



**Exploring Experiences of Sociolinguistic Inclusivity and Exclusivity in Mentorship:
Experiences of ESL Pre-Service Teachers in Johannesburg**

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DECLARATION

I declare that this dissertation is my own unaided work. It is being submitted for the Degree of Master of Education at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before for any other degree, part degree or examination at this or any other university.



Plaxedes Muringani

Signed on this23.....day ofJune.....2023

DEDICATION

I dedicate this research report to my late father and sister. Sisi, and baba continue to rest in peace.
I will always make you proud, even in your sleep.

Till we meet again.

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Having reached this milestone in my life, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to the following people:

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ABSTRACT

Mentoring is recognized worldwide as an important foundation of teacher education and is central to the professional development of Pre-service teachers (PSTs). Despite this, globally, mentorship does not seem to achieve its goals, and PSTs often face challenges. The study was motivated by a global problem that persists—the exclusion of English second language speakers (ESL) PSTs during mentoring. Yet, in the African continent and the local literature, such problems have been given limited attention. Therefore, sociolinguistic inclusion or exclusion of ESL mentees in South Africa became the subject of my research.

This descriptive case study aimed to explore ESL PSTs' lived experiences of mentorship while on teaching practice at quintiles four and five high schools in Johannesburg by focusing on their social-linguistic inclusion and/or exclusion. The specific questions that this study sought to answer were what ESL PSTs' perceptions of school-based mentorship are, what ESL PSTs regard as inclusive or exclusive mentoring practices, and how ESL PSTs' experiences of mentorship made them feel sociolinguistically included and/or excluded during teaching practice (TP). Consequently, the theoretical framework of social inclusion and Hart's model of participation were used as a lens to understand the experiences of the PSTs in this study.

A qualitative research method was used to identify the experiences of the PSTs. Open-ended questionnaires were completed by 22 purposefully selected PSTs from different years of study, and four of the 22 PSTs participated in interviews. The questionnaires and semi-structured interviews were then analysed using an interpretive approach through inductive thematic analysis.

The study found that PSTs have diverse understandings of school-based mentorship. They also understood that inclusive mentoring practices mean authentic participation and unconditional mentorship, while exclusionary mentoring practices are a denial of access and opportunity to participate in the community and discrimination against individuals. There is also evidence that some experienced sociolinguistic exclusion, some experienced sociolinguistic inclusion, and some experienced both exclusion and inclusion in the process of mentorship.

Therefore, the study recommends that the office responsible for TP and the English department in the university should take note of the exclusion in schools when ESL teachers teach in certain contexts and take the necessary actions to alleviate the situation. Policymakers should consider revising the separate curricula for English First Additional Language (FAL) and Home Language (HL) in the basic education system as the study confirmed that the FAL curriculum does not equip PSTs with competencies for the HL context, hence the exclusion. It is recommended that further research be conducted to get more in this area of research incorporating different variables.

Keywords: inclusion, exclusion, mentoring experiences, sociolinguistic identity, teaching practice, pre-service teachers, English second-language speakers.

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ABBREVIATIONS

CAPS	Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement
CCDU	Counselling and Careers Development Unit
DHET	Department of Higher Education and Training
ESL	English Second Language
FAL	First Additional Language
FET	Further Education and Training
HEQC	Higher Education Quality Council
HL	Home Language
IQMS	Integrated Quality Management System
ITE	Initial Teacher Education
MRTEQ	Minimum Requirements for Teacher Education Qualifications
PCK	Pedagogical Content Knowledge
PST	Pre-service Teacher
PSTs	Pre-service Teachers
RSA	Republic of South Africa
TP	Teaching Practice
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
WIL	Work Integrated Learning

Chapter One: Background and Introduction to the Study

1.1 Introduction

In South Africa, TP is a compulsory aspect of Initial Teacher Education (ITE) as stipulated in the Minimum Requirements for Teacher Education Qualifications (MRTEQ) (Department of Higher Education and Training [DHET], 2015). South African PSTs go to government and independent schools in different quintiles where they encounter varying experiences with mentors. The aim was to explore ESL PSTs' lived experiences of mentorship whilst on TP at quintiles four and five high schools in Johannesburg by focusing on their social linguistic inclusion and/or exclusion.

This chapter begins with an overview of the context in which research on this topic is taking place. The research will point out gaps in knowledge in the academic literature on this topic, outline the problem and explain why this research is needed. The research will also specify the main research question and its sub-questions. Definition of key terms and breakdown of the chapters included in this research will be outlined; thereafter, the conclusion will end the chapter.

1.2 Background to the Study

In the nations that are known for high-performing education systems the mentorship of PSTs is known to be critical in ITE (Du Plessis, 2013). The process of mentoring involves active intervention with the aim of helping the mentee to grow in the teaching profession (Holmes, Warnes, O'Gara, & Nishimura, 2018). However, not all mentoring experiences are successful, as the success that PSTs experience during their teaching practicum still seems to vary widely (Ambrosetti, Knight & Dekkers, 2013; Davis & Fantozzi, 2016; Hudson & Hudson, 2018). This explains that mentoring is an interpersonal process in which personal attitudes and beliefs influence the development of the relationship. Individuals in certain contexts determine the development of the relationship and the outcomes achieved during the mentoring process (Hudson & Hudson, 2018).

One important factor is sociolinguistic identities in relation to mentorship, and this factor has recently received scholarly attention (Donnelly, Baratta & Gamsu, 2019; Izadinia, 2017; Yuan, 2016). Donnelly et al. (2019) conducted a study in the United Kingdom (UK) on PSTs' experiences with different varieties of English. In some studies, English educators'

sociolinguistic identity plays an important role in how they experience mentoring in education (Yuan, 2016). The intersection between pre-service English teachers' sociolinguistic identity and their mentorship experiences reveals instances of inclusion and exclusion in different TP contexts (Donnelly et al., 2019; Yuan, 2016; Izadinia, 2017), an intriguing phenomenon in South Africa given the demographics and backgrounds of pre-service English teachers.

The sociolinguistic diversity discussed at the international level also exists in the context of South Africa. In the case of the current study, PSTs might find themselves in school contexts that differ from their sociolinguistic backgrounds. Different schools with different quintile rankings still uphold the value of their identity as English schools (Carrim, 2013). As a result, these schools have English as Home Language (HL) curriculum that does not have the same content as the First Additional Language (FAL) curriculum that was implemented in the early stages of the participants' schooling. A HL curriculum refers to engagement with English as a first language. The level of competence in FAL and HL is different because "the South African Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) sets higher levels of competence for HL and correspondingly lower levels of competence for FAL" (Sebolai, 2018, p.109). FAL students, who are mostly found in quintiles one, two and three schools, have limited content and sociolinguistic competence (Webb, Lafon & Pare, 2010). Yet, it is inevitable that those with FAL backgrounds will be teaching HL during their practicum. The limited language skills cannot be easily compensated by the courses in the ITE modules at the university. It can be argued that in such cases there may be a "pedagogical gap" (Du Plessis, 2013, p. 30) between the student and the school context. Therefore, this study aimed to explore ESL PSTs' lived experiences of mentorship whilst on teaching practice at quintiles four and five high schools in Johannesburg by focusing on their social linguistic inclusion and/or exclusion.

1.2.1 Knowledge gap

Research on the mentorship of ESL PSTs has increased internationally, and local research in South Africa has documented PSTs' mentorship experiences (Du Plessis, 2013; Jita & Munje, 2022; Jooste, 2019; Moosa & Rembach, 2018, 2020; Mthembu, 2019; Nkambule & Mukeredzi, 2017). However, gaps exist in the local literature, particularly concerning the intersectionality of ESL mentees' sociolinguistic identities and their mentorship experiences in specific contexts. Local research has focused on issues such as PSTs' mentorship experiences, expectations, and challenges (Abongdia, Adu & Foncha, 2015; Jooste, 2019, Foncha, Abongdia & Adu, 2015; Moosa & Rembach, 2018, 2020). Challenges faced by PSTs in teaching English during TP in

East London, South Africa, have been explored, encompassing school placement, resources, learner discipline, classroom management, supervision, and support (Foncha et al., 2015). However, mentorship experiences were often studied in isolation from sociolinguistic identity considerations. This study addresses this gap by exploring ESL PSTs with FAL backgrounds' lived experiences of mentorship in quintile four and five schools, aligning with Becher and Orland-Barak's (2018) exploration of contextual factors shaping mentoring practice in initial teacher education in arts subjects. As context matters, this study focuses on the lived experiences of ESL pre-service English teachers, examining whether they encountered sociolinguistic inclusion or exclusion during the mentorship process in a specific context.

1.3 Problem Statement

In the context of English language education for ESL PSTs in South Africa, their sociolinguistic identity has a historic background which affects how they experience life today as they interact in the society. According to Ntombela, (2016) during colonisation, South Africa had been bound by the chains of the colonizers' language and "still the journey into linguistic emancipation was not to be an easy one" (p. 77). He continues to say that obstacles exist in society due to the elitist nature of the English language, which the majority of South Africans cannot keep up with because of economic reasons and an academic system that separates the two forms of English.

However, mentorship experiences are often extensively examined, but consideration of the diverse sociolinguistic identities of the PSTs involved has not been given much attention as a contributing factor to the experiences of mentorship (Maphalala, 2013; du Pleiss, 2013; Mukeredzi, 2017; Mukeredzi, Mthiyane & Bertram, 2015; Moosa & Rembach, 2018). In some cases, when the teachers were interviewed for their perceptions about inclusion and exclusion, the focus was on the learners with disability (Mpanza, 2019). The aspects of inclusion and exclusion of the educators at any level have not yet gained much attention. Yet, in some schools where the PSTs go for TP, such as quintile four and five schools, the prevailing teaching methods in this context predominantly align with white, monolingual standards for English instruction, creating a challenging environment for PSTs who do not conform to this linguistic norm (Trujillo, 2018). This situation frequently results in feelings of 'othering,' where PSTs are made to feel like outsiders within the teaching profession (Trujillo, 2018). For instance, a PST with a non-native English background may face difficulties in expressing themselves effectively in the classroom, potentially leading to a sense of exclusion. Scholarly perspectives

(see Trujillo, 2018; Donnelly et al., 2019; Orland-Barak & Wang, 2021; Yuan, 2016) underscore the profound impact of such sociolinguistic disparities on the mentorship of English educators and the overall development of PSTs.

