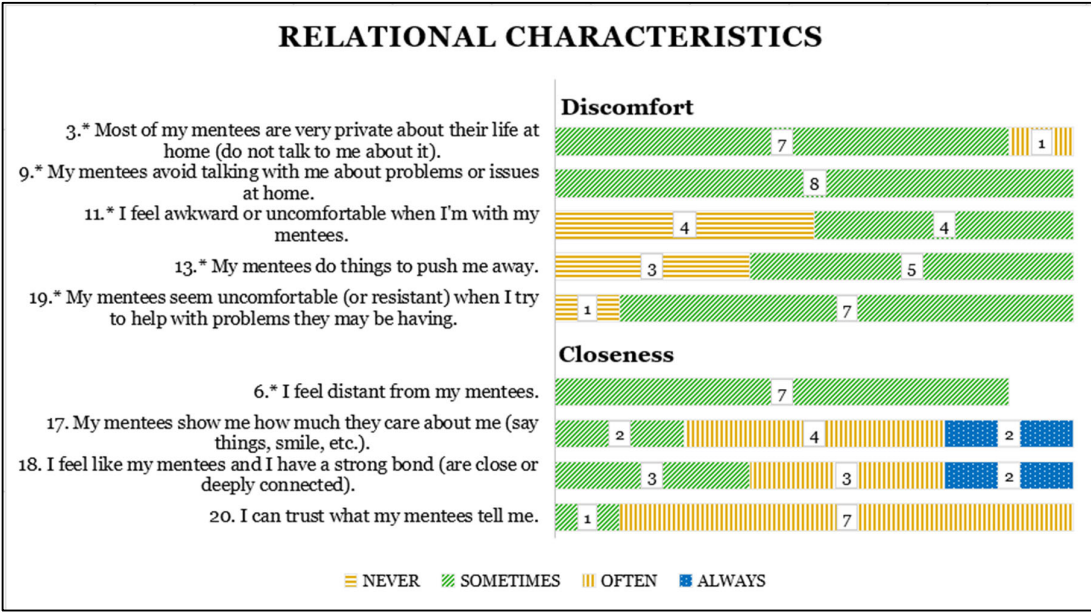


Figure 4. 6 Teacher-mentors' survey responses 'Relational Characteristics'

Julie explained that “the mentoring has shifted that relationship, so they [see] me from a different perspective as the guide and mentor”. Teacher-mentor participants noticed that students actively sought their mentors’ advice and guidance. Karmen noted that “a lot of those kids come to me and talk to me about their personal issues”. While some students may have been private about some of their issues, Susan thought that the relationships were close enough that “the students want to find ways to be honest with me”. Teacher-mentor participants enjoyed the close personal relationships without academic pressure. Maria enjoyed the connections and thought “it’s really cool to have the opportunity to build those in-depth relationships with the students that aren’t based around academic capabilities”.

The length of relationships and students’ gender were influential in the perceived depth of relationships. Julie felt that

there was trust that was built over two years, and the young people also realised that I wasn’t going anywhere. So that I was a solid stable influence in their lives.

The influence of the length of the relationship has been well documented (Pryce, 2012; Spencer, 2006; Spencer et al., 2004). Similar to Bruce and Bridgeland (2014), I noted in this

study that the length of time spent together influenced understandings of trust with patterns emerging between girls and boys. Maria explained that

the boys that I've had for a long time, we've got the relationship. They enjoy that. A couple of the new boys still haven't quite got down to fully breaking down the barriers.

Teacher-mentor participants found that girls established relationships faster and were more prepared to talk about themselves. In Emily's experience "*I don't get that [the resistance to talk] so much from the girls*". Boys were not averse to talking about themselves with their mentors, but they took longer to establish relationships, reflecting Way's (2011) observation of 'boy code' which made boys emotionally stoic and independent. Teacher-mentors' experiences mirrored Jackson-Dwyer's (2014) work who argued that New Zealand boys were more reluctant to seek help with personal issues.

Teacher-mentor participants noticed that not all teacher-mentors recognised the need for the different nature of relationships and preferred traditional teaching relationships. They did not appear to understand the mentoring role fully as Julie explained that some of her colleagues "*don't see the benefits. They say that it's busy work and nonsense and it's not going to make any difference*". Some teacher-mentor participants expressed concern that not every teacher-mentor at Greenstone College felt comfortable with the expectation to establish relationships focusing on personal and social rather than academic aspects. Maria explained:

in mentoring, you have to build the relationship through interests and goals that's not academic and I think for some teachers that could be quite confronting, challenging. I love getting to know my students, but some teachers might not feel the same.

Being a teacher-mentor, required different relationships with students than in a subject teaching role. This difference between the subject teaching and the mentoring role was highlighted in Emily's statement: "*[in mentoring] you're listening to them and you're on their side*". Mike's opinion reflected this perception of the mentoring role:

The mentor role is broader [and] more open. I feel as though when you're subject teacher at times, you're going in to bat for your curriculum area and ensuring the students are getting their work done. Whereas as a kaiārahi, you're going to bat for them and you're trying to do what's best for them.

Based on my interpretations of teacher-mentor participants' experiences and perceptions, Figure 4.7 illustrates the difference between the two roles which teachers were expected to fulfil. The conflict teacher-mentor participants perceived in the purpose of the two roles (Section 4.3.1) was also present in the conflict of the different nature of relationships. The

teacher-mentor role focused on students' social and personal development as well as their all-round rather than subject specific academic progress. Developmental mentoring relationships which were closer personal relationships required a change in the nature of student-teacher relationships but presented tensions and conflicts for teacher-mentors especially in defining their purpose and professional identity.

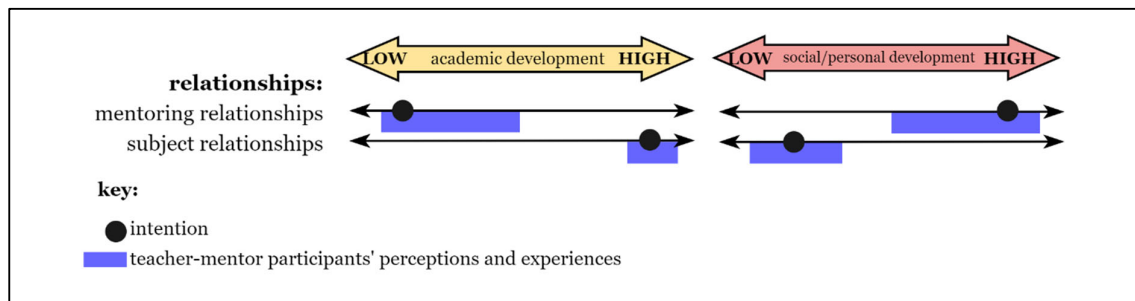


Figure 4.7 Teacher-mentors' perceptions of differences in relationships (Author's own based on de Vries (2011b))

4.3.3. Expansion of practices

The introduction of the mentoring role meant that teacher-mentors' role and responsibilities were expanded from the previous administrative responsibility of a tutor teacher. This previous role was held by teachers in the school and most teacher-mentors would have held this role prior to the introduction of mentoring. The administrative tutor teacher role had no pastoral responsibilities attached. The introduced teacher-mentor role added pastoral as well as academic responsibilities to meet the academic and social/ personal development purpose.

Having to deal with pastoral issues of students in their groups as teacher-mentor, made some teacher-mentor participants feel insecure and guilty of not being good enough or doing enough for their students. Survey responses (Figure 4.8) suggested that teacher-mentors felt prepared to deal with pastoral issues and that these issues were not too challenging (question 8 and 17). However, the interviews revealed a more complex dimension. Teacher-mentors wanted to fulfil their role well, but some teacher-mentor participants expressed doubt about whether their advice was always sufficient and whether they had the right skills to deal with more complex needs. Seven of eight responses indicated in the survey that they were unsure whether their mentees were getting enough out of the mentoring relationship (Appendix F). Karmen noted: *"I don't know that I have my own issues under control enough to be a proper support to them"*. Emily reflected why the expansion of pastoral responsibilities might have been challenging for some teacher-

mentors: “I think we’re quite underprepared as teachers, when students have problems directing them into the right places, without making it worse”.

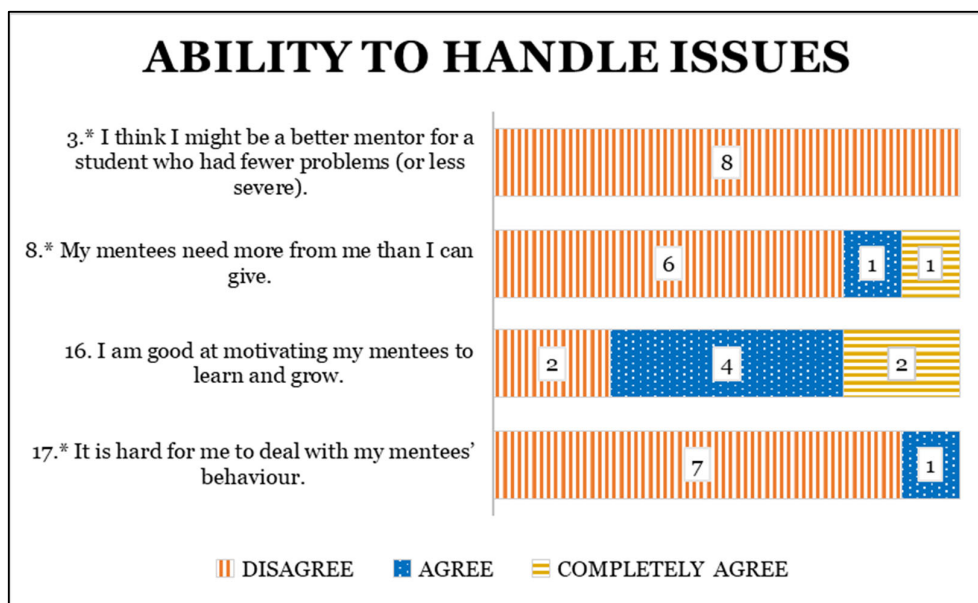


Figure 4. 8 Teacher-mentors' survey responses 'Ability to Handle Issues'

Teacher-mentors had to adjust to new ways of working with students in mentoring while also continuing with subject teaching strategies benefiting academic progress in subjects. As shown in Section 4.2.2, teacher-mentors implemented new practices, e.g., wellbeing activities or life management skills tasks with different intended outcomes, e.g., to meet the intended outcomes to support students' identity development, they would not normally employ in subject teaching. Tia explained:

[in mentoring] it really depends on what the kids turn up with. As a subject teacher, you pretty much go in knowing what you need to do and where you're meant to be at and then the kids do the work.

The mentoring responsibility added to teachers' workload as all teacher-mentors needed to introduce new activities when working with their mentor groups. Teachers prepared activities which did not directly benefit academic progress of students, yet it was students' academic pass rates in their subjects which teachers were held accountable for.

The introduction of mentoring placed new expectations on teacher-mentors. The implementation of the new practice of mentoring required teacher-mentors to adjust their practices. Their professional responsibilities required an adjustment of their professional identities (Buchanan, 2015). Depending on their previous experiences, teacher-mentors needed to either adjust existing practices or adopt entirely new practices, e.g., different

activities with mentoring groups, to interpret the new demands and to adapt to the new professional context (Buchanan, 2015). Similar to findings by Buchanan (2015), Kayi-Aydar (2015) and Toom et al. (2015), the evidence presented in this study showed that changing educational policy, in this case the introduction of mentoring and teachers becoming teacher-mentors, involved an expansion of the definition, identity and practices of their previous identity. In this study the traditional teacher role needed to adjust because of the different nature of the purpose, relationships and activities which teacher-mentors engaged in.

4.4. Chapter Conclusion

Focussing on the themes emerging from teacher-mentor participants in this chapter, I argued that taking on the teacher-mentor role involved an expansion of the traditional teacher role. This expansion involved a change in purpose compared to the teaching role, required more personal relationships with students and changes in practice. Individually the teacher-mentor participants understood what the expansion of the role required. Collectively, the absence of a shared understanding impacted the implementation of the mentoring programme. It led to differences and inconsistencies in implementing the identified programme outcomes. Inconsistencies highlighted the need for sufficient opportunities for teachers to develop and strengthen a shared understanding of the mentoring role. Increased support could have helped teacher-mentors in strengthening their mentor identities, improved their mentoring skills and addressed influential differences caused by the absence of relevant professional experiences. I will complement the teacher-mentor perspectives with those of students in the following chapter.

Chapter 5: Students' experiences and perceptions

This chapter continues the discussion of participants' experiences and perceptions of mentoring at Greenstone College and focuses on students' experiences and perceptions. This chapter draws mainly on qualitative data gathered from students' interviews, their World Café discussions and qualitative sections of the Youth Mentoring Survey (YMS) to illustrate distinct points of view. I examine selective quantitative data gathered as part of the study which provided an initial overview of students' perceptions (n=41). The thematic analysis of the qualitative data presented a more detailed picture of students' experiences and perceptions of mentoring. The detailed results of the YMS are presented in Appendix G. I also use the template of mentoring continua based on de Vries (2011b) to illustrate students' experiences and perceptions of different facets of their mentoring experience.

I begin this chapter with an introduction of the student participants and continue with an examination of students' experiences and perceptions of the mentoring activities they participated in. In the following section, I examine how students experienced and perceived their mentoring relationships with their teacher-mentors. The chapter concludes with an analysis of student participants' perceptions of the influence of mentoring on their learning and development.

5.1. Student participants

The student participants were in Year 13 (17 and 18-year-olds), their final year of secondary school, when the data collection took place. They were involved in mentoring since its launch three years prior. At the point of data collection, the year group consisted of 120 students. 41 students participated in the survey. Table 5.1 outlines participants' ethnicities and lengths of mentoring relationships. The ratio of their ethnicities represented in the survey broadly mirrored that of the school's whole student population. The number of student participants was a small sample which did not produce data that could be assessed as statistically significant but allowed some cross-analysis and provided insight into students' experiences of mentoring.

	Ethnicities				Gender		Length of mentoring relationship		
	Pākehā/ NZ European	Māori	Pasifika	Other	Female	Male	2 years, 2 terms (since launch of programme)	1 year, 2 terms	2 terms (since the start of academic year)
	26	4	2	9	26	15	17	7	17
Total				41		41			41

Table 5. 1 Overview of student survey participants

Details of recruitment and data collection of the World Café and interviews were outlined in Section 3.2.4 and 3.2.5. Table 5.2 provides an overview of information about the student interview participants relevant for discussions in this chapter relating to mentoring relationships and the influence of mentor change on experiences and perceptions of mentoring.

Name of Student (Pseudonym)	Length of time with Mentor 1	Length of time with Mentor 2	If mentor 2, reason for change
Adelina	1 year	1 year, 2 terms	Teacher left
Brayden	2 years, 2 terms		
Jasmine	2 years	2 terms	Groups merged
Hamish	2 years	2 terms	Taking on student leadership role
Kyla	2 years, 2 terms		
Mona	2 years	2 terms	Groups merged
Ria	2 years	2 terms	Groups merged

Table 5.2 Overview of student interview participants

5.2. Students' perceptions of the mentoring programme

I discussed in Chapter Four that the planned programme at Greenstone College intended to balance academic and social development through a structured programme which teacher-mentors were expected to implement. The analysis of students' data revealed that students perceived an imbalance between academic and social development activities and also an inconsistency of implementation of mentoring between mentoring groups.

5.2.1. Consistency of activities

In keeping with teacher-mentors' experiences and perceptions, despite the intended outcomes to balance academic and social development through the implemented programme structure, students experienced an emphasis on academic activities. Students were aware of the three-way organisation of the allocated time (outlined in Chapter Four), and it was frequently discussed by them. Jess explained: *"We had learning time on a Monday. We had a study about what we wanted to do. Friday, we had wellness time where we played Mafia"*. Based on the three-way split, students participated in a range of activities which focused on their academic and social development which they experienced as fun, sharing or growth activities. Based on the categories of the survey, students felt they took part in more growth activities than fun or sharing activities (excerpt answers Figure 5.1, all answers in Appendix G).

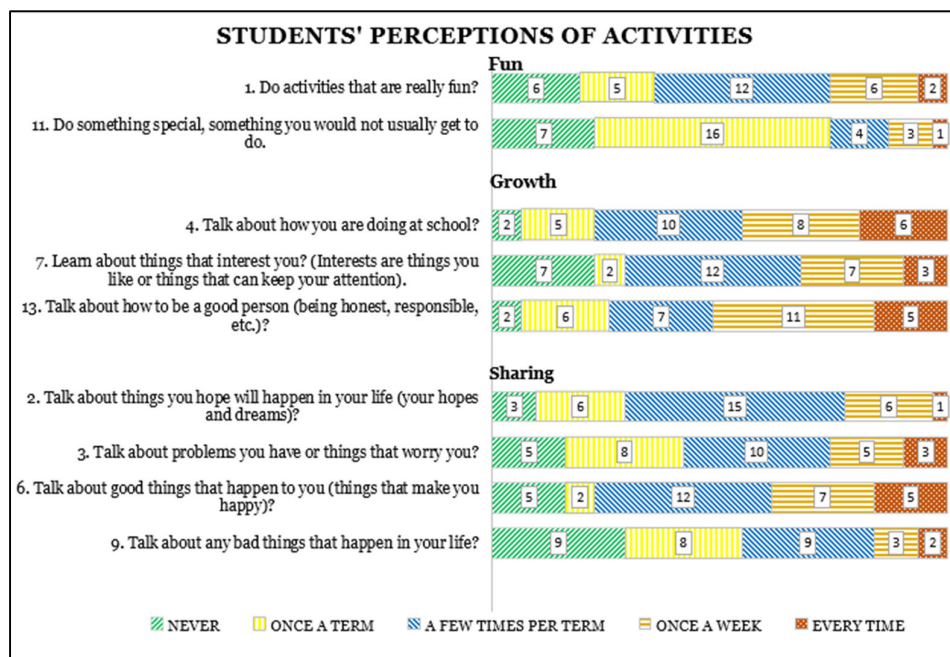


Figure 5.1 Students' survey responses 'Perceptions of activities'

Fun activities were opportunities for students in mentoring groups to build closer relationships with each other but usually took place during the allocated wellbeing hours rather than spontaneously. Kyla clarified when these activities took place: *"We have a fun mentoring hour where we do team building activities so that the class is more energetic and more involved with each other"*. Although students' survey responses indicated that fun activities took place less frequently than sharing or growth activities (Figure 5.1), they valued them highly. Students discussed several fun activities like quizzes, sports, board games, team building games, restorative circle time or spending time as a group. These activities allowed them *"to interact in a friendly manner"* (survey response). As much as possible mentor groups were trying to involve every student in the group:

We do bonding sessions, games that get the class active and working together in ways that get people out of their comfort zone. But we make sure that they're comfortable with what they're doing. We play games like foot touch like tag, but we touch each other's feet and get the class active and more involved with each other.
(WC Group A)

Students' discussions of fun and sharing activities in the World Café and interviews were always closely linked to perceptions of relaxation and bonding. Students acknowledged the benefits of wellbeing activities for their mental health in many discussions. One WC participant thought that *"the mentoring hour takes care of your mental health. It is really important, especially for the developing brain"* (WC Group B). Another WC participant felt

that “*it’s time out for our mental health. We’d just chill out*” (WC Group A). Students were aware why these activities were particularly important for them:

I think it's really good because in New Zealand we have a really high rate of depression and one of the highest suicide rates. You do get stressed out a lot in school especially with all the extra responsibilities. (WC Group C)

Students discussed activities involving food as special fun occasions and relaxing activities such as Ria’s group who she discussed would on Fridays “*either watch a movie with the class or would have shared lunch or we’d just talk about how our week was*”. The importance students assigned to these activities was consistent with data of prior studies which noted the importance of fun activities to create a close bond and trust in mentoring relationships (Keller, 2005; Liang et al., 2008; Morrow & Styles, 1995; Spencer, 2006) whereby “hanging out and talking” were identified as the most common free and enjoyable mentoring activity (Morrow & Styles, 1995).

Students appreciated opportunities to talk about various aspects which were important to them such as their future, worries, their family, their hopes and dreams for the future with their teacher-mentors and their peers. They appeared to have more opportunities to share positive rather than negative details (Figure 5.1). Opportunities for sharing were seen as important occasions because “*it’s really good to see how everyone’s going. That’s probably the best class*” (WC Group B). Restorative circles were often used by teacher-mentors for sharing and frequently discussed in the World Café and interviews. Students and teacher-mentors, as shown in Chapter Four, valued this type of activity used for various discussions as this student outlined:

We sometimes sit in a circle and the teacher, or someone will choose a topic like ‘What did you do in your weekend?’ Or ‘What is your goal for this year’, then we say what our thing is. (WC Group B)

Students witnessed the impact which restorative circles had on their peers’ engagement in sharing as one survey response shows:

Often it is during group activity games or circle time where we get to know the class. At first many people are hesitant, but then after a while everyone gets into it and begins to have fun.

These examples show how the presence of peers during group mentoring was beneficial to mentees. Students developed relationships with their teacher-mentors but also their peers, allowing for opportunities to develop their social interaction skills.

Students experienced an emphasis on activities which focused on academic growth. This emphasis was evident in the survey responses (Figure 5.1) which indicated that students frequently talked about their progress at school. This emphasis was also reflected in students’ survey responses about one-on-one conversations (Table 5.3), interviews and WC

discussions. Many student participants talked at length about interactions with their teacher-mentors where they discussed schoolwork, credits, assessments, and future goals. Students recalled that they occasionally discussed personal aspects such as their home, interests or worries. Adelina remembered discussing her home situation with her teacher-mentor:

I got evicted from my rental house. So, I was homeless for about five weeks. I ended up staying with a friend of my family. She'll also ask personal questions.

Questionnaire question: In one-on-one conversations with your Kaiarahi, what do you talk about?	Type of Growth	Frequency
School/ schoolwork	Academic	12
Classes/ grades/ credits/ assessments	Academic	12
Goals	Personal/ Academic	4
Life	Personal	4
General topics	Personal	3
Home	Personal	2
Interests	Personal	2
Subjects	Academic	2
Worries	Personal	2
Total	Academic	26
	Personal	13
	Personal/ academic	4

Table 5. 3 Themes of one-on-one conversations (student survey responses)

Dominance of academic growth was reflected in many discussions, but students' perceptions indicated that this focus was helpful and supportive to navigate the demands of their education and to achieve their educational goals. Opportunities for one-on-one conversations with teacher-mentors were seen as useful by many student participants. For Mona

one-on-one time was helpful especially because it was frequent enough that you felt tracked up on but infrequent enough that you didn't feel, he [the teacher-mentor] was on your back the entire time.

Most student participants also believed that the content of most learning activities was useful for them. Ria explained that the activities “help us with things we need and teach us things we wouldn't necessarily learn in subjects like life skills”. A WC participant reflected on the usefulness of one-on-one time: “He's always offering to sit down with you, individually, talk out how you're doing in school. I thought it's good to talk with your kaiārahi as an individual” (WC Group A). Earlier research examining the value of academic one-on-one

mentoring confirmed that these conversations improved academic performance, made mentees more confident about school and improved their relationships with friends and family especially when mentees formed close relationships with their mentor (Sipe, 1998).

5.2.2. Consistency between mentoring groups

Students identified inconsistencies of programme implementation between mentoring groups. Student participants felt that not all teacher-mentors implemented the activities developed by the Year Level Deans for the learning hour. As a reminder, I outlined in Section 4.2 that the programme structure was divided into three main parts: the learning hour for life skills learning, one-on-one mentoring and wellbeing activities. Some mentoring groups decided together with their teacher-mentors not to complete the provided activities for the learning hour because they felt these activities were irrelevant. Brayden explained:

It's mostly self-study, because the general class opinion is when we got activities from our Dean, they are ridiculous, and that we shouldn't do them. Miss XX said 'Yeah, I think they are ridiculous', so we never really hit those activities, and it was all just self-study time.

Student participants were quite aware whether their teacher-mentor was being consistent with the expectations of the programme and its intended structure. It was evident to students when their teacher-mentor was not in support of the programme, the intended structure or a particular programme activity and did not engage with their group in the same way as other teacher-mentors. Some student participants from groups other than Brayden's perceived that their teacher-mentor did not implement the three-way structure at all and that their teacher-mentor did not offer as many opportunities for learning and fun or wellbeing as others did. An awareness of these differences was most noticeable to students who had a change of mentor or because they had visited another class. Adelina noticed that when she went to another class *"they are playing games and doing things as a group, whereas our class doesn't really do that. We're just given a worksheet"*. One student commented how in their class all students would spend every hour in the same way: *"all we always do is silent study, so we just go on the computer, and we do our own work"* (WC Group B). Some student participants who experienced this inconsistency discussed the programme as not being useful or beneficial for them and considered it a waste of time as was the case for Adelina. When comparing her experiences to those of her friends, she noticed:

They really enjoy mentoring because they choose together what they want to do. Whereas we can't choose. 'You can't do this; you must do this'. [...] It's all pretty generic and it doesn't really seem to work.

Students like Adelina also felt a lack of trust from their teacher-mentor. Mona recalled a conversation:

‘Can I please go to the art room?’, ‘You know, you have to have a note from the teacher’. So, then they’ll have to go and get a note and then go all the way back to the art room. She [the teacher-mentor] should have more trust in them.

Based on my interpretations of student participants’ experiences and perceptions of the programme structure and mentoring activities at Greenstone College, Figure 5.2 illustrates the perceived differences between the intended nature of the programme structure and students’ perceptions of them. Similar to teacher-mentors participants’ perceptions shown in Figure 4.2, student participants’ perceptions of the wellbeing activities differed very little from the intended focus of this hour. Student participants perceived a greater variation in one-on-one mentoring and the learning hour. Student participants appeared to perceive the greatest variance in the implementation of the learning hour.

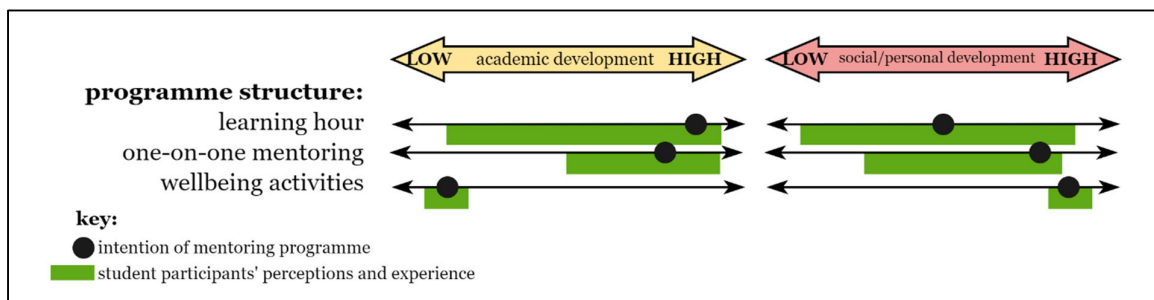


Figure 5. 2 Students’ perceptions of implemented programme structure (Author’s own based on de Vries (2011b))

Overall, student participants seemed to perceive an emphasis on academic activities over social activities although their experiences differed and were influenced by their teacher-mentor’s approach to implementing the intended programme structure. Research on programme structure and activities, discussed in Section 2.5.2, has shown that academic and social activities needed to occur in formal youth mentoring (Darling, 2005; Herrera et al., 2002; Kanchewa et al., 2021) but authors differed as to which activities should be more prevalent at different stages of mentoring relationships (Ellis et al., 2007; Larose et al., 2015). Teacher-mentors’ perceptions of mentoring activities also showed this tension about balancing academic and social development activities (Section 4.2.2). The presence of the tension of appropriate balance between social and academic activities in student and teacher-mentor participants in this study supports previous research which stressed that an overall balance of activities was important to support formation and maintenance of positive

relationships especially in school-based settings (Bruce & Bridgeland, 2014; Herrera et al., 2000; Kanchewa et al., 2021). The findings also supported previous research concluding that activities impacted perceptions of mentoring relationships and perceived influence of mentoring on mentees (Ellis et al., 2007; Keller & Pryce, 2012; Larose et al., 2015).

5.3. Mentoring Relationships

As highlighted in Section 2.3, Rhodes' (2005) model of youth mentoring identified mentoring relationships usually characterised by empathy, mutuality and trust as central to positive outcomes of mentoring. This section explores how student participants experienced and perceived their mentoring relationships with their teacher-mentors and how contextual factors influenced students' experiences and perceptions of mentoring at Greenstone College.

5.3.1. Experiences and perceptions of mentoring relationships

The implementation of school-wide mentoring at Greenstone College presented opportunities for students to establish more personal relationships with a teacher-mentor. Most student participants appreciated having an adult in the school who they could relax with and discuss their personal lives. The students' survey responses indicated an overall positivity and satisfaction with the mentoring relationships (Figure 5.3) and a feeling that their teacher-mentors knew what was going in their mentees' lives (Figure 5.3, question 19). Most student participants thought their teacher-mentors were reliable and caring. Many survey responses reflected the mainly positive perceptions of mentoring relationships:

He knows the right times to be serious and also how to have a laugh. He is good at holding me and others responsible and accountable for our actions and things we need to do. (survey response)

Just have chats to keep our social lives active and take a break from the academic side of school. It was the best thing ever. And I probably miss that the most. (survey response)

This previous response demonstrated the appreciation many student participants felt for their teacher-mentor.