The above paragraph on the problem statement explains that this study seeks to explore the experiences of ESL PSTs in Johannesburg, focusing on the dynamics of sociolinguistic inclusivity and exclusivity they encounter during mentorship. For a clearer understanding, consider the case of an ESL PSTs, who despite being passionate about teaching, faces linguistic and cultural barriers during mentorship due to their ESL background. These barriers can hinder their professional growth and, at times, contribute to feelings of isolation within the teaching community. By delving into these experiences, this research aims to shed light on these sociolinguistic disparities. For example, the research will explore how certain mentoring practices, such as those assuming a monolingual English standard, may inadvertently lead to the inclusion or exclusion of ESL PSTs. Ultimately, this exploration strives to inform strategies for more inclusive and effective mentorship practices that better accommodate the linguistic diversity of ESL PSTs. This approach aligns with the scholarly views in this field, advocating for a more equitable and supportive environment to ensure that ESL PSTs have the same opportunities to develop the pedagogical skills necessary for successful teaching in diverse linguistic and cultural contexts.

1.3.1 Rationale

The genesis of this dissertation traces back to the researcher's time as a PST in quintile four and five schools. During her experience teaching English as an ESL PST, the researcher encountered a pivotal moment when her sociolinguistic identity was questioned by a mentor educator, which had a detrimental impact on her teaching. It was a profoundly disconcerting experience as it left me feeling not only excluded but also deeply marginalized due to the actions of the mentor. To shed light on whether other ESL PSTs had encountered similar situations, the researcher embarked on a journey to explore the experiences of ESL PSTs in various quintile settings.

Reflecting on this deeply personal experience, the researcher realized that there was a need to provide more comprehensive insights into mentoring practices in diverse educational contexts. The scholarly literature in this field underscored the idea that mentoring practices are heavily

influenced by factors such as school context, curriculum, and classroom organization (Wang & Odell, 2002). Further, the literature revealed that mentoring practices are closely tied to three key “instructional contexts: the structure of the curriculum and assessment, the organization of instruction and mentoring, and the unique characteristics of the student population” (Wang, 2001, p.58). This existing body of knowledge reinforced her determination to undertake this study, as it became apparent that exploring these facets in greater detail could significantly contribute to our understanding of mentoring practices in ESL education.

Moreover, alongside the personal and theoretical motivations, her professional development played a pivotal role in driving this research forward. Working within the field of education, the researcher has been actively involved in training PSTs through a programme known as campus-based teaching experience. During this programme, PSTs often expressed difficulties in expressing themselves in English, attributing this challenge to English not being their mother tongue and the fact that they acquired it as a Foreign Additional Language (FAL) during high school. These difficulties resonated not only with the PSTs but were also a shared concern among other tutors.

This confluence of experiences and challenges led me to question what occurs when PSTs enter schools with a Home Language (HL) curriculum where proficiency in English is paramount, with particular focus on sociolinguistic inclusion and exclusion during the mentorship process. As someone dedicated to ensuring quality mentoring experiences for PSTs as they transition to their TP, the researcher strongly believed that this research would provide invaluable insights into the dynamics of mentorship, equipping me with the knowledge to better prepare future educators for the unique challenges they may face.

1.4 Purpose Statement

This descriptive case study explored ESL PSTs' lived experiences of mentorship during their TP in quintiles four and five high schools in Johannesburg. The main purpose of the study was to determine whether ESL PSTs felt included or excluded based on their sociolinguistic identity during their interaction with the mentor. That is, to explore the intersection between sociolinguistic identity and ESL PSTs' experiences during TP.

1.4.1 Aim of the study

This study aimed to explore ESL PSTs' lived experiences of mentorship whilst on teaching practice at quintiles four and five high schools in Johannesburg by focusing on their socio linguistic inclusion and/or exclusion.

1.4.2 The objectives of the research were to:

- Explore ESL pre-service teachers' perceptions of school-based mentorship.
- Probe what ESL pre-service teachers regard as inclusive or exclusive mentoring practices.
- Investigate how ESL pre-service teachers' lived experiences of mentorship have made them feel sociolinguistically included and/or excluded while on teaching practice.

1.5 Research Questions

The study addressed the following research questions:

1.5.1 Main research question

What are the ESL pre-service teachers' lived experiences of mentorship whilst on teaching practice at quintile four and five high schools in Johannesburg regarding sociolinguistic inclusion and/or exclusion?

1.5.2 Sub-questions

- What are ESL pre-service teachers' perceptions of school-based mentorship?
- What do ESL pre-service teachers regard as inclusive or exclusive mentoring practices?
- How have ESL pre-service teachers' experiences of mentorship made them feel sociolinguistically included and/or excluded during teaching practice?

1.6 Significance of the Study

This section deals with how the current study impacts on (or influences) what is currently happening in the practice of school-based mentorship. This study aims to contribute to the growing field of research on mentorship as it is a developing area in ITE. The significance of the current study is to contribute to a deeper understanding of mentoring in the field of English language teaching during the period of teaching practicum. Although a large number of local studies have been undertaken to shed light on the mentoring process in teacher education, the research has explored mentorship experiences primarily from the perspective of PSTs' overall experiences, rather than their identities in relation to their experiences in disciplines such as

English. This study will help provide some insights that seem to be missing from the existing body of knowledge on mentoring (a less studied area). It is about understanding the relationship between contexts, the English curriculum taught in the specific school context, and the sociolinguistic identity of ESL PSTs and their mentoring experiences.

Therefore, the findings will also make an important contribution in bringing awareness to researchers and practitioners about the current experiences of mentorship for ESL PSTs. In this sense, by identifying the discomforts experienced by PSTs in mentoring practices, the current study can provide information about the likely need for mentors to undergo in-service training. It can also be helpful in ensuring that mentors are performing their tasks well. The study can serve as a starting point to improve mentors' awareness and required competence while promoting the effective TP of pre-service ESL teachers in an English classroom.

It is also believed that as mentors receive honest feedback on their mentoring approaches and strategies, they will be able to reflect on their mentoring practices. In this approach, a picture will develop of the possible elements that influence PSTs' experiences of mentorship. The study will also help to enhance the effectiveness of mentorship and thereby enhance the quality of PSTs in the South African education system. In addition, this study is being published in the hope that it will be of interest to key stakeholders such as teaching practicum administrative offices and university English departments. It might be useful to the South African Higher Education Quality Council (HEQC), which reviews the experiences of PSTs during their TP. The findings of the current study could be useful to the HEQC when preparing to implement it in practice and provide mentor training and mentoring frameworks, as mentoring is currently not supported by a formalised mentoring scheme in South Africa. Mentoring “takes place on an ad hoc basis” as mentoring and skills development are not required, compared to international trends (Pillay, 2015, p. 22).

1.7 Clarification of Relevant Terms

The concepts that arise from the topic are sociolinguistic, inclusion, English second language PSTs and TP. To provide clarification, these concepts, and others that the researcher consider important will be explored and explained.

Educator

Due to the historical connotation of the term teacher, the term has been replaced in the South African context. Carrim (2001, p. 46) explains that “white teachers were assured a professional

status by the apartheid state, in contrast to 'black' South African teachers who were regarded as workers". Teachers are now officially designated as educators under the Education Labour Relations Act of 1993 and the Educators Employment Act of 1994, as amended by the South African Schools Act of 1996. Therefore, "an educator refers to any person who teaches, educates, or trains other persons or provides professional educational services at an educational institution" (Columns 1-396, Juta Statutes, 1994, cited in Carrim, 2001, p. 47). The term educator is used in this study because it is a legal term and is appropriate for the study's goal of advocating for inclusion and recognition in the teaching profession. Therefore educators are all the mentors in the schools, and they mentor PSTs during TP.

Mentor educator

Mentor educators are supposedly qualified educators who serve as coaches, advisors, guides, facilitators, (Ambrosetti & Dekkers, 2010; Du Plessis, 2013) and "counsellors to a pre-service teacher in the practicum period" (Musingafi & Mafumbate, 2014, p. 34). A mentor educator is also defined as "an educator who is responsible for supporting, guiding, and providing constructive feedback on the pre-service teacher's teaching practice, and who is, above all, a colleague of the pre-service teacher and exhibits collegial behaviour throughout the placement" (Ambrosetti, Knight, & Dekkers, 2014, p. 230). The word mentor educator in the current study refers to high school educators who have been appointed by principals or who have volunteered to mentor PSTs.

Teaching practice

Current TP in ITE has undergone some evolution throughout history. Originally, the structure of ITE focused mainly on three areas: curriculum content, subject knowledge and skills, and classroom behaviour (Babin, 1971). Through constant criticism and research on the structure of ITE in the 1960s, the idea emerged that clinical teaching skills should be integrated into the ITE programme to equip PSTs with skills (Babin, 1971). The evolution of video technology in Germany contributed to the origins of classroom practice globally. In 1961, a PhD student at Stanford University used videotapes to mimic some teaching techniques that PSTs lacked. PSTs were able to generate lesson plans after seeing the modelled lessons. Now we have a clearly articulated ITE curriculum with well-defined components in which theory and practice are taught on all continents, and South Africa is no exception. In South Africa, TP has also been taken up and has become an important component of ITE. TP is considered a form of work integrated learning (WIL) (Department of Higher Education and Training [DHET], 2011). This is a specific period of time during which PSTs are placed in schools to complete

the compulsory practical component of their teaching qualification. In the current study, TP refers to the time the ESL PSTs under study had gone for their six-week TP in quintile four and five schools once or twice since the time they enrolled at university.

Pre-service teachers

PSTs are individuals studying education at a tertiary institution such as a university or college and who are in the process of completing a teacher preparation programme (Majoni & Nyaruwata, 2015; Muyengwa, 2018). In this study, the words mentee and PST are used interchangeably to refer to students enrolled in the School of Education at the university institution.

Mentoring

Mentorship is a formalised procedure in “which a more experienced person assumes a supportive position by guiding and encouraging the reflection and learning of a less experienced and knowledgeable person” (Roberts, 2000, p. 66). In teacher education, which is the context of this study, mentoring is used during practicum experience, when the PST is assigned to an educator to learn how to teach (Ambrosetti & Dekkers, 2010).

School-based mentoring

The term is explained as the mentorship given to teachers-in-training who are supported in their career development through “guidance, support, and advice as they learn to teach in school” (Hobson, 2002, p. 20). In some cases, the word supervision is used to refer to the same practice. However, the goal for supervision is to monitor if the expected standard is achieved, provide feedback and give formal assessment which includes marks in some cases (Le Cornu & Ewing, 2008). In the case of this study, supervision is usually done by lecturers from the university. Mentoring on the other hand is mainly focused on developing the mentee, providing guidance and professional growth. For this study, the term mentorship reflects a mutually beneficial role that consists of a reciprocal relationship, “emphasising on collegiality and reciprocity” (Le Cornu & Ewing 2008, p. 1805) and is “consistent with the emerging conceptualisation of mentoring as a collegial learning relationship rather than a professional, hierarchical, one-way view” (Le Cornu & Ewing, 2008, p. 1806). In this study, the school-based mentoring happens when the PSTs go for TP in the schools and receive mentorship from their mentor educators in high schools.