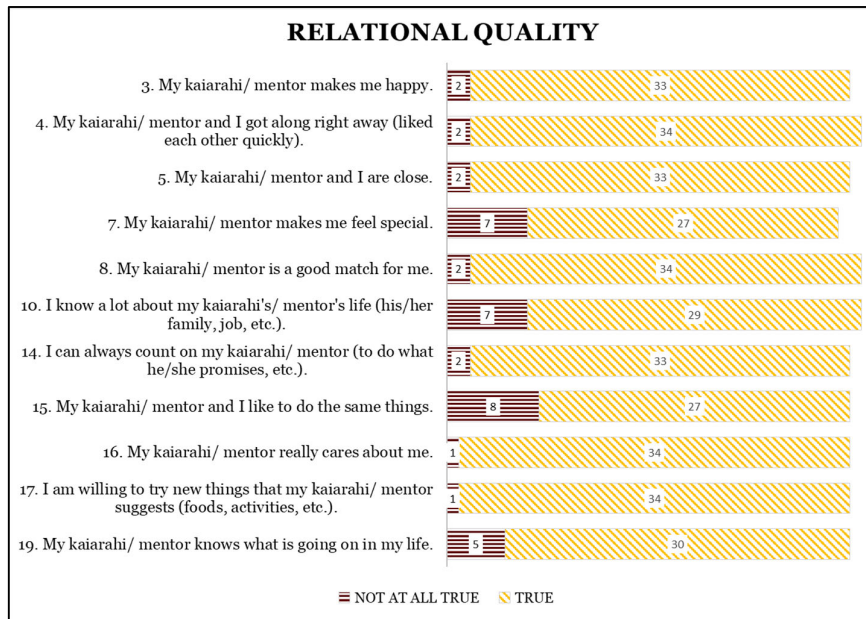


Figure 5. 3 Students' survey responses 'Relational Quality'

When teacher-mentors showed that they cared about and supported their students, many student participants felt a sense of obligation towards their teacher-mentor as shown in the following quote by a WC participant:

If you have someone else who cares about how you're doing, it makes you want to care more. I feel someone else is interested in what you're doing. You don't want to let them down. (WC Group A)

Student participants' perceptions showed an emotional attachment to their teacher-mentors. Students felt inspired to do better and work harder. When students saw that their teacher-mentor had faith in them, students felt valued as people which increased their motivation and engagement for their academic work. It was obvious to students when their teacher-mentors looked out for them as *"you can actually see that these teachers really care about and support you"* (WC Group C). Similarly, Jasmine tried to explain the connection she had with her teacher-mentor: *"It's kind of hard to explain that's a friendship bond that you can understand you're listened to, like he'll be funny with you"*. These findings matched observations of previous studies. Bernstein-Yamashiro (2013a) explained that perceptions of a friend or companion develop because students feel validated as people with individual lives outside school. The socio-emotional layer of the mentoring relationship was a key addition to the traditional instrumental layer of a teaching relationship. This additional layer brought about characteristics of friendship which are important to mentoring, such as trust, respect, genuine support and interest. These characteristics developed when mentees felt listened to and validated by an adult other than their parents through opportunities to exchange

opinions and talk about future dreams (Jackson-Dwyer, 2014; Larose et al., 2015). Previous research has also shown that mentees wanted to do better because of the close relationship which had developed and presented opportunities to develop critical relationship skills with an unrelated but caring adult (Bernstein-Yamashiro, 2013a). The emotional connection which was established in mentoring relationships offered opportunities for mentees to seek guidance, resilience and build self-esteem (Converse & Lignugaris/Kraft, 2009).

The implementation of the school-wide mentoring offered opportunities for students to seek guidance and support and consequently, deepened the quality of traditional student-teacher relationships for most student participants. Many teacher-mentors became important sources of support for students as friends, companions, parents-at-school and guidance counsellors. Some student participants had the impression that teacher-mentors also approached the role differently to that of subject teachers. Brayden found:

Subject teachers have a specific laid out plan in which they want you to work, and they expect you to work at it, whereas mentoring feels a bit more laid back and relaxed.

Students valued the more relaxed connections and interactions they could have with their teacher-mentor on a personal level. The survey responses (Figure 5.3) showed that most student participants enjoyed a connection in school not based around academic pressure and success. A student explained the distinction between subject teachers and teacher-mentors:

To some degree you can be friendly with them, but at the end of the day, there's the teacher and student. But the mentor is a completely different category altogether.

(WC Group A)

Some student participants likened their teacher-mentor not just to a friend or companion but as their parent-at-school labelling their teacher-mentor as 'school mum' or 'aunty'. One example in this study was Hamish who explained his relationship with his teacher-mentor as *"they've become my school aunty, always there to help me out"*. Perceptions of a teacher-mentor as a parent-at-school meant that students were able to talk like they would at home. Another student participant described:

You have at least one adult that you can talk to confidently knowing they give you good advice and can help you no matter what. They'll be there for you.

(WC Group A)

Teacher-mentors who were trusted adults to students were seen by some as taking the role of counsellor. A survey response stated that *"My previous mentor was really good, and she almost turned into a counsellor for me when I was struggling"*.

The extended personal dimensions of mentoring relationships were also evident in teacher-mentors' perceptions as discussed in Chapter Four. Student participants' descriptions of close bonds and friendship-like relationships were reflections of teacher-

mentors' mentoring style and attitude towards their role and evidence of extended traditional teacher- student relationships and extended traditional teachers' roles. These teacher-mentors who incorporated the socio-emotional layer of a mentoring relationship and extended traditional student-teacher relationships were seen by students as different to their subject teachers.

Based on my interpretations of student participants' experiences and perceptions of the mentoring and subject teacher relationships, Figure 5.4 shows the differences in the perceived purpose. Perceptions of relationships with subject teachers varied little from the intended nature of traditional student-teacher relationships. Yet, student participants' perceptions of the mentoring relationships varied. This difference in perception was due to the perceived differences in implementation of the programme structure and student participants' experiencing their mentoring relationships as different to their subject teacher relationships.

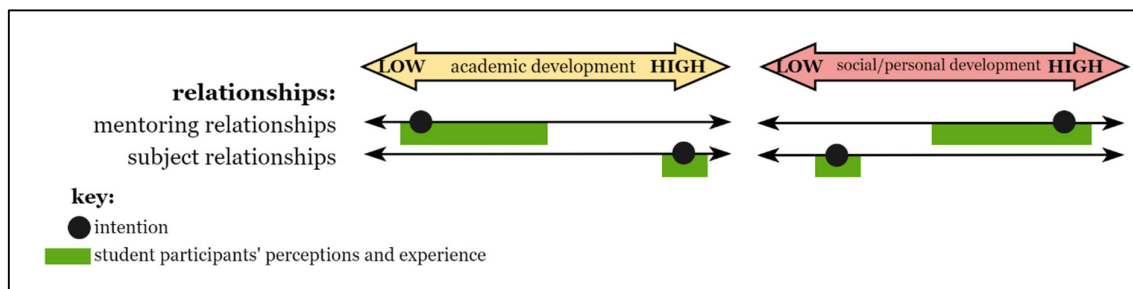


Figure 5. 4 Students' perceptions of differences in relationships (Author's own based on de Vries (2011b))

5.3.2. Influences on mentoring relationships

Rhodes' (2005) model of youth mentoring identified several factors as influential on mentoring relationships and outcomes. The identified factors in this model of youth mentoring were social competencies, duration of relationship, programme practices, family and community context, interpersonal history and developmental stage of mentees (Rhodes, 2005). The analysis of this study revealed that two contextual factors— teacher-mentors' qualities or social competencies and the mentoring setting — had significant influence on student participants' experiences and perceptions of mentoring.

Influence of mentor qualities

Teacher-mentors' personal qualities and attitudes towards mentoring influenced student participants' experiences of mentoring and their mentoring relationships. Discussions of these relationships were frequently centred on personal qualities of teacher-mentors and qualitative aspects of relationships. In the initial survey, student participants frequently

described their teacher-mentors as being helpful, understanding or caring including phrases such as “*always wanting to help us out*”, “*always ready to help when needed*” or describing their teacher-mentor as a “*very caring person*”. Other responses related to their teacher-mentor listening, making them happy, being kind, funny, honest, positive, supportive, cheerful, and inspiring. Subsequent discussions in the World Café and interviews revealed how these qualities influenced the relationships. The group leaders of the World Café had chosen qualities of a mentor as one of the World Café topics (Appendix H). The thematic analysis highlighted personal qualities of interest, warmth, empowering, being a guide, a listener and fun and the qualitative aspect of a relationship of trust and closeness. Table 5.4 illustrates the coding frequency of these qualities.

	Theme	Frequency of coding
Personal qualities:	Genuine interest	19
	Listener	6
	Warmth	5
	Empowering	5
	Guide	3
	Fun	2
Relationship quality	Trust	21
	Closeness	6

Table 5. 4 Frequency of coding mentor and relationship characteristics

For participating students in the World Café and interviews, genuine interest was teacher-mentors’ key attribute which was linked to a sense of closeness in the relationship. Ria explained that her teacher-mentor influenced her positively, “*because he was always interested in what the outcome was*”. For students, genuine interest meant that teacher-mentors were being proactive in finding out what was going on for students and to offer support. Kyla described her teacher-mentor’s approach as “*not just you asking them for help, but also them taking the initiative to be able to notice if the student needs help*”. Student participants wanted their teacher-mentor to take an active interest in them and their lives and be genuinely invested in and supportive of students’ involvements. Adelina said her first teacher-mentor was proactive and interested. She provided several examples where she experienced him being proactive and genuinely interested:

I was talking to him about what I wanted to do after school, and he was giving me different options. He went on his computer and did some research. It just felt really nice that he actually took time out of his day to go and do that.

Adelina summed up her experiences of genuine interest: “*It shows [if] the teacher is genuinely interested or cares. I think that’s important*”.

Genuine interest was a mutual experience for teacher-mentors and students. Students took an interest in their teacher-mentors' lives when teacher-mentors shared their own life experiences or opinions with them. Hamish said, "*you get to know more about your mentor's personality and personal life*". Mutuality was identified as one key characteristic of an effective mentoring relationship and was created by teacher-mentors through sharing personal stories and displaying authenticity and 'open vulnerability' (Spencer et al., 2004). Through genuine interest and mutuality, students sensed that they were viewed as equal, worthy individuals whereby their needs, aspirations and interests were deemed to be important by their mentor to build a close relationship (Spencer, 2004, 2006). The findings of mutuality, the friendship dimension and genuine interest in this study were consistent with those of Lester et al. (2019).

However, experiences of close relationships of genuine interest and mutuality were not evident for all student participants as some sensed that their teacher-mentors were just 'doing a job'. Jasmine felt that her new teacher-mentor was "*not quite as enthusiastic about things. She does ask us occasionally how we're doing, but it comes across as a duty rather than she actually wants to know*". Adelina's experience of her new teacher-mentor was similar. She thought that "*it doesn't feel like she's doing it because she wants to. It feels like she's doing it because it's a job*". Bernstein-Yamashiro (2013a) made a distinction in students' perceptions between 'teachers who teach' and 'teachers who are people'. Similarly, in this study, the perceived attitude of a teacher just 'doing a job' affected mentoring relationships. Teacher-mentors who 'just did their job' were seen to be disinterested in their mentees. Different attitudes to the mentoring role were especially evident to students who had experienced a change of mentor. Adelina's new mentoring relationship was quite different because of her new teacher-mentor's approach: "*I feel like I don't have a good connection with my teacher ... a lot of us feel like that as she hasn't really tried to engage*". Adelina's experiences were an example of a teacher being perceived as just 'doing a job' and showed that this approach reduced students' sense of connectedness and belonging, whereas genuinely interested teacher-mentors were seen as a source of support and guidance (Yu et al., 2016).

Teacher-mentors' attitudes directly influenced some students' motivation and comfort with the mentoring relationships. A World Café participant explained: "*I think I would have been more motivated, if I had a teacher that was motivated to help, 'cause she sits in a corner*" (WC Group B). Student participants with similar experiences lacked a connection with their teacher-mentor or felt they were not listened to or taken seriously. Student participants discussed the importance of listening:

being able to listen, and then give constructive good advice. Sometimes, they [teacher-mentors] don't even need to give advice. Like they [students] just need someone to talk to who's not one of your mates. (WC Group A)

The perception of the teacher-mentor not being an active listener led to students not feeling accepted and disconnected from them. Adelina felt that *“you can't really be open enough with her or she turns down your options rather than listening properly”*. The importance of engaged, active listening has been confirmed in previous studies which highlighted that active listening developed empathy, fostered connectedness and the development of a close friendship-like bond (Ellis et al., 2007; Keller & Pryce, 2012; Larose et al., 2015; Lindt & Blair, 2017; Morrow & Styles, 1995; Spencer et al., 2004; Yu et al., 2016). The findings of the present study also confirmed Bernstein-Yamashiro's (2013b) suggestions that any attempt by a mentor to make a difference to students' comfort, confidence or motivation would create a feeling of being accepted and wanting to do better. As highlighted in this study and supported by Lester et al.'s (2019) findings about the importance of mutuality, when students saw their teacher-mentors as genuine, relationships were close and deep and moved beyond the surface level of discussions about hobbies and schoolwork to more personal matters (compare also with Table 5.3).

Many student participants identified trust as the most important aspect of the mentoring relationship and linked it to confidentiality, closeness and genuine interest. A WC participant explained that *“Trust is most important because if you don't have trust, you don't have interest, you're not going to have warmth, you're not going to have closeness”* (WC Group B). Another reasoned that

If I don't trust someone, I won't open up to them at all. There's no point because they'll go away and share the information. There's no point talking to them because you're going to be betrayed. (WC Group C)

These examples were reflections of several WC discussions and interviews which considered that trust increased students' sense of loyalty and obligation to their teacher-mentor and encouraged them to share personal issues. These findings confirmed previous observations that trust increased mentees' preparedness to engage with trusted adults and their suggestions (Griffith & Larson, 2016; Griffith et al., 2018; Jucovy, 2001; Liang et al., 2008; Rhodes, 2002b; Rhodes et al., 2006).

Students also wanted their teacher-mentors to be empowering while being realistic about students' abilities and circumstances. In the opinion of one student teacher-mentors should *“be approachable, but I don't want them to be over empowering to the point where I believe I can do the things that I obviously can't”* (WC Group A). Discussions of empowerment were often related to staying motivated about schoolwork. Students felt it was important for them to have someone who helped them along. A WC participant explained

that “*empowering is really important. You’ve got to encourage them [the students] to actually do the work to stay motivated in school*” (WC Group B). One survey response was truly clear on what empowerment looked like:

My kaiārahi this year has always encouraged us to do our best, giving us great outlines for planning ahead for our future. She always sees the positive in situations and gives the best advice when asked for.

These findings were consistent with previous research which identified empowerment and encouragement as essential for young people to develop trust in adults whereby the mentor actively sought opportunities to encourage mentees’ potential (Griffith et al., 2018; Liang et al., 2008; Spencer, 2006).

Feelings of empowerment related to the use of the Te Reo Māori word ‘kaiārahi’ (a guide) for the teachers who were teacher-mentors at Greenstone College. Its meaning was identified by students as a key quality for their mentor. They expected their teacher-mentors to actively seek connections with their students and give appropriate guidance and advice. Students often referred to these expectations in relation to other mentor qualities of being a good listener and being fun. Student participants felt that teacher-mentors should develop an understanding of individual differences and needs. A variety of discussions focused on what good mentors and their qualities meant to them:

A good kaiārahi needs to try and actively connect with students, because there’ll be those that will confide in the teacher, but they are not going to necessarily go to the teachers as their first port of call. You’ve also got to be relatable to the students. (WC Group C)

This example mirrored the concepts of genuine interest, active listening and warmth outlined above. The following example highlighted student participants’ expectations of teacher-mentors to respond to various student behaviours:

If you just knew how to understand the stereotypical good student, you are not necessarily going to know about bad kids or troubled ones, you’re not going to be able to help them. You need to be able to understand where they come from knowing how to mentor them. (WC Group A)

Mentor qualities deemed important by student participants and highlighted in this section accounted for the breadth in experiences of mentoring relationships shown in Figure 5.4 and the perceived different purposes of the subject teaching and mentoring relationships. Teacher-mentors, who acted as guides, showed genuine interest, warmth and were active listeners, were able to establish closer personal relationships than their traditional student-teacher relationships. Individuals’ styles and approaches to the mentoring role directly

influenced the extent and quality of the personal bond and students' experiences and perceptions.

Influence of the setting

Student participants' perceptions were influenced by the programme's context and organisation. Two aspects of the setting impacted on students most: first, the chosen form of hybrid mentoring and second, the change of teacher-mentor.

First, the hybrid form included both group and one-on-one mentoring. Hybrid mentoring can take advantage of the individual strengths of the included forms of mentoring, but the limitations of the included forms of mentoring might also affect students' experiences and perceptions of mentoring. I discussed the strengths and limitations of group mentoring in Chapter Two. Strengths and limitations of group mentoring seemed to be more prevalent and influential in this study than those of one-on-one mentoring.

A strength of group mentoring is the inclusion of opportunities to develop social skills and build strong group identities. Based on students' experiences such opportunities were plentiful. As highlighted previously, most student participants regularly joined in highly valued various team building activities, such as Minefield or restorative circles. These activities appeared to be opportunities to increase student participants' sense of group belonging. These noted benefits of group mentoring in this study have been identified as its most significant strengths (Kuperminc et al., 2019; Kuperminc & Deutsch, 2021; Kuperminc & Thomason, 2013; Pryce et al., 2019).

The key limitation of group mentoring — lack of closeness of relationships — was also evident for some student participants. The organisation of students into fairly large mentoring groups did not allow all students to develop close relationships with their teacher-mentors. Some student participants indicated in the survey that their teacher-mentors did not have detailed knowledge of their circumstances or that they did not know much about their teacher-mentor (Figure 5.3, question 19 and 10). Several students also indicated that they had not had a chance to share personal experiences with their mentor (Figure 5.1, sharing section). While these opinions could also be influenced by the teacher-mentors' approaches to the role, as already discussed, these findings confirmed previous group mentoring research that not all mentoring relationships in hybrid or group mentoring were as close or intense as in one-on-one mentoring (Kuperminc & Deutsch, 2021).

Second, a change of teacher-mentor was influential in students' perceptions of the programme. Students' initial teacher-mentors changed not because of relationship breakdowns or mismatches of characters but for three main reasons: their previous teacher-mentor left the school, the group had become too small so was merged with another group to

save staffing costs, students who were selected for a leadership role in Year 13 were combined in a new mentoring group. Twenty-three of the 41 student survey participants (56%) experienced a change of mentor. The reasons for a change of mentor were experienced differently by students. The teacher-mentor leaving the school was not often discussed. Students who took on leadership positions and changed to a new group, where all leaders were together, were mostly accepting of this change but did not always establish new close mentoring relationships. Students who had experienced a change because of these two reasons were prepared for this change, had a chance to have a clear end point of their first relationship and mostly accepted that it was going to happen. Students who changed their teacher-mentors because of small classes did not have a chance to prepare for the change. The decision was made during the summer break without their knowledge and without any further explanation to them. Mona was left wondering after her class was merged:

We were never really told. I believe it had something to do with the small population of Year 13. They had to cut some classes, and my class got split up.

Some student participants who were affected by this way of changing teacher-mentor expressed disappointment that the change occurred without explanation or notification as one student expressed: *“It sucks that we have to move out of this class that I built a connection with over the three years, because we’ve been together since Year Ten”* (WC Group B). A student explained the effect the change had on group sizes: *“At the end of Year 12 there it wasn’t enough students to fill up a whole class. Now the classes are huge”* (WC Group A). Regardless of the reasons for a change of mentoring, its occurrence affected the continuity of mentoring relationships which was influential in some student participants’ experiences and perceptions. Student participants often discussed the influence of the length of the relationship. Brayden reflected that he had his teacher-mentor *“originally as a Year Nine English teacher. So, we already knew each other, and then she became my kaiārahi”*. The emotions and feelings some student participants reported in this study in response to the termination of mentoring relationships reflected the deepened student-teacher relationships discussed and the emotional attachment formed with teacher-mentors. Due to a change of teacher-mentor some student participants felt a loss of support. Others found it challenging to establish new relationships which were as deep as their previous relationship. One student explained her experience:

You got that connection during those first two years with your kaiārahi. She's good at doing, ‘Okay, just take a step back. Let’s look at the situation. What can we do about it?’ This year, I have a new teacher I’ve never had before. It's hard for me to talk to her and she doesn’t really know me. (WC Group A)

Jasmine’s experience mirrored this experience:

When I had my mentor for two years, we've got a connection with each other. But this year, because I've changed, it's not quite the same. I would much rather have three years with one person.

Students who experienced difficulties building new connections for their last year of their secondary education relied, where possible, on connections they built previously. As one student explained:

I was having a bit of a crisis of my own self; I was really stressed out. I still went to Miss X because I had that connection with her over the three years. (WC Group A)

One critique of formal volunteer mentoring is that more than half of formal youth mentoring relationships end prematurely (Grossman & Rhodes, 2002; Spencer, 2007). As detailed in Chapter Two, an early termination of a mentoring relationship affects mentees negatively. The reasons for termination of mentoring relationships at Greenstone College were different to those in volunteer mentoring. Yet, student participants' feelings were similar to those expressed by students who experienced the end of relationships in volunteer mentoring (Bruce & Bridgeland, 2014; Spencer, 2007). For most student participants, who experienced a change of mentor, the change caused significant upset and often new close mentoring relationships were not established. Early termination has been documented to have potentially negative effects on mentees and research on the length of mentoring relationships concluded that longer relationships created better relationship quality and more positive long-lasting outcomes (Bruce & Bridgeland, 2014; DuBois, Neville et al., 2002; Gordon et al., 2013; Grossman & Johnson, 1998; Herrera et al., 2000; Keller & Pryce, 2012; Larose & Duchesne, 2020). This study's findings supported this research. Any change of mentor regardless of the reason should therefore be addressed with mentees directly to lessen added stress and disappointment for mentees (Grossman & Rhodes, 2002; Herrera et al., 2007; Spencer, 2007).

5.4. Perceived influence of mentoring on students

Despite student participants' perception of an imbalance between social and academic activities in favour of academic activities, most student participants perceived that their participation in mentoring influenced them both academically and personally. Students discussed academic improvement not just in relation to their academic grades but also in relation to developing good work ethics and work-life balance. Most student participants believed they were doing better at school because of their teacher-mentor who helped in improving academic outcomes (Figure 5.5, question 9). One survey response to the question

‘What influence has your kaiārahi had on you?’ stated that *“my kaiārahi has helped me gain greater educational achievement than I would have by myself”*.

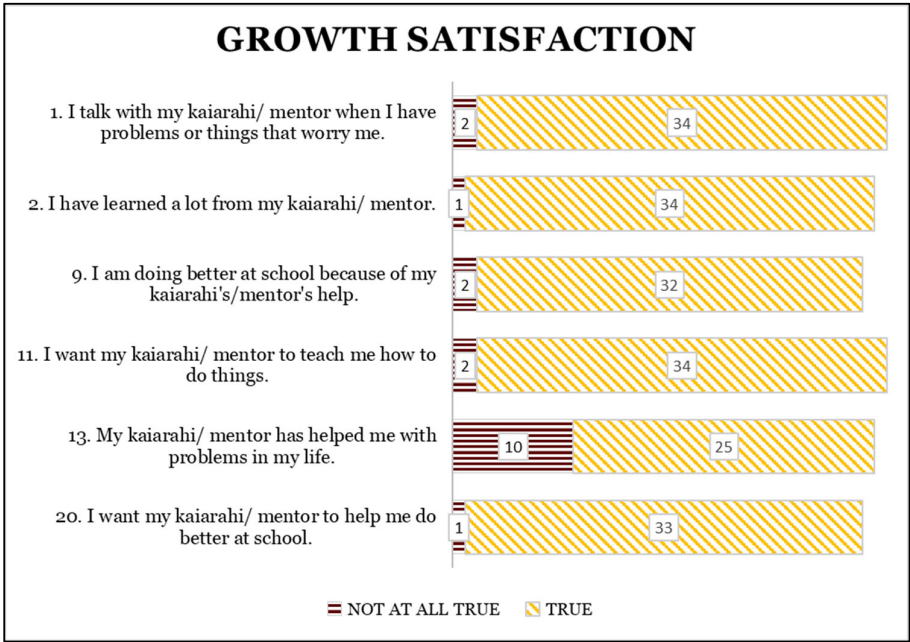


Figure 5. 5 Students' survey responses 'Growth Satisfaction'

Teacher-mentors were seen to support students' cognitive development by encouraging them to complete their academic work, develop organisational and time management skills. Many student participants felt that their teacher-mentors encouraged them to complete work, strive for better outcomes and maintain a balance of academic work and wellbeing. Many survey responses referred to support with schoolwork. Hamish's teacher-mentor helped him stay on track with schoolwork. He explained that *“She's helped me, made sure I'm getting credits and that I'm achieving my goals”*. For other student participants, their teacher-mentor was a motivator to complete academic work. Ria's teacher-mentor was always pushing her to do her best. Ria thought this *“is important, because sometimes a classroom teacher won't necessarily do that to everyone”*. Further evidence suggested that the mentoring relationships increased student participants' motivation to be at school as the mentoring time was *“a more human environment than a subject class”* (Brayden) and *“made me feel more confident in the institution”* (survey response). Several student participants indicated that their teacher-mentors assisted in managing pressure, especially around time management and stress in exam preparation. A WC participant said that their teacher-mentor *“really helps even out the stress level and*

helps us choose and put the other stuff aside” (WC Group A). The support of Mona’s teacher-mentor meant she had a person who *“encouraged me to keep going with my high standard but also to take a break when I needed to”*. In this situation, the teacher-mentor suggested a wellbeing strategy to show Mona that looking after herself was important. Teacher-mentors were also perceived to have supported students with a number of educational matters such as future plans. Some teacher-mentors helped clarify their future pathways as shown in one survey response that the kaiārahi *“taught me how to plan for my future, such as researching the career path I want to follow”*. Kyla thought her mentoring experience *“sets us up for the future and helps us decide”*. This study’s findings were consistent with previous research on the academic impact of mentoring through positive relationships (Bergin & Bergin, 2009; Fruiht & Wray-Lake, 2013; Laco & Johnson, 2017) and the impact of group mentoring on academic progress (Chan et al., 2019). Most notably, the findings supported Laco and Johnson’s (2017) conclusions about a school-wide mentoring programme that being able to share with a teacher-mentor improved school engagement. The findings also supported Bergin and Bergin’s (2009) conclusions that through the opportunity of a secure attachment in school, students’ long-term wellbeing at school improved and increased their willingness to engage with challenges.

Student participants identified a variety of social-emotional aspects affecting their identity development which their teacher-mentors influenced positively. Teacher-mentors’ influence helped students become more confident young people and encouraged them to step up to take up responsibilities or become involved in new experiences. Kyla explained that her teacher-mentor made students feel *“more confident in what they do, and they don’t feel like they’re being let down. It teaches us how to communicate”*. A survey response mirrored this example: *“I feel encouraged to step up and take on more of a leadership role”*. Another survey response gave a specific example of social-emotional development and students were encouraged to *“to speak up whenever anything’s going wrong whether it be at school or at home”*. These responses supported other survey responses (Figure 5.5, question 1) indicating that most student participants were able to talk about worries. Some student participants felt encouraged to share problems and learned that to *“talk about my problems it’s better to talk than to bottle it all up”* (survey response). In Jasmine’s experiences, her teacher-mentor’s advice helped her *“feel less stressed, very chilled”*.

Teacher-mentors’ attitudes and behaviours towards students were influential in their identity development as students saw this behaviour as role modelling examples which they should aspire to. Mona explained that her teacher-mentor was a role model for her because *“whatever curveball was thrown at him, he dealt with it and having that as a role model definitely encouraged me to do the same”*. Ria felt positive about herself as a person and her interests when her teacher-mentor displayed a genuine interest in her hobby which *“was*

really nice to get that recognition from someone inside the school". This recognition provided Ria with a feeling of validation. The importance of students feeling valued and cared for was reflected in many survey and interview responses such as *"They really encouraged me to pursue my passions and interests, as well as teaching me to take a breath once in a while"* (survey response). Other survey responses indicated that their teacher-mentors' open display of confidence in them supported students' identity development:

She's made me be more on to it and has made me realise that I can do the things I want to do if I work hard for it, and it feels a lot better being able to do things.

More specifically, most teacher-mentors' support strengthened students' mental health by offering a space to talk about mental wellbeing and encouragement to be open about struggles and issues. Significantly, the support for mental wellbeing was mainly conveyed in survey responses rather than openly in interviews and World Café discussions, possibly indicating this personal and private matter of mental health was not easily discussed with others at the World Café. Examples of survey responses stated that *"she helped me with my anxiety and diagnosed depression"* and *"If I didn't do the mentoring programme, I would've struggled on keeping a healthy mental health as I often stress over my assessments"*. The latter example links to the observation that mentoring eased academic pressures highlighting the interwoven nature of academic, personal and social growth. The findings indicated that the student participants valued the attention given to their cognitive growth and their personal wellbeing through mentoring.

A few student participants said that the mentoring did not have an impact on them. A minority of responses in the survey indicated that their teacher-mentor had not helped them with problems in their lives (Figure 5.5, question 13, and Appendix G). Not enough detailed data emerged from the World Café and student interview participants to explore this perception in-depth and indeed such students were unlikely to volunteer to participate. As mentioned some survey responses said that their mentoring relationships were not very close (Section 5.3.1). These responses could be related, suggesting that in addition to teacher-mentors' attitudes, the form of mentoring could have been influential on the closeness of the relationships for some student participants and impacted their perceptions of the influence of mentoring.

The combination of influence on wellbeing and strengthening of self-belief shown in students' perception was a dominant theme in responses in relation to students' identity development. Student participants discussed that their teacher-mentors offered strategies for how to deal with challenging situations and helped them in problem solving, offered a perspective for their future, and consequently strengthened students' self-belief and self-esteem. Most student participants perceived to have developed social-emotionally because of

strong emotional relationships. These observations confirmed findings of previous research that mentees felt better connected through their participation in mentoring (Gordon et al., 2013; Karcher, 2008). Encouragement to take risks and explore new activities and thoughts could only take place if a strong emotional connection between mentor and mentee developed (Bergin & Bergin, 2009; Ellis et al., 2007). Impacts on wellbeing and a more positive attitude about themselves and school have also been well documented in research literature (Converse & Lignugaris/Kraft, 2009; King, 2012; Klem & Connell, 2004; Laco & Johnson, 2017; Lindt & Blair, 2017; Sipe, 1998).

Evidence from participating students suggested that those who experienced a combination of positive relationships, enjoyable activities and teacher-mentors with a positive attitude towards the role perceived mentoring to have a positive influence while those relationships lasted. The teacher-mentor behaviours and attitudes that student participants discussed highlighted the significance of the influence of intentional and unintentional teaching practices and teacher behaviours on students' development that authors, such as Lambert (2015) commented on. This evidence also confirms assumptions of Rhodes' (2005) model of youth mentoring, informing this study, which identified close relationships between mentors and mentees as key to supporting identity development, social-emotional development and cognitive development. The combination of positively perceived mentoring relationships with fun activities is well-documented to have the potential to have a more positive impact on students (Bruce & Bridgeland, 2014; Ellis et al., 2001; Jucovy, 2001; King, 2012; Lindt & Blair, 2017; Rhodes, 2002b; Schwartz et al., 2011; Spencer, 2006; Spencer et al., 2004; Yu et al., 2016). However, for most student participants who experienced a change of teacher-mentor the positive influence lasted for the duration of the positive close relationship and not always beyond the terminated relationships.

Based on my understanding of student participants' experiences and perceptions, Figure 5.6 shows how student participants perceived the intended programme outcomes outlined in Section 4.2. Student participants appeared to perceive that the intended outcome of improving their academic achievement influenced their personal and social development more than anticipated. This evaluation is based on student participants' experiences and perceptions that teacher-mentors did not only support their academic achievement but supported related life skills such as time management and study skills. Students perceived that they were doing better at school because they received support in these areas. Because of this perception students' identity appeared to have grown academically and socially as some teacher-mentors provided support with future planning and students became more confident individuals. These findings showed that the three programme outcomes were interrelated and influenced each other.

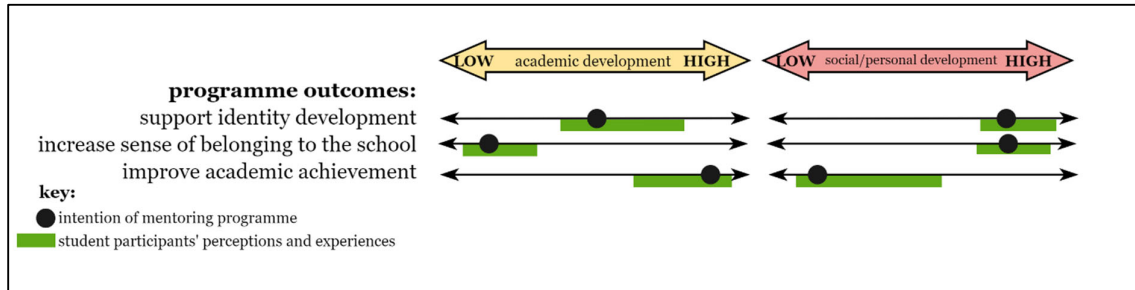


Figure 5. 6 Students' perceptions of mentoring programme outcomes (Author's own based on de Vries (2011))

5.5. Chapter Conclusion

Similar to conclusions drawn in the previous chapter, student participants in this study experienced an imbalance of activities with the emphasis falling on academic rather than social development activities. Student participants' diverse perceptions of their teacher-mentors were surprising and offered valuable insights. I was surprised by the seemingly strong influence of individual teacher-mentors' attitudes and practices on students' experiences and perceptions of mentoring. Especially the emotional attachments of some student participants to their teacher-mentors and the complex perceptions of qualities of teacher-mentors and mentoring relationships caught my attention. The following seemingly simple statement of one student reflected the value some students attributed to their mentoring relationships and the deepened quality of relationships: *"Engaging, supportive, pretty much everything a friend would have, but more in a professional way"* (Mona). While not applicable to all student participants, this statement shows the potential of formal school-wide mentoring and the significance of intentional and unintentional teacher behaviour on young people. Genuinely invested teacher-mentors and the growth of emotional bonds appeared to be linked and had the potential to outweigh the focus on academic activities resulting in students' development on a more personal and social dimension. Overall, many findings of this study showed similarities in perceptions of mentoring relationships, activities and perceived outcomes to 'at-risk' programmes with mentor volunteers.

Teacher-mentors' and students' perceptions highlighted the significance of the context to the mentoring experience. The following chapter focuses on specific aspects of the context which were influential for most student and teacher-mentor participants.

Chapter 6: Mentoring programme through CHAT lens and three in-depth examples

This chapter contains two distinct but complementary sections. The first section is the CHAT analysis of the mentoring programme. I analysed the programme through the lens of third generation CHAT which focuses on interactions of multiple multi-voiced activity systems in activity networks rather than stand-alone activity systems (Engeström, 1999). The CHAT analysis allowed a deeper analysis of the organisational level of the programme and the impact of organisational change on teacher-mentors and students. This analysis applied and expanded on the five principles of Activity Theory (Engeström, 2001) introduced in Chapter Three. Applying the *first principle* of the prime unit of analysis views the mentoring programme as an object-oriented activity system, I outline the components of the mentoring activity system followed by a discussion of different levels of contradictions apparent in the programme. Applying the *third principle* of historicity, the *fourth principle* of contradictions and the *fifth principle* of expansive learning, I explore three main points. First, I discuss the influence of the New Zealand education system and the school's context on the implementation of mentoring. Second, I expand on the inconsistency of the programme implementation discussed in Chapters Four and Five and explore possible reasons and consequences. Third, I explore the expansion of the traditional teaching role, first discussed in Chapter Four, through the CHAT lens in relation to the previous role of tutor teacher and in interaction with the role of subject teacher. The *second principle* of multi-voicedness and multi-layeredness has been applied throughout Chapters Four to Six by incorporating teacher-mentors' and students' experiences and perceptions.

In the second section, I explore the in-depth experiences of three teacher-mentors and two students. Their experiences exemplify diverse themes highlighted in Chapters Four and Five and the discussion in the first half of this chapter.

6.1. Components of the mentoring programme activity system

The components of an object-oriented activity system, in this study the mentoring programme, as the prime unit of analysis represent the *first principle* of CHAT. This section will outline the components of the mentoring programme activity system.

In the mentoring programme activity system, the *subjects* were all those engaged in the mentoring programme. Four main groups of *subjects* were present in the school (Table 6.1). The first two were the senior leadership team and Deans who developed and oversaw various aspects of the programme. The third group were teacher-mentors who were given mentoring responsibilities as part of their weekly teaching load. The final group were all senior students in the school who were allocated to 19 mentoring groups. The *subjects* of the mentoring programme regularly interacted with the *community* which was formed by all Greenstone College's adult members and students and students' parents. *Subjects* worked together to achieve the *object* and *outcome* of the mentoring programme (Table 6.1). I outlined the intended programme outcomes and their implementation in Chapter Four. To recap, the expected *outcomes* for the programme were to support students with identity development, an improved connectedness to the school and improved academic achievement. The *division of labour* reflected the different roles *subjects* of the mentoring programme held in the school. The members of the Senior Leadership Team, Deans and teacher-mentors were subject teachers at Greenstone College. Some mentors held additional responsibilities, as Heads of Departments, managing small teams of teachers. Some of the Year 13 students held extra leadership responsibilities as Head Students. Several *rules* either controlled by the school or set by the New Zealand Education System regulated the implementation of the programme such as the NCEA assessment system, national policies of schools' funding and Greenstone College's own curriculum and timetable structure. In Section 6.2.1. I investigate in-depth the influence of these *rules*. Several *primary artefacts* were implemented to support teacher-mentors' work in implementing mentoring. These artefacts were an adjusted timetable structure of the school's curriculum, a structured programme for three one-hour sessions per week, a shared academic tracking document, conversation templates, twice yearly teacher-mentor conferences with parents, weekly meetings of mentors with Deans, extended use of an existing electronic student management system. I explore their varied implementation as secondary and tertiary artefacts in section 6.2.2. Table 6.1 provides an overview of all components of the mentoring activity system.

Activity System Element	Description (for detailed explanation see Chapter 3)	Mentoring programme
Subjects	Individuals or groups participating in activity	Senior Leadership Team Deans Teacher-mentors Senior students as mentees
Object and outcome	Subjects act on object to achieve outcome	Social and Personal dimension: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Support personal development - Increase wellbeing Academic dimension: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Increase academic achievement - Increase attendance Outcome: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Support identity development 2. Improve connectedness to the school 3. Improve academic achievement
Primary Artefacts/ Tools	Mediate and scaffold the activity	Introduced to implement the programme: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Adjusted timetable structure - Structured programme - Shared 'traffic light' document - Conversation template for one-on-one mentoring - Conferences with parents - Weekly Dean and teacher-mentor meetings - Professional learning for teacher-mentors - Student management system
Community	Wider social group where activity is taking place	All students All staff All parents
Division of Labour	Distribution of roles and responsibilities of subjects	Teachers as subject teachers Different responsibilities of teachers Students as subject students
Rules	Regulate the activity	Systemic rules of NZ Education System- outside the school's influence <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - NZ Assessment: NCEA - School funding - Weekly teaching hours Rules decided by the school: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Local curricula and timetable structure - School Policies of Behaviour, Attendance, Uniform - School's strategic plan and priorities

Table 6. 1 Components of the mentoring activity system

6.2. Contradictions of the mentoring programme

Contradictions were evident in the mentoring programme and presented for teacher-mentors and students to different extents. I introduced the four levels of contradictions in Section 3.1.2 but to recap Engeström's (2001) *fourth principle of contradictions* states that four levels of contradictions exist in activity systems. Primary and secondary contradictions are internal contradictions, while tertiary and quaternary contradictions are external contradictions. The *primary* contradiction of use and exchange value (i.e., social value vs monetary value) existed prior to the introduction of mentoring but was influential in shaping the programme. I expand on this contradiction in section 6.2.1. *Secondary* contradictions

were most noticeable in variations of implementation of new artefacts. I focus on these contradictions in section 6.2.2. Expanding the object of the activity system and a subsequent expansion of the traditional teacher role created *tertiary* and *quaternary* contradictions due to the division of labour of teacher-mentors and subject teachers. Different objects required different ways of working causing these contradictions which I explore in section 6.2.3. The following discussion of these contradictions applies the *third principle of historicity*, *fourth principle of contradictions* and *fifth principle of expansive learning*.

6.2.1. Contradictions caused by rules of the mentoring programme

The systemic rules of the New Zealand education system and rules set by the school impacted the implementation of the programme. Systemic rules of the New Zealand Education System formed the key contextual factors which shaped the initial organisation and planning of the mentoring programme highlighting the interaction and interdependence of the activity system in its socio-cultural context (Lim & Hang, 2003).

Impact of financial resources on mentoring programme

The average mentor group size at Greenstone College was 25 students. It was apparent that large mentoring group sizes were not always ideal for one teacher-mentor. Large groups impacted teacher-mentors' ability to establish personal relationships with their students and their feelings of being good mentors. Teacher-mentors felt that the groups were too big and did not allow them to form close relationships with all students. Karmen explained:

Our pastoral numbers are so huge that even with my three hours a week, there are some that are more demanding of my time, and some that don't really get any of my time. And that's not really an equal balance. I don't feel I can give my best to all of them.

Tia reflected and found it difficult "*knowing where to give the attention where it's most useful*". It was impossible to give all students the same amount of attention leading to teacher-mentors feeling that they were unable to do a good job for all their students. Julie explained that because of the group sizes "*some young people are not getting a good deal, other young people are getting a fantastic deal*". These teacher-mentor participants' doubts were also reflected in survey results (Appendix F). Teacher-mentors had to prioritise because it was impossible for teacher-mentors to mentor too many individuals simultaneously as the emotional and physical investment was too much (Mertz, 2004).

The financial funding rules of the New Zealand education system created primary contradictions for the implementation of the mentoring programme. Financial funding rules

for New Zealand state schools limited the number of teachers who could be employed based on the number of students attending the school (*Funding and Financials*, 2021). Contractual rules for teachers regulated the number of hours teachers could be with students per week (*Secondary Teachers' Collective Agreement*, 2021). Teachers who held extra responsibilities had less time in classrooms. Teacher-mentors were allocated three hours of their weekly contact hours for mentoring which reduced the overall number of curriculum hours available to the school therefore reducing the number of subject classes which could be staffed. These two rules limited staffing which was available for teacher-mentor roles resulting in larger than desired mentoring groups. These limitations created by the systemic funding and staffing rules exemplified the primary contradiction of use and exchange value of the school which existed in each node of the activity system (Engeström, 2015). The school's main object was to educate young people. However, the school leadership was also under an obligation to remain within the funding and staffing limits imposed by the rules of the New Zealand education system.

The primary contradiction of use and exchange value, manifested as limitations to staffing, influenced students' experiences of mentoring. In Chapter Five, I outlined three main reasons why more than half of the student participants experienced a change of mentor: their mentor left the school, mentoring groups became too small and were merged with another group or they became members of the leadership group in their last year at school who formed a group of their own. The decision to merge small groups occurred due to the financial funding rules and the primary contradiction of use and exchange value. With limited staffing and funding the ideal situation could not always be achieved. Schools needed to find the most effective way to utilise their available funding which was not always to the benefit of students' education and wellbeing. The decision to merge small classes and causing a change of mentor for students created secondary contradictions in students' activity system illustrated in Figure 6.1. Students' voice highlighted in Chapter Five that a change of mentor was problematic for many students and influenced student participants' perceptions. A rule- subject contradiction shown in Figure 6.1 affected students' wellbeing with one student expressing: *"I don't want to change; I think it's good to have consistency"* (WC Group B). Not all students affected by change of mentor managed to build successful new relationships leading to a rule-object contradiction and a lack of object engagement by the student (shown as subject- object contradiction). These students were no longer certain whether the mentoring programme was beneficial or able to achieve the desired objectives. When previous mentors were still at school, some students found ways to connect with their previous teacher-mentor to maintain the object engagement and access ongoing support.

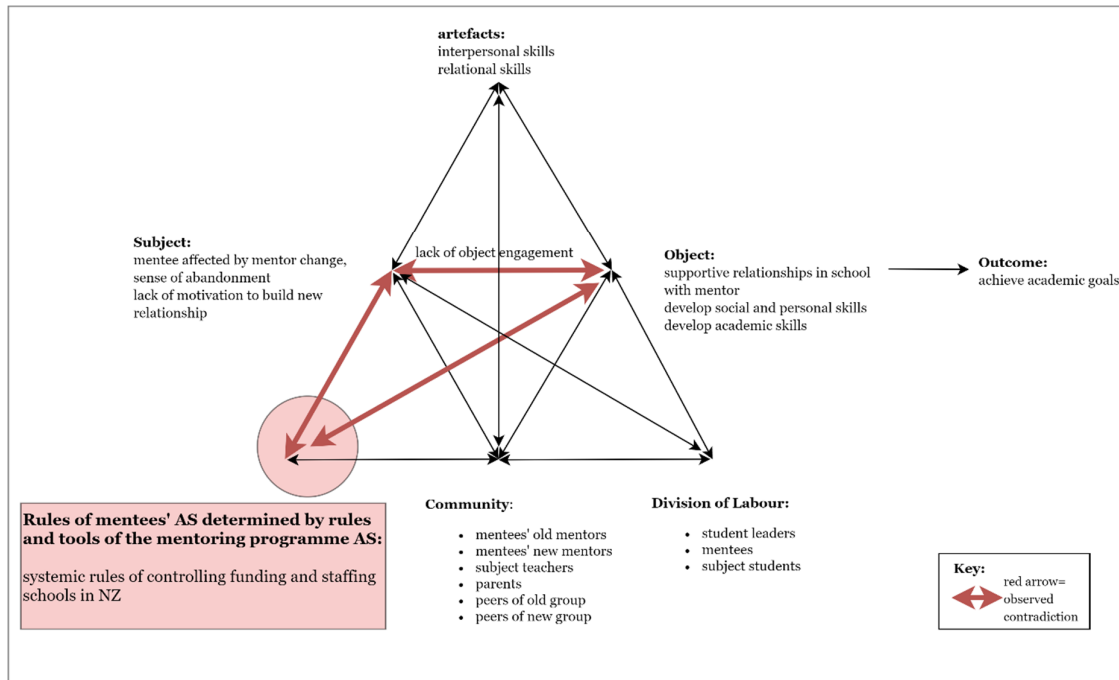


Figure 6. 1 Impact of mentor change caused by primary contradiction of use and exchange value in students' activity system

Contradictions grounded in assessment system and curriculum change

The systemic rules of the New Zealand assessment system and the school's curriculum decisions influenced students' experiences of mentoring and also created contradictions. The rules of the New Zealand Curriculum regulated the broad framework for the curriculum in the school. The National Certificate of Educational Achievement (NCEA) system regulated students' assessment to gain credits to pass NCEA levels 1, 2 and 3. Assessments consisted of internal standards, taught and assessed by subject teachers, and external standards, end of year examinations, marked externally. Teacher-mentors were expected to monitor students' progress in gaining credits, inform students and parents regularly of the progress.

The school's rules which impacted the mentoring programme were the timetable structure and the local curriculum of the school. The school's timetable was adjusted to schedule three one-hour sessions per week for mentoring. For each senior subject, hours were reduced from four to three hours per week to generate time for mentoring. The reduction of curriculum time created pressure on teachers and students to fulfil the requirements for NCEA assessments.

As illustrated in Figure 6.2, the introduction of the programme altered the object of the activity system of students and had the potential to expand their activity system. In addition to gaining sufficient credits to gain their school leaving qualification, students were

expected to participate in mentoring. The new object for students was still evolving. Not all students understood the new mentoring object, and some were reluctant to participate.

Applying the *third principle of historicity* highlighted possible reasons for some students' reluctance to participate in mentoring. One possible reason was based in the primary contradiction of the systemic rule of the activity system, the NCEA assessment system, which required students to achieve a certain number of NCEA credits to gain their school leaving qualification regardless of other activities. Some teacher-mentors noticed that students had developed an attitude that they would only participate in activities if awarded credits, leading to secondary contradictions in the activity system existing before the introduction of mentoring (see Figure 6.2 a). This attitude manifested in students' reluctance to participate in subject activities which did not gain them credits. The introduction of mentoring did not address existing internal contradictions. It intensified secondary contradictions which manifested as students' reluctance to participate in any type of activity not relating to credits including mentoring activities, increased pressure on students and teachers to complete NCEA assessments in reduced time (Appendix J). The introduction of the programme aggravated this attitude (Figure 6.2 b). One WC participant expressed: "*You lose time on your subject standards that's the main problem*" (WC Group C). The existing attitude of some students to only complete work worth credits and the new added pressure of less subject time might be a reason for some teacher-mentors' observations that some students were reluctant to participate in wellbeing activities. This attitude was reflected in some student participants' opinions. One example expressed that "*it distracts you from doing the achievement standards in your classes or your other subjects*" (WC Group B). The re-structure of curriculum time removed free lessons from senior students' timetable previously used as study time (compare rules in Figure 6.2). Students in the leadership group felt that they used most of their mentoring time "*to do planning and leadership but then it takes away the time to study for actual assessments*" (WC Group B). The introduction of mentoring changed students' activity system. Students were caught in a conflict of wanting to focus on their education and having to give up time for mentoring activities. Not all students perceived this change as useful or valuable.

The object of some students' activity system did not fully align with the object of the mentoring programme activity system (Figure 6.2 b) creating a quaternary contradiction. The expanded student activity system needed further support through expansive learning to solve the quaternary contradiction (Foot, 2014). Students, who already supported the mentoring programme and felt that it was beneficial, had progressed further in the expansive learning cycle than students who did not yet see its benefits.

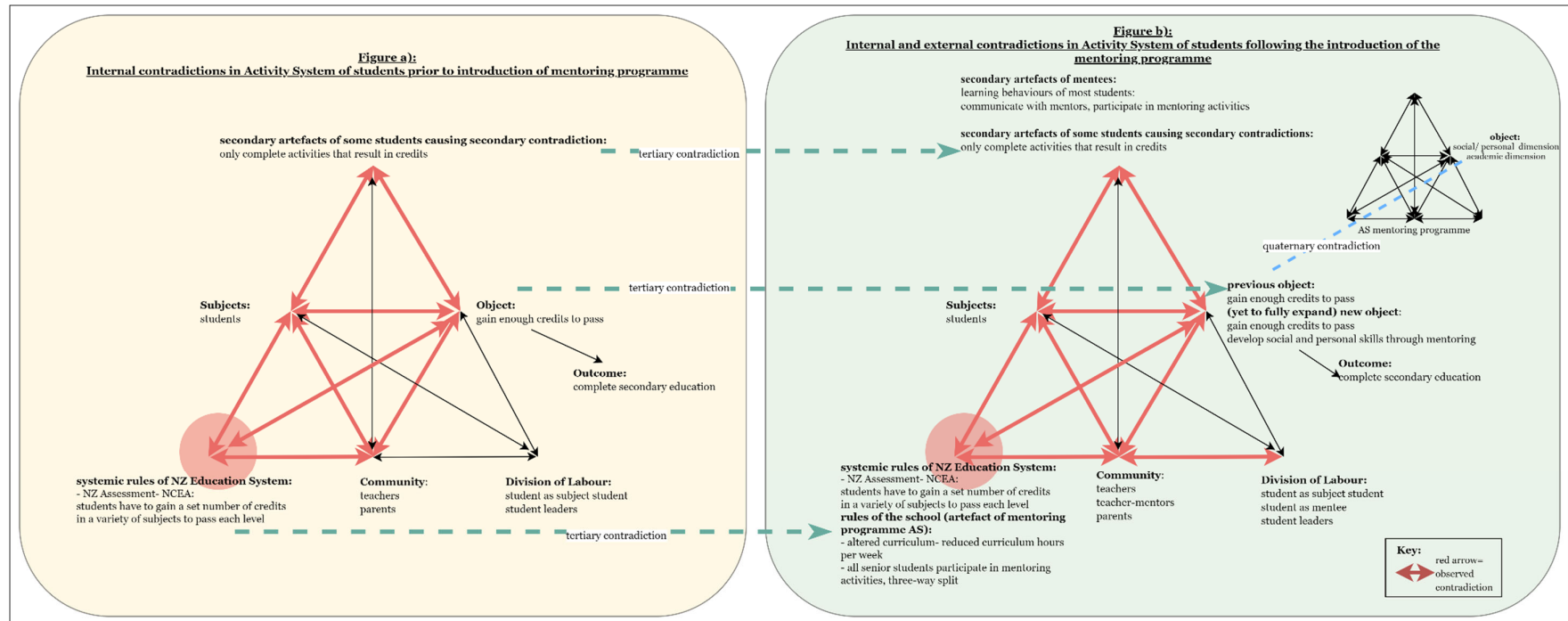


Figure 6. 2 Contradictions in students' activity system before and after the introduction of the mentoring programme

6.2.2. Secondary contradictions of implemented new artefacts

Structural supports such as the adjusted timetable structure and scheduled meetings with Deans and teacher-mentors were created to support the implementation of mentoring at Greenstone College. These supports were primary artefacts as shown in Table 6.2. Other primary artefacts, such as the structured programme and the conversation template, directly influenced teacher-mentors' work with their groups. Wartofsky's (1979) three-tiered hierarchy of tools/ artefacts outlined in Section 3.1.2. was evident in the mentoring activity system. Different teacher-mentors implemented the created primary artefacts differently as shown in their different practices in Chapter Four, their discussions of the understanding of the purpose of mentoring and the effects of mentoring on their teaching identity. When teacher-mentors developed alternative resources or chose their own individual activities, they created tertiary artefacts. Developing these resources required creativity which was most evident when implementing different wellbeing and teambuilding activities or alternative resources used for the learning hour. These differences in implementation were evidence for secondary and tertiary artefacts in the activity system (Table 6.2).

Primary artefacts	Secondary artefacts	Tertiary artefacts	Supports academic object	Supports social/ personal object
Adjusted timetable structure	Reduced subject curriculum hours, three one-hour slots for mentoring		✓	✓
Structured programme- three-way split	learning hour	Alternative resources developed	✓	
	wellbeing	Individual teacher-mentors' activities for wellbeing hour		✓
	study time with one-on-one mentoring		✓	✓
Shared 'traffic light' document	Completion of document by subject teachers		✓	
Conversation template	One-on-one conversations		✓	✓
Conferences with parents	Scheduled meetings		✓	✓
Weekly Year Level Deans and mentor meetings	30 minutes per week meeting		✓	
Professional learning for teachers	Training for teachers on mentoring skills		✓	✓
Student Management System	Extended use of SMS		✓	✓

Table 6. 2 Hierarchy of tools/ artefacts evident in the mentoring programme

Difference in implementation created secondary contradictions experienced by teacher-mentors and students as inconsistencies between teacher-mentors and their groups. I highlighted these differences in detail in Chapters Four and Five. Appendix J provides an overview of all secondary contradictions of the activity system created by the introduction of the new artefacts and Figure 6.3 illustrates the contradictions I discuss in this section.

Inconsistencies in implementing set mentoring activities and in completing the shared academic tracking ‘Traffic Light’ document by subject teachers were the most apparent contradictions (see Figure 6.3). Teacher-mentors and students commented on differences in wellbeing activities, one-on-one conversations and the lack of input by subject teachers into the document. Inconsistencies occurred most frequently when teacher-mentors could not see the value of some suggested activities which pointed to the lack of a shared understanding of the mentoring role between teacher-mentors. One reason for this contradiction was rooted in a primary contradiction where the artefacts were perceived as not directly contributing to the object of the activity system (Foot, 2001). For example, in Section 4.2.2, I discussed that teacher-mentors did not always understand the purpose of the activities, e.g., some life skill activities, they were expected to complete with their groups and either adjusted them or did not complete them at all. Similarly, the perceived lack of consistency between subject teachers to complete the ‘Traffic Light’ document (Section 4.2.2) was an administrative demand and presented a primary use and exchange value contradiction. The task of completing the form had no direct link to progressing students’ academic knowledge and might have been perceived as an administrative burden that subject teachers chose not to complete. Another reason for inconsistencies were teacher-mentors’ differences in skills and prior experiences (Section 4.2.3) causing primary contradictions at the nodes of ‘subject’ and ‘artefacts’ (see Figure 6.3). As Figure 6.3 shows, the difference of implementation due to the lack of a shared understanding between all teachers impacted teacher-mentors’ work and threatened to undermine the object of the activity system - the intended outcomes of the mentoring programme.

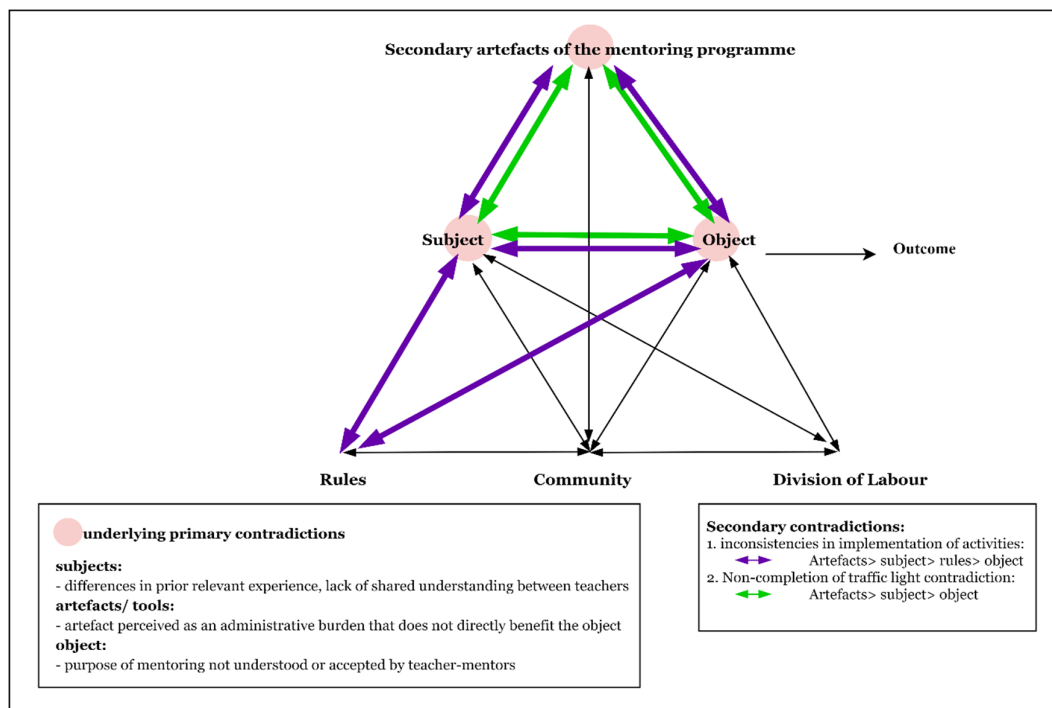


Figure 6. 3 Secondary contradictions of implemented new artefacts

6.2.3. Tertiary and quaternary contradictions triggered by expansion of role

The introduction of mentoring led to an expansion of the activity system of teacher-mentors. It required expansive learning to produce new patterns of mentoring activity. External tertiary contradictions were created by a change of object of the same activity system and other external quaternary contradictions between different activity systems emerged. In Chapter Four, I explored how teachers experienced the new mentoring role, the challenges they faced and how they adapted their practice. Examples of adaptation to the new role included instances of expansive learning. Experienced challenges were manifestations of contradictions within and between activity systems.

Tertiary contradictions due to expansion of pastoral role

Applying the *third principle of CHAT of historicity* helps to understand tertiary contradictions created between the previous role of ‘tutor teacher’ and the new role of ‘teacher-mentor’.

Prior to the mentoring role, most teachers had an administrative role of ‘tutor teacher’ which had no pastoral responsibilities. The purpose of daily 15-minute meetings was to pass on notices, messages and reminders to students. Student issues which tutors became aware of were passed on to the Deans. Tutors were not expected to deal with academic or personal issues or to contact home other than to follow up on absences. Tutors had little

knowledge of students' personal circumstances, but Deans would have this knowledge. Tutors did not usually work with the same group of students in consecutive years.