English Second Language (ESL)

English is a second language for learners from backgrounds “where English is not the dominant language in their community, but their own native languages are used often” (Kamwangamalu, 2013, p.99). In this study, ESL refers to PSTs who have English as a second language and have matriculated with English as FAL. The (CAPS) (Department of Education [DoE], 2012) document, which is the national policy, states that the nation has 11 official languages offered at different levels. The languages can be offered either as a mother tongue (HL) or as a first additional language (FAL). The document also clarifies that HL is the language that learners acquire first. However, many South African schools do not offer the languages of origin of some or all enrolled learners, but only one or two languages offered at the Home Language level”. As a result, the labels Home Language and First Additional Language refer to the proficiency levels at which the language is offered (Kamwangamalu, 2013). In this study the PSTs would have done English as FAL and their proficiency not at same level with their counterparts who would have done English as HL.

Sociolinguistic

In the Asian world, the link between language and social aspects can be traced back to the 20th century. In the early 1900s, it was linguists from India and Japan who pioneered the social aspects of language in the modern sense (Van Herk, 2012). However, it took longer for sociolinguistics research in Asia to get recognition in the West. Instead, credit can be given to Labov's work in the middle of the 1960s; sociolinguistics became much more prominent within the field of linguistics (and later became quite popular). The work done in New York City (Labov, 1966) and in Martha's Vineyard (Labov, 1963) expanded and improved methods and analysis and set the stage for the growth of subsequent study in the area.

Sociolinguistics is also credited to Fischer (1958), who recognised that there is a relationship between social class and gender and the way learners pronounce words. He noted that this is not 'free variation', where word choice is random and unpredictable, but “structured variation”, where the choice of linguistic forms is linked to other factors (Van Herk, 2012, p.6). Today, sociolinguistics is concerned with language and society in a historical-cultural context (Wardhaugh, 2006). Sociolinguistics was crucial to this study because the purpose of the study is to shed light on how sociolinguistic identities of the ESL PSTs influence the way PSTs experience school-based mentoring in various situations.

Inclusion and exclusion

The development of the inclusion history is a complicated and continuous process. This movement seeks to ensure that there is equal access and opportunities for people of different backgrounds, disabilities, and cultures to participate freely in society (Armstrong, Armstrong & Spandagou, 2011). The Civil Rights Movement and the campaign for the rights of people with disabilities, among others, are the origins of inclusion. In the 1950s and 1960s, the Civil Rights Movement, which aimed to eliminate legal segregation and discrimination against Black Americans, “marked a turning point in the history of inclusion” (Patterson, 2018, p. 448). As a result of the movement, The Civil Rights Act of 1964 and The Americans with Disabilities Act of 1990 were established, both which made it illegal to discriminate on the basis of ethnicity, faith, gender, race, colour, or nationality. The Americans with Disabilities Act of 1990 provided the impetus for the establishment of special schools in the educational system and the integration of children with disabilities into mainstream schools.

As the debate progressed, organisations such as the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (United Nations [UN], 1989), the Salamanca Declaration (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization [UNESCO], 1994) and the World Declaration on Education for All helped to drive inclusion at the global level. These representatives formalised inclusive education at this meeting and made it necessary for governments to adopt it as part of a social justice and rights agenda (UNESCO, 1990). Later, inclusion became a human right, and it continues to evolve as the possibility of intersectionality is increasingly recognised, having individuals experiencing multiple forms of marginalisation. Hence this study explored the intersectionality of sociolinguistic identity and mentorship experiences of ESL PSTs in a specific context.

In the ordinary sense, inclusion means belonging to a particular social group and recognising that we are one, fighting social ills such as racism and discrimination even if we are not the same (Phasha, Mahlo, & Dei, 2017). It can be inclusion in the workplace, in schools and in society in general. For example, Mor-Barak (2015, p. 85) explains that the concept of inclusion in the workplace “refers to the individual's sense of being part of the organisational system, both in the formal and informal processes”. In this study, the aspect of inclusion focuses on sociolinguistic inclusion during the mentoring process.

Exclusion

The two terms cannot be separated because the origin of inclusion is the counterpart of exclusion, hence much explanation was provided above. However, “social exclusion has been defined as the process by which individuals or groups are wholly or partially excluded from full participation in the society in which they live” (European Foundation, 1995, cited in de Haan, 1998, p.4). In the current study, exclusion is understood to mean the lack of participation during practicum. This means during mentorship, mentees may be allowed or denied participation in teaching and learning.

High school

Historically, the term high school can be traced back to the Western world. It was in Scotland where the present-day Edinburgh Royal High School, founded in 1128, was the first institution to bear the designation high school. The Boston Latin School, founded in Boston, Massachusetts in 1635, was based on the Royal High School and was the first public high school in the country (Reese, 1999). Although other nations also use the term high school, no single generalisation can be made regarding the age range, socio-economic background or academic level of the students admitted (UNESCO, 2015). For example, most high schools in North America offer grades nine to twelve. After graduating from middle school, students attend high school (or alternatively junior high school). In Zimbabwe, high school begins in the eighth year of schooling. However, the term high school in Zimbabwe is reserved for schools offering Advanced Level of education, known as A-Level 12th and 13th years of schooling. The schools that offer up to the 11th year, that is, Ordinary Level, are called secondary schools. Similarly, in South Africa, high school also starts in the eighth school year up to grade 12. However, in South Africa, different terms such as secondary school or college refer to the grades 8 to 12 range. In this study, the term high school is used referring meaning the PSTs would have taught any of the grades from grade 8 to 12.

Quintile

The categorisation of schools cannot be understood without placing them in historical context. It is important to note that in the South African context, not all high schools are the same, but schools have remarkably different histories and environments. The main embedded history is the racial categorisation of schools during apartheid. During this time, schools were labelled white, African, Indian, and coloured (Sayed, 2003). However, this category is no longer used since there was integration and most schools are now multiracial and multicultural, but the remnants of the aforementioned history still have an impact on the culture of the schools

(Christie & McKinney, 2017). Currently, government schools are categorised "based on the socio-economic status of the community in which the schools are located" (Ogbonnaya & Awuah, 2019, p. 106). The quintiles range from one to five, with quintile five in the most affluent areas and quintile one in the poorest areas. Aligned with this categorisation, is the language associated with the schools. Mostly, schools in the different quintiles have English as HL or FAL. In the lower quintiles, African languages, Sotho, Tswana, Zulu, etc. are most often offered as HL instead of English. However, there are exceptions where in some lower quintiles English is given as HL and in some of the upper quintiles Afrikaans is given as HL. Pre-service ESL teachers in this study would have taught in these different school contexts particularly their mentorship experiences during quintile four and five TP.

1.8 Delimitations of the Study

The delimitations of a study in research describe the boundaries of the study (Bell, 2010). In this study, the research only included PSTs from a public university in Johannesburg. The researcher did this to narrow the scope as the time period for the study was only one year. In the current study, the scope was further narrowed to students who have English as their teaching subject for Further Education and Training (FET) and speak English as a second language, as this criterion fitted the purpose of the study.

1.9 Organisation of the work

This section summarises the content included in each of the chapters in this study. This will be more detailed when the summary of the chapters is provided in the last chapter of the study.

Chapter One:

The chapter focuses on the background of the study as well as statement of the problem. Its purpose is to provide the objectives, justification encompassing such issues as significance of the study. In this chapter the researcher also includes the research questions and also deals with the contextualisation of the sociolinguistic background of the PSTs.

Chapter Two

The chapter focuses on the literature review, which covers the main concepts in the research topic, review on the variables. The other part does the theoretical framework, used in the study.

Chapter Three

The chapter focuses on research design / plan, and methods as well as research instruments used in gathering data. It focuses on the research design which encompasses the population the

sample, sampling techniques and the data collection instruments to be used. The chapter also deals with data presentation and analysis techniques used by the researcher.

Chapter Four

The chapter presents the research results using tables, bar graphs, and pie charts. The data to be presented was collected through the selected research instruments and qualitative methods were used to create themes from the data.

Chapter Five

This chapter serves as the platform for, discussing, analysing and interpreting the data collected throughout the research, offering insights into the unique experiences faced by ESL PSTs during their mentorship in Johannesburg. It aims to draw connections between the data and the research objectives, exploring the sociolinguistic inclusivity and exclusivity within mentorship contexts. By synthesising the findings, Chapter 5 seeks to contribute valuable insights into this critical aspect of education, with the ultimate goal of informing strategies and recommendations for more inclusive and effective mentorship practices that better prepare ESL PSTs for the teaching profession.

Chapter Six

The chapter gives a summary of research findings as well as the objectives. The researcher identifies and explain the conclusions and recommendations of the research objectives and findings.

1.10 Conclusion

The chapter dealt with the background of the study and the problem statement. It served to explain the aims, rationale, and significance of the study. In this chapter, the researcher also included the research questions and addressed the background of experiences with sociolinguistic inclusivity and exclusivity in mentoring in different countries. It also provided the study context in which the research presented different viewpoints of what happens during school-based mentorship based on a literature review and her personal experience. It also mentioned how the sociolinguistic identity of the individual plays a role in how they experience mentorship. This was followed by the rationale for the study; an explanation of what motivated me to conduct the study. The significance of the expected contribution of the study was outlined, as were the primary and secondary research questions and the aim and purpose of the study. Finally, the researcher has given a brief outline of the six chapters of this dissertation. In the next chapter, the researcher reviews the literature to identify the current debates on the topic of the study and to situate this study within these current debates.

Chapter Two: Review of the Literature and Theoretical Framework of the study

2.1 Introduction

This chapter critically examines the existing literature relevant to the key concepts of the research. It begins with a general overview of the significance of teaching practicum in Initial Teacher Education (ITE). This introductory section establishes the importance of the study by highlighting how TP, involving a mentoring process, is an integral component of teacher education (Le Cornu & Ewing, 2008). The literature review proceeds to discuss the evolution of mentoring throughout history and its impact on the experiences of the mentees involved. To ensure a comprehensive understanding of the concept's development, deliberate reference is made to older academic works. Additionally, the literature explores mentorship experiences of PSTs globally and regionally, with a specific focus on South Africa. This section delves into the expectations of mentoring, the associated challenges, as well as positive experiences. Noteworthy references include works by some scholars, who have contributed significantly to the discourse on mentorship experiences in the South African context.

However, the current literature review falls short in addressing the local and regional literature on ESL pre-service English teachers' lived experiences of sociolinguistic inclusion or exclusion during mentorship. While continental and local scholars have extensively written about mentorship experiences, they do not explicitly address the aforementioned issue, particularly in comparison to the global literature. While the literature review gives a detailed overview of mentoring experiences globally and locally, the suggested enhancements aim to reinforce the identified gap in addressing the specific issue of ESL pre-service English teachers' sociolinguistic experiences during mentorship, particularly drawing on the insights provided by the mentioned scholars. At the end of the chapter theoretical framework was also provided.