The introduction of mentoring required teacher-mentors to take on a different role, accept different rules, accommodate new demands to their division of labour and incorporate new artefacts to work towards an altered object (see Figure 6.4). Mentoring extended teachers' pastoral responsibilities and needed a different engagement with students and a new identity as teacher-mentor. Teacher-mentors developed in-depth knowledge about their students and established close relationships with them to meet the intended mentoring outcomes. Deans assumed a supporting role for teacher-mentors to help with challenging situations or circumstances. New activities were represented in the implementation of new artefacts (Figure 6.4 and Table 6.2) which could only be implemented successfully if the expanded object of the mentoring role was understood positively (Engeström, 2001). Teacher-mentors needed to be supportive of the object of the mentoring programme to adjust their ways of working. One example of expansive learning was teacher-mentors' implementation of restorative circles in their work with their mentoring groups. I highlighted in Chapter Four that restorative circles were previously used in the school to solve conflicts between students, but now were implemented as a team building activity. As illustrated in Figure 6.4, the amended object of the mentoring programme facilitated the extended use of this activity beyond its original meaning. Expansive learning created new knowledge and new practices leading to a qualitative expansion in the activity system in response to tertiary contradictions by recognising expansive opportunities (Daniels, 2004).

The underlying primary contradictions, shown in Figure 6.4, influenced how tertiary contradictions manifested for individual teacher-mentors. Teacher-mentors with prior relevant professional experiences viewed the expansion as less challenging and as a growth opportunity, as discussed in Chapter Four. These teacher-mentors experienced less underlying primary contradictions at the 'subject' node. Teacher-mentors with more experience were more likely to implement new innovative practices, new artefacts, successfully resulting in creatively implemented activities. Some teacher-mentor participants discussed innovative new practices with various examples of team building games or social activities. These teacher-mentors were adjusting to the expanded object of the mentoring activity and responded in enriched ways by creating new tertiary artefacts (Daniels, 2004).

Teacher-mentors who enacted creative new tertiary artefacts viewed tertiary contradictions as opportunities for growth. These teacher-mentors used their 'professional creativity' to create new social patterns, concepts and material artefacts by "interpret(ing) complex social situations such as classrooms and to respond to them flexibly with new ideas and solutions" (Ellis, 2011, p. 182). In these examples, the tertiary contradiction and the

subsequent expansive learning were seen as a positive potential of the mentoring context. These teacher-mentors highly valued forging relationships, sharing ideas and engaging with their mentees in new activities which would not normally be included in subject teaching. They appreciated having time with their students which was not focused on academic achievement as shown in Maria's statement:

I love those three hours a week I get with the students. It's just connection time - stress free. Whereas if I'd only had them for 15 minutes every four days [referring to previous tutor time], you don't have time.

Expansive learning among teacher-mentor participants occurred to different extents, depending on their prior relevant knowledge, but also in response to teacher-mentors' experiences of the external mentoring environment. Influential external factors were perceptions of the programme's organisation and rules, the quality of mentoring relationships with their groups, the lack of a shared understanding of the role and the perceived quality of support received from the school. Not all teacher-mentors shared the same understanding of the teacher-mentor role as some teacher-mentors were perceived as just 'doing a job'. Other examples showed that not all teacher-mentors shared the same repertoire by not implementing the agreed structure, new artefacts or not engaging with students. As highlighted in Chapter Four, teacher-mentors felt that it was assumed that their skills would naturally grow. Some were critical of the support they received for the role. The successful role expansion from tutor-teachers to teacher-mentors required scaffolding for teacher-mentors' expansive learning, i.e., through the provision of appropriate professional learning. Lack of shared understanding and perceived absence of support for teachers pointed to the lack of support within their Zone of Proximal Development in the activity system. Teacher-mentors' development needed to be scaffolded to strengthen the shared understanding of the mentoring role.

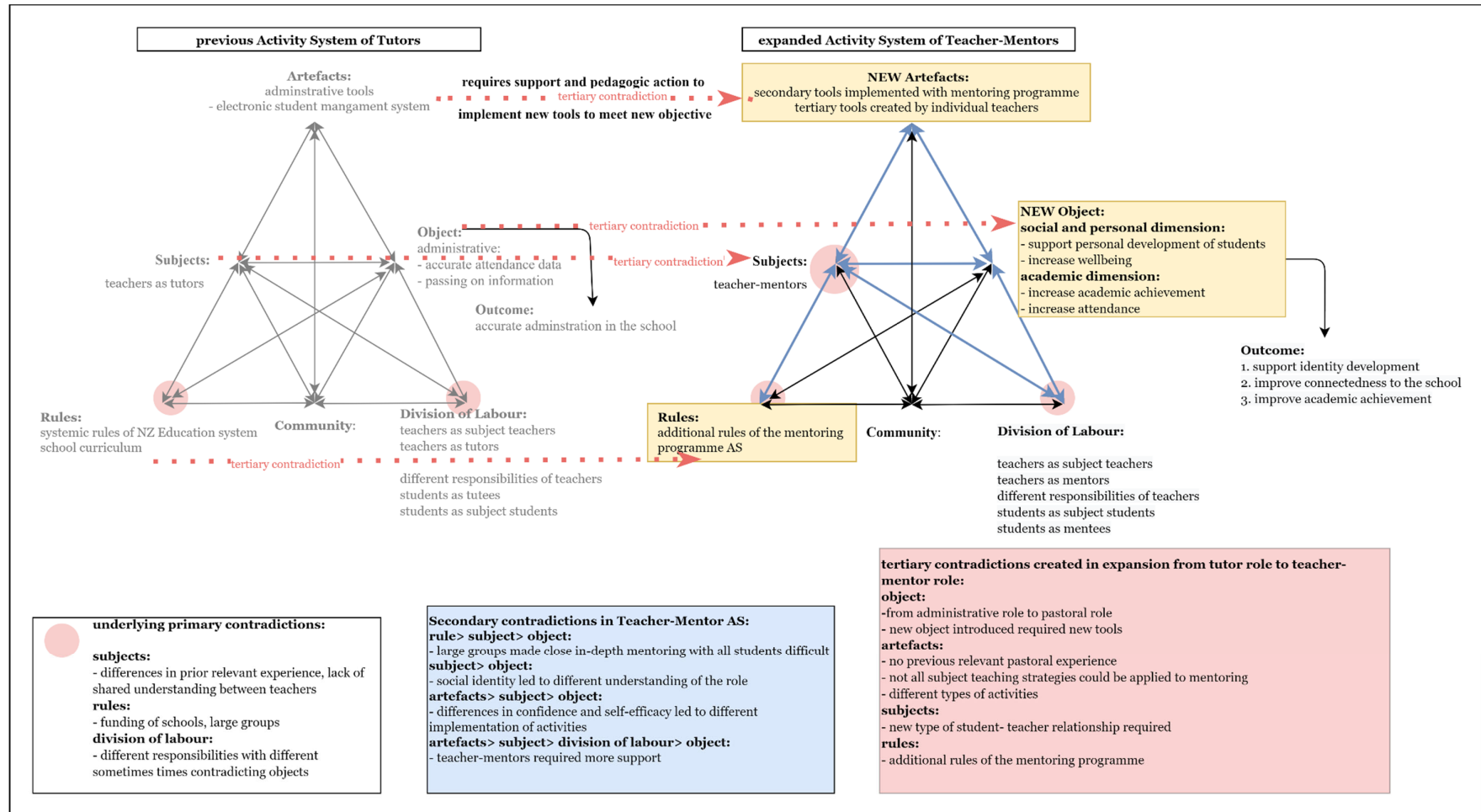


Figure 6. 4 Contradictions in teacher-mentors' activity system caused by expansion of pastoral role

Quaternary contradictions between mentor role and subject teacher role

The introduction of mentoring required some subject teachers to take on a new role or, as discussed in the previous section and illustrated in Figure 6.4, expand their previous role of tutor teacher. Taking on the new mentoring role created quaternary contradictions between the new role which required an expansion of the traditional teaching role, and the subject teacher role. The interactions between the new mentoring role and subject teacher role activity systems created these new quaternary contradictions which are illustrated in Figure 6.5. The activity system of teacher-mentors was situated among other activity systems which interacted with one another creating complementary and contradictory rules, artefacts and objects causing further quaternary contradictions. These contradictions presented as moral conflicts, i.e., the enforcement of uniform rules, and at times conflicting purposes of the mentoring and the teaching role, i.e., the additional personal and social dimension of the mentoring role (discussed in Chapter Four and illustrated in Figure 6.5). As shown in Figure 6.5, the additional social and personal dimension of the teacher-mentor role required more personal relationships with students than subject teachers would usually establish and required teacher-mentors to use different or new artefacts (Table 6.2). Teacher-mentors were always subject teachers. Some were teacher-mentors as well as subject teachers for a few students which could affect the dynamics of their subject class and their mentoring relationship. Most teacher-mentor participants felt that being both for some students was beneficial to understanding students' behaviours and learning styles, thus showing that the interaction of the activity systems and quaternary contradictions can be complementary to activity systems.

Expansion of the role and associated contradictions had the potential to be sources of change and innovations in other areas of the school. The implementation of new artefacts in mentoring led some teacher-mentors to rethink their subject teaching strategies to trial new teaching practices in their subject areas. The change to own subject teaching practices because of experiences of mentoring were constructs of expansive action and learning and showed that “expansive learning activity produces culturally new patterns of activity” (Engeström, 2001, p. 139). Evidence for this type of innovation showed that not all change happened because it was planned but took place as a response to contradictions created between activity systems (Engeström, 2009a). Teacher-mentors' different understandings of the mentoring object led to various innovative creative practices as they individually defined the expanded mentoring role. The new expanded object of mentoring was a source for innovation for some subject teachers, as I show in the following in-depth examples, extending the traditional educational artefacts of some subject teachers.

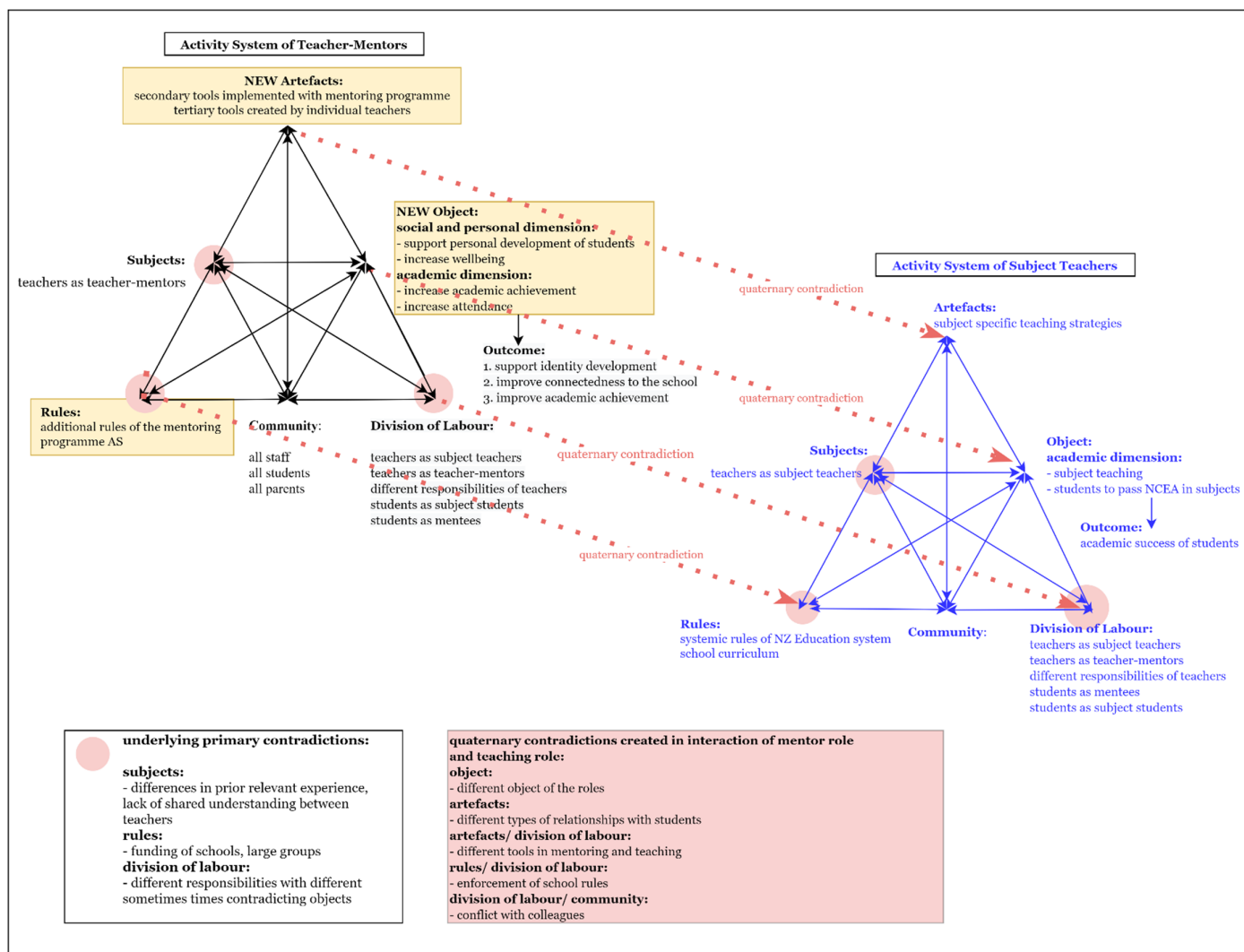


Figure 6. 5 Quaternary contradictions between teacher-mentor activity system and subject teacher activity system

This concludes my analysis of the mentoring programme at Greenstone College through the lens of third generation CHAT. Table 6.3 provides an overview of the types of contradictions of the mentoring activity system and the various levels of contradictions I discussed in this section.

Level of Contradiction	Characteristics of Contradiction	Examples of contradiction in mentoring programme
Primary	Within each node of an Activity System (AS), contradiction of use and exchange value	Example Rules: external funding of the school limited staffing and larger than desired mentoring groups had to be formed
Secondary	Occurs between two nodes of an activity system	Example: Implemented new artefacts create variety of secondary contradictions, e.g., completion of traffic light is not consistent- contradiction: artefacts> subject> object (full list Appendix J)
Tertiary	Develops when the object of an AS is altered and expands the AS	Example: Object of tutor teacher: administrative task Object of teacher-mentor: pastoral and academic object Required new artefacts, new rules and different ways of working of teacher-mentors
Quaternary	Triggered by tertiary contradiction, occurs between expanded AS and neighbouring AS	Example: AS of teacher-mentors and AS of subject teachers: Different ways of working create tensions between teaching and mentoring identity

Table 6. 3 Examples of levels of contradictions in mentoring programme activity system

6.3. In-depth examples

This section explores the mentoring experiences of five participants; three teacher-mentors and two mentees. These in-depth analyses serve to illustrate various experiences and perceptions and challenges of the mentoring programme discussed in Chapters Four and Five and exemplify the different contradictions outlined in the previous section of this chapter. Appendix K provides an overview of key information of the teacher-mentors and mentees who are the focus of this section.

6.3.1. Case 1- Dyad Maria and Kyla

At the time of the interviews Maria had been Kyla's teacher-mentor for three years. Prior to the introduction of mentoring Maria was Kyla's tutor teacher.

Expansion of role and relationships

Maria understood that her relationships and activities with her mentoring group needed to be different from her role as tutor to meet the object of mentoring. Maria enjoyed spending

time with her group without academic pressure and put great emphasis on wellbeing activities. Her implementation of activities reflected the intended balance of the mentoring outcomes. She was an experienced teacher, implemented the primary artefacts and adjusted her practice to mitigate primary contradictions caused by large groups. She felt she built close relationships and developed in-depth knowledge of most of her students. Maria felt that building and maintaining close relationships with all students through developing personal knowledge and listening was essential:

I've listened often to those students that find that either in class there's people who talk more, so they don't have the opportunity to talk or what they say isn't worthwhile. They know that it doesn't matter what it is, or how important they think it is. That actually, I think it's important and that I'm happy to listen.

Being open, available to her mentees and showing genuine interest were important strategies for Maria. She felt she had a range of conversation strategies which allowed her to build close relationships with all her mentees and explained that “it's all about trying to find common interests, or you are starting right from basics and just simply taking an interest”.

Maria was confident with the expansion of her role and understood her role to be a support person for her mentees. The support for her mentees extended beyond the actual mentoring time into her teaching time and break time. Having built close relationships with her students, Maria's classroom and office offered students a safe space. Maria's priority was the wellbeing of her mentees and she explained:

My office door is always open no matter what. I have some of them [her mentees] come during class and I think 'what can I get my Year Nine to do for five minutes while I can sort this out'?

Maria used the student management system to address the primary contradiction of large mentoring groups. She developed a tracking system by using the student management system to keep an overview of which mentees she had one-on-one conversations with and who she needed to catch up with. “There might be a whole lot of entries, or I've noticed something about their attendance, and I'll say, 'Do you mind if we had a chat?' ”.

Maria's and Kyla's relationship exemplified how school-wide mentoring deepened the quality of traditional student-teacher relationships whereby teacher-mentors became important sources of support for students. As Kyla explained, the quality of their relationship was very different to the quality of Kyla's relationships with other subject teachers:

Other subject teachers I can joke around with, but I can't tell them any personal issues I'm having, because my subject teachers, they always change. I don't really build that kind of relationship with them because there's not really much point.

Having had a mentoring relationship for three years, Kyla appreciated her stability and support and explained that “it got better for me, and I still use her advice to this day. I

learned more from her than I thought I would". Kyla described her mentoring relationship as trusting and referred to Maria as a friend 'on a professional level'. She appreciated the individual attention Maria paid to her students' personal and academic issues despite her teaching workload:

I look up to her a lot though, because she has a lot of classes, students and assessments to do, but she also finds time to help me personally with family issues and school issues.

Kyla recalled one occasion when Maria had given her advice which she trusted:

She [Maria] noticed that I was having issues in classes. She thought that it was my friends. She spoke to me, and I told her how things at home had been an issue. She gave me advice on how to deal with home problems and school problems, like taking time for just myself instead of letting everything bottle up.

This shows the expansion of the teacher-mentor role beyond school to home and other areas.

Expanded practices and potential conflicts

The expansion of the mentoring role required new practices which were evident in different activity systems Maria engaged in. Maria incorporated various new activities with her mentoring group like yoga, mindfulness activities and a local online newspaper quiz into her weekly routine. Her group played games such as Minefield at least once per week. She realised that her students enjoyed these activities and improved students' social skills by having to work together. These activities were opportunities to learn about her students and build relationships. Maria found some wellbeing successful in mentoring, so she began to incorporate these activities into her subject teaching. She wanted to create the same community feeling of her mentoring group while teaching:

Since we started the mentoring programme, I have actually built time into all my NCEA classes for us just to connect with each other. I didn't even think about that before I started mentoring. The students in my mentoring class, commented on how we're a team or family, and they feel so comfortable with each other. I thought, maybe I can start incorporating some into my actual teaching.

This example showed that new mentoring activities expanded Maria's subject teaching activity system with new artefacts and made her feel more effective as a subject teacher.

The quaternary contradiction between teaching role and mentoring role was most evident for Maria when supporting students in challenging situations they experienced with their subject teachers. Maria showed warmth and empathy for her mentees. She wanted to be their advocate if they had difficulties with other subject teachers. This attitude placed tensions between her own identities as teacher and teacher-mentor, and sometimes between

her and other teachers. On occasions mentees stayed in her class instead of going to their own lessons. She described the situation with Kyla:

Rather than wagging if she's really struggling, she'll come and hang over here. And I'll just flick a quick email to the teacher. 'Hey, she's with me, is that okay? If not, I'll have a word with her and try and get her back to class'.

Maria's professional integrity towards her teacher colleagues and her advocacy for her students conflicted each other in this situation. She wanted to support her students but needed to be supportive of her teacher colleagues. She tolerated that students did not attend their subject class and ensured that the subject teacher was kept informed but in doing so risked disapproval of her actions by her teacher colleagues. Maria gave another example of an occasion when she was students' advocate which could potentially result in conflicts with colleagues:

I've had a restorative with her [a mentee in Maria's group] and a teacher. That just demonstrates to them [the students] that 'no, actually Mrs is on our side, she's speaking up for us, she's telling us and teaching us how we can speak up for ourselves'.

Despite some tensions between her role as subject teacher and teacher-mentor which Maria acknowledged were “*sometimes a fine balance*”, she was clear on her role in relation to the school rules:

Students know that I am still a teacher when it comes to school rules. I demonstrate it in the way I run my classroom, jackets come off, gums going in the bin, devices are away unless I've said devices are cool. They know what my boundaries are. But they equally know that if they feel wronged, that my ears will be open, and I'm happy to stand up for them.

Maria noticed the quaternary contradiction between the teaching and the mentoring role in colleagues. She sensed that not all teacher-mentors and not all other teaching staff were supportive of mentoring. She thought the new demands could be “*for some teachers quite confronting, challenging*”. Maria experienced the secondary contradiction of lack of consistency between teacher-mentors in some of her subject students' comments:

I have students say, 'Oh, we have to do this. Why does your class not have to do this?' Little things like that, 'Oh, we want to be in your mentoring class, you do this instead of that'.

Perceived influence on a deeper personal dimension

Kyla's socio-emotional development and academic progress showed how mentoring could influence students on a deeper personal dimension. Maria referred to Kyla often in her interview. She discussed how Kyla had changed during their mentoring relationship:

She came to me and said, 'I'm finding it so hard to stay in class.' And I said, 'if you look back, if this had been you in Year 11, you wouldn't have been in class at all. You look at the maturity you're demonstrating now even just by coming to me and saying, 'Miss I'm really struggling, what do I do?' The trust has built and I'm lucky I've had her since Year Ten.

Kyla acknowledged that it was Maria's influence which supported her personal development:

I think without Miss [Maria] I would still be the same. I was struggling with my attitude towards school and other people around me. Right now, I think it was disrespectful. Without Miss [Maria] putting me on the right track, I would still be struggling.

She felt that Maria was also influential on her academic progress:

Truthfully if I didn't have her as a mentor, I think I would have found it hard to make it to Level Three this year because last year having her on my back all the time telling me I need to get my credits and I need to focus gave me a boost.

The mentoring relationship allowed Kyla to develop artefacts for dealing with tensions in her family life and supported her academic progress. Kyla's development was enabled through a positive mentoring relationship characterised by warmth, genuine interest and trust. The enduring positive relationship enabled an expansion of Kyla's activity system (Figure 6.2). The mentoring programme met her needs of support. The expansion of the object, the introduction of the programme, caused no negative tertiary contradictions for Kyla or Maria, instead, the expansion of the object was a growth opportunity for both.

6.3.2. Case 2- Dyad Tia and Hamish

Tia was Hamish' teacher-mentor for two years before he moved to the mentor group of student leaders in Year 13.

Expansion of practices and role conflicts

Tia recognised that the expansion of the traditional teaching role required expansive learning to introduce new practices. The secondary contradiction of artefacts - differently implemented artefacts - was evident in Tia's creativity. Tia found it difficult to stay focused on the set learning activities during the allotted learning hour. She felt that mentoring

required her to be flexible when students raised issues in conversations and that she needed to adjust how she was working with her group:

I love to talk, and they love to talk. And we decided we have one hour every week, where the whole point is connecting. During other times, I say, 'We'll talk about that on Friday'.

The tension caused by large group sizes were evident for Tia. She developed her own sticker tracking charts to keep an overview of completed one-on-one conversation. Tia felt that at times due to the size of the group the “*middle of the road*” students missed out when she was preoccupied with more challenging students.

Tia's expansive learning took place to meet the new object of mentoring through reflection of her ways of working and existing personal skills. She acknowledged that the teacher-mentor role and the subject teaching role required different ways of working. As *kaiārahi* Tia saw herself as working alongside her students as a guide whereas as a subject teacher she saw herself as leading from the front. “*As a subject teacher, you have overall control, and the content is non-negotiable*”. Tia also acknowledged that she needed to work on her personal qualities to become an effective teacher-mentor. She identified needing to improve her qualities of being a good listener to build and maintain good relationships with her students. She described the need for this skill in an example of one student:

One kid, I've gained this year, is still so bitter about one comment made by a teacher and it [the relationship] was just destroyed. I think the connection is important. And the kaiārahi's willingness to listen and work out what the kid needs or what they will respond to.

The tertiary contradictions between the previous tutor role and new teacher-mentor role presented opportunities for growth for Tia. Genuine interest and personal sharing helped Tia to implement a valuable teambuilding activity with her group. The routine of teatime developed after Tia shared with her mentees the practice of teatime of her parents. She explained:

We're talking about things that represent our cultures. I talked about the cups of tea, and I knew they love food, so I used it as a bribe, to get the buy in, 'Look, we can do fun things and eat food and drink cups of tea'. It was actually really interesting because they really responded to that.

The group came together during the last hour of the week to share afternoon tea, reflective quotes and personal conversations. Sometimes they also played games during teatime. Tia bought cups especially for her group and thought of new activities which would bond the group.

The conflict of roles between subject teachers and teacher-mentors was evident for Tia. She recognized that the two roles had different purposes requiring different ways of working. She understood her purpose of kaiārahi to:

try to guide them. The kids are trying to get through this dense bush, that is teenage hood. They're not always going to listen to me. Some of them are going to head off completely in the wrong direction, but I'm trying to give them a few more skills and tools to help them go through that.

The difference in purposes and practices between teacher-mentor and subject teacher meant that sometimes Tia felt that she was conflicted between supporting the student and having to implement school rules. She felt that enforcing school rules for the sake of good mentoring relationships put her into difficult situations of students making her choose between the school rules and the relationship. I highlighted her example of not knowing how to address nose studs that broke uniform rules in Section 4.3.1. She explained that “*I chose to come teach at a uniform school, so I have to enforce that or I'm making life hard for other people*”. Although those occasions were difficult situations, Tia conceded that it was her responsibility to uphold the school rules and support her colleagues.

Contradiction of mentor change and perceived influence of deepened quality of relationships

Regulations of the mentoring programme influenced students' experiences. The school's decision to change mentors for leadership students was influential in Hamish's experience. When awarded a student leadership role, he changed from Tia's group to the student leader mentor group. Hamish was initially hesitant to apply for a leadership role because of the accompanying mentor change rule. In his interview, Hamish questioned the rules and reasons for the arrangement of the mentor change for students who held leadership positions. Being successful in gaining a leadership role, he changed teacher-mentor at the start of the new academic year. Hamish found that while he enjoyed his leadership responsibility, he struggled with the change of mentor and with establishing a relationship with the new mentor and missed regular interactions with Tia. The rule of having to change mentoring group when taking on a leadership role created tensions for Hamish and disrupted Hamish' one supportive relationship at Greenstone College. Hamish felt that his leadership responsibilities had interfered with building a new close mentoring relationship:

I've had conversations with them [the new teacher-mentor], too. But it's not as often as it used to be, because I've got leadership. Probably the last three weeks, I haven't been there. I don't really get to be around them and develop that relationship.

Hamish identified essential mentor skills which were important for him to establish close mentoring relationships - being relaxed and being relatable. He thought the absence of these skills in his new mentor were the main reasons why he found the change of mentor so challenging. He explained the differences in approaches to the mentoring role: *"It's quite different. Because my old mentor relaxed, my new one isn't that like, there is a different dynamic"*.

Being like relatable? That's the biggest one. The best thing about my old mentor is that she's quite young. She could relate to the whole high school thing. She'll bring up her high school friends and how she felt when she was our age.

The impact of mentor change on Hamish reflected the deepened quality of traditional student-teacher relationships which some students developed with some teacher-mentors and the important source of support these teacher-mentors became. Hamish' relationship with Tia was characterised by trust and mutuality. Hamish felt that he could confide in Tia, was welcome to see her at any point and that Tia listened: *"One-time last year I randomly showed up there [in Tia's office] and we ended up talking for an hour. So, we procrastinated together"*. Hamish described his relationship with Tia as more friendly and relaxed than his relationships with other teachers because of the lack of academic pressure demonstrating the altered quality of traditional student-teacher relationships:

My subject teachers are going to tell me off because I forgot to do this homework. By having a teacher who doesn't expect work from you, by having THAT teacher, you're more comfortable to go up and speak to them.

The deeper relationship developed also by participating in non-academic activities. The teatime which Tia described was influential for Hamish and the group to build a trusting relationship with Tia:

We would sit down and drink coffee, and she [Tia] would have biscuits for us. We would talk together as a class, and she would go around and talk to us. If we were playing a game like mafia, she would get involved.

The teatime activities allowed Hamish to get to know Tia on a closer, more personal level. Hamish maintained the relationship with Tia after he changed mentor because he missed the support and the opportunities to share personal thoughts and struggles. He felt:

They're always there to help me. Even though I'm not in their class anymore, I can always come and see them. They'll make time to talk to me which is really cool.

Tia reported that Hamish still came to see her regularly to talk through challenges and experiences. She was happy to continue the mentoring relationship outside her allocated mentoring hours. Tia was aware that the support was needed but also needed to consider

possible effects on her professional relationship with Hamish' new teacher-mentor as a teaching colleague.

The perceived influence of mentoring on a more personal level was evident in Hamish' discussions. Hamish felt that Tia was influential in developing his confidence and in supporting him to become involved in new activities at school. He applied for a leadership role because of Tia's encouragement:

Last year, she encouraged me to do backstage crew for [title of the school production] which turned out to be one of my favourite things I've ever done in school. I probably wouldn't have done that without her. She also encouraged me to go for leadership.

Tia recalled her support of Hamish' aspirations and potential, *"I'm very proud of Hamish. I love that Hamish became a leader.* Hamish felt that Tia built his confidence and influenced his personality development:

She's opened me up and made me get involved in more things. From Year Ten when I never put my hand up and ask questions, now where I am yelling across the room. Sometimes it's been a big change.

Hamish' experience of mentor change highlighted the contradictions of this rule outlined in Section 6.2.1. Hamish found a solution to mitigate it by maintaining his relationship with Tia. His ongoing relationship with Tia showed that through the influence of mentoring he had established a deeper trusting student-teacher relationship which supported him to stay engaged in school.

6.3.3. Case 3- Teacher-Mentor Karmen

Karmen formed good relationships with a first mentoring group who engaged in activities and one-on-one conversations. This group completed secondary education while she was on long-term leave. Upon returning from leave, Karmen was assigned a new group of mentees in their first year of mentoring who were reluctant to engage with her and in mentoring activities. The experiences with her first group were positive and she recognised the potential of mentoring:

It's always nice to have someone who believes in you. For a lot of our kids, they don't really have that. It's nice to give them that point of reference. I think that would be a huge impact for some of our kids who come from really difficult backgrounds.

As a less experienced teacher without relevant professional experience, the primary contradiction at the subject node influenced how Karmen implemented mentoring (Figure

6.4). Karmen had no previous pastoral experience of dealing with complex learning, behavioural or pastoral issues, yet several students in her group had these characteristics.

Contradictions caused by large mentoring groups limited Karmen's ability to develop one-on-one relationships with all students. Some students requested Karmen's support in one-on-one conversations. She saw the value to learn more about students, their interest and challenges:

The ones that I've managed to do, they have been really nice, because I've been able to get a better idea of what's going on for students and offer advice where I personally can.

Contradictions caused by the assessment system which influenced students' attitude to activities limited Karmen's ability to implement new practices. She struggled "to get the kids on board" with activities. After spending a lot of time preparing new activities, she was met with students' resistance which affected her confidence. Her new group of students did not want to get involved in mentoring activities which Karmen prepared. She felt that the

attitude that the kids bring, is that this is a time that we muck around and 'why are we wasting our time if it's not going to give us credits'?

Influence of professional experience, change of practices and absence of support

Less experienced teachers appeared to struggle more with the expansion of the role and the implementation of new practices. As one of the less experienced teachers, Karmen expressed that she felt more secure in her role as subject teacher than as teacher-mentor. In her subject she incorporated various teaching strategies involving games, quizzes, group and pair work. "I feel like I know what I'm talking about in my own subject. I have experience of different ways to present things and different activities that we can do". Despite her insecurity, Karmen understood the need to change practices as a teacher-mentor and to incorporate activities even though she was unfamiliar with wellbeing activities. She found the different activities difficult because "my first inclination isn't to the really good ideas... [There are] a lot of those teambuilding tasks that you can do in mentoring. I've never really come across [these] before". Karmen spent a long time researching and planning activities which were new and unlike activities of her own subject:

You do your own research of them [team building activities], but some of them don't work and if you've got a class like mine, who are relatively reluctant to do absolutely anything at all, then some of those things just don't go down well and then I don't know what to do. For example, it took half an hour to get my class into a circle, they were so reluctant that once they finally decided to move the furniture,

they sort of climbed around and through the furniture, and it was just like, I can't even be bothered dealing with it.

The students' attitude left Karmen feeling disillusioned with mentoring. In the end she *"gave up because it was just much easier to try and get them working individually because the responses I was getting were 'Why are you making us do work?'"*

The tertiary and quaternary contradictions created through the expansion of the role manifested in Karmen's experience (Section 6.2.3). She thought that a lack of understanding of the mentoring role and lack of support from the school left her feeling underprepared to effectively carry out the mentoring role. Karmen expected more support, professional development and clarity of what the teacher-mentor role should entail:

When you go into the school mentoring programme, they give you no idea of what you're supposed to be. It's just set stuff of what you're supposed to do. [We need] a better indication of what we should be doing. We are given some resources and it's just make the best of it kind of thing. Whereas, I don't know, not having any background.

Her criticism of the lack of support highlighted the absence of support within the Zone of Proximal Development in the teacher-mentor activity system. Karmen expected more professional development to extend her pastoral knowledge and skills to feel confident to appropriately support all students in her group. Karmen approached the Year Level Dean for support which did not eventuate. This lack of requested support negatively impacted on Karmen's perception of the programme and *"really ruined the idea of trying to make a nice community culture with the mentoring group. I have been met with so much resistance this year"*. Karmen's attempts to implement new activities were examples of expansive learning to meet the extended object of mentoring. Uncooperative students replaced the intended new mentoring object with a behaviour management object creating a 'runaway object' which was an unintended consequence of existing and new activities (Engeström, 2009b). Her attempts at expansion were not successful, resulting in Karmen not believing in the benefits of this programme.

6.3.4. Discussion of in-depth examples

The in-depth examples highlighted similarities and differences in teacher-mentors' and mentees' experiences and perceptions of the school-wide mentoring programme. Their experiences showed the influence of the interactions of neighbouring activity systems, internal and external contradictions of the mentoring programme and the impact of the context on subjects in activity systems.

All four levels of contradictions were evident and were perceived as either challenges or opportunities for growth. Challenges of contradictions were most obvious when teacher-mentors encountered difficulties or conflicts. Contradictions were more likely seen as opportunities for growth when linked with positive experiences. Both possibilities highlighted that the contradictions were the driving force of change (Engeström, 2015).

The primary contradiction of large group sizes presented both challenges and opportunities. It influenced how all three teacher-mentors organised their activities and tracked one-on-one conversations with their mentoring groups. Tia's ongoing support of Hamish showed that while she was unable to resolve the primary contradiction of group change, she helped ease the impact of this contradiction on Hamish by continuing to act informally as his teacher-mentor.

The primary contradiction at the subject node of previous professional experience influenced teacher-mentors' confidence and self-efficacy beliefs to fulfil the role. Maria and Tia, as experienced teachers, found it easier to expand the role than Karmen who was the least experienced teacher.

The secondary contradiction of implementing new artefacts was mainly seen as an opportunity for growth and to expand practices. The three teacher-mentor participants recognised challenges with the implementation of some artefacts, but they attempted to change their practices. Karmen tried new team building activities which were previously unfamiliar to her. Tia's routine of cups of tea represented a new activity which would not normally take place in subject classrooms. The work as teacher-mentor influenced Maria's subject teaching strategies. She incorporated new activities into her subject teaching. Maria's example shows the influence of the expansion of the mentoring activity system on the neighbouring teaching activity system which addressed quaternary contradictions caused by the tensions between the teacher-mentor and subject teaching roles.

The tertiary contradiction of expanding the role from tutor teacher to teacher-mentor was a challenge for Karmen but presented growth opportunities for Tia and Maria. Karmen's contradiction further intensified due to her inexperience of dealing with pastoral matters and the absence of requested support. Tia and Maria's positive experiences with their groups assisted the expansion of the role and both could focus on working towards the expanded object.

6.4. Chapter Conclusion

The CHAT analysis of this chapter highlighted contradictions of the programme created either by rules in the school, the New Zealand education system, the historicity of the pastoral care role or in the different purpose of the mentoring role as opposed to the subject

teaching role. Regardless of their origin, all identified contradictions threatened to weaken the object of the activity system — the identified intended academic and social development outcomes. They affected teacher-mentors' abilities to enact the mentoring role well and students' experiences and perceptions of the mentoring programme. Most prevalent was the lack of support within the Zone of Proximal Development which could guide teacher-mentors in their work. Teacher-mentors required support to produce new practices of mentoring activity and to establish a stronger shared mentoring object and outcomes.

In-depth examples of the second part of this chapter synthesised the key themes raised in Chapters Four and Five and in the CHAT analysis of this chapter. These examples further stressed the influence of teacher-mentors' efficacy, relevant professional experience and required support through professional learning. The in-depth examples showed that underlying primary contradictions of systemic rules impacted experiences of teacher-mentors and students most, while other levels of contradictions were more nuanced experiences depending on personal attributes such as professional experience of teachers and personal circumstances of students.

Chapter 7: Discussion and Conclusions

Schools in New Zealand are tasked to find ways to address growing concerns for students' wellbeing and mental health. The first step is to recognise that not just students' academic development, but also their personal and social development that needs in-depth attention and deliberate actions. Therefore, a focus on intensive pastoral care and close positive student-teacher relationships is required. In this study, I offered one example of an intensive pastoral care programme, Greenstone College's school-wide mentoring programme, as one possibility to address concerns of students' wellbeing, identity development and sense of belonging to the school. In the last three chapters, I presented and discussed teacher-mentors' and students' experiences and perceptions of a school-wide mentoring programme. I also provided a CHAT analysis of the programme's context discussing some underlying systemic tensions which influenced the development and implementation of the programme. This final chapter synthesises the study's findings before discussing implications, contributions and making recommendations for future research.

7.1. Synthesis of findings

Four issues emerged from the findings of the study which have implications for the introduction of mentoring and pastoral care programmes and educational reform more generally.

7.1.1. *Student-teacher and mentoring relationships*

It was evident from this study that the nature and quality of mentoring relationships profoundly influenced students' experiences and attitudes towards their education. The study showed that students' experiences and perceptions of mentoring relationships were directly influenced by the attitude of their teacher-mentor, the quality of their interactions, the activities and the rules governing the setting. The ability and willingness of teacher-mentors to establish close personal mentoring relationships was shaped by their personal skills and attitudes towards the programme and educational change but also the opportunity to partake in professional learning. Conditions within the school, i.e., large mentoring groups, also influenced some teacher-mentors' attitudes and abilities to fulfil the mentoring role and to establish close relationships with all students in their mentoring groups. The mentoring relationships required an extension of traditional student-teacher relationships and the traditional teacher identity to achieve social and personal outcomes for students in

addition to their academic development. Close mentoring relationships, and consequently positive mentoring outcomes, required genuine personal investment and involvement from both teacher-mentors and students.

These findings are particularly pertinent as the significance of student-teacher relationships once again emerged and confirmed studies, highlighted in Section 2.5.1, which foregrounded the significance of interpersonal student-teacher relationships in education (e.g., Bernstein-Yamashiro, 2013b; Bishop, 2008; Bishop, 2019; Bishop et al., 2014; Greene Nolan, 2020). Of significance for the New Zealand context are Bishop et al.'s (2014) and Bishop's (2019) findings of the direct influence of teachers' ability to create *whanaungatanga*, family-like relationships, on improving student engagement in classrooms. A relational approach rather than a '*functional knowledge transmission*' approach (Greene Nolan, 2020) makes learning more meaningful for students. However, these authors concurred that developing attentive personal and family-like relationships should not diminish the academic purpose of the teaching role (Greene Nolan, 2020) but require a fine balance between caring relationships and academically challenging opportunities (Bishop et al., 2014).

The value of this additional interpersonal dimension beyond traditional student-teacher relationships was evident in most participants' perceptions of this study. Empathy, trust and mutuality, as identified in Rhodes' (2005) model of youth mentoring, were perceived to be influential for the relationships. These characteristics and *whanaungatanga*, family-like contexts, could only develop through teacher-mentors' and students' genuine interest and openness beyond purely academic issues. Teacher-mentors needed to be aware and supportive of an extension to their traditional roles and relationships if they were to be successful in their mentoring role. Teacher-mentors who were perceived to just be 'doing a job' did not show a clear understanding of or support for the expanded mentoring role and the need for expanded interpersonal student-teacher relationships. These findings confirmed Greene Nolan's (2020) argument that the extent to which teachers were able to establish interpersonal relationships with students relied on teachers' professional vision of their role.

The significance of either formal or informal student-teacher relationships for students' academic and social development should not be underestimated and deserves thorough recognition. In many settings, many teachers already give non-academic support to their students. However, this study highlighted that not all teachers are well equipped to provide non-academic support, especially in relation to mental health. Therefore, many teachers require professional learning opportunities to understand the significance of interpersonal relationships, to develop new skills to interact with students and strategies to support students' personal and social development.

7.1.2. *Implementing Educational Change*

The introduction of the mentoring responsibility at Greenstone College required a change in the school's curriculum programmes and staff responsibilities, the development of new strategies to interact with students and a shift in mindsets of teachers. Using teachers as teacher-mentors, asked these teachers to take on new roles and responsibilities and to incorporate new practices. The experiences and perceptions of the teacher-mentor participants provided interesting insights how their individual understanding and implementation of the school-wide programme was influenced by their individual professional identities, beliefs, values and experiences. Overall, the findings show that the implementation of the mentoring programme addressed the superficial systemic change levels by paying close attention to the curriculum of mentoring programme and its structure but did not sufficiently address the deeper layers of pedagogy to change all teachers' beliefs and values (Fullan, 2020).

In this study, contextual and personal factors influenced how teachers adapted to change in schools and the extent to which they integrated new practices. As shown in Chapter Four, teachers' extension of their practice was influenced by their personal experience, mindset and the adequacy of support provided by the school. In addition to the required shift in mindset and practices, the findings showed that teachers' understanding of the principles behind the change and their emotional responses were also influential. These findings are consistent with conclusions drawn by educational theorists, such as Fullan (2007a), Hargreaves (2005a, 2005b) and Spillane et al. (2002), who argued that successful educational change depends on the alignment of teachers' professional beliefs, values, emotions and practices with the principles and values of the educational change.

This study's findings showed that the shift in mindset proved more challenging for those who did not have relevant prior personal or professional experience because the mentoring role required them to think and work in ways that they themselves had never experienced. This considerable shift in mindset and role was not well signalled or addressed prior to the introduction of the mentoring programme according to teacher-mentor participants. The introduction of the mentoring role essentially asked teachers and school leaders to do things differently which, as Elmore (2016, p.531) eloquently expressed,

they don't (yet) know how to do. We are not asking them 'to implement' something. We are asking them to learn, think, and form their identities in different ways. We are, in short, asking them to be different people.

The introduction of mentoring responsibilities challenged the traditional teacher-led style of working with students in classrooms and required teachers to expand beyond traditional teaching relationships of transmitting knowledge to forming relationships which

promoted students' social, personal and academic development and their wellbeing. Examples for the extension of these relationships in this study included various wellbeing and team building activities, life skills discussions and in-depth personal discussions in one-on-one interactions. This expansion of relationships caused discomfort for some teacher-mentors often experienced in situations which required teachers to change their practices (Fullan, 2020). As this change was inconsistent with teacher-mentors' existing practices and beliefs, it also required a psychological challenge (Timperley, 2007).

7.1.3. Influence of Resourcing Education

This study highlighted the critical influence of national school resourcing and funding policies for schools on their ability to respond effectively to students' needs. The limitations created by the funding policies relating to entitlement staffing linked to student-teacher ratios, operational funding linked to schools' roll sizes (*Funding and Financials*, 2021) and regulations of teaching time (*Secondary Teachers' Collective Agreement*, 2021) were exposed in the CHAT analysis presented in Chapter Six. Restrictions on staffing created large mentoring groups and limited the time available for extensive pastoral care without significantly disrupting the school's ability to provide a rich academic curriculum for its students. At a time when mental health and wellbeing issues are growing in significance in New Zealand and its schools (Department of the Prime Minister and Cabinet, 2021), this study exposed how one small attempt to address this issue in one school was burdened by lack of resourcing in strategic areas for student wellbeing.

The systemic contradictions highlighted in the CHAT analysis centering mainly around the use and exchange value of education illustrated the constraints national policy can pose for new ways of working in schools. National fiscal policy is not always driven by students' developmental and academic needs, leaving schools embarking on new educational strategies to find alternate ways to meet students' needs. Lack of fiscal and staffing resources can have negative consequences for teachers by placing more duties on them, leaving teachers with less time and energy to adjust to new change (Grubb & Allen, 2011). Money and more staffing alone do not necessarily resolve all issues but are required alongside a good quality professional learning, positive school cultures and a well-trained effective teaching work force. Better fiscal resourcing would remove the need for schools to find alternative sources of revenue to provide extra staffing, material resourcing of classrooms and access to support agencies for students. The vulnerability of some alternative sources of revenue, e.g., the reliance of some of New Zealand's secondary schools on additional revenue from international students, has been exposed by the consequences of the COVID-19 pandemic (Ministry of Education, 2020a).

7.1.4. Professional Learning

The present findings highlighted two key aspects of professional learning which were important for teacher-mentors: first, the importance of leadership of professional learning and second, the nature of the professional learning provided. The importance of leadership and its style in supporting teachers to understand the rationale and principles of change and to implement change were acknowledged by Fullan (2007b) and Elmore (2016).

The leadership in this study did not extensively acknowledge that the role of a teacher-mentor would extend the traditional subject teacher role and provided professional learning largely based on assumptions of what was needed for the new teacher-mentor role. As such, it did not acknowledge the necessary culture change the implementation of the mentoring programme required. The findings showed that appropriate and sustained leadership was required to support teacher-mentors to successfully change practices and to provide adequate professional learning opportunities to make the expansion of roles and practices sustainable. These findings were similar to those of the research conducted about the implementation of Restorative Practice (Ministry of Education, 2018a).

The professional learning provided needed to deepen knowledge and refine teacher-mentors' skills prior to and after the introduction of mentoring. It required deliberate action at systemic and individual levels (Le Fevre, 2020) which would have supported the development of teacher-mentors' mentoring identity collectively and simultaneously as individuals by being allocated more time to share ideas and knowledge. As shown in this study, while teacher-mentors were given the freedom and trust to implement their own new practices, this approach made some teacher-mentor participants feel that they were left to their own devices. They expressed the need for more professional learning opportunities to alleviate the impression that it was assumed that their skills would gradually and independently grow over time. Greenstone College's programme involved two professional learning days and several preparatory meetings which addressed required mentoring skills such as active listening. However, as discussed in Chapter Four, once the programme was implemented, weekly thirty-minute meetings held between Deans and teacher-mentors were mainly of administrative nature and offered fewer opportunities to discuss experiences or develop skills further. These meetings were no more than 'contrived collegiality' (Hargreaves, 1994) as they focused on implementation through regulated planning and compulsory meetings which held teacher-mentors accountable for implementing mentoring but did not support their ongoing development. Those involved had not been given an opportunity to develop "adaptive expertise" (Le Fevre, 2020, p.194) which would have better prepared them to be responsive and flexible to change. This approach would have developed and strengthened all stakeholders' inquiry mindset and willingness to learn and change (Le Fevre, 2020). These findings show that professional learning requires much more than one-

off meetings and needs considerable input by school senior leadership. The provision of appropriate professional learning through opportunities for capacity building and practical guidance ensures that educational change is sustainable and successful (Cohen & Mehta, 2017) as teachers' skills and capacities determine the outcome of educational change (Hubbard & Datnow, 2020). Further emphasizing the importance of the nature of professional learning, Timperley (2011) noted "tinkering around the edges or leaving teachers to do it does not lead to the kind of change that makes a difference" (p.3).

Teacher-mentors' genuine interest was crucial in developing mentoring relationships, mirroring findings of the Restorative Practice report (Ministry of Education, 2018a). This study showed the differences experienced and perceived by student participants. They noticed differences between teacher-mentors who were genuinely invested in the mentoring role and interested in students and others who were seen to 'do a job' showing little personal interest in students.

The development of a consistent collective understanding and learning required opportunities in the early stages of professional learning to develop a common understanding of the demands and expectations of the change. The findings discussed in Chapters Four to Six showed that these opportunities did not occur at Greenstone College. I highlighted the inconsistency of implementation experienced and perceived by both teacher-mentors and students and the difference in understanding the mentoring role. Achieving consistency and therefore, the associated culture change with changes in values and beliefs (Fullan 2007a), proved to be challenging. Professional learning opportunities did not explicitly address such aspects but, if provided, would have strengthened "the interplay between organisational and individual expertise [to] develop common language and understandings so important to deepening knowledge and refining skills" (Timperley, 2011, p. 115).

The professional learning needed to be centred around teachers' and students' needs and acknowledge that teachers are as diverse as students in their learning needs (Timperley, 2011). The support provided needed to recognise that all teacher-mentors were active learners in a new socially embedded activity where they were "still developing breadth and depth of skill and understanding in the process of carrying out the activity" (Rogoff, 1990, p. 3). As highlighted in this study, for teacher-mentors it was particularly important to deepen their knowledge and skills of pastoral care. Mentor support was previously identified as the most important factor contributing to building effective close mentoring relationships (Buckley & Hundley Zimmermann, 2003; Keller, 2005; Spencer & Rhodes, 2005). A mentoring programme needs to assist teacher-mentors to develop effective coping strategies (Spencer & Rhodes, 2005) by providing differentiated support. The experiences of teacher-mentor participants in this study highlighted that an initial individual assessment of

teachers' needs would have been crucial to providing appropriate capacity building professional learning. It appeared that the professional learning provided was more one of a 'one size fits all' approach which at times required teacher-mentors to rely on existing natural skills if they had them. Differentiated support was not provided but would have equipped teachers with the right tools to become effective teacher-mentors based on their existing skill set. In this study, the professional learning opportunities provided moved straight into developing knowledge without assessing individuals' needs resulting in some teacher-mentor participants, for example, Karmen and Susan, feeling as though they had to find out for themselves what was required of them in the role as teacher-mentor. This approach missed an opportunity for teacher-mentors to become more confident in enacting the mentoring role and for mentoring to have greater positive influence on students. These experiences of teacher-mentors confirmed Timperley's (2011) argument that professional learning needs to include opportunities for co-construction of professional learning which leads to deeper learning.

Considering this synthesis, the following sections revisit the research questions. I then discuss implications for schools and national policy followed by recommendations for future research and a brief discussion of this study's research contribution.

7.2. Revisiting the research questions

This study aimed to understand teachers' experiences and perceptions of a school-wide mentoring programme and the influence of this programme on teachers' practices and identities. Its aim was also to understand students' experiences and perceptions of this programme and their perceptions of how the programme influenced their educational experience and personal development and how the contextual factors influenced the mentoring programme's implementation. The overall research question asked:

How did teachers and students experience and perceive a school-wide mentoring programme in a New Zealand secondary school?

The analysis of the data revealed a variety of experiences and perceptions amongst teacher-mentors and students. Unique personal experiences of teacher-mentors and students of the mentoring programme and its context at Greenstone College influenced how positively or negatively the programme was perceived. The small numbers of teacher-mentor and student participants in the study and the variety of experiences and perceptions meant that generalisations could not be made. However, because of the lack of research into school-wide mentoring programmes, it is promising that the findings in the present study support those of Ryan's (2017) work which highlighted the significance of positive school-based mentoring

relationship on students' progress. The mostly positive views about the school-wide mentoring showed that most participants valued the potential of this programme. Positive perceptions confirmed findings of previous research explored in the literature review that mentoring can have positive influence on students. The findings in Chapters Four to Six show that the quality of mentoring relationships attributes, such as empathy, trust and genuine interest, a variety of team building activities and mentors' skills such attentive listening were influential in participants' perceptions. These findings also confirm earlier mentoring research I outlined in the review of the research literature in particular Rhodes' (2005) model of youth mentoring. The analysis of teacher-mentors' and students' experiences and perceptions highlighted underlying factors which needed attention to further improve the mentoring experience. The overarching question has been addressed through three sub-questions.

What was the nature of the mentoring programme, and which contextual factors influenced its implementation?

Greenstone College's mentoring programme was defined by clearly identified mentoring outcomes which intended to balance academic and social development of students (Section 4.2.1 and Figure 4.1). These programme outcomes were reflected in the intended programme structure. However, the implementation of the programme structure and the emphasis placed on these intentions varied widely between teacher-mentors. Data from teacher-mentors and students alike showed that the emphasis appeared to fall more on academic rather than social development activities (Section 4.2.2 and Figure 4.2, Section 5.2 and Figure 5.2). These findings reflect previous work which has highlighted the need for balanced activities, e.g., Kanchewa et al. (2021) and Meltzer et al. (2020) but also observed an overemphasis on academic activities in school-based mentoring programmes, e.g., Herrera et al. (2000) and Kanchewa et al. (2021).

The thematic analysis highlighted reasons for the differences of implementation between teacher-mentors. According to student and teacher-mentor participants, consistent shared understanding of the mentoring role was mostly absent. Teacher-mentor participants also highlighted a lack of opportunities for teacher-mentors to share their experiences and to build a shared understanding. They identified the need for more professional learning to develop this shared understanding and improve their confidence for enacting the teacher-mentor role effectively and successfully. These findings are similar to mentoring research which has stressed the importance of ongoing mentor support and training to increase mentors' self-efficacy of the role regardless of previous experiences (Larose & Duchesne, 2020; Raposa et al., 2019; Simões and Alarcão, 2014).

How did teachers as teacher-mentors experience and perceive the mentoring programme and how did it shape their practices and identities?

Participating teacher-mentors' experiences and perceptions of the mentoring programme varied. They recognised the value of school-wide mentoring but felt differently about enacting the mentor role. As opportunities to share experiences of the role were lacking, teacher-mentors identified different priorities (Section 4.3.1) and relied heavily on their prior relevant professional experience to implement the mentoring role (Section 4.2.3). Evidence emerged that less experienced teachers struggled with the mentoring role compared to more experienced ones. More experienced teachers who had been at the school for a longer period of time had previously been extensively exposed to the philosophy and techniques of Restorative Practice and relational pedagogy. These experiences likely contributed to an easier transition into the new role for them due to the alignment of values and beliefs in both these policies. The influence of previous relevant experience and its effect on mentors' self-efficacy was extensively discussed in mentoring literature (e.g., Deutsch et al., 2013; McArthur et al., 2017) and in Buchanan's (2015) work on formation of teacher identity. Mentors' self-efficacy was an influential aspect in Parra et al.'s (2002) process-oriented model of youth mentoring discussed in Section 2.3.

Taking on the mentoring role involved a considerable expansion of the purpose, identity and practices of the traditional teacher role (Section 4.3). This shift required expansive learning (Engeström, 2001) to incorporate different practices which focused on students' social in addition to academic development when working with mentoring groups. The mentoring role also changed the nature of traditional student-teacher relationships (Figure 4.7). In contrast to traditional student-teacher relationships, mentoring relationships included a more personal dimension where teacher-mentors took on supporting roles for students, such as the parent-at-school. The expansion of the traditional teacher role coupled with the different purposes of the traditional subject teacher role and the teacher-mentor role (Figure 4.5) caused conflicts of interest between the roles (Section 6.2.3, Figures 6.4 and 6.5) and associated identities.

How did students experience and perceive the mentoring programme and how did it influence their educational experiences and personal development?

Students' experiences and perceptions of the mentoring programme were influenced by three main factors: i) the quality of their mentoring relationship, ii) their teacher-mentors' personal qualities and attitude towards mentoring and iii) the context of the mentoring programme. Students who experienced positive mentoring relationships noted that mentoring deepened the quality of traditional student-teacher relationships. Like teacher-

mentors, students experienced the mentoring relationships as more personal than traditional student-teacher relationships (Section 5.3 and Figure 5.4) and viewed their teacher-mentors as important sources of adult support. Different teacher-mentor attitudes and approaches towards the mentoring role were identified by students. When they experienced trust and genuine interest, close interpersonal mentoring relationships were established. Not all students developed close personal relationships. The data suggested that contextual factors of large mentoring groups and some teacher-mentors' lack of genuine interest in students were influential aspects. Decisions in the mentoring programme which caused change of mentors also negatively influenced students' perception of mentoring (Section 5.3.2). These findings reflect the importance of context and relationships highlighted in Rhodes' (2005) model of youth mentoring and confirm findings of previous mentoring research discussing their importance (Pryce, 2012; Spencer, 2006).

The findings show that both — the expansion of the traditional teacher role and closer personal student-teacher relationships — were perceived to be positive for most students' personal development and educational experiences. Student participants, who experienced these extended relationships positively, perceived that mentoring contributed positively to their academic journey and their social-emotional development, strengthening self-belief and wellbeing.

7.3. Implications

School-wide mentoring programmes enable schools to strengthen their focus on pastoral care and focus on their students' wellbeing in addition to academic development. These programmes provide a model for effective pastoral care that “*support students in overcoming barriers to educational success*” (Ministry of Education, 2017b). When effective,

Student wellbeing is strongly linked to learning. A student's level of wellbeing at school is indicated by their satisfaction with life at school, their engagement with learning and their social-emotional behaviour. (Noble et al., 2008, p. 30)

In New Zealand, government guidelines (Education Review Office, 2015, 2016; Ministry of Education, 2017b) explicitly place a wellbeing responsibility on schools. Expanding pastoral care through the introduction of school-wide mentoring appears to meet the need for a focus on the wellbeing and mental health needs of young people and integrate this focus into the school routine.

7.3.1. Schools and mentoring programme design

The introduction of school-wide mentoring programmes presents a valuable approach to focus on the wellbeing and mental health of all students in secondary schools in addition to

fostering their academic development. However, along with national guidelines the design of school-wide mentoring programmes and the implementation of these programmes need to consider the school's specific context, the programme's purpose, the content of the programme's curriculum and the relevance of the intended programme outcomes for its students (Busse et al., 2018b). Schools introducing school-wide mentoring programmes first and foremost need to be clear on their motivations for introducing and investing in this type of mentoring programme. An effective pastoral care programme incorporating school-wide mentoring can promote the wellbeing of all students at a school (Ministry of Education, 2017b).

To embed a school-wide mentoring programme well, its planning and implementation could be incorporated in the strategic planning to allow for resources, development time and curriculum time. Its inclusion would better ensure continuity and sustainability of the programme. Before and during implementation of a school-wide mentoring programme, possible tensions triggered by systemic rules or school's rules could be identified and addressed. The CHAT analysis, shown in Chapter Six, provides a useful tool to undertake an analysis of contradictions and impacts of expanded objects on subject and artefacts. Potential tensions could be discussed with those affected. In this study, two key challenges were group sizes and a change of mentor. The first challenge of group size, while caused by external resourcing, directly limited teacher-mentors' capacity of genuine investment with all their students. It needed to be acknowledged and re-evaluated as to whether other solutions could be found. A further challenge of change of mentor showed that some rules, while unavoidable in some circumstances, need clear evaluation as to their purpose and the impact on those affected to limit unintended upset for students. Reviews of mentoring programmes after implementation could consider key challenges experienced and evaluate the impact of varying rules. When planning or reviewing mentoring programmes, different scenarios of various rules in relation to their impact on teacher-mentors' capacity to fulfil the mentoring role and in relation to their impact on students should be considered. A CHAT analysis could inform and support this discussion.