2.2 Importance of teaching practice

Teaching practicum is referred to as the most important element of ITE (Cohen, Hoz & Kaplan, 2013). The following discussion focuses on global, continental, regional, and local trends related to the importance of teaching practicum. First, the global trends are discussed.

2.2.1 The global trends on the importance of teaching practice

Globally, there is a belief that high quality ITE is the starting point for high quality education in a country (Akorede, 2014). It is for this reason that ITE has undergone significant changes and the integration of TP into ITE has put institutions and governments around the world on notice. Morrison (2016) conducted a study on university educators' understanding of the purpose of TP in Australia. The study found that practicum provides opportunities for PSTs to learn about the intricacies of teaching and to develop their identity as teachers. It also helps PSTs put theory into practice and develop teaching techniques and practices. In England, too, the emphasis is on TP. A study conducted by Robinson (2006) in England and Wales, notes that the teaching practicum is compulsory and the ITE includes a 120-day practise-based component. Similarly, Gowrie and Ramdass (2012) highlight that in Trinidad and Tobago, a teaching practicum is mandatory. In Saudi Arabia, there is also TP during ITE (Hamdan, 2015) when PSTs learn about teaching. One can say the 19th century criticism of ITE, which was not having TP, brought about a significant change in teacher training. TP is valued, not only internationally, but also in Africa.

2.2.2 The continental and regional trends on the importance of teaching practice

On the African continent, ITE also has modules with TP. For example, research carried out by Tuli and File (2010) in Ethiopia highlights that teachers-in-training undertake TP. It is recognised that teaching practicum provides a solid foundation for future educators as teaching takes place in a real school context. In Kenya, TP is equally valued as the Kenyan government took a reform approach to their curriculum at all levels of learning through Session Paper No. 4 of 2012. The policy emphasised quality education through the inclusion of learning experiences. ITE approaches have implemented this policy by integrating TP into the curriculum. PSTs are provided with a “range of skills and competencies in the areas of teaching, preparation of daily lesson plans, classroom management and assessment of learning outcomes” (Amolloh, Lilian & Wanjiru, 2018, p. 126).

In the region, in countries like Zimbabwe, ITE also has a TP component. All teacher education colleges are forced to follow the same model for teacher education for consistency (Hove & Mpofu, 2016). In Swatting, TP is also recognised as important and is therefore also integrated into the ITE programme. In terms of the emphasis on TP at global, continental, and regional levels, it is clear how important classroom practice is. The researcher agree that TP is crucial in ITE because there is evidence of PSTs acquiring the important skills for the profession. Therefore, TP has also been included as an integral part of ITE in South Africa.

2.2.3 Teaching practice in South Africa: Requirements according to MRTEQ

South Africa also recognises the importance of mentorship as part of initial teacher education. The main argument of The National Policy Framework for Teacher Education in South Africa (2007) in relation to teaching practise and mentorship is that learning to become a teacher is difficult. Effective educators have the content knowledge and skills that less effective educators lack. These types of knowledge and skills are not developed simply by reading books or studying teaching (Phelps, 2009). Rather, they are nurtured and developed through quality prospects for practise, combined with supporting and giving feedback to the PSTs. Coherent, sequenced and coordinated practise opportunities can help PSTs to use their knowledge and skills for teaching before they enter complex classroom situations. Hence, The National Policy Framework for Teacher Education in South Africa (2007) stipulates that all Initial Professional Education and Training (IPET) “programmes should have three common components, namely educational theory, professional studies and classroom practise” (p. 18). In order to fulfil this, it is the duty of the mentee, mentor- educator, and lecturer to make sure that this is achieved. According to Grossman et al. (2009), mentorship can be successful if there is collaboration between the mentor and the PST.

Since 1994, the focus has been on improving the education system and developing initial teachers (Pillay, 2015). TP became a compulsory component required for all ITE. The DHET (2015) advocates practical learning as work integrated learning (WIL), which involves “learning from practice and in practice” (Reeves & Robinson, 2014, p. 237). The policy states that WIL time should be at least 20 weeks over the four-year period required to qualify to be a teacher. The practical teaching should take place in a school environment, with the PST being supervised, assessed, and supported by mentors (Darling-Hammond, 2017). The PSTs studied go on TP each year in the second semester they are placed in different schools and different contexts for each TP around Gauteng Province. The diversification of experiences has a global background. PSTs have to “work with different schools and learners in dissimilar contexts as their own” (Nkambule & Mukeredzi, 2017, p. 1). Dissimilar contexts and mentorship experiences are what this research sought to explore. However despite of the different contexts of TP the South African policy still emphasise the mentees and the mentors have a part to play in the during mentorship.

The roles of the preservice teachers during this period is to learn from practice, when the observe the mentor educators teaching. The PSTs also learn in practice when they are expected to teach and reflect on their own lessons (RSA, DHET, 2015). The DHET bases its argument on Shulman (1987), who wrote a seminal paper in which he categorises distinct types of expertise that are necessary for teaching effectively. The Policy content of the guideline makes “it clear that expert teaching requires not only deep content knowledge and expertise to develop learners’ knowledge of the content, but also skills to manage the content within the interpersonal relationships in a classroom” (Lampert, 2010, p. 25). Since managing interpersonal relationships in the class setting, is at the core of teaching and also an applied skill, it follows that those learning to teach must practise these skills in addition to acquiring the content knowledge and theoretical aspect of content and teaching. To be successful during your placement, you will need to be responsible for in developing professionalism in the teaching context. This includes paying attention to four main areas: “Attitude, Orientation, Observation and Participation (RSA, DHET, 2015, p. 35).

Table 1: Important areas to develop in the teaching profession

Expectation	Explanation
Professional attitude	Professional attitude involves: Recognition and acceptance that the welfare of the learners is of ultimate concern and that the school mentor teacher has the final responsibility for what occurs in the classroom; ability to accept critical suggestions and assessments in a cooperative and positive manner. -Maintenance of an ethical and professional attitude towards all members of the school community”
Orientation	“Familiarizing oneself with the philosophy, resources, policies, and rules of the school assigned; -Conferring with the TP academic coordinator, the TP manager and the university TP mentor/tutor prior to the beginning of each practicum (school-based placement) session”
Observation	“Observing in a systematic and purposeful manner, remembering that the observation is designed for one’s introduction to the educator’s role.”

Participation	“-Increasingly assuming responsibility for more complex tasks; developing written plans for lessons and making them available to all supervisory personnel; -Engaging in critical self-reflection around teaching and professional conduct;”
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An extract from RSA, DHET, 2015, p. 35-38
https://www.google.com/search?q=Teaching+Practice%3A+Guidelines+for+Initial+Teacher+Education+Programmes&rlz=1C1CHZN_enZA1017ZA1017&oeq=Teaching+Practice%3A+Guidelines+for+Initial+Teacher+Education+Programmes&gs_lcrp=EgZjaHJvbWUyBggAEEUYOTIGCAEQRRg80gEJNzQ3M2owajE1qAIAAsAIA&sourceid=chrome&ie=UTF-8#ip=1

On the other hand, the mentor- educator is expected to:

Provide structured support, which may include the provision of advice and guidance, the sharing of ideas and approaches, joint planning, co-teaching, opportunities for student teachers to observe the mentor's teaching and opportunities for the student teacher to have their teaching observed. Research suggests that observation and feedback are the two most valued elements of structured support (RSA, DHET, 2015, p. 32).

From the above paragraphs, one can say The South African Department of Education's proactive stance on mentorship is a commendable step toward enhancing the quality of education in the country. The above discussions have indicated that TP in ITE is valued, and PSTs are allocated to mentor educators to implement theory, get guidance, and be socialised into the profession (Grisham, Ferguson, & Brink, 2004). Effective mentorship can indeed play a crucial role in the development of teachers and the improvement of student learning outcomes. However, it is essential to address the challenges and potential variations in the implementation of mentorship programmes. There are potential obstacles that can affect its effectiveness (Bloomfield, 2010). In countries such as South Africa, there is “isolation, low and uneven levels of educators' competence” (Heeralal & Bayaga, 2011, p. 99) and tensions stemming from racial issues, ethnic identity, and conflicts within different school contexts (Mukeredzi & Mandrona, 2013). If this is the case, it then reinforces the need for carrying out the current study. Although the above critical analysis of TP is accurate, its importance is not eclipsed, because it remains at the centre of ITE. Psychological contestations give evidence to its importance, as explained in the paragraphs below.

Furthermore, to ensure that mentorship has the desired impact, it is critical that the Department continues to invest in mentor training and professional development. As it is now, Hudson and Hudson (2011, p. 319) says mentorship in South Africa is “haphazard” because it lacks structure and theoretical framework. This investment should include plans to examine and evaluate the effectiveness of mentorship programmes to ensure accountability and quality (Heeralal & Bayaga, 2011). I would suggest that for mentorship programmes to be successful, I would argue that a flexible strategy that considers the variety requirements of mentees as well

as the various circumstances in various schools and areas is essential. When implemented effectively, mentorship can contribute significantly to teacher development and the broader goals of South Africa's education system (Hudson, 2012).

One additional aspect to consider is the need for ongoing research and data collection to inform mentorship policies. While the Department's stance is founded on the importance of mentorship, it is crucial that these policies evolve based on empirical evidence. Continuous research can help assess the impact of mentorship on teacher development and student outcomes, identify best practices, and adapt mentorship programmes to address changing educational needs. In this way, the department can ensure that its stance on mentorship remains informed by current and relevant data, leading to more effective mentorship policies and practices.

2.2.4 Psychological importance of teaching practice

The notion of TP has its roots in the experiential learning initiated by Dewey (1938) and in Vygotsky's (1978) social-cognitive theory. Dewey (1938) proposed that learning occurs through active engagement in a situation. Following the action, the learner gains experience and reflects on what they have learned from the experience. Dewey (1938) also emphasized the significance of the learning environment. It should take place in a real context that is relevant to the learner's interests and goals. In addition, the learner should be active and not passively absorb information and reflect on the action. Similarly, Vygotsky (1978) also emphasised that learning occurs through interaction with others who are more skilled in social, and cultural factors playing an important role in cognitive development.

Overall, what the psychological discussion has in common is that practice, experience, and interaction are key to the learning process. Hence, TP is believed to be an excellent opportunity to provide PSTs with an authentic learning environment. This enhances the knowledge and skills related to their pedagogical philosophies and theories, develops self-confidence, and increases their effectiveness as future educators (Altintas & Gorgen, 2014). Additionally, it gives PSTs the chance to incorporate their “values, beliefs, and teaching-related abilities” (Damar & Sali, 2013, p.235). Therefore, Morrison and Werf (2012, p. 1) rightly say “theory without practice is empty; and practice without theory is blind”. The researcher would argue then that if there is so much emphasis on the practice as a form of learning, PSTs should be included in the teaching and learning during this period. Any form of exclusion will then hinder

professional development; hence, the aim and purpose of this study. However, successful, and unsuccessful TP revolves around mentoring, which is discussed in the following sections.

2.3 History and Background of Mentorship

The origins of the word "mentor" come from Greek mythology. In the story of the Odyssey, by Homer, the protagonist Odysseus assigns his friend Mentor the task of assisting him getting ready for war for fighting in the Trojan War (Miller, 2002). Another version is that Odysseus, the father, is searching for his homeland while Telemachus, his son, is searching for his father and, more importantly, Telemachus is on a journey of self-discovery in an effort to prove his worth as heir to his father's throne (Awaya, McEwan, Linsky, Lum & Wakukawa, 2003, cited in Mukeredzi, 2017). The two stories are related to mentorship and illustrate the mentor-mentee relationship; mentorship as the agent to achieving a goal. The above myth also shows that mentorship originally meant learning from someone who has expertise. Therefore, modern mentoring is said to have its "roots in the European apprenticeship system, where the apprentice learned skills from the master" (further elaborated later) (Clutterbuck & Devine, 1985, p.78). However, the concept of mentoring kept on evolving in the past years as the term has been constantly contested, as shown below.

2.3.1 The Conceptualisation of Mentorship

Mentoring is a complex terrain (Leshem, 2012). There is no clear definition and thus no general consensus on the definition of the term (Ambrosetti et al., 2014). A variety of definitions of mentoring can be found in the literature, which differ according to the context in which mentoring takes place (Ambrosetti et al., 2014; Cook, 2012; Zimmerman & Danette, 2007). On the one hand, there are no common guidelines for mentoring, which leads to the concept being interpreted and implemented in different ways (Zimmerman & Danette, 2007). On the other hand, the ambiguity of the concept of mentoring is attributed to the inconsistencies in the use of the term and the wide spectrum in the literature (Michailidi & Stavrou, 2021; Ronfeldt, Brockman, & Campbell, 2018). In some instances, "the concept is understood as an activity, while others define it as a concept or process" (Crisp & Cruz, 2009, p.540). The following paragraphs present the different definitions and contestations of mentorship and then identify the definition that is appropriate for this study.

Mentorship is a formalised process in which a more experienced person assumes a supportive position by guiding, advising, and encouraging the self-reflection and learning of a less

experienced and knowledgeable person (Roberts, 2000; Smith & Lynch, 2014). In the education context, mentorship refers to the support that PSTs receive during TP as they plan, deliver, and evaluate lessons (Ingersoll & Strong, 2011; Mudzielwana & Maphosa, 2014). The aim is not only to support the mentees, but also for the mentors to productively challenge them to make progress (Smith, 2007, cited in Ambrosetti & Dekkers, 2010). In this way, some of the traits and knowledge of the mentees not aligned to ethics of the teaching profession are challenged (Damar & Sali, 2013), allowing the professional and personal development of individuals. Therefore, it is important that PSTs participate in teaching and learning during mentorship and any form of exclusion should be avoided.

It must also be acknowledged that the idea of mentoring and the role of the mentor have evolved since its first use in education. Today it is no longer “mere transmission of skills and knowledge to promote professional development but there is emphasis on reflection on practice” (Nam, Seung & Go, 2013, p. 816). This is usually promoted through the reflective model (Leshem, 2012). This model is based on Dewey's idea that emphasises the need for self-exploration to facilitate the discovery of the theories underlying practice. During the mentoring process, mentors therefore play the role of a critical friend who supports student teachers in their self-inquiry (Leshem, 2012). However, mentoring during TP is also aimed at assessing the competence of the mentee as a future educator.

The competency model is based on established performance standards for PSTs (Leshem, 2012). It represents a methodological process in which mentors examine a set of competencies of student teachers' practices (Martin, 1994). Mentees must attempt to meet these standards by demonstrating their basic competence. Caution is given in the competence model—strict monitoring should not be applied in mentoring. It is identified as the cause of some of the failures of mentoring; Hobson and Malderez (2013) consider it judge mentoring. Once it becomes the focus, there is a risk of overlooking the pedagogical needs the mentee might have from their diverse backgrounds. As such, mentoring should be a process of induction or socialisation where PSTs are introduced to the norms and practices of the school, but still avoiding the apprenticeship model approach (Scanlon, 2008).

The apprenticeship model is based on the know-how of mentors, who are seen as skilled craftsmen, with PSTs emulating the exemplary teaching practices (Maggioli, 2014). This is similar to what Freire (1970) describes as integration through conformity, without the PST having the opportunity to contribute. This is the same line of thinking as the concept of "deficit

thinking in mentoring", where the mentee is seen as a performer within the context into which they must fit (Kauai et al., 2008, cited in Aderibigbe, Colucci-Grey & Grey, 2016, p. 11). The researcher would argue that the apprenticeship model is informed by the educational philosophy of essentialism, which assumes knowledge exists outside of human beings, is absolute and unchanging. Hence the approach to learning is to train the mind to learn what is already there through directive mentoring (Glickman, Gordon & Ross-Gordon, 2013). It is for such principles that the apprenticeship model has been criticised—for normalisation, social reproduction and stifling of innovation in existing professional cultures (Paquette, 2012; Wang & Odell, 2002). Normalisation can result in denial of participation. However, directive mentoring is important at some stages of mentorship but should be the means and not the end. To do this, mentorship must be redesigned to allow for the collaboration and participation of the PSTs. Hence the need to explore the current study.

Scholars have proposed and advocated for more collaborative and participatory mentorship. The contemporary world argues that mentoring is a collegial, dynamic, reciprocal, collaborative, democratic, supportive, and equal relationship with shared decision-making rather than a top-down superior hierarchy (Bradbury, 2010; Hudson, 2013). Scholars argue that a positive relationship with the PST and mentor support are crucial for modern TP, and they assume and anticipate a collaborative mentoring relationship of this kind. Aderibigbe Colucci-Gray, and Gray (2016) explain that in collaborative mentorship, age, gender, race, and experience cannot be considered important factors. Rather, the expertise and professional knowledge of both parties are important. In contrast to traditional mentoring, mentoring in this perspective is clearly non-hierarchical and the participants are equally involved in the learning process. An example of such contemporary mentoring is the model of educational mentoring, which is explained below.

Educational mentoring is a form of mentoring that stands in contrast to the traditional mentoring model. In this case, PSTs are given the opportunity to teach and reflect authentically together with an educator who has more experience in the field (Feiman-Nemser, 1998, 2001; Schwille, 2008). In educative mentoring, they do what Schwille (2008) regards as inside action and outside action strategies to mentoring. The first includes the aspects of coaching, stepping in, co-teaching, and demonstration. The latter includes interactions, debriefings, and joint planning sessions before or after the lesson is delivered. This type of collaboration enables the mutual exchange of knowledge. The mentor takes the position of a learner who is not only the source of knowledge, but also a recipient. In contrast, the educative mentoring, co-planning in

traditional mentoring, means that the mentor guides the mentee through his planning and shows him how to enter the lessons for the week in his plan book or gives him feedback on a particular lesson plan that the novice has developed (Pylman, 2016). While this conventional form of cooperative planning is important, it is insufficient to help PSTs become autonomous decision-makers (Pylman, 2016).

Another reason why collaborative mentorship was adopted for this study is that traditional hierarchical mentoring relationships are ineffective in modern work environments (Paquette, 2012). In some cases, mentees bring new knowledge to the workplace that is also necessary for the job. Therefore, mentorship should be explored in a way that strengthens elements of inclusion to avoid elements of hierarchical mentorship that pushes away the potential contributions of PSTs. This is important because in today's world, mentorship has undergone a significant evolution. The collaborative conceptualisation of mentorship is what is consistent with this study that sought to explore the aspects of sociolinguistic inclusion and exclusion in the process of school-based mentorship.

In summary, it is clear from the literature that mentorship has its origins in myth. Thus, its original form is based on apprenticeship. However, over the decades, there has been a significant paradigm shift in what constitutes mentorship. This has also produced different models that offer a unique approach to mentoring. The researcher believes that each of these models is beneficial to the professional development of the PSTs. However, what might be important is that the models or conceptualisation of mentoring cannot be used in isolation from other models. The researcher suggests that there should be a blend of these models if mentoring is to be transformative. What is missing from the above definitions and models is the fact that mentorship is a reciprocal relationship. Most of the above scholars take the view that the mentee receives the support but ignore the expertise that the mentee brings to the table during the mentoring period.

2.3.2 Psychological theories informing mentorship

Similar to TP, mentorship is embedded in psychological theories and its importance can be understood better when it is linked to theories of teaching Piaget (1977) cited in Crain (2012). States that both children and older learners have to negotiate the meaning of experiences and phenomena that do not conform to their existing schema. One could say that PSTs author their own knowledge during mentorship when the PSTs observe the mentor educators modelling teaching. There is formation of cognitive structures, revising existing knowledge and creating

new ones. The knowledge of teaching that they have in their scheme comes from the theories of the university and to some extent through apprentice of observation (Lortie, 1975), observing their educators teaching during their schooling. But this cannot lead to the full development of knowledge about teaching. Vygotsky (1934) extends this understanding of learning by arguing that internal processes are fully developed through a socially mediated, discovery-based learning activity. Therefore, mentoring is said to be also embedded in sociocultural theory. The core of the theory explains that "development occurs through social interactions with the members of society with whom they share their culture" (Shooshtari & Mir, 2014, p. 1772).

It can be concluded that Piaget (1977) cited in Crain (2012) and Vygotsky (1934) confirm that knowledge about teaching can only fully develop in classroom practice when there is social interaction and involvement in the process of mentoring. Therefore, this study explored the aspects of inclusion and exclusion during mentoring of ESL PSTs in a particular school context. Having discussed extensively what mentoring means and what the core elements are, it is now important to address the question of who could be the mentor to drive the required mentoring that would lead to the intended goals of mentoring.

2.3.3 Who could be a mentor?

Effective mentoring consists of five components: pedagogical knowledge, personal qualities, system requirements, modelling and feedback (Hudson, Skamp & Brooks, 2005). First, the personal qualities and characteristics represent what might be called the primary tasks of mentoring PSTs during school-based mentoring. According to Hudson (2013), the mentor should feel comfortable talking to and supporting the mentee. The researcher agree that these qualities are crucial, as supporting the mentee can be difficult without a good attitude. Secondly, it is the mentor's responsibility to point out the stated goals, guiding principles and course offerings of the education system, according to the system's regulations. Thirdly, it should be assumed that the mentor, who has more expertise, will assist the aspiring teacher in lesson planning, use of resources and time management. The fourth responsibility is that the mentor must model teaching by setting an example for the PSTs and modelling the necessary classroom behaviours (Hudson, 2013).