School-wide mentoring could be embedded with a school-specific mentoring curriculum to ensure consistency between mentoring groups and equal access to promote wellbeing. Such a curriculum would need to reflect the intended programme outcomes but also allow for some flexibility in its implementation to meet different students' needs. If the programme outcomes are to foster academic and social development, then the incorporated activities need to reflect these outcomes. The present study suggested that the balance and purpose of activities are vital. Similar to Ryan's (2017) conclusions, these findings suggest that the activities have to be relevant and meaningful for teacher-mentors and students alike. To improve relevance of activities a co-construction of activities between teacher-mentors

and students could take place, giving the activities more relevance and include more than just the completion of worksheets on life skill topics. Co-construction of activities would address questions of power in schools (Cook Sather, 2018), acknowledge the Te Tiriti o Waitangi (The Treaty of Waitangi) principles of participation and partnership (Riki-Waaka, 2015) and include perspectives of all stakeholders in educational change particularly those of young people which are often absent in decision making (Le Fevre, 2020). Working with students as collaborators would acknowledge the extension of more traditional student-teacher relationships to closer developmental mentoring relationships. Co-construction also raises the significance of students' experiences and perceptions. In this study, the co-construction of topics with the World Café table hosts resulted in valuable in-depth data and showed that young people are "experts of their own lives" (Cook Sather, 2018, p.25). Co-construction of activities can therefore provide us with opportunities to learn from students what they perceive as important and nurture a shared understanding between teacher-mentors and students of the mentoring purpose and its related activities.

The organisation of the programme could consider different forms of mentoring and select those appropriate for the school's context. Group mentoring and hybrid mentoring programmes offer opportunities for collective learning through peer interaction and individual growth through one-on-one interaction. As shown, these forms of mentoring present opportunities and challenges. Both forms increase the sense of belonging and improve intersocial skills. However, large mentoring groups that were interacting in hybrid mentoring, combinations of group mentoring and one-on-one mentoring, did not facilitate enough chances for teacher-mentors to build close mentoring relationships with all students. Establishing close personal mentoring relationships with all students in large groups and interacting with them on a close interpersonal level was demanding and possibly unfeasible for teacher-mentors given the outlined need for genuine personal investment with each individual student. The opportunities and challenges of these forms of mentoring can be addressed openly with teacher-mentors.

Ensuring consistency between teacher-mentors is a key priority to enable all students' equal access to the mentoring programme and the social development and wellbeing aspect of mentoring. Consistency will only occur if all teacher-mentors of the programme are supportive of the intended mentoring outcomes and accept the required extended nature of mentoring relationships and various activities. Some of the included activities will be different in nature to subject teaching activities. Teacher-mentors who are not comfortable with the different nature of mentoring activities need differentiated support to feel confident in this role. As discussed in relation to educational change policy, teachers should understand the principles and rationale of the change to perceive it positively and be prepared to adjust their practice.

Better consistency can be achieved through deliberate collaborative whole-school professional learning programmes for teacher-mentors. Such programmes foster the sharing of ideas and strategies. Many teacher-mentors of this programme expressed the need for more opportunities to develop a collaborative teacher culture which would support the development of their mentoring skills. Hargreaves (1994) suggested a managed whole-school process of ‘professional knowledge creation’ with opportunities of reflections, networking and dialogue that address the uncertainties and supported teachers’ extended identity development. This approach would have addressed not just the required mentoring skills but also the emotions about the change, teachers’ beliefs and self-efficacy beliefs encompassing theoretical and practical recommendations to assist teachers in change (Saunders, 2013). A collaborative approach requires the allocation of resources like time and material, co-ordination of activities, ongoing support and opportunities for exchange of experiences. While the support does not have to be structured, it could contain opportunities and time for independent learning and self-reflection, teacher assistance or specialist assistance and provide support relating to expanding practices, skills and recognising own potential. Many teacher-mentors might feel more confident when given support as a group with clear support structures to facilitate the growth of effective and confident teacher-mentors. These opportunities do not have to be arranged top-down but could be co-constructed between teachers to provide teachers effectively with tools needed to meet a wide range of students’ needs (Hargreaves, 2005a). Growing a shared understanding of the mentoring role requires time, especially for those who see their role as ‘doing a job’ to understand that the teacher-mentor role is an extended role. Providing time, resources and opportunities for ongoing learning and inquiry would build a learning culture that builds knowledge, skills and allows to safely take risks (Le Fevre, 2020).

Another way to create a collaborative teacher culture is through nurturing a supportive *Community of Practice (CoP)* (Wenger et al., 2002). The concept of CoP focusses on the outcomes of joint practice and centres around knowledge generation of a group of practitioners “who share a concern, set of problems, or a passion about a topic, and who deepen their knowledge and expertise in this area by interacting on an ongoing basis” (Wenger et al., 2002, p. 2). Fostering a supportive CoP by encouraging the development of its three essential components — mutual engagement, joint enterprise and a shared repertoire (Mitra, 2008; Wenger, 1999) — would recognise that the extending roles of teachers as teacher-mentors, the additional interpersonal layer of mentoring relationships and activities required support and growth through a whole-school approach. A CoP views teachers as learners who require scaffolding within their Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) which was needed to assist teacher-mentors’ expansive learning to move beyond traditional subject teaching practices (Mitra, 2008). A CoP with scaffolding within a clear

ZPD would assist teacher-mentors in their work and could lead to more teacher-mentors feeling confident and effective as teacher-mentors. This approach would support less experienced teachers to thrive in new roles better and strengthen the development of a shared repertoire among all teacher-mentors. It presents an opportunity to grow the new mentoring identity within the context of the school and to develop a shared understanding through more encouragement and discussion alleviating teacher-mentors' feelings of insecurity, improving the shared understanding of the role, mentoring skills and mentors' support for the expanded object.

Nurturing a CoP also recognises that changing practice is not a solely individual process but is social and occurs through interactions and shared experiences in a safe space (Mitra, 2008; Trabona et al., 2019; Wenger & Trayner, 2015). While individually, teachers also need to take responsibility for their own professional learning (Johnson, 2006; Tao & Gao, 2017) and make the agentic choice to “steer their trajectories” (Wenger, 1999, p. 168), establishing a supportive CoP acknowledges that “collaborative interaction, intersubjectivity, and assisted performance do not occur at random” but require assistance (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988, p. 73). This approach would recognise that learning and understanding this change requires structure and can take place through conversation (Trabona et al., 2019) as “how high school teachers experience their careers depends a great deal upon the strength and character of their professional community” (McLaughlin & Talbert, 2001, p. 90).

A CoP would increase opportunities for teacher-mentors to share their experiences and strategies and thus, grow their shared understanding of the role, to share their own individual repertoire and grow the shared repertoire of the mentoring role by providing opportunities for sharing and ongoing professional learning. It would provide further opportunities teachers needed to connect their knowledge to praxis (Johnson, 2006) by also providing opportunities for situated learning and providing support when trying out new activities which were not normally part of their subject teaching repertoire (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1999). This professional learning approach would support all teachers to adjust to the extended pastoral role and might mean that the intended programme structure is implemented more consistently between all teacher-mentors by securing teachers' approval and understanding of the values and principles of the mentoring programme and in turn impact the quality of mentoring relationships and outcomes for students.

7.3.2. National Educational Policy

Educational policies which require schools to provide extensive pastoral care to enhance students' wellbeing need to be supported with sufficient resources to ensure this care can take place effectively. New Zealand's educational policies, outlined in Chapter One, ask schools to implement the country's cultural values and place an emphasis on relationships to

foster students' academic, social and personal development through comprehensive academic and pastoral care programmes. This study has shown that school-wide mentoring can be a way to provide for some of these demands of relational practices and pastoral care. Despite asking schools to provide extensive pastoral care, additional financial and material resources are not readily available to schools to enable them to effectively nurture students' wellbeing and mental health without putting extra strain on other areas of the school such as the curriculum or staffing. Financial and material resourcing of schools continues to be based on financial modelling introduced before demands for comprehensive pastoral care were made. The limitations posed by schools' funding on implementing new programmes were emphasized by the findings of the CHAT analysis which showed that the limitations had a profound impact on teacher-mentors' work and outcomes for students.

A well-led system change characterised by a re-evaluation of education's use and exchange value, followed by a change of educational policy is required, as current demands of educational policy and resourcing are unable to meet the needs in schools. Fullan (2007a) argued that educational leaders leading change were faced with complex issues for which no definitive answers existed and stated that "understanding the change process is less about innovation and more about innovativeness. It is less about strategy and more about strategizing" (Fullan, 2007a, p. 31). A range of factors influential to leading and introducing successful educational change have previously been identified in educational change policy literature. For example, teachers' needing to be supportive in the change, importance of alignment of teachers' beliefs and practices with the change, provision of resources, appropriate time allowance, opportunities for teachers to adjust to change and whole school culture change (Cohen & Mehta, 2017; Fullan, 2007a; Fullan, 2007b; Spillane et al., 2002). The required change is a complex issue which requires in-depth analysis and planning before change is implemented.

7.4. Recommendations for future research

Although small scale with a limited number of participants, the in-depth approach of this study provided an insight into the experiences and perceptions of some teachers and students involved in the programme. Small scale studies can consider specific nuances to contexts of mentoring programmes and provide deep insights into mentoring practices and relationships. To develop a full picture of different mentoring programmes and contexts, additional studies are needed which investigate the programme goals and programme design. It would be worthwhile for future research to consider other research approaches such as comparative studies, intervention studies or longitudinal studies.

A comparative in-depth study could compare different mentoring programmes across different schools. As discussed in Section 2.2.1, large numbers of New Zealand schools have already implemented or are planning to introduce school-wide mentoring programmes with a variety of arrangements, curricula and intended outcomes (J. King, personal communication, 20/05/2021). A study comparing different mentoring programmes and perceptions of these programmes could help shape a framework of recommendations for schools implementing or reviewing their mentoring programmes and investigate different solutions for common systemic tensions caused by national fiscal and resourcing policy constraints revealed in the CHAT analysis of this study. Currently each school finds its own solutions. Individual programme design is necessary given the importance of the context for each school. However, some tensions will likely be the same, e.g., constraints of staffing and funding. Developing a shared understanding of how these tensions are addressed would be worthwhile knowledge for school leaders. A comparative study could employ an in-depth CHAT analysis of a range of school-wide mentoring programmes. As shown, a CHAT analysis can be a useful tool for systemic analysis and for analysing complex circumstances and actual or anticipated change solutions. This type of study can help to identify underlying existing systemic contradictions of use and exchange value and identify tensions when objects are expanded, rules are changed, or an extension of tools is required. A thorough CHAT analysis may be helpful in determining current obvious and underlying contradictions and could model what would constitute appropriate change solutions. A CHAT analysis could also model the impact suggested change would have and consider implications of the introduction of a school-wide mentoring programme. A CHAT analysis could assist educational change to be successful and sustainable. Based on findings of a comparative study of school-wide mentoring programmes a toolkit for schools creating and evaluating such programmes could be developed.

An intervention study of a similar newly introduced school-wide mentoring programme could specifically address issues raised in this study regarding teacher-mentor support. Taking the suggestion of fostering a community of practice, such a study could specifically focus on growing a school's community of practice and review teacher-mentors' perceptions of the effectiveness and appropriateness of teacher-mentor support. An intervention study could also collect data relating to students' academic and social development following their participation in a school-wide mentoring programme.

A longitudinal research design could track the development of relationships and teacher-mentors' development of skills and adjustment in practices and allow long-term comparisons. This research design could follow younger students rather than students at the end of their schooling. The present study focused on the initial impact of the change of the new role on teacher-mentors and students to be in a position to identify contextual factors

which influenced the implementation of the programme. A longitudinal research design could be used subsequently to focus more fully on long-term impacts of mentoring but could also be designed as an intervention study to address issues raised in this study.

7.5. Research Contribution

To date, little research has been conducted into mentoring in New Zealand. Apart from a few studies outlined in Section 2.4.3. focusing on school-based mentoring (Dutton, Deane, et al., 2018; Farruggia et al., 2013; Peters, 2000) very little evidence has emerged about school-wide mentoring in New Zealand. Farruggia et al.'s (2013) and Dutton, Deane, et al.'s (2018) work focused on relationship quality between volunteer mentors and selected mentees. The present study expanded on this theme and provided an in-depth analysis of teacher-mentors' and students' experiences and perceptions of a school-wide mentoring programme.

Within the existing research on youth mentoring, this study has contributed to expanding the knowledge of different forms of mentoring, especially group and hybrid mentoring, in a school-wide setting. I used Rhodes' (2005) model of youth mentoring as the basis for this research because it places the mentoring relationship at the centre and takes a developmental approach to mentoring relationships. This model was designed for 'at-risk' one-on-one mentoring. This study showed that many of the findings of one-on-one mentoring research can be applied to group and hybrid mentoring. I previously questioned whether the selection of mentees based on 'at-risk' criteria, included in all models of youth mentoring, was justified. The findings of this study highlighted that mentoring can be influential for many young people who do not fulfil the 'at-risk' mentoring selection criteria. The findings also showed that an emphasis on strengthening interpersonal relationships with all students- not just those 'at-risk'- provides a more inclusive model of mentoring and confirmed the importance of mentoring relationships as valuable opportunities for all young people to connect, improve their sense of belonging and develop their identity. Most student participants felt that partaking in the mentoring programme was valuable for them and influenced them on a deeper personal dimension. Many of these students would not normally have been included in traditional 'at-risk' mentoring programmes, yet they valued the opportunity to develop deeper personal significant mentoring relationships. The findings explored in-depth the influence of contextual factors which are not extensively detailed in Rhodes' (2005) model. I was able to confirm the influence of contextual factors, i.e., the rules of the programme setting, as important for the development of mentoring relationships. The present study showed that aspects outlined in Parra et al.'s (2002) process-oriented model of youth mentoring such as mentors' self-efficacy and support were influential on mentoring

relationships and outcomes. I highlighted the significance of differentiated professional learning to support all teachers to become confident in their mentoring roles.

The application of de Vries' (2011b) mentoring continuum throughout this study as an analytical tool served to visualise and evaluate the range of perceptions of participants and highlighted tensions between different aspects of mentoring and subject teaching, e.g., purpose of the role, activities. The visualisations were indications of underlying contradictions later exposed in the CHAT analysis.

The present study used both a thematic and CHAT analysis. The in-depth thematic analysis of teacher-mentors' and students' voices enabled me to understand the personal and interpersonal experiences of mentoring, highlighting its intersubjective nature and the significance of mentoring relationships. Applying the CHAT framework as an analytical tool helped to analyse and understand the underlying complex contextual layer of the mentoring programme and associated systemic contradictions which were significant to participants' experiences. As shown in Section 3.1.2, CHAT has previously been used to investigate the impact of educational change in schools, (Barratt-Pugh et al., 2018; Bourke et al., 2013; Lim et al., 2020; Taylor et al., 2019). The CHAT analysis enabled a close evaluation of underlying tensions and contradictions present in contextual influences like systemic rules of the New Zealand Education System and of the school which impacted the implementation of the mentoring programme. This study shows that a CHAT analysis of the contextual systemic layer can be a useful tool to assess whether prerequisites of sustainable educational change have been accounted for and are addressed during the change process.

The practical implications for schools and national policy discussed in this study could be starting points for further refining and improving the concept of school-wide mentoring programmes as a tool for providing extensive pastoral care through nurturing close student-teacher relationships and for improving students' wellbeing. The findings could aide school leaders in planning their programmes, mentoring activities and appropriate teacher-mentor support. These findings provide important insights into necessary actions of schools and their leadership to achieve successful and sustained change of newly implemented policies.

7.6. Strengths and Limitations of this study

Some of the strengths of this study lay within the chosen research design. The study collected a range of data using a mixed-method approach and different data analysis methods. This methodology allowed an investigation of the mentoring programme from multiple perspectives and enabled triangulation of the data. It also aligned with the socio-cultural perspective this study was based on which assumes that participants construct their realities

and facilitated opportunities for participants to honestly discuss their experiences and perceptions of the mentoring programme.

The research design presented limitations. This study was not longitudinal and not based on observation of interactions but based on subjective accounts of experiences and perceptions. However, by not including observations, I was able to address ethical considerations relating to my previous involvement in the school. The chosen research methods relied solely on perception data and did not include a control study for a more objective study.

The limited number of participating teachers and students allowed an in-depth analysis of individuals but limited the study's ability to generalise the experiences and perceptions of those participating and its potential to contribute generalisable themes to mentoring programme studies. A level of bias was likely in participants as one could argue that those who self-selected to participate were those who felt strongly, either positively or negatively, about the programme meaning that some other voices may unintentionally have been excluded from the research. Teachers who chose to participate were mostly supportive of the mentoring programme. Only two openly discussed their own challenges they faced as teacher-mentors. The others discussed more systemic challenges and opportunities of the mentoring programme. Despite repeated attempts to increase teachers' participation, no other teacher-mentors volunteered, leaving their reluctance to share their experiences and perceptions open for speculation as to the reasons why they chose not to participate. One possible reason could have been my previous position in the school and my contribution to the design and implementation of the school-wide mentoring programme making some potential participants reluctant to share their experiences and perceptions with me. I chose to include only the first year group of students which had been involved in the mentoring programme for the duration of their senior years. Younger year groups did not know the previous arrangements of tutor teachers so would have been unable to comment on the difference the implementation of the mentoring programme had made to their learning, social and personal development and feelings of belonging to school. In hindsight, an adjusted research focus which was aimed at a cross section of the senior school population may have increased student participation and the range of experiences and perceptions.

I did not explore in detail the process by which the programme was designed. An analysis of this aspect may have led to further recommendations and implications regarding programme design. The development group consisting of the SLT, the pastoral team and interested teachers explored mentoring programmes at other schools and collected resources available to them to develop a programme that was specific to the students' needs and the context of the school. Critiques of some of participating teacher-mentors and students might indicate that further input from various stakeholders in the design stages might have been

beneficial. This input could have included the co-construction of activities with students or a wider trial of activities beyond teachers who volunteered to be part of the development group. The expansion of the design process could have resulted in a more consistently implemented programme and could have better considered teachers' needs for professional learning.

7.7. Closing Remarks

I noted at the start of this study an absence of in-depth studies of school-wide mentoring programmes which implement mentoring of their students by teacher-mentors as a strength-based rather than an intervention strategy. The purpose of this study was to contribute to this field of study and to investigate teacher-mentors' and students' experiences and perceptions of a school-wide mentoring programme in a New Zealand secondary school. Using a mixed-method approach, this study sought to provide thorough insights into the mentoring programme, mentoring activities and relationships. The aim was also to understand the programme's perceived influence on teachers' practices and identities, students' educational experiences and personal development and its contextual factors influencing the programme's implementation. The study explored the following overarching research question:

How did teachers and students experience and perceive a school-wide mentoring programme in a New Zealand secondary school?

All New Zealand schools have a responsibility to follow a student-centred relational approach and to provide extensive pastoral care additionally to ensuring their students' academic and socio-emotional development (Education Review Office, 2015, 2016; Ministry of Education, 2007, 2011a, 2017b, 2018b). In the light of growing mental health issues among New Zealand youth, this study showed that the provision of personal and social support through school-wide mentoring was a valuable approach to focus on students' wellbeing and to foster their personal and social development by encouraging the growth of close mentoring relationships. However, it requires schools and teachers to be adequately resourced and supported to nurture young people's wellbeing and mental health needs effectively.

This study contributes at a theoretical, empirical and practical level to mentoring and educational change despite being limited in scope to one school. It contributes to the growing field of mentoring research in New Zealand and diverse forms of mentoring such as group or hybrid mentoring. It offered a comprehensive view of a specific form of mentoring currently expanding in New Zealand schools and provided insights into specific contextual

influences and challenges. For schools, I highlighted points of consideration relating to effective implementation and fundings of school-wide mentoring programmes. Based on the CHAT analysis, I was able to draw attention to some systemic challenges which apply to all New Zealand schools. These challenges were worthy of consideration when implementing and refining mentoring programmes and possibly other types of educational change in New Zealand schools.

Many of the participants' experiences and perceptions included in this study were deeply personal but understanding and analysing them offered insights into opportunities and challenges which might inform the development or adjustment of school-wide mentoring programmes. Tensions remain for teacher-mentors, but those who participated in this study believe that mentoring was beneficial for students. Students mostly felt that they benefitted personally, socially and academically from having teacher-mentors which highlights, along with many other relational educational initiatives, the value of these interpersonal relationships on students' wellbeing and progress in school. The findings of this study speak to many of the enduring issues related to educational policy reform in schools, alongside providing significant insights for school mentoring programmes which could offer directions for future policy, practice and research.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Overview of Formal Mentoring Models

Model of Mentoring	Key Author	Underlying Theory	Context	Mentoring Process	Mentoring outcomes	Relevant research of youth mentoring examples or further advancement of theory
1. Sponsorship Model	Kram (1988), 1 st edition 1985 Based on Kram (1983)	Life Cycle Theory (Erikson, 1964): career stages, relationship phases	Workplace	Mentor identifies areas of growth for mentee	- Mentor-centred outcomes - Career enhancement for mentor and mentee - Career function and psychosocial function focus on professional knowledge	Research: Malen & Brown (2020) Expansion of theory: Distinguish mentoring relationships from other supportive relationships: Mertz (2004) Stages of relationships in youth mentoring: Keller (2005)
2. Developmental Model	Clutterbuck (2004), 1 st edition 1985	Based on case studies	Workplace	- Mentee-centred, mentor as guide - Mentees set goals identified through interaction with mentor	Broad social-emotional and growing professional competence	
3. Relational Model	Rhodes (2002b) refined Rhodes (2005)	Zone of Proximal Development (Vygotsky, 1978) Attachment Theory (Bowlby, 1988) Theory of identification processes (Mead, 1934) and (Freud, 1900)	Youth Mentoring- community-based mentoring and school-based mentoring	Mentee-centred with instrumental and developmental activities	Social-emotional, cognitive and identity development lead to positive personal and academic outcomes	Outcomes: Large research base, meta-analysis: Raposa et al. (2019) Trust: Griffith & Larson (2016), Griffith et al. (2018) Empathy: Spencer (2006) Mutuality: Lester et al. (2019) Relationship quality: McArthur et al. (2017), Dutton, Deane, et al. (2018), Spencer et al. (2020)
4. Process-Oriented Model	(Parra et al., 2002)	self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997); Developed from previous mentoring research based on (Herrera et al., 2000) and (Rhodes et al., 2000), (Rhodes et al., 2002) of BBBS research	Youth-Mentoring- community-based mentoring and school-based mentoring	Mentor-centred Activities not specified Mentor efficacy and mentees' backgrounds influence the relationship experiences and the perceived outcomes	Perceived benefits from relationship	DuBois, Neville, et al. (2002) Parra et al. (2002)
5. Socio-motivational Model	(Larose & Tarabulsy, 2005)	Socio-motivational theory (Connell & Wellborn, 1991)	school-based mentoring	Mentor-centred Academic goal focused activities	Institutional need for academic success Academic outcomes	Larose & Duchesne (2020) Larose et al. (2020)

Appendix B: Articles included in Literature Review

Key:

AS	after school programme	NS	not stated	SW	school-wide
BBBS	Big Brother Big Sister	p	peers	Vol	volunteer
CBM	community-based mentoring	Pro	professional	YP	youth programme
Inf	informal	SBM	school-based mentoring		

Study	Research method					Research focus				Form of mentoring			Mentor			Setting	
	Quantitative	Qualitative	Mixed method	Quant. mentee perspective	Qual. mentee perspective	Relationships	Activities	Mentor Skills	Outcomes	1-1	Group	Hybrid (combine 1-1 and group)	Volunteer	Teacher	Other	Site	Country
Grossman & Rhodes (2002)		✓			✓	✓				✓			✓			SBM BBBS	USA
Parra et al. (2002)			✓	✓				✓		✓			✓			? BBBS	USA
Spencer (2006)		✓			✓	✓				✓			✓			CBM BBBS	USA
Ellis et al. (2007)			✓	✓	✓		✓			✓			✓			SW BBBS	Canada
Spencer (2007)		✓			✓	✓		✓		✓			✓			CBM BBBS	USA
Liang et al. (2008)		✓			✓		✓			✓					✓	Inf	USA
Karcher (2008)	✓			✓					✓	✓			✓			SBM	USA
Goldner & Maysseless (2008)	✓			✓		✓				✓			✓			SBM	Israel
Converse & Lignugaris/Kraft (2009)			✓			✓	✓			✓				✓ Vol		SBM	USA
Schwartz et al. (2011)	✓					✓				✓			✓			SBM BBBS	USA
King (2012)			✓		✓	✓				✓				✓ Vol		SBM	Ireland
Pryce (2012)		✓			✓	✓				✓			✓			SBM BBBS	USA
Keller & Pryce (2012)			✓		✓	✓	✓			✓			✓			SBM BBBS	USA
Noonan et al. (2012)			✓	✓					✓		✓				✓ p	SW	NZ
Deutsch et al. (2013)			✓	✓		✓		✓				✓	✓			AS	USA
Gordon et al. (2013)	✓								✓	✓			✓			SBM	USA
Fruith & Wray-Lake (2013)	✓								✓	✓					✓	Inf	USA
Pryce & Keller (2013)		✓			✓	✓				✓			✓			SBM BBBS	USA
Simões & Alarcão (2014)	✓								✓			✓		✓		SBM	Portugal
Larose et al. (2015)	✓			✓			✓			✓			✓			SBM BBBS	Canada
Griffith & Larson (2016)		✓				Other- how trust influences youths' experiences									✓	YP	USA
McArthur et al. (2017)		✓						✓		✓			✓			CBM	Scotland
Laco & Johnson (2017)	✓			✓					✓	✓				✓		SW	Slovakia
Dutton, Deane, et al. (2018) Dutton, Bullen, et al. (2018)			✓	✓		✓		✓				✓	✓			SBM	NZ
Griffith et al. (2018)		✓				Other- how trust develops									✓	YP	USA
Lester et al. (2019)		✓			✓	✓						✓	✓			SBM	USA

Kuperminc et al. (2019)	✓			✓					✓		✓		✓	✓	Vol	SBM	USA
Chan et al. (2019)	✓			✓					✓		✓		✓			SBM	USA
Pryce et al. (2019)			✓		✓				✓		✓				✓ NS	SBM AS	Canada
Malen & Brown (2020)		✓				✓				✓					✓	Inf tertiary	USA
Meltzer et al. (2020)		✓			✓		✓		✓	✓			✓			SBM	Australia
Larose & Duchesne (2020)	✓			✓				✓		✓				✓	Vol	SBM	Canada
Larose et al. (2020)	✓			✓		✓		✓		✓				✓	Vol	SBM	Canada
Spencer et al. (2020)		✓				✓		✓		✓			✓			CBM BBBS	USA
Kanchewa et al. (2021)	✓						✓	✓		✓			✓			SBM BBBS	USA
Occurrences Total: 46 articles	13	15	9	13	12	17	7	9	10	27	4	4	23	7	8		
Other type of article																	
Herrera et al. (2000) Report for PPV and National Mentoring partnership							✓	✓		✓			✓			SBM BBBS	USA
DuBois, Neville, et al. (2002) Meta-analysis includes 55 studies						✓		✓		✓			✓			BBBS	USA
Herrera et al. (2002) Report on group mentoring for PPV and National Mentoring partnership						✓		✓			✓						USA
DuBois et al. (2011) Meta-analysis includes 73 studies						✓		✓									
Farruggia, Bullen, Solomon, et al. (2011) Review of mentoring programmes in NZ						✓				✓	✓	✓	✓			SBM CBM	NZ
Kuperminc & Thomason (2013)- Book chapter on group mentoring											✓						
Bruce and Bridgeland (2014) A report for MENTOR: The National Mentoring Partnership						✓				✓			✓			SBM BBBS	USA
Lindt & Blair (2017) Literature Review Discussion of a specific programme								✓		✓			✓			SBM	USA
Raposa et al. (2019) Meta-analysis includes 70 studies						✓			✓	✓			✓				Worldwide published in English
Kuperminc & Deutsch (2021) Report on group mentoring for National Mentoring Resource Center						✓					✓	✓					USA



Understanding Mentoring Relationships in a New Zealand Secondary School

INFORMATION SHEET FOR PARTICIPATING ORGANISATION

Thank you for your interest in this project. Please read this information before deciding whether or not your organisation will take part. If you decide to participate, thank you. If you decide not to take part, thank you for considering my request.

Who am I?

My name is Babette Moehricke, and I am a Doctoral student in the Doctorate of Education programme at Victoria University of Wellington. This research project is work towards my thesis.

What is the aim of the project?

This project investigates the mentoring relationships between the students at your school and their teacher mentors, the type of mentoring activities the teachers plan, and the students participate in and how the mentoring relationship influences the students as a person. To investigate this, I will ask students and teachers to participate in a survey. Students will also be offered the opportunity to participate in a group research called “World Café” and one-on-one interviews. Teachers will be given the opportunity to participate in a survey and an interview. This information leaflet relates to all aspects of my research.

This research has been approved by the Victoria University of Wellington Human Ethics Committee [*Application reference number 26845*].

How can you help?

If you agree to take part the 2019 year 13 students and all teachers who currently are mentors or have been mentors previously will be invited to complete an online survey. The survey will take approximately 20 minutes to complete. I will ask them questions about their mentoring experiences and relationships. Subsequently, students will be invited to participate in a group research called “World Café” as well as one-on-one interviews. Teachers will also be invited to participate in one-on-one interviews. The World Café will take about 1 hour and will take place after school. The one-on-one interviews will take about 30 minutes and will be completed by students and teachers during school hours with your permission. The World Café and the interviews will be audio recorded with the permission of the participants and I will write them up later. Each individual participant will be asked to give consent before their involvement in each of the stages of the research. The research will be confidential, meaning that I will know who participated, but the identities of the participants will be protected.

What will happen to the information you give?

This research is confidential*. This means that the researchers named below will be aware of the participants' identity, but the research data will be combined, and their identity as well as that of your organisation will not be revealed in any reports, presentations, or public documentation. However, you should be aware that in small projects the identity of your organisation might be obvious to others. The group recordings as well as interview transcripts, summaries and any recordings/survey data will be kept securely and destroyed on completion of the thesis (the anticipated completion date is December 2021).

What will the project produce?

The information gathered during the research will be used in my EdD dissertation. The aggregated data from the survey together with a summary of findings from the World Café group work and the interviews will be given to you and the school's Board of Trustees for information in a tailored report summarising the results of the research.

If you accept this invitation, what are the rights of your organisation?

You do not have to accept this invitation if you don't want to. If you do decide that your organisation will participate, you have the right to:

- ask any questions about the study at any time;
- withdraw your organisation's participation from the study before 10 February 2019, however, individual participants retain the right to decide if their data will be withdrawn;
- be able to read a report of this research

Be aware that the identities and contributions of participants will be kept confidential from your organisation.

If you have any questions or problems, who can you contact?

If you have any questions, either now or in the future, please feel free to contact me or my supervisor:

Student:

Name: Babette Moehricke

Supervisor:**Human Ethics Committee information**

If you have any concerns about the ethical conduct of the research, you may contact the Victoria University HEC Deputy Convenor:

* Confidentiality will be preserved except where a participant discloses something that causes me to be concerned about a risk of harm to themselves and/or others.



Understanding Mentoring Relationships in a New Zealand Secondary School

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE (ORGANISATION)

This consent form will be held for 3 years.

Researcher: Babette Moehricke, School of Education, Victoria University of Wellington.

I have read the Information Sheet and the project has been explained to me. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction. I understand that I can ask further questions at any time.

I agree that my organisation will take part.

understand that:

I may withdraw this organisation from this study at any point before 10 February 2019. However, information provided by members of the organisation in the course of the research will be used in the project.

Any information the participants provide will be kept confidential to the researcher and the supervisor.

I understand that the results will be used for an EdD thesis and/or academic publications and/or presented to conferences.

The name of my organisation will not be used in reports, nor will any information that would identify it.

I would like to receive a copy of the final report and have added my email Yes ☐ No ☐ address below.

Signature of school principal: _____

Name of principal: _____

Date: _____

Contact details: _____



Understanding Mentoring Relationships in a New Zealand Secondary School

INFORMATION FOR PARTICIPANTS-

Teachers' survey

You are invited to take part in this research. Please read this information before deciding whether or not to take part. If you decide to participate, thank you. If you decide not to participate, thank you for considering this request.

Who am I?

My name is Babette Moehricke and I am a Doctoral student in the Doctorate of Education (EdD) programme at Victoria University of Wellington. This research project is work towards my thesis.

What is the aim of the project?

This project investigates the mentoring relationships between students and you as their mentor at the school, the type of mentoring activities you plan and use in your time with the students and how the mentoring relationship influences the students as a person. To investigate this, I will ask students and teachers to participate in a questionnaire. Students will also be offered the opportunity to participate in a group research called "World Café" and one-on-one interviews. Teachers will be given the opportunity to participate in a questionnaire and an interview.

This research has been approved by the Victoria University of Wellington Human Ethics Committee [Application reference number 26845].

How can you help?

You have been invited to participate because you are a member of staff at the school that has a school-wide mentoring programme. If you agree to take part, you will complete a questionnaire. The questionnaire will ask you questions about your work as a mentor, the mentoring activities and your relationship with your students. The questionnaire will take you about 20 minutes to complete. This questionnaire is the first step of two research methods. You do not need to take part in all of them. This information leaflet relates to the questionnaire only.

What will happen to the information you give?

This research is confidential*. This means that the researchers named below will be aware of your identity. The research data will be combined, and your identity will not be revealed in any reports, presentations, or public documentation. Personal details will be collected

* Confidentiality will be preserved except where you disclose something that causes me to be concerned about a risk of harm to yourself and/or others.

separately from the survey only for those who wish to take part in further stages of the research as well.

What will the project produce?

The information gathered forms part of my research to be used in my EdD dissertation. The aggregated data from the survey together with a summary of findings from the World Café group work and the interviews will be given to the school's Board of Trustees for information. You can also receive a copy of the results if you wish.

If you have any questions or problems, who can you contact?

If you have any questions, either now or in the future, please feel free to contact either me or my supervisor:

Student:

Name: Babette Moehricke

Supervisor:

Human Ethics Committee information

If you have any concerns about the ethical conduct of the research, you may contact the Victoria University HEC Deputy Convenor:

Survey will state:

Completing the survey indicates that you have read the information leaflet and you give consent to the information you give to be used to inform the data collection for this project.



Understanding Mentoring Relationships in a New Zealand Secondary School

INFORMATION SHEET FOR PARTICIPANTS-

Interview with teachers

You are invited to take part in this research. Please read this information before deciding whether or not to take part. If you decide to participate, thank you. If you decide not to participate, thank you for considering this request.

Who am I?

My name is Babette Moehricke and I am a Doctoral student in the Doctorate of Education (EdD) programme at Victoria University of Wellington. This research project is work towards my thesis.

What is the aim of the project?

This project investigates the mentoring relationships between students and you as their mentor at the school, the type of mentoring activities you plan and use in your time with the students and how the mentoring relationship influences the students as a person. To investigate this, students and teachers have already participated in a questionnaire. Students also had the opportunity to participate in a group research called “World Café”. Students and teachers are now given the opportunity to participate in an interview. This information leaflet relates to the interview phase only.

This research has been approved by the Victoria University of Wellington Human Ethics Committee [*Application reference number 26845*].

How can you help?

You have been invited to participate because you have been a mentor in the school-wide mentoring programme and have indicated in the questionnaire that you would agree to take part in an interview. If you agree to take part, I will interview you at school during school hours at a time convenient to you. I will ask you questions about the mentoring programme and your relationship with your students. The interview will take approximately 30 minutes. I will audio record the interview with your permission and write it up later. You will be provided with a summary of the interview and given the opportunity to comment on it. You can choose to not answer any question or stop the interview at any time, without giving a reason. You can withdraw from the study by contacting me at any time before 15 March 2019. If you withdraw, the information you provided will be destroyed or returned to you.

What will happen to the information you give?

This research is confidential*. However, you should be aware that in small projects your identity might be obvious to others in your community when reading the summary of the research. However, all efforts will be taken to protect your confidentiality and identity through the use of pseudonyms and gender-neutral pronouns. The researchers named below will be aware of your identity, but the research data will be combined, and your identity will not be revealed in any reports, presentations, or public documentation.

Only my supervisor and I will read the notes or transcript of the interview. The interview transcripts, summaries and any recordings will be kept securely and destroyed on completion of the thesis (the anticipated completion date is December 2021).

What will the project produce?

The information gathered during the research will be used in my EdD dissertation. The aggregated data from the survey together with a summary of findings from the World Café group work and the interviews will be given to the school's Board of Trustees for information. You will be provided with a transcript of your interview and can also receive a copy of the final results if you wish.

If you accept this invitation, what are your rights as a research participant?

You do not have to accept this invitation if you don't want to. If you do decide to participate, you have the right to:

- choose not to answer any question;
- ask for the recorder to be turned off at any time during the interview;
- withdraw from the study at any time before or during the interview or up to a month after the interview has taken place
- ask any questions about the study at any time;
- read over and comment on a transcript of your interview;
- be able to read any reports of this research by emailing the researcher to request a copy.

If you have any questions or problems, who can you contact?

If you have any questions, either now or in the future, please feel free to contact either me or my supervisor:

Student:

Name: Babette Moehricke

Supervisor:

Human Ethics Committee information

If you have any concerns about the ethical conduct of the research, you may contact the Victoria University HEC Deputy Convenor:

* Confidentiality will be preserved except where you disclose something that causes me to be concerned about a risk of harm to yourself and/or others.



Understanding Mentoring Relationships in a New Zealand Secondary School

CONSENT TO INTERVIEW- Teacher Interview

This consent form will be held until the completion of the thesis (The anticipation completion date is December 2021.

Researcher: Babette Moehricke, School of Education, Victoria University of Wellington.

- I have read the Information Sheet and the project has been explained to me. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction. I understand that I can ask further questions at any time.
- I agree to take part in an audio recorded interview.

I understand that:

- I may withdraw from this study at any point before and during the interview or up to a month after the interview has taken place and any information that I have provided will be returned to me or destroyed.
- The identifiable information I have provided will be destroyed after the interview has been transcribed. This is due to be completed by 31/12/2020.
- I will be given the opportunity to receive a transcript of my interview and will have the opportunity to comment on it.
- Any information I provide will be kept confidential to the researcher and the supervisor Dr Judith Loveridge.
- I understand that the results will be used for an EdD thesis and/or academic publications and/or presented to conferences.
- My name will not be used in reports, nor will any information that would identify me.

I would like a transcript of my interview:	Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>
I would like to receive a copy of the final report and have added my email address below.	Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>

Signature of participant: _____

Name of participant: _____

Date: _____

Contact details: _____

Appendix E: Students' Information and Consent



Understanding Mentoring Relationships in a New Zealand Secondary School

INFORMATION SHEET FOR PARTICIPANTS-

Students' survey

You are invited to take part in this research. Please read this information before deciding whether or not to take part. If you decide to participate, thank you. If you decide not to participate, thank you for considering this request.

Who am I?

My name is Babette Moehricke and I am a Doctoral student in Doctorate of Education programme at Victoria University of Wellington. This research project is work towards my thesis.

What is the aim of the project?

This project investigates the mentoring relationships between you and your mentor at the school, the type of mentoring activities you participate in and how the mentoring relationship influences you as a person. To investigate this, I will ask students and teachers to participate in a questionnaire. Students will also be offered the opportunity to participate in a group research called "World Café" and one-on-one interviews. Teachers will be given the opportunity to participate in a questionnaire and an interview. This information leaflet relates to the questionnaire only.

This research has been approved by the Victoria University of Wellington Human Ethics Committee [Application reference number 26845].

How can you help?

You have been invited to participate because your year group is the first cohort to be fully involved in the mentoring programme for three school years. If you agree to take part at this stage of the research, you will complete a questionnaire. The questionnaire will ask you questions about you, your mentor and the mentoring activities. The questionnaire will take you 20 minutes to complete. This questionnaire is the first step of three research methods. You do not need to take part in all of them.

What will happen to the information you give?

This research is confidential *. This means that the researchers named below will be aware of your identity, but the research data will be combined, and your identity will not be revealed in any reports, presentations, or public documentation. Personal details will be collected separately from the survey only for those who wish to take part in further stages of the research as well.

What will the project produce?

The information gathered during the research phase will be used in my EdD dissertation. The aggregated data from the survey together with a summary of findings from the World Café group work and the interviews will be given to the school's Board of Trustees for information. You can also receive a copy of the results if you wish.

If you have any questions or problems, who can you contact?

If you have any questions, either now or in the future, please feel free to contact either me or my supervisor.

Student:

Name: Babette Moehricke

Supervisor:**Human Ethics Committee information**

If you have any concerns about the ethical conduct of the research, you may contact the Victoria University HEC Deputy Convenor:

Survey will state:

Completing the survey indicates that you have read the information leaflet and you give consent to the information you give to be used to inform the data collection for this project.

* Confidentiality will be preserved except where you disclose something that causes me to be concerned about a risk of harm to yourself and/or others.



Understanding Mentoring Relationships in a New Zealand Secondary School

INFORMATION SHEET FOR PARTICIPANTS-

World Café style focus group for student- group participants

You are invited to take part in this research. Please read this information before deciding whether or not to take part. If you decide to participate, thank you. If you decide not to participate, thank you for considering this request.

Who am I?

My name is Babette Moehricke and I am a Doctoral student in the Doctorate of Education programme at Victoria University of Wellington. This research project is work towards my thesis.

What is the aim of the project?

This project investigates the mentoring relationships between you and your mentor at the school, the type of mentoring activities you participate in and how the mentoring relationship influences you as a person. To investigate this, students and teachers have already completed a questionnaire. Students will also be offered the opportunity to participate in a group research called "World Café" and one-on-one interviews. Teachers will be given the opportunity to participate in a questionnaire and an interview. This information leaflet relates to the World Café research stage only.

This research has been approved by the Victoria University of Wellington Human Ethics Committee [Application reference number 26845].

How can you help?

You have been invited to participate because you have been a student in the school-wide mentoring programme and have indicated in the questionnaire that you would agree to take part in a group discussion about your mentoring experience. If you agree to take part, you will be part of a focus group at school using a style called "World Café". In a café style setting fellow students will ask you and other students questions about your experiences of the mentoring programme. The World Café will take approximately 1 hour. The groups will be organised into table groups and you will change groups on a regular basis. Each table host will audio record the table groups with your permission and I (the researcher) will write up the recordings later.

The information shared during the World Café is confidential. However, you should be aware that in small projects your identity might be obvious to others in your community. After the World Café has finished, you may not communicate to anyone, including family members and close friends, any details of your conversations during the recordings. You can withdraw from the World Café at any time before the focus group begins.

You can also withdraw while the World Café is in progress. However, it will not be possible to withdraw the information you have provided up to that point as it will be part of a discussion with other participants.

What will happen to the information you give?

This research is confidential *. However, you should be aware that in small projects your identity might be obvious to others in your community when reading the summary of the research. However, all efforts will be taken to protect your confidentiality and identity through the use of pseudonyms and gender-neutral pronouns. The researchers named below will be aware of your identity, but the research data will be combined, and your identity will not be revealed in any reports, presentations, or public documentation.

Only my supervisor and I will read the notes or transcript of the World Café. The transcripts, summaries and any recordings will be kept securely and destroyed *on* completion of the thesis (anticipated completion date 31/12/2021).

What will the project produce?

The information gathered will form part of my research to be used in my EdD dissertation. All the data gathered from the survey together with a summary of findings from the World Café group work and the interviews will be given to the school's Board of Trustees for information. You can be provided with a summary of the findings from the World Café group recordings but not the recording or the transcript to protect everyone's confidentiality. You can also receive a copy of the final results if you wish.

If you accept this invitation, what are your rights as a research participant?

You do not have to accept this invitation if you don't want to. If you do decide to participate, you have the right to:

- choose not to answer any question;
- ask for the recorder to be turned off at any time during the World Café discussion;
- withdraw from the World Café while it is taking place however it will not be possible to withdraw the information you have provided up to that point;
- ask any questions about the study at any time;
- receive a summary of the findings of the World Café discussion
- be able to read any reports of this research by emailing the researcher to request a copy.

If you have any questions or problems, who can you contact?

If you have any questions, either now or in the future, please feel free to contact [either/me]:

Student:

Name: Babette Moehricke

Supervisor:

Human Ethics Committee information

If you have any concerns about the ethical conduct of the research, you may contact the Victoria University HEC Deputy Convenor:

* Confidentiality will be preserved except where you disclose something that causes me to be concerned about a risk of harm to yourself and/or others.



Understanding Mentoring Relationships in a New Zealand Secondary School

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN World Café style focus group- group participant

This consent form will be held until the completion of the thesis (the anticipation completion date is December 2021).

Researcher: Babette Moehricke, School of Education, Victoria University of Wellington.

- I have read the Information Sheet and the project has been explained to me. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction. I understand that I can ask further questions at any time.
- I agree to take part in an audio recorded World Café.

I understand that:

- I am agreeing to keep the information shared during the group discussion confidential. I am aware that after the recording session, I must not communicate to anyone, including family members and close friends, any details about the discussions.
- I can withdraw from the World Café while it is in progress however it will not be possible to withdraw the information I have provided up to that point as it will be part of a discussion with other participants
- The identifiable information I have provided will be destroyed on 31/12/2020.
- I will be given the opportunity to receive a summary the findings from the group recording.
- Any information I provide will be kept confidential to the researcher and the supervisor.
- I understand that the results will be used for EdD thesis and/or academic publications and/or presented to conferences].
- My name will not be used in reports, nor will any information that would identify me.

I would like a summary of the findings from the World Café discussions:	Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>
I would like to receive a copy of the final report and have added my email address below.	Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>

Signature of participant: _____

Name of participant: _____

Date: _____

Contact details: _____



Understanding Mentoring Relationships in a New Zealand Secondary School

INFORMATION SHEET FOR PARTICIPANTS-

World Café style focus group table host

You are invited to take part in this research. Please read this information before deciding whether or not to take part. If you decide to participate, thank you. If you decide not to participate, thank you for considering this request.

Who am I?

My name is Babette Moehricke and I am a Doctoral student in the Doctorate of Education programme at Victoria University of Wellington. This research project is work towards my thesis.

What is the aim of the project?

This project investigates the mentoring relationships between you and your mentor at the school, the type of mentoring activities you participate in and how the mentoring relationship influences you as a person. To investigate this, students and teachers have already completed a questionnaire. Students will also be offered the opportunity to participate in a group research called “World Café” and one-on-one interviews. Teachers will be given the opportunity to participate in a questionnaire and an interview. This information leaflet relates to the World Café research stage only.

This research has been approved by the Victoria University of Wellington Human Ethics Committee [Application reference number 26845].

How can you help?

You have been invited to participate because you have been a student in the school-wide mentoring programme and have indicated in the questionnaire that you would agree to take part in a group discussion about the mentoring and take the role of a table host. If you agree to take part, you will be a table host for the group research. In a café style setting you will ask questions and lead conversations with other participants asking them questions about their experiences of the mentoring programme. We will have a preparatory meeting to discuss your themes and possible questions and also the skills needed to be a table host. The preparation meeting will take about 1 hour, and the World Cafe will take approximately 1 hour. The groups will be organised into table groups and the groups you lead will change on a regular basis. Each table host will audio record the table groups with your permission and I (the researcher) will write up the recordings later. For your efforts as a table hosts you will receive a lunch voucher for the school’s School of Hospitality Café.

The information shared during the World Café is confidential. However, you should be aware that in small projects your identity might be obvious to others in your community. After the World Café has finished, you may not communicate to anyone, including family members and close friends, any details about the content of the discussions. You can withdraw from the World Cafe at any time before we begin.

You can also withdraw while the World Café is in progress. However, it will not be possible to withdraw the information you have provided up to that point as it will be part of a discussion with other participants.

What will happen to the information you give?

This research is confidential *. However, you should be aware that in small projects your identity might be obvious to others in your community when reading the summary of the research. However, all efforts will be taken to protect your confidentiality and identity through the use of pseudonyms and gender-neutral pronouns. The researchers named below will be aware of your identity, but the research data will be combined, and your identity will not be revealed in any reports, presentations, or public documentation.

Only my supervisor and I will read the notes or transcript of the World Café. The transcripts, summaries and any recordings will be kept securely and destroyed completion of the thesis (anticipated completion date 31/12/2021).

What will the project produce?

The information gathered will form part of my research to be used in my EdD dissertation. All the data gathered from the survey together with a summary of findings from the World Café group work and the interviews will be given to the school's Board of Trustees for information. You can be provided with a summary of the findings from the World Café group recordings but not the recording or the transcript to protect everyone's confidentiality. You can also receive a copy of the final results if you wish.

If you accept this invitation, what are your rights as a research participant?

You do not have to accept this invitation if you don't want to. If you do decide to participate, you have the right to:

- choose not to host a table group;
- choose not to answer any question;
- ask for the recorder to be turned off at any time during the World Café discussion;
- withdraw from the World Café while it is taking place however it will not be possible to withdraw the information you have provided up to that point;
- ask any questions about the study at any time;
- receive a summary of the findings of the World Café discussion
- be able to read any reports of this research by emailing the researcher to request a copy.

If you have any questions or problems, who can you contact?

If you have any questions, either now or in the future, please feel free to contact [either/me]:

Student:

Name: Babette Moehricke

Supervisor:

Human Ethics Committee information

If you have any concerns about the ethical conduct of the research, you may contact the Victoria University HEC Deputy Convenor:

* Confidentiality will be preserved except where you disclose something that causes me to be concerned about a risk of harm to yourself and/or others.



Understanding Mentoring Relationships in a New Zealand Secondary School

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN World Café style focus group- table host

This consent form will be held until the completion of the thesis (the anticipation completion date is December 2021).

Researcher: Babette Moehricke, School of Education, Victoria University of Wellington.

- I have read the Information Sheet and the project has been explained to me. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction. I understand that I can ask further questions at any time.
- I agree to be a table host for the World Café group research.
- I agree to take part in an audio recorded World Café.

I understand that:

- I am agreeing to keep the information shared during the World Café confidential. I am aware that after the World Café, I must not communicate to anyone, including family members and close friends, any details about the discussions.
- I can withdraw from the World Café while it is in progress however it will not be possible to withdraw the information I have provided up to that point as it will be part of a discussion with other participants
- The identifiable information I have provided will be destroyed on 31/12/2020.
- I will be given the opportunity to receive a summary the findings of the World Café.
- Any information I provide will be kept confidential to the researcher and the supervisor.
- I understand that the results will be used for EdD thesis and/or academic publications and/or presented to conferences].
- My name will not be used in reports, nor will any information that would identify me.

I agree to be a table host for the World Café	Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>
I would like a summary of the findings from the World Café discussions:	Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>
I would like to receive a copy of the final report and have added my email address below.	Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>

Signature of participant: _____

Name of participant: _____

Date: _____

Contact details: _____



Understanding Mentoring Relationships in a New Zealand Secondary School

INFORMATION SHEET FOR PARTICIPANTS-

Interview with Students

You are invited to take part in this research. Please read this information before deciding whether or not to take part. If you decide to participate, thank you. If you decide not to participate, thank you for considering this request.

Who am I?

My name is Babette Moehricke and I am a Doctoral student in the Doctorate of Education programme at Victoria University of Wellington. This research project is work towards my thesis.

What is the aim of the project?

This project investigates the mentoring relationships between you and your mentor at the school, the type of mentoring activities you participate in and how the mentoring relationship influences you as a person. To investigate this, students and teachers have already completed a questionnaire. Students also had the opportunity to participate in a group research called "World Café". This is now the third stage of the research involving students by participating in one-on-one interviews. Teachers will be given the opportunity to participate in a questionnaire and an interview. This information leaflet relates to the student interviews only.

This research has been approved by the Victoria University of Wellington Human Ethics Committee [Application reference number 26845].

How can you help?

You have been invited to participate because you have been a student in the school-wide mentoring programme and have indicated in the questionnaire and/ or after the group interview (Café style) that you would agree to take part in an interview. If you agree to take part, I will interview you at school during school hours. I will ask you questions about the mentoring programme and your relationship with your mentor. The interview will take approximately 30 minutes. I will audio record the interview with your permission and write it up later. You will be provided with a summary of your interview and be given the opportunity to comment on it. You can choose to not answer any question or stop the interview at any time, without giving a reason. You can withdraw from the study by contacting me at any time before 3 May 2019. If you withdraw, the information you provided will be destroyed or returned to you.

What will happen to the information you give?

This research is confidential*. However, you should be aware that in small projects your identity might be obvious to others in your community when reading the summary of the research. However, all efforts will be taken to protect your confidentiality and identity through the use of pseudonyms and gender-neutral pronouns. The researchers named below will be aware of your identity, but the research data will be combined, and your identity will not be revealed in any reports, presentations, or public documentation. Only my supervisor and I will read the notes or transcript of the interview. The interview transcripts, summaries and any recordings will be kept securely and destroyed on completion of the thesis (the anticipated completion date is December 2021).

What will the project produce?

The information gathered during the research will be used in my EdD dissertation. The aggregated data from the survey together with a summary of findings from the World Café group work and the interviews will be given to the school's Board of Trustees for information. You will be provided with a transcript of your interview and will have the opportunity to comment on it. You can also receive a copy of the final results if you wish.

If you accept this invitation, what are your rights as a research participant?

You do not have to accept this invitation if you don't want to. If you do decide to participate, you have the right to:

- choose not to answer any question;
- ask for the recorder to be turned off at any time during the interview;
- withdraw from the study at any time before or during the interview or up to a month after the recording has taken place;
- ask any questions about the study at any time;
- read over and comment on a transcript of your interview;
- be able to read any reports of this research by emailing the researcher to request a copy.

If you have any questions or problems, who can you contact?

If you have any questions, either now or in the future, please feel free to contact either me or my supervisor:

Student:

Name: Babette Moehricke

Supervisor:

Human Ethics Committee information

If you have any concerns about the ethical conduct of the research, you may contact the Victoria University HEC Deputy Convenor:

* Confidentiality will be preserved except where you disclose something that causes me to be concerned about a risk of harm to yourself and/or others.



Understanding Mentoring Relationships in a New Zealand Secondary School

CONSENT TO INTERVIEW- Student Interview

This consent form will be held until the completion of the thesis (the anticipation completion date is December 2021).

Researcher: Babette Moehricke, School of Education, Victoria University of Wellington.

- I have read the Information Sheet and the project has been explained to me. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction. I understand that I can ask further questions at any time.
- I agree to take part in an audio recorded interview.

I understand that:

- I may withdraw from this study at any point before or during the interview or up to a month after the interview has taken place and any information that I have provided will be returned to me or destroyed.
- The identifiable information I have provided will be destroyed after the interview has been transcribed. This is due to be completed by 31/12/2020.
- I will be given the opportunity to receive a transcript of my interview and will have the opportunity to comment on it.
- Any information I provide will be kept confidential to the researcher and the supervisor Dr Judith Loveridge.
- I understand that the results will be used for an EdD thesis and/or academic publications and/or presented to conferences.
- My name will not be used in reports, nor will any information that would identify me.

I would like a transcript of my interview:	Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>
I would like to receive a copy of the final report and have added my email address below.	Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>

Signature of participant: _____

Name of participant: _____

Date: _____

Contact details: _____

Appendix F: Teacher-Mentor Survey

Overview

This survey was based on the Match Characteristics Questionnaire (MCQ) (Harris & Nakkula, 2008), created using Qualtrics and then was shared with teachers via email.

Personal details:

How long have you been a mentor for your current group?

- a) Since the beginning of 2019
- b) Since the beginning of 2018
- c) Since some time during 2018
- d) Since 2017

Part A: How do you feel about your mentoring relationship?

For each statement below, please say how often it is true for you by choosing a number from the scale. If you do not think a question applies to you or if it does not make sense to you, please leave it blank.

Scale:

1	2	3	4	5	6
NEVER	RARELY	SOMETIMES	PRETTY OFTEN	VERY OFTEN	ALWAYS

1. Most of my mentees are open with me (share thoughts and feelings).	1 2 3 4 5 6
2. I feel like the mentoring relationship are getting stronger.	1 2 3 4 5 6
3. Most of my mentees are very private about their life at home (do not talk to me about it).	1 2 3 4 5 6
4. My mentees ask for my opinion or advice.	1 2 3 4 5 6
5. My mentees make me aware of his/her problems or concerns.	1 2 3 4 5 6
6. I feel distant from my mentees.	1 2 3 4 5 6
7. I feel unsure that my mentees are getting enough out of our mentoring relationship.	1 2 3 4 5 6
8. My mentees ask me for help when they have difficult schoolwork or a major project to do.	1 2 3 4 5 6
9. My mentees avoid talking with me about problems or issues at home.	1 2 3 4 5 6
10. My mentees are open with me about their friends.	1 2 3 4 5 6
11. I feel awkward or uncomfortable when I'm with my mentees.	1 2 3 4 5 6
12. My mentees are willing to learn from me.	1 2 3 4 5 6
13. My mentees do things to push me away.	1 2 3 4 5 6
14. I feel like I am making a difference in my mentees' life.	1 2 3 4 5 6
15. My mentees seem to want my help with their academics.	1 2 3 4 5 6
16. My mentees talk to me about it when they have problems with friends or peers.	1 2 3 4 5 6
17. My mentees show me how much they care about me (say things, smile, etc.).	1 2 3 4 5 6
18. I feel like my mentees and I have a strong bond (are close or deeply connected).	1 2 3 4 5 6
19. My mentees seem uncomfortable (or resistant) when I try to help with problems they may be having.	1 2 3 4 5 6
20. I can trust what my mentees tells me.	1 2 3 4 5 6

Part B: What do you focus on in your mentoring relationship?

Question 1. Each mentor is unique, so each has a different approach. Please help me understand your approach by listing your three most important foci (things you want to do as a mentor). Next, rank them from one to three to tell us which is your most important focus ("1" is most important).

Your Three Most Important Focuses as a Mentor

Rank

A)	
B)	
C)	

Question 2. How important do you consider the focuses listed below? Please choose a number from the scale.

1	2	3	4	5	6
NOT IMPORTANT	A LITTLE IMPORTANT	PRETTY IMPORTANT	VERY IMPORTANT	EXTREMELY IMPORTANT	MOST IMPORTANT

Remember, there are no "right" answers—each mentor has a different approach.

1. Sharing your life experiences with your mentees?	1 2 3 4 5 6
2. Having times when you do nothing but fun things with your mentees?	1 2 3 4 5 6
3. Getting your mentees to develop their character (be honest, responsible, etc.)?	1 2 3 4 5 6
4. Doing activities with your mentees that get them to think (like reading, puzzles, educational games, etc.)?	1 2 3 4 5 6
5. Encouraging your mentees to push beyond what is comfortable or easy (to expect more of themselves)?	1 2 3 4 5 6
6. Focusing on feelings and emotional things with your mentees?	1 2 3 4 5 6
7. Teaching your mentees to manage or improve on their behavior (for bad times, make better decisions, etc.)?	1 2 3 4 5 6
8. Doing or saying things to improve your mentees' attitude towards school (or keep it positive if it is already good)?	1 2 3 4 5 6
9. Exposing your mentees to new ideas and experiences?	1 2 3 4 5 6
10. Telling your mentees about your job?	1 2 3 4 5 6
11. Getting your mentees to care more about other people?	1 2 3 4 5 6
12. Helping your mentees with schoolwork?	1 2 3 4 5 6
13. Getting your mentees to develop stronger skills and interests?	1 2 3 4 5 6
14. Spending time just talking with your mentees?	1 2 3 4 5 6
15. Having fun (yourself) while you are with your mentees?	1 2 3 4 5 6
16. Teaching your mentees social skills (like table manners, how to meet people, etc.)?	1 2 3 4 5 6
17. Involving academics in the mentoring relationship?	1 2 3 4 5 6
18. Getting your mentees to think about serious issues in their life (school, relationships, etc.)?	1 2 3 4 5 6

Part C: What is your mentoring relationship like?

For each statement below, please say how much you agree by choosing a number from the scale. If you do not think a question applies to you or if it does not make sense to you, please leave it blank.