Finally, providing feedback to PSTs is an important task. This is crucial as mentors are explicit about their expectations and provide both verbal and written comments on the PST's performance. While the researcher acknowledges the above duties of mentors, the researcher has concerns that these roles may contribute to the perpetuation of the hierarchical system.

Therefore, change should occur during the mentoring process and feedback should be reflected upon and discussed to allow for the development of both mentee and mentor and to avoid the trap of judge mentoring (Hobson & Malderez, 2013). Such an approach to feedback also allows a framework of collaborative learning and aims to foster egalitarian professional relationships that can lead to higher levels of confidence in the mentee. It is also important that the mentor has high quality skills to analyse the mentee's needs and determine achievable goals for the mentees when giving feedback (Abiddin & Hassan, 2012).

While the above paragraphs mention and discuss the criteria of mentors, there are some important elements that need to be interrogated further. One of the facts about mentorship is that it is not an innate skill, but rather an acquired skill that requires preparation (Ambrosetti, 2014). Ambrosetti (2014) complicates the concept of mentorship when she writes that being a good educator is not the same as being a good mentor. This implies that effective teaching cannot directly translate into mentoring abilities (Feiman-Nemser, 2001). The problem could be that when mentors are appointed, preference is usually given to the 'good' educators, or those that are simply available without really being suitable mentors (Jita & Munje, 2022). In resolving the risk of having incompetent mentor educators, there is a need to "up skill mentors to equip them with professional and mentorship ethics to enable PSTs to acquire the requisite skills that will better prepare them as future professional teachers" (Jita & Munje, 2022, p. 1). The competence of the mentor educators can only be determined through continuous research on what transpires during the mentorship period, hence the aim and purpose of this study. However, mentoring does not exist in a vacuum; there are factors that contribute to the mentoring approaches that mentor educators implement.

2.3.4 Factors that influence mentoring

Mentoring of PSTs is influenced by a variety of factors. There are links between social context and acting through language (Becher & Orland-Barak, 2018), and mentoring is understood as an "intellectual, cultural, and contextual activity" (Cochran-Smith, 2004, p. 298). It is culturally mediated through active participation in the social world, drawing on the knowledge, norms, and values of the particular professional and cultural context in which it takes place (Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Schwille, 2008). Similarly, Wang and Odell (2002) assert that mentoring practices are highly influenced by the school context, which relates to curriculum and assessment and the social and cultural context. Therefore, exploring the experiences of specific PSTs in a particular context is crucial.

- ***Teaching context: curriculum and assessment***

In relation to the school context, Wang (2001) identifies three instructional contexts that shape mentoring, and two of these are the structure of the school curriculum and assessment. If the curriculum and assessment of learners is centralised or prescribed, the mentor educator has to ensure that it is followed closely (Wang, 2001). This calls on mentors to strongly encourage PSTs to acquire a common knowledge of instruction, curriculum, and school culture (Wang, 2001). This confirms that mentors' work context encompasses areas of knowledge and produces specific roles (Koster, Korthagen & Wubbels, 1998). What the researcher perceives as a danger for such an action from mentors is that this can lead to tensions if the required expectations do not match the PST's abilities. This is usually the case when discussing issues of teacher identity. Nguyen and Yang (2018) attest that teachers-in-training experience difficulty and conflict when implementing ideas in new contexts. To sum up, the above factors, and the consequences they bring about in mentoring are reasons for the continuous need to explore how the PSTs experience mentorship in specific contexts. Again social, and cultural contexts are contributing factors to mentoring, as explained below.

- ***Social and cultural context***

Learning is embedded in and connected to the setting in which the learning occurs, the context and the social and cultural context (Wang, 2001). For instance, the culture of the school could be subject to the quintile level of the school and the location of the school. Schools in quintiles four and five still hold dear the value of their identity as English schools (Carrim, 2013), so some aspects of their school culture promote high levels of English language proficiency. English teaching is not just about content knowledge. Gee (1999) makes a distinction between two categories of discourse in language use: discourse, which is defined as spoken language, and discourse (capital D), which is defined as socially accepted modes of language-based “thinking, being, acting, knowing, valuing, and believing” (p.112). Being an English teacher requires not only content but also what Bourdieu (1986) calls cultural capital in its embodied form, attuned to the standards and episteme of the English language. Therefore, the experiences of ESL PSTs need to be explored to find out the intersectionality of contexts, sociolinguistic identity, and mentorship experiences by looking at the aspects of sociolinguistic inclusion and exclusion. It has been argued PST identity is also a contributing factor to mentoring experiences, which has not been mentioned by Wang (2001).

- ***Identity of the pre-service teachers***

The problem area of teacher identity has received much attention in studies (Nguyen & Yang, 2018). The traditional definition of identity focuses on how a person sees themselves, with an internal, fixed characteristic (Currie, 2010). Another definition refers to long-term, ongoing relationships between individuals and their position within and involvement in communities of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 53). Thus, if they are mentored, whether or not they are allowed to participate depends on how their identity fits into the context in which they find themselves. The current study aimed to explore experiences of sociolinguistic inclusion or exclusion during TP in quintile four and five high schools.

To sum up, the three factors influencing mentoring mentioned above are very important. They underscore the idea that mentorship does not occur in a vacuum. The curriculum and nature of assessment, social and cultural context and identity makes a difference to the way mentees are mentored. For example, schools identified as English schools in the past would be different from their counterparts. Here, the researchers can be commended for identifying identity as an important factor because the researcher would argue that context does not affect mentees' mentorship in the same way. It is the individual's identity versus the context. However, what the authors did not include is that the mentee's willingness or readiness to participate during mentorship is a very important factor. Just as Hudson et al. (2005) state that mentors are expected to have some personal qualities, the same is true for mentees. Therefore, the researcher will address the complexity of mentorship in the following paragraphs.

2.3.5 Complexities of mentorship

In the process of mentoring, mentor educators struggle to balance the conflicting roles, demands of the normative rubric and divergent mentoring guidelines (Clarke, Triggs & Nielsen, 2014; Leshem, 2012; Wang, 2001), often relying on their personal experiences and not drawing on theories, models, and approaches that might offer alternatives (Becher & Orland-Barak, 2018). However, while acknowledging the difficulties, another crucial factor that makes mentorship difficult is that it requires both the mentor educator and the PST to function. Unfortunately, some PSTs lack the zeal to teach, which ends up putting a strain on the mentors who are supposed to help them develop into professional teachers (Hoben, 2021). In such cases, mentor educators usually resort to directive mentorship. The researcher would argue that even though there are complexities in mentorship, there should be a way to balance such that the ultimate goal of mentorship is achieved. One way of determining the success of

mentorship is through research. The following paragraphs present how mentorship is experienced by PSTs from different scholarly work.

2.4 Pre-service teachers' Experiences of Mentorship

The following section reviews the literature on how mentoring was experienced by the PSTs. Both positive and negative experiences are discussed.

2.4.1 Pre-service teachers' positive experiences of mentorship

International literature has demonstrated the value of including mentorship in teacher education programmes. Aderibigbe (2013) from Scotland as well as Ok and Capa-Aydin (2019) from Turkey report that pre-service English teachers received support, affirmation, and constructive feedback on their teaching attempts from their mentors. Trujillo (2018) adds that some pre-service English teachers testify that their language skills and content knowledge improved during their TP because mentors were accommodating and guided them in their teaching. Similarly, Chien (2015) reports that in Taiwan, pre-service English teachers testify to the effectiveness of mentorship because mentoring enabled them to “combine their knowledge of the classroom context, the content of the lesson plan, classroom pedagogy, and their learners” (p. 330). In most cases, the success of mentorship is due to the mentors' use of some effective mentoring strategies for PSTs, such as planning together, reflecting orally on lesson plans with the PST, or showing the mentor educator the lesson plans prior to teaching (Chien, 2015). Further positive experiences were reported from the work of Xie and Cui (2021) in Hong Kong; pre-service ESL teachers experienced liberal-minded mentors when they taught English. The mentor gave them enough independence to make decisions about teaching strategies and encouraged them to implement their ideas and did not treat the mentees as unequal or mere assistants. In the researcher's opinion, the above experiences open up opportunities for both the mentee and the mentor to develop professionally as the mentee is given full participation and recognition. It was therefore important that this study explored what happens during mentorship of ESL PSTs in the South African context.

2.4.1.1 Regional and local experiences of mentorship

Regional mentorship experiences of the PSTs have also been identified. However, the experiences which are specific to ESL English PSTs are not yet of much focus in the continent. African scholars in Kenya and Zimbabwe argue that mentorship strengthens the development of specific teaching competencies and skills in curriculum implementation, lesson planning

and various methodologies in their subject (Muyengwa, 2018). In Namibia, Ausiku, Likando and Mberema (2019) concluded that mentoring helps motivate PSTs and helps them gain confidence in the field of teaching. Local researchers also reported positive impacts. Mukeredzi, Mthiyane and Bertram (2015) and Nkambule and Mukeredzi (2017) have shown that in South Africa, mentor-mentee relationships are associated with collegial collaboration; PSTs receive significant help, get advice, creative ideas, and tips, and share their skills and achievements during school-based mentorship. Jita and Munje (2022) have reported more positive experiences. The PSTs had different experiences, but what also stood out was that the PSTs had mentor educators who welcomed and supported them, and that the mentees benefitted from their knowledge of teaching. Furthermore, studies demonstrate that mentoring practices are seen as integral to the sense of belonging in the teaching profession (Allender & Allender, 2006; Marais & Meier, 2004). But the limited experiences in English classrooms in the continental and local literature calls for research, hence this study.

2.4.2 Negative experiences of mentorship

In some cases, PSTs have negative experiences of mentorship. This is when mentorship does not achieve its intended goals and serve its purpose. In this study, experiences of pedagogical tensions, personal tensions, lack of feedback and lack of participation were mentioned. First, the researcher will look at the pedagogical tensions.

- ***Pedagogical tension***

Globally, the effectiveness of mentorship and its contribution to the professional development of PSTs at times is hindered. Some of the factors reported have to do with pedagogical issues, the inconsistencies, and conflicting ideas in teaching methods (Hudson & Hudson, 2018). Trujillo (2018), from Colombia, reports that some PSTs are not allowed to teach because their teaching strategies do not match those of their mentors. The pre-service English teachers perceive language teaching as prescriptive and objectified and therefore have no room for alternatives (Trujillo, 2018, Xie & Cui, 2021). Consequently, at times, mentees feel as if teaching practise does not provide them with opportunities to engage with theory and practice (Aderibidge et al., 2016). Such negative relational experiences lead to emotional upset and even have the potential to harm and can be a major obstacle to the formation of productive mentoring (Rajuan, Beijaard & Verloop, 2007 as cited in Hudson & Hudson, 2018). Moreover, it is these mentoring experiences that influence PSTs to make significant decisions in their career about whether or not to remain in the teaching field. The nature of mentorship can either

result in retaining the future educators in the profession or attrition. Therefore, the study needed to explore the experiences of PSTs to ensure quality mentoring.

In the local studies there is mention that PSTs who are “exposed to negative mentor-mentee relationships feel disempowered and unsupported in their learning process” (Moosa & Rembach, 2020, p. 540). One of the reasons for such relationships is the educators' focus on completing the curriculum. Hoben (2021) also argues that the frustration of mentors who find that PSTs lack the basic knowledge of the subject and other essential qualities is also widespread. He further argues that the mentors' lack of skills to mentor diverse PSTs exacerbates the situation. Therefore, to provide effective mentoring experiences for PSTs, it is suggested that mentors should be trained, and relationships should be established between all stakeholders, including institutions (Mukeredzi et al., 2015). The researcher agrees with Mukeredzi et al. (2015) as positive mentoring experiences could be achievable and continued research on the experiences of PSTs can contribute to further insights on what could be done.

- ***Personal tensions***

Some PSTs have negative experiences because they have personal issues with their mentors (Hudson & Hudson, 2018). The personal tensions could be due to the mentors' behaviour or personality. In some cases, the mentor might dominate the class and be possessive, so that the identity of the PST as an educator is minimal. In agreement, Alemdag and Simsek (2017) confirm that mentees have experienced being labelled as assistants. Similarly, Nayir and Cinkir (2014) report that the PSTs are dissatisfied because they are sometimes introduced as an 'older sister' rather than a PST. These negative experiences confirm that "power games" occur during mentorship (Awaya et al., 2003, p. 14). All in all, what the scholars agree on is that, in some cases the pre-service English teachers are not recognised as colleagues by the mentor educators. As a result, there are often communication problems and PSTs are ignored and not trusted to practice in schools. Therefore, mutual accountability between them should be ensured to protect their equal position in mentoring. It is important to note that although mentor behaviour seems to be the cause of ineffective mentoring, the researcher am aware that mentoring is complex. Negative professional experiences can result from the behaviours and practices of some mentees (Hoben, 2021). However, mentors with much experience can help negate such undesirable behaviours and practises and work with the mentee. Another challenge experienced is the lack of feedback.

- ***Lack of feedback***

In any TP, feedback is considered necessary during the mentoring process. First, feedback helps to determine whether teacher education has improved the professional competence of the PSTs (e.g. their understanding of pedagogical knowledge). Secondly, the feedback is beneficial for the mentees as the PSTs have the opportunity to reflect and correct where needed. Finally, there should be a mutual communication between the PSTs and the mentor during the feedback sessions. The mentee and the mentor should reflect on their “aims, their concerns, and their expectations” (Fairbanks et al. 2000, cited in Moody, 2009, p. 164). However, it is not always the case that the feedback is effective. For instance, the pre-service English teachers in Maynard's (2010) study acknowledged that their mentor educators' "constant criticism" had resulted in a lack of confidence in their skills (p. 22). This in turn had encouraged them to follow the advice and methods of their mentors. PSTs said that sometimes the issue was not the critical feedback, but rather the manner in which it was delivered and the frequency in comparison to the positive comments, as one student highlighted in the same survey. One of the PSTs quoted the mentor as saying, “I need to say a lot and not much of it is good”. The PST continued, “I would have liked to curl up and die” (Maynard, 2010, p. 23).

However, there is another side to the problem of lack of feedback. PSTs also mentioned that mentors sometimes avoid reducing their confidence and therefore do not give critical feedback even when they feel PSTs are struggling with the content. PSTs claimed that their mentors seemed to avoid hurting them, rather giving them support emotionally instead (Maynard, 2010). Again, the issue of empathy does not help mentees become competent in their subject area. Thus, a balance needs to be struck as the crucial purpose of TP is to socialise the PSTs into the teaching profession. Therefore, it is of significance to explore what the PSTs experienced in their context.

- ***Lack of participation***

Limiting or refusing participation during TP is one of the challenges reported in the literature (Gao & Benson, 2012; Le Huu Nghia & Ngoc Tai, 2017; Yuan, 2016). For example, in Vietnam, Le Huu Nghia and Ngoc Tai (2017) reported in a study that ESL pre-service English teachers have a marginal identity and are often not recognised as legitimate teachers. As a result, they were excluded from teaching and learning during their teaching practicum. Reinforcing the disparities of mentorship, Gray, Wright and Pascoe (2019) in Australia as well as Iqbal (2017) in Indonesia note that PSTs are given the opportunity to teach, but they are expected to emulate the teaching style of the mentor. This means that their teaching strategies

and knowledge are not taken into consideration. Yuan (2016) in Hong Kong also found similar results when pre-service English teachers found themselves as "assistants and followers" and became puppets, which frustrated them, and they lost their confidence (p. 12). Trujillo (2018) also believes that pre-service language teachers are only responding to the demands of the curriculum and have to imitate some models without reflection. Another study by Cheruvu, Souto-Manning, Lencl, and Chin-Calubaquib (2015) reported stereotypes towards PSTs who are not native English speakers. This kind of belief and stereotype needs to be changed because static boundaries are no longer effective as people's identities are very fluid. Therefore, it is no longer possible to put people into fixed categories and draw conclusions about their potential abilities to take on certain roles in society.

All in all, experiences with mentorship have been well described in the preceding paragraphs. Positive experiences with mentorship were mentioned at global, regional, and local levels. The positive experiences do not only impart professional skills, but also personal growth in the profession such as self-confidence, self-esteem, and English language skills. Negative experiences also have effects such as frustration and lack of confidence. Thus, one cannot assume that the implementation of mentoring will definitely be effective since it has gained worldwide recognition. These negative experiences are the reason why there is still intensive research on the experiences of mentorship. This study therefore continues this research. In addition to their experiences, scholars also revealed that the PSTs have expectations of the mentorship process. These expectations are discussed below.

2.5 Pres-service teachers' Expectations and Perceptions of Mentorship

PSTs have expectations about what the relationship with their mentor might be like when they go on TP. This section focuses on notions such as collaboration and autonomy.

2.5.1 Collaborative mentors

Collaboration during mentorship is key to the learning process because the mentor educator and the mentee get to experience mutual sharing of pedagogical skills. It is therefore not surprising if the mentees mention that they expect collaboration. In research by Arkün-Kocadere and Aşkar (2013), Gray et al. (2019), and Danyluk, Burns, Crawford and Hill (2020), PSTs indicated that they value collaborative mentors who work with them to plan and make decisions together. Collaboration is crucial to the learning process because, according to "Vygotsky's (1978) theory, cognitive development" occurs through social interaction among

members of society, and social interaction, language, and cultural contexts influence an individual's cognitive development (Shooshtari & Mir, 2014, p.1773). It is also important to note that PSTs not only desire collaboration but also need equality and autonomy in the process of mentoring.

2.5.2 Equality and autonomy

PSTs appreciate that they expect autonomy after some time of observation and guidance in teaching. For example, Izadinia (2017) reported that in her study in Australia, the PSTs reiterated that guidance is not essential, but that one needs latitude to do things independently (Izadinia, 2017). In another study in Canada, Aderibigbe et al., (2016) noted that the PSTs expected mentor educators to treat them as colleagues. That is, that they would be treated as legitimate teachers despite their sociolinguistic identities, which might be different from the school context. The aspect of expecting to be treated as colleagues is also advocated by Pylman (2016) who says that the mentor is not only the source of knowledge but also a learner in the process. It is therefore obvious that mentees must be given respect and be treated with dignity. Furthermore, the findings of research by Nikoceviq-Kurti and Saqipi (2022) suggest that the quality of mentoring can be improved if mentor educators “demonstrate qualities such as hospitality, openness to collaboration, non-prejudicial methods, space for participation and encouragement to take initiative” (p. 640).

2.6 Conceptualising Inclusion and Exclusion

The main focus was on the experiences of inclusion and exclusion. The sections below will define inclusion and exclusion in depth and highlight the different paradigms from which the concepts stem. Inclusion and exclusion are central concepts in the context of educational institutions, especially in the context of mentorship in TP during ITE. Understanding these terms is fundamental to unravelling the complexity of mentor-mentee relationships and creating an environment conducive to effective teacher education. According to Burns, Jacobs and Yendol-Hoppey (2016), a thorough understanding of these concepts is critical for educators and mentors as it directly impacts the effectiveness of teaching practises and the overall learning experience of PSTs. In the following sections, the paradigms of inclusion will be discussed.

2.6.1 Paradigms of inclusion

There are a number of paradigms on the basis of which inclusion can be defined and conceptualised. The first paradigm is the Anglo-Saxon tradition, based on Locke's idea that individuals are social actors who have the capacity to move across social boundaries (de Haan, 1999). For this paradigm, inclusion goes beyond deprivation and focuses instead on social relations, as belonging to a group is a basic human need. The previous paradigms originate from the global North but can also be contextualised in our contexts. It is also important to discuss the African paradigm of inclusion.

The paradigm of communality developed by Menketi (1984) and Ramose (1999) is one of the Afrocentric traditions. This paradigm places a strong emphasis on personhood, which emphasises humanness within a community, with social cohesion as a fundamental value. The central idea of the communality paradigm is *mothofatso*, the binarity between people (Ramose, 1999). Most importantly, in African customs and cultures there cannot be societies where the 'others' do not belong, to ensure ontological equality (Phasha et al., 2017). The researcher therefore believes that if the Global South has such a rich understanding of inclusion, it should also be found in all sectors of communities. For this reason, the mentoring experiences of ESL teachers are explored in quintiles four and five.

2.6.2 The concept inclusion

Inclusion in education refers to a deliberate and comprehensive approach to accommodating diversity. Scholars such as Allan (2007) emphasises that inclusive practises consist of creating an environment in which all people, regardless of their background, abilities, or characteristics, feel welcome and valued and are actively involved in the learning process. Inclusive education goes beyond simply recognising differences and aims to provide equal opportunities for all participants. In addition, scholars say inclusion is a multifaceted and contextual concept: "It is neither a physical entity nor a clearly defined scientific concept", as it has multiple entry points (Allan, 2007, p. 2). It can be about inclusion in the workplace, in schools and in society in general. Shore et al. (2011) further developed the essence of inclusion: for individuals to feel accepted in a work group, they must have two complementary needs met: belonging and uniqueness. He argues that fostering a sense of belonging is seen as essential, but if the 'price of admission' is that employees have to give up their uniqueness, then they do not experience true inclusion. In such cases, integration could lead to assimilation, i.e. having to give up some identities in order to 'fit' into the dominant system (Carrim, 2001).