1	2	3	4	5	6
COMPLETELY DISAGREE	MOSTLY DISAGREE	TEND TO DISAGREE	TEND TO AGREE	MOSTLY AGREE	COMPLETELY AGREE

1. My mentees and I hit it off right away.	1 2 3 4 5 6
2. I am really good at making the relationship fun and engaging for my mentees.	1 2 3 4 5 6
3. I think I might be a better mentor for a student who had fewer problems (or less severe).	1 2 3 4 5 6
4. I can tell from things my mentees say or do that their parent(s)/guardian(s) take an active interest in our mentoring relationship.	1 2 3 4 5 6
5. The program has provided training that helps me be a better mentor.	1 2 3 4 5 6
6. My mentees wish I were different (younger/older, man/woman, etc.).	1 2 3 4 5 6
7. I do as good a job of engaging my mentees in conversation as anyone could.	1 2 3 4 5 6
8. My mentees needs more from me than I can give.	1 2 3 4 5 6
9. I am confident that my mentees' parent(s)/guardian(s) support our mentoring relationship.	1 2 3 4 5 6
10. I get regular guidance/supervision from the staff that oversees my mentoring relationship.	1 2 3 4 5 6
11. My mentees and I have similar interests.	1 2 3 4 5 6
12. I am capable of helping my mentees reach their full academic potential.	1 2 3 4 5 6
13. I have had experiences that help me understand the important challenges/issues in my mentees' life.	1 2 3 4 5 6
14. The support I get from the mentoring program makes me a better mentor.	1 2 3 4 5 6
15. My background makes it easy for me to relate with my mentees.	1 2 3 4 5 6
16. I am good at motivating my mentees to learn and grow.	1 2 3 4 5 6
17. It is hard for me to deal with my mentees' behaviour.	1 2 3 4 5 6
18. I have a friend or family member who helps me deal with challenges in my mentoring relationships.	1 2 3 4 5 6
19. I am a good role model for my mentees.	1 2 3 4 5 6
20. I think my mentees and I are a good match for each other.	1 2 3 4 5 6
21. There is a staff member at my mentoring program who always knows how my mentoring relationships are going.	1 2 3 4 5 6
22. There is a staff member at my mentoring program who always understands what I am finding most challenging about being a mentor.	1 2 3 4 5 6

Part D: Further research

This will be shared in a separate link in the generic email. (If printed version, then on a separate sheet, which will be detached before data is collated)

1. Would you be interested in taking part in the next stage of the research?
 - a. A one-on-one interview with the researcher
2. If you ticked yes to one of the above, please tell me your name and email address.

Survey for teacher-mentors- results

Internal Scales

Subscales of questions:

AS	Academic Support	CL	Closeness	C	Compatibility
D	Discomfort	H	Handling/ Ability to deal with Issues	NAS	non-academic support
S	Satisfaction				

Categories in questionnaires	Grouped categories in graphs (grouped because of small number of participants)
Never	Never
Rarely	Sometimes
Sometimes	
Pretty often	Often
Very often	
Always	Always

Questions from Part A of survey

CATEGORY	QUESTION	Survey Responses							Graph Categories			
		NEVER	RARELY	SOMETIMES	PRETTY OFTEN	VERY OFTEN	ALWAYS	Total	NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS
AS	15. My mentees seem to want my help with their academics.	0	0	4	0	4	0	8	0	4	4	0
AS	8. My mentees ask me for help when they have difficult schoolwork or a major project to do.	0	0	3	3	1	1	8	0	3	4	1
CL	20. I can trust what my mentees tell me.	0	0	1	2	5	0	8	0	1	7	0
CL	18. I feel like my mentees and I have a strong bond (are close or deeply connected).	0	0	3	0	3	2	8	0	3	3	2
CL	17. My mentees show me how much they care about me (say things, smile, etc.).	0	1	1	1	3	2	8	0	2	4	2
CL*	6.* I feel distant from my mentees.	0	4	3	0	0	0	7	0	7	0	0
D*	19.* My mentees seem uncomfortable (or resistant) when I try to help with problems they may be having.	1	6	1	0	0	0	8	1	7	0	0
D*	13.* My mentees do things to push me away.	3	5	0	0	0	0	8	3	5	0	0
D*	11.* I feel awkward or uncomfortable when I'm with my mentees.	4	4	0	0	0	0	8	4	4	0	0
D*	9.* My mentees avoid talking with me about problems or issues at home.	0	2	6	0	0	0	8	0	8	0	0
D*	3.* Most of my mentees are very private about their life at home (do not talk to me about it).	0	0	7	1	0	0	8	0	7	1	0
NAS	16. My mentees talk to me about it when they have problems with friends or peers.	0	1	2	3	1	1	8	0	3	4	1
NAS	10. My mentees are open with me about their friends.	0	1	2	2	3	0	8	0	3	5	0
NAS	5. My mentees make me aware of his/her problems or concerns.	0	0	3	2	3	0	8	0	3	5	0
NAS	4. My mentees ask for my opinion or advice.	0	0	2	2	4	0	8	0	2	6	0
NAS	1. Most of my mentees are open with me (share thoughts and feelings).	0	0	0	3	4	1	8	0	0	7	1
S	14. I feel like I am making a difference in my mentees' life.	0	0	2	1	3	2	8	0	2	4	2
S	12. My mentees are willing to learn from me.	0	0	1	1	5	1	8	0	1	6	1
S	7. I feel unsure that my mentees are getting enough out of our mentoring relationship.	1	1	2	3	1	0	8	1	3	4	0
S	2. I feel like the mentoring relationships are getting stronger.	0	0	1	2	2	3	8	0	1	4	3

Questions from Part C of survey

Categories in questionnaires	Grouped categories in graphs (grouped because of small number of participants)
Completely disagree	Disagree
Mostly disagree	
Disagree	
Agree mostly	Agree
Agree	
Completely agree	Completely agree

CATEGORY	Question	Survey Responses							Graph Categories		
		COMPLETELY DISAGREE	MOSTLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	AGREE MOSTLY	AGREE	COMPLETELY AGREE	Total	DISAGREE	AGREE	COMPLETELY AGREE
C	20. I think my mentees and I are a good match for each other.	0	0	0	4	2	2	8	0	6	2
C	15. My background makes it easy for me to relate with my mentees.	0	0	0	5	1	2	8	0	6	2
C	13. I have had experiences that help me understand the important challenges/issues in my mentees' life.	0	0	0	2	3	3	8	0	5	3
C	11. My mentees and I have similar interests.	0	2	3	1	2	0	8	5	3	0
C*	6.* My mentees wish I were different (younger/older, man/woman, etc.).	3	3	2	0	0	0	8	8	0	0
C	1. My mentees and I hit it off right away.	0	0	1	4	3	0	8	1	7	0
H*	17.* It is hard for me to deal with my mentees' behaviour.	1	5	1	1	0	0	8	7	1	0
H	16. I am good at motivating my mentees to learn and grow.	0	1	1	2	2	2	8	2	4	2
H*	8.* My mentees needs more from me than I can give.	2	0	4	1	0	1	8	6	1	1
H*	3.* I think I might be a better mentor for a student who had fewer problems (or less severe).	2	4	2	0	0	0	8	8	0	0

Structure Scales

Subscales of questions:

A	Academic purpose	C	Character Development Purpose	F	Fun Purpose
O	Outlook Purpose	S	Sharing Purpose		

Categories in questionnaires	Grouped categories in graphs (grouped because of small number of participants)
Not important	Not important
A little important	Important
Pretty important	
Very important	Very Important
Extremely important	
Most important	Most important

Questions from Part B of survey

		Survey Responses							Graph Categories			
CATEGORY	Question	NOT IMPORTANT	A LITTLE IMPORTANT	PRETTY IMPORTANT	VERY IMPORTANT	EXTREMELY IMPORTANT	MOST IMPORTANT	Total	NOT IMPORTANT	IMPORTANT	VERY IMPORTANT	MOST IMPORTANT
A	17. Involving academics in the mentoring relationship?	0	0	3	1	3	1	8	0	3	4	1
A	12. Helping your mentees with schoolwork?	0	0	2	2	2	2	8	0	2	4	2
A	8. Doing or saying things to improve your mentees' attitude towards school (or keep it positive if it is already good)?	0	0	1	2	4	1	8	0	1	6	1
A	4. Doing activities with your mentees that get them to think (like reading, puzzles, educational games, etc.)?	0	0	3	2	2	1	8	0	3	4	1
C	16. Teaching your mentees social skills (like table manners, how to meet people, etc.)?	1	0	1	4	2	0	8	1	1	6	0
C	11. Getting your mentees to care more about other people?	0	0	1	1	3	3	8	0	1	4	3
C	7. Teaching your mentees to manage or improve their behaviour (control impulses, make better decisions, etc.)?	0	0	1	2	3	2	8	0	1	5	2
C	3. Getting your mentees to develop their character (be honest, responsible, etc.)?	0	0	1	1	4	2	8	0	1	5	2
F	15. Having fun (yourself) while you are with your mentees?	0	0	1	2	2	3	8	0	1	4	3
F	2. Having times when you do nothing but fun things with your mentees?	0	1	0	4	3	0	8	0	1	7	0
O	18. Getting your mentees to think about serious issues in their life (school, relationships, etc.)?	0	0	1	0	5	2	8	0	1	5	2
O	13. Getting your mentees to develop stronger skills and interests?	0	0	1	2	3	2	8	0	1	5	2
O	9. Exposing your mentees to new ideas and experiences?	0	0	0	3	1	4	8	0	0	4	4
O	5. Encouraging your mentees to push beyond what is comfortable or easy (to expect more of themselves)?	0	0	1	1	4	2	8	0	1	5	2
S	14. Spending time just talking with your mentees?	0	0	0	1	3	4	8	0	0	4	4
S	10. Telling your mentees about your job?	2	2	0	3	0	1	8	2	2	3	1
S	6. Focusing on feelings and emotional things with your mentees?	0	0	2	4	1	1	8	0	2	5	1
S	1. Sharing your life experiences with your mentees?	0	1	0	5	2	0	8	0	1	7	0

External scales

Subscales of questions:

PE	Parent engagement	PS	programme support	SPS	school programme specific
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Categories in questionnaires	Grouped categories in graphs (grouped because of small number of participants)
Completely disagree	Completely disagree
Mostly disagree	Disagree
Disagree	
Agree mostly	Agree
Agree	
Completely agree	Completely agree

Questions from Part C of survey

CATEGORY	Question	survey responses						Total	graph categories			
		COMPLETELY DISAGREE	MOSTLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	AGREE MOSTLY	AGREE	COMPLETELY AGREE		COMPLETELY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	AGREE	COMPLETELY AGREE
PE	9. I am confident that my mentees's parent(s)/guardian(s) support our mentoring relationship.	0	1	0	3	2	2	8	0	1	5	2
PE	4. I can tell from things my mentees say or do that their parent(s)/guardian(s) take an active interest in our mentoring relationship.	0	0	2	2	4	0	8	0	2	6	0
PS	14. The support I get from the mentoring program makes me a better mentor.	2	1	0	3	2	0	8	2	1	5	0
PS	10. I get regular guidance/supervision from the staff that oversees my mentoring relationship.	3	1	0	1	1	2	8	3	1	2	2
PS	5. The program has provided training that helps me be a better mentor.	3	2	2	1	0	0	8	3	4	1	0
SPS	22. There is a staff member at my mentoring program who always understands what I am finding most challenging about being a mentor.	1	1	2	4	0	0	8	1	3	4	0
SPS	21. There is a staff member at my mentoring program who always knows how my mentoring relationships are going.	1	0	2	3	0	2	8	1	2	3	2
SPS	19. I am a good role model for my mentees.	0	0	0	3	3	2	8	0	0	6	2
SPS	18. I have a friend or family member who helps me deal with challenges in my mentoring relationships.	2	2	3	0	0	1	8	2	5	0	1
SPS	12. I am capable of helping my mentees reach their full academic potential.	0	0	2	1	2	3	8	0	2	3	3
SPS	7. I do as good a job of engaging my mentees in conversation as anyone could.	0	0	1	3	4	0	8	0	1	7	0
SPS	2. I am really good at making the relationship fun and engaging for my mentees.	0	0	1	3	3	1	8	0	1	6	1

Appendix G: Student Survey

Overview

This survey was based on the Youth Mentoring Survey (YMS) (Harris & Nakkula, 2013), created using Qualtrics and then shared with students via email.

Personal information:

What do you identify as?

- a) NZ Pakeha
- b) Māori
- c) Other: please specify

How long have you had your current mentor?

- a) Since the beginning of 2019
- b) Since beginning of 2018
- c) Since part way through 2018
- d) Since 2017

Part A: The relationship with your mentor

For each sentence, please choose a number from the scale below to say how true it is for you.

1 = Not at all True 2 = A Little True 3 = Pretty True 4 = Very True

1. I talk with my mentor when I have problems or things that worry	1 2 3 4
2. I have learned a lot from my mentor.	1 2 3 4
3. My mentor makes me happy.	1 2 3 4
4. My mentor and I got along right away (liked each other quickly).	1 2 3 4
5. My mentor and I are close.	1 2 3 4
6. My mentor focuses too much on school.	1 2 3 4
7. My mentor makes me feel special.	1 2 3 4
8. My mentor is a good match for me.	1 2 3 4
9. I am doing better at school because of my mentor's help.	1 2 3 4
10. I know a lot about my mentor's life (his/her family, job, etc.).	1 2 3 4
11. I want my mentor to teach me how to do things.	1 2 3 4
12. I wish my mentor would not try so hard to get me to talk about things I don't want to talk about.	1 2 3 4
13. My mentor has helped me with problems in my life.	1 2 3 4
14. I can always count on my mentor (to do what he/she promises, etc.).	1 2 3 4
15. My mentor and I like to do the same things.	1 2 3 4
16. My mentor really cares about me.	1 2 3 4
17. I am willing to try new things that my mentor suggests (foods, activities, etc.).	1 2 3 4
18. I wish my mentor would not get on my back so much (about how I act, what I wear, etc.).	1 2 3 4
19. My mentor knows what is going on in my life.	1 2 3 4
20. I want my mentor to help me do better at school.	1 2 3 4

Part B: What do you do with your mentor?

Directions: Please choose a number from the scale below to tell us how often you do different things with your mentor.

1=Never	2=once a term	3=a few times per term	4=once a week	5=Every time		
1.	Do activities that are really fun?	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Talk about things you hope will happen in your life (your hopes and dreams)?	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Talk about problems you have or things that worry you?	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Talk about how you are doing at school?	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Do things that are boring or that you do not like.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Talk about good things that happen to you (things that make you happy)?	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Learn about things that interest you? (Interests are things you like or things that can keep your attention).	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Do the thing that you really wanted to do that day (your top choice)?	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Talk about any bad things that happen in your life?	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Work on school assignments or projects together?	1	2	3	4	5
11.	Do something special, something you would not usually get to do.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	Talk about the things you care about the most?	1	2	3	4	5
13.	Talk about how to be a good person (being honest, responsible, etc.)?	1	2	3	4	5
14.	Talk about places you would like to go or things you hope to do?	1	2	3	4	5
15.	Talk about your family (how you're getting along with them, what it's like at home, etc.)?	1	2	3	4	5
16.	Do activities that teach you something or make you think (like reading, puzzles, educational games, etc.)?	1	2	3	4	5

Part C: Qualitative Questions

Please answer the following questions in a few words.

- Describe the qualities of your mentor/ kaiārahi.
- What influence has he/ she had on you?
- Which activities do you do as a group that you think bring you all closer together?
- In one-on-one conversation with your mentor, what do you talk about?
- Have you had other experiences of mentoring?

Part D: Further research

- Would you be interested in taking part in the next stages of the research? (Please circle those you are interested in)
 - a group work called "World Café" as table host
 - a group work called "World Café" as participant
 - A one-on-one interview with the researcher
- If you ticked yes to one of the above, please tell me your name and email address.

Survey for students- results

Internal Scales

Subscales of questions:

IQ	Instrumental Quality	P	Prescription	RQ	Relational Quality
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Categories in questionnaires	Grouped categories in graphs (grouped because of small number of participants)
Not at all True	Not at all true
A little true	True
Pretty true	
Very true	

Questions from Part A of survey

Category	Question	survey responses				Total	graph	
		NOT AT ALL TRUE	A LITTLE TRUE	PRETTY TRUE	VERY TRUE		NOT AT ALL TRUE	TRUE
IQ	20. I want my kaiarahi/ mentor to help me do better at school.	1	5	14	14	34	1	33
IQ	13. My kaiarahi/ mentor has helped me with problems in my life.	10	13	8	4	35	10	25
IQ	11. I want my kaiarahi/ mentor to teach me how to do things.	2	11	18	5	36	2	34
IQ	9. I am doing better at school because of my kaiarahi's/mentor's help.	2	11	11	10	34	2	32
IQ	2. I have learned a lot from my kaiarahi/ mentor.	1	9	18	7	35	1	34
IQ	1. I talk with my kaiarahi/ mentor when I have problems or things that worry me.	2	17	12	5	36	2	34
P*	18. I wish my kaiarahi/ mentor would not get on my back so much (about how I act, what I wear, etc.).	20	8	5	2	35	20	15
P*	12. I wish my kaiarahi/ mentor would not try so hard to get me to talk about things I don't want to talk about.	18	5	8	3	34	18	16
P*	6. My kaiarahi/ mentor focuses too much on school.	11	13	7	4	35	11	24
RQ	19. My kaiarahi/ mentor knows what is going on in my life.	5	20	6	4	35	5	30
RQ	17. I am willing to try new things that my kaiarahi/ mentor suggests (foods, activities, etc.).	1	15	12	7	35	1	34
RQ	16. My kaiarahi/ mentor really cares about me.	1	10	17	7	35	1	34
RQ	15. My kaiarahi/ mentor and I like to do the same things.	8	16	11	0	35	8	27
RQ	14. I can always count on my kaiarahi/ mentor (to do what he/she promises, etc.).	2	5	15	13	35	2	33
RQ	10. I know a lot about my kaiarahi's/ mentor's life (his/her family, job, etc.).	7	17	10	2	36	7	29
RQ	8. My kaiarahi/ mentor is a good match for me.	2	4	17	13	36	2	34
RQ	7. My kaiarahi/ mentor makes me feel special.	7	17	7	3	34	7	27
RQ	5. My kaiarahi/ mentor and I are close.	2	16	13	4	35	2	33
RQ	4. My kaiarahi/ mentor and I got along right away (liked each other quickly).	2	5	18	11	36	2	34
RQ	3. My kaiarahi/ mentor makes me happy.	2	4	17	12	35	2	33

Structure Scales

Subscales of questions:

F	Fun Focus	G	Growth Focus	S	Sharing Focus
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Questions from Part B of survey

Categories	Question	NEVER	ONCE A TERM	A FEW TIMES PER TERM	ONCE A WEEK	EVERY TIME	Total
S	15. Talk about your family (how you're getting along with them, what it's like at home, etc.)?	10	10	5	3	3	31
S	14. Talk about places you would like to go or things you hope to do?	5	8	10	6	2	31
S	12. Talk about the things you care about the most?	4	11	9	5	2	31
S	9. Talk about any bad things that happen in your life?	9	8	9	3	2	31
S	6. Talk about good things that happen to you (things that make you happy)?	5	2	12	7	5	31
S	3. Talk about problems you have or things that worry you?	5	8	10	5	3	31
S	2. Talk about things you hope will happen in your life (your hopes and dreams)?	3	6	15	6	1	31
G	16. Do activities that teach you something or make you think (like reading, puzzles, educational games, etc.)?	7	8	7	7	2	31
G	13. Talk about how to be a good person (being honest, responsible, etc.)?	2	6	7	11	5	31
G	10. Work on school assignments or projects together?	11	2	7	7	4	31
G	7. Learn about things that interest you? (Interests are things you like or things that can keep your attention).	7	2	12	7	3	31
G	4. Talk about how you are doing at school?	2	5	10	8	6	31
F	11. Do something special, something you would not usually get to do.	7	16	4	3	1	31
F	8. Do the thing that you really wanted to do that day (your top choice)?	3	7	7	10	4	31
F*	5. *Do things that are boring or that you do not like.	7	4	14	3	3	31
F	1. Do activities that are really fun?	6	5	12	6	2	31

1. Planning Sheet

Student World Café planning	
<p>1. Set up in Pavilion (separate building on school grounds to maintain confidentiality, good sound quality)</p>	
<p>On each table= 4x</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Table cloth • Activity posters and cards • Marker pens • Colouring pens • Stickies • 1 voice recorder • Group reminder sheets • food 	<p>My equipment</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 1 voice recorder per table= 4 • 1 master recorder for whole group discussion • Activity sheets x3 • Questions and schedule • Reminder about the secret box and recording rules • Food • Secret box
<p>2. Consent form and reminders:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Outline key points in the consent forms. Specifically, that: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ the discussion will be audio recorded and transcribed, ○ following the focus group, the research will check with the participants to confirm the key points discussed and confirm or amend these. ○ participants will receive a written summary of the discussion ○ withdrawal from discussion is difficult due to the nature of the interaction once the interview starts – check all OK with this. ○ Participants' identities will remain confidential. ○ Review any questions about the research now. 	
<p>3. Go through World Café group rules:</p> <p>The researcher will then explain the following key ground rules (below), and then ask participants for any more suggestions. If further suggestions are made, the researcher will ask all participants if they are agreeable before including them. Finally, the researcher will ask all participants to agree to adhere to the final ground rules. Explain use of the secret box.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Listen actively - respect others when they are talking. 2. Critique with respect - respectfully challenge one another by asking questions. 3. The goal is not to agree - it is to gain a deeper understanding. 4. Respect confidentiality - what is discussed in this room stays in this room. 5. Please turn off phones. 	
<p>4. Timeline</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 12 noon- researcher arrives and sets up • 12.15pm- students arrive • 12.20pm- settle, reminder of consent and group rules, secret box • 12.25pm- topic 1- activities in mentoring- PMI • 12.45pm- topic 2- qualities of a mentor- cards, ranking activity • 1.05pm- topic 3- ecomap: relationships in school • 1.25pm- whole group discussion: report back, identify most important aspect of each topic • 1.40pm- wrap up and pack up • 1.50pm- finish 	


2. Posters

In collaboration with the table hosts three main topics were identified for discussion with the groups. For each topic, the table hosts wrote some sub-questions to aide their discussions with the groups. On the day, each group received posters in A3 size for each topic on which they could jot down their thoughts.

Poster 1: Activities in Mentoring– Page 1

 Brainstorm what you do in mentoring classes. Include whether they are group or individual activities.

Food for thought:
 • Activities kaisarahi plans with the group.
 • Things you talk about with your kaisarahi in group and individual
 • What else should happen during mentoring time?
 • What should not happen and why?



Poster 1: Activities in Mentoring– Page 2
 Thinking about those activities from Page 1 consider the PMI for them.

Food for thought:
 • Activities kaisarahi plans with the group.
 • Things you talk about with your kaisarahi in group and individual
 • What else should happen during mentoring time?
 • What should not happen and why?

Activities	Positives	Minus	Interesting

Poster 2: Qualities of a mentor

The literature identifies these 5 mentor qualities as important for good mentoring, what are your thoughts?
How do you rank each of these qualities on this continuum?
Are there any other important qualities that have not been mentioned? Where on the continuum would you rank them?

NOT IMPORTANT

VERY IMPORTANT

WHY
are they important?

A good Kaiarali
needs to:

Prompts:

1. How do you rank the qualities of mentors on the cards?
2. Are any qualities missing?
3. What makes a mentor a good mentor? Why?
4. What skills do teachers as mentors need to have?

For poster 2:

Qualities of a mentor

Cards for student groups- to print 4 times

Closeness

Warmth

Empowering

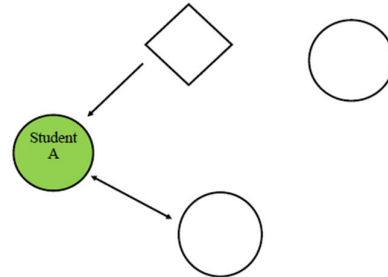
Trust

Interest

Poster 3: Relationships in school– Create an ecomap for a school

Food for thoughts:

1. What different relationships are there in schools?
2. How do they support/ influence each other? Is this both ways or one way?
3. How close are the relationships?
4. How/ Why do people benefit (or not) from these relationships?



Add more shapes, lines, arrows, colours, drawings etc to complete your ecomap.

3. *World Café Group Rules*

World Café Group Rules

(At the beginning of the group work introduce yourself with your name)

1. **Listen actively** - respect others when they are talking.
2. **Critique with respect** - respectfully challenge one another by asking questions.
3. **The goal is not to agree** - it is to gain a deeper understanding.
4. **Respect confidentiality** - what is discussed in this room stays in this room.
5. **Please turn off phones.**

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graph TD; FOCUS --- ACTIVE_LISTENING[ACTIVE LISTENING]; RESPECT --- ACTIVE_LISTENING; CLARIFY --- ACTIVE_LISTENING; ENGAGE --- ACTIVE_LISTENING; ACKNOWLEDGE --- ACTIVE_LISTENING;
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4. *Table Host Help Sheet*

Help Sheet Table Hosts

1. Your main job is to keep the conversation going and on task, no need to convince them of any ideas- there is no RIGHT or WRONG.
2. Ensure the recorders are working.
3. Ensure everyone says their name at the start.
4. Keep the group on task.
5. Use the “Food for Thought” box for ideas.

Appendix I: Guiding Questions for Interviews

1. Interviews with teacher-mentors

Introductions:

How do you define the word “mentor”/ “Kāiarahi”?

What are your personal experiences of being mentored?

What makes an effective mentor?

Do you believe you are an effective mentor? What do you need to become more effective?

What is the difference between being a mentor for students to being a subject teacher?

Tools:

What strategies/ tools do you use in mentoring?

How do you prepare group mentoring activities?

How do you prepare for one-on-one sessions?

Which group activities do you use to bring the group together?

Which group activities do you use on a regular basis?

Relationship:

How does being a mentor influence your relationship with these students?

What impact/ influence do you think you have on the students? (academic/ personal/ other?)

Can you describe a particularly close mentoring relationship? How does this one differ from other relationships?

Which factors are important in forming close mentoring relationships?

What are the challenges of being a mentor?

Are there any threats to mentorship?

2. Interviews with students

Introductions:

How long have you had your current mentor?

Describe the qualities of your mentor/ kāiaraahi

What influence has he/ she had on you?

Influence on you as a person

- Influence of Kāiaraahi on self/ person/ your schoolwork
- Other examples of influence you have seen/ heard?

Tools:

What strategies does he/ she use?

What happens during group mentoring?

What does your mentor do during mentoring sessions?

What sort of things is your mentor asking you about in one-on-one sessions?

Can you describe a situation where your mentor has been really helpful for you?

Relationship:

Have you had other experiences of mentoring?

Is this relationship different to those of your subject teachers?

How would you describe the relationship with your mentor?

Has your mentor made a difference to you since you have been working with him/ her?

The relationships with the kāiaraahi

- what influences a mentoring relationship (one-on-one and with a group?)
- what makes a close relationship?
- What influences a mentoring relationship from within the school?

Appendix J: Overview of secondary contradictions in the mentoring programme activity system

Secondary artefact	Secondary contradiction between					
	1. Artefacts> subject	2. Rules> artefacts> object	3. Artefacts> subject> rules	4. Artefacts> subject> object	5. Artefacts> subject> Rules> object	6. Artefacts > subject> rules> community> division of labour> object
Three-way split: learning hour, study time with one-on-one conversations, wellbeing	Some teacher-mentors felt uncomfortable with set activities for learning hour Some teacher-mentors lacked confidence to implement new wellbeing activities Some teacher-mentors did not adhere to the three-way split	Large groups made the work for teacher-mentors challenging to meet needs of all students		Teacher-mentors wanted to be flexible with activities to meet mentees' needs Learning hour activities appeared irrelevant		
Completion of 'traffic light' document				Not all subject teachers updated 'traffic light' document making it difficult for teacher-mentors to use it effectively for academic tracking		
Reduced subject curriculum hours			Pressure of NCEA assessments due to reduced curriculum hours		Students refused or were reluctant to participate in mentoring activities, wanted to only participate in activities that offered credits	Reduction of curriculum time for each subject increased pressure on teachers and students and increased workload
One-on-one conversations	Some teacher-mentors lacked confidence and knowledge for in-depth one-on-one mentoring	Large groups reduced opportunities for one-on-one conversations and in-depth relationships				
Weekly 30 minutes Dean and teacher-mentor meetings				Time allowed for meetings was not deemed to be sufficient		
Training for teacher-mentors				Teacher-mentors indicated they needed more support and training		
Scheduled meetings with parents	No contradiction noted					
Extended use of SMS	No contradiction noted					

Appendix K: Overview of in-depth cases in Chapter Six

	Information relating to teaching	Information relating to mentoring	Student information relating to education	Student information relating to mentoring
Case 1- Dyad Maria (teacher-mentor) and Kyla (mentee)	<p>More than 10 years teaching experience</p> <p>Six years at the school</p> <p>Head of Department (responsible for 3 teachers of similar subjects)</p> <p>Sole teacher of own subject</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 3rd year with the current group- since the introduction of the mentoring programme Tutor and core subject teacher for one year of the same group prior to introduction of mentoring programme 25 students in the mentoring group- 20 of them for the duration of Maria being the groups' tutor and mentor 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> last year of secondary school (Year 13) 5th year at the school (since beginning of High School in Year 9) Struggled with behaviour in classes and relationships with teachers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> In Maria's mentor group since the introduction of the mentoring programme- 3rd year In Maria's tutor group and core subject class prior to the introduction of the mentoring programme
Case 2- Dyad Tia (teacher-mentor) and Hamish (mentee)	<p>8 years teaching experience, all at the same school</p> <p>Sole teacher of own subject at the school</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 3rd year with the current group- since the introduction of the mentoring programme Taught the group in a core subject in the year prior to introduction of mentoring Originally 27 students in the group, 20 at time of interview, others had either left school or moved to the leadership group 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> last year of secondary school (Year 13) awarded a leadership role for Year 13 5th year at the school (since beginning of High School in Year 9) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> In Tia's group for 2 years Year 13 with a new teacher-mentor in student leadership group
Case 3- teacher-mentor Karmen	<p>4 years teaching experience</p> <p>4 years at the school</p> <p>Head of Department (responsible for 3 teachers of similar subjects)</p> <p>Sole teacher of own subject at the school</p> <p>Returned from long-term leave at the start of the new academic year</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Old group for 1 year (prior to leave) Current group for 1 term (after return from leave) New group: Year 11 mentor group 26 students in the group 	Year group did not participate in interviews	