2.6.3 Paradigms of exclusion

The first paradigm of exclusion, based on the work of Weber (cited in Silver, 1995) and belonging to the Northern European tradition, is the monopoly paradigm, which asserts that power relations are an integral aspect of social order (de Haan, 1999). Weber's work, which states that "social order is coercive and enforced through hierarchical power relations", supports De Haan's study. Exclusion is described as "a result of the establishment of group monopolies [that] restrict the access of outsiders through social closure" (de Haan, 1999, p. 6). The second paradigm is the "specialisation paradigm", based on the work of Hobbes (n.d.) and informed by individual liberalism (Sayed, Soudien, & Carrim, 2003, p. 235). The models of liberals put much emphasis on citizenship, that is, there should be "exchange of rights and duties and exclusion reflects discrimination, the drawing of group distinctions that deny individuals full access to or participation in exchange or interaction. The causes of exclusion are often seen in unenforced participation rights" (de Haan, 1999, p. 6).

2.6.4 The concept of exclusion

Exclusion denotes the processes and practices that result in the marginalization or neglect of certain individuals within educational contexts. According to Oh and Van der Stouwe (2008) exclusionary practices may manifest as intentional or unintentional actions that limit access to resources, opportunities, or meaningful participation. Exclusion can take various forms, ranging from overt acts of discrimination to subtle, systemic barriers that hinder the full participation of certain individuals or groups. In the society, people who engage in behaviours that are at odds with those of the dominant group are often confronted with an "identity of non-participation and marginality" (Wenger, 2010, p. 13). Their actions are consistently seen as irrelevant and incompatible with the values of the dominant culture (Bryne, 2005). Exclusion thus creates 'outsiders' and leads to society becoming dysfunctional. The aim of inclusive policies is therefore to create social cohesion and stability (Sayed et al., 2003).

In some revolutions, such as in South Africa, people try to tolerate and cooperate with each other, but the interaction is not mutual (Sayed et al., 2003). Instead, there is integration of the less dominant group into the dominant group. The less dominant culture is assimilated into the pre-existing and recognised dominant culture, nothing from the past is validated in the zone of inclusion (Monga, Puri & Bhupala, 1984, cited in Sayed et al., 2003). Consequently, the values, language and knowledge possessed by the marginalised group are marginalised due to the lack

of appreciation and recognition. This leads us to the other belief that there is normalisation in society.

As it is, teacher training can be seen as training in a 'mainstream' teacher culture, in certain linguistic and cultural norms. There are some standardised, normalised cultures of a certain dominant culture that are often reproduced and seen as relevant, legitimate, and appropriate (Williams & Williams, 2006). There are some expected skills that are considered characteristic of what it means to be a teacher. These skills are historically, socially, and politically constructed, and with the current focus on preparing a predominantly white, monolingual teaching force, other varieties and skills of English may not find a space in such places (Haddix, 2010). Therefore, the researcher felt it was important to explore and find out whether participants were centrally moved to full participation as second language learners in a school context (HL). If such studies are not conducted, the cycle of othering will continue and the possibility of remaining marginalised seems inevitable.

One can argue that it is not enough that the demographics of higher education have become more diverse compared to the apartheid years. What is important is the tangible participation of people in society and the recognition of their legibility beyond race, culture, and ethnicity.

2.7 Contestations and Debates on Sociolinguistics

The following sections will now discuss how sociolinguistics is viewed in global, regional, and local terms.

2.7.1 Broader contestations and debates on sociolinguistics

Sociolinguistics is a fairly new emerging theory whose importance is still developing and expanding (Paoletti, 2011). It is commonly accepted that sociolinguistics is grounded in a historical-cultural context, with a particular emphasis on language and society (Wardhaugh, 2006). As a bridge between “the social and cultural facets of human existence”, sociolinguistics employs a multidisciplinary approach to explain the link between language and those who use it (Norton & Morgan, 2013, p. 5). Blommaert (2010) demonstrates, using sociolinguistic scales, how different languages and dialects not only have distinct values but also signify various identities. In society, humanity is divided because of ideologies based on language. The following paragraphs will discuss first the sociolinguistic identity and later explain how these identities lead to relational issues in the society.

- ***Sociolinguistic identity***

In sociolinguistics, the aspect of identity explains who we are in different contexts, especially in relation to the way we use language - the terms of performance (Briggs, 1988, cited in Deckert & Vickers, 2011). A further explanation is provided by Schiffrin (1996) who says that “social identity is locally situated; who we are is at least partly a product of where we are and who we are with” (p.198). It can be said that identity is socially constructed. The way people present themselves to different social groups gives them identity depending on the context. Thus, identity is a dynamic quality rather than a fixed attribute of an individual (Briggs, 1988, cited in Deckert & Vickers, 2011). In some cases, one may be judged to be either proficient or not, depending on which society is judging one and what their standards are.

In most cases, it is the dialects and accents that make the difference, depending on geographical location, ethnicity and educational background. In today's world, sociolinguistic identity is divided into different categories: native speakers of English and non-native speakers. The British colonies had to use English even though they had already established their own languages, so they fall under the non-native speakers compared to the British. When it comes to teaching English in these countries, English is sometimes taught as a second language or as a foreign language (Deckert & Vickers, 2011). The former assumes that English is taught with the aim of communicating with the immediate community, and the latter aims to communicate with native English speakers (Ntombela, 2016). All of these interactions give individuals specific sociolinguistic identities, even if all people speak English. Nonetheless, English as a first language exists in both contexts where English is a foreign language, as English has been adopted as the language used to teach in schools in these countries. In South Africa, some students learn English as a first language and others as a foreign language, so students have different language levels and therefore different identities and competences. To summarise, people who have English as their mother tongue are highly regarded, as evidenced by the fact that university students who wish to study in countries such as the UK take a language test before being admitted to university (Deckert & Vickers, 2011). The following paragraphs further explains the relational issues which comes with socio linguistic identity.

- ***Relational issues***

Relational issues refer to the “dynamics, interactions, and relationships between individuals or groups, including power dynamics, communication styles, trust, rapport, and the quality of relationships” (Deckert & Vickers, 2011, p. 118). These relational issues are based on the

ideologies people have about certain groups of people which influence all the decisions people make and how they view certain people in different areas. This means that some ideologies inevitably and often unconsciously contain judgements about people who either keep the language conventions or violate them (McGroarty, 2010, p. 3). Whether these expectations are met or not depends on the ideologies associated with the language and influenced by the social context. In some cases, there are certain monolithic beliefs about a single, correct, and authoritative standard form of how English can be written or pronounced, and the belief that there is a proper dialect, while others are “slang” (Siegel, 2006, cited in McGroarty, 2010, p. 19). An example can be given in the case of the United Kingdom, where there are some hierarchies of English varieties, with the most desirable English being what is known as Standard English. It is considered prestigious and is therefore preferred for educational purposes and in the workplace. Other regional non-standard varieties are then marginalised. When a dialect is marginalised, its people are left with no choice but to conform to the dialect of the powerful who have declared their dialect the standard (Bellour, 2021). When Standard English is not used, it has a detrimental effect on students' future prospects, as it can limit their ability to use English in formal situations. This then leads to inequality in society.

In the same manner, concerning sociolinguistic problems of the Asian community, they also have issues of unequal recognition of English varieties as in the UK community. In some Asian countries, English is spoken both as a second language and as a lingua franca, but the aspect of so-called Standard English is problematized. Associated with such ideology are associations with imperial powers, as these are believed to promote Western cultural dominance at the expense of local cultures (Phillipson, 1990). This is based on the fact that local communities in Asian countries such as India and Korea have local varieties of English that differ significantly from Standard English in terms of pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary. As in the UK, Standard English is therefore predominant in formal settings because it is a key factor in economic mobility. In Korea, for example, the government established policies focusing on the drive towards pushing the use of English among all sections of society so that its citizens can be globalised (Cavanagh, 2016). But in the Asian community, such as the Philippines, Korea and China, they are mostly influenced by America, hence the measurement of standard is according to American standards. However, this decision to allow Standard English to dominate is a disadvantage for those who are not native speakers, as their knowledge is not the same as that of native speakers.

Overall, the discussion of sociolinguistics in the UK and Asia is not just about these two countries, but about broader “issues of language and identity, as well as the historical and cultural context in which English was introduced” (Phillipson, 2017, p. 320). Chomsky (2000) strongly argues, “the only intrinsic superiority of one language over another is that if one of them has more guns the other” (p. 6). He continues to say when the Greeks were in power English was one of the barbaric languages, the languages considered as not a language at all (Chomsky, 2000). Hence, for the most part, the power of English, lies mainly in its imperial powers. It is for this reason that the ongoing debate on these sociolinguistic issues aims to find solutions for a just world that recognises the diversity evident in English varieties and exposes the imperial power of Standard English. Norton and Morgan (2013) further explain that people who speak a language as a second language are sometimes considered to lack sociolinguistic competence—the capacity to use a second language in a variety of ways that are appropriate to the various social contexts in which communication occurs. In other words, what is appropriate in one cultural situation may be completely inappropriate in another. In agreement, Bellour (2021) posits that, “the hierarchy of languages is a reflection of a hidden social discrimination” (p. 305), and also “the acquisition and use of linguistic capital—marking off privileged classes and groups from others” (Phillipson, 2017, p. 318).

As a result, “language is seen as central to the circulation of discourses, systems of power and knowledge that define and regulate social institutions, disciplines, and practises” (Norton & Morgan, 2013, p. 1). University training of ESL teachers reflects a “technocratic, instrumental-rational view” (Montecinos, 2004, p. 174) of teacher education. Universities want to standardise teachers' practices to the extent that ethnicity or language identification has no effect on practice. Norton and Morgan's arguments are pertinent because this is what the researcher found during TP as a PST, different schools in different quintiles were unique in their expectations of me as a pre-service English teacher. This was the reason for this study, to explore the lived mentoring experiences of ESL PSTs in different quintiles using social inclusion theory.

The discussions above confirm the definition of sociolinguistics, showing that language plays an important role in how people interact and relate to each other. In the case of this study, it could therefore be possible that different schools in different quintiles have different conventions in relation to English. This is reinforced by Danielsson and Warwick (2014) who say that while placements are spaces where particular teacher identities can be tried out and practices and pedagogies tested, PSTs' identities are also exposed to new conceptual,

pedagogical, cultural, and political influences within their school placements. Some research reports talk about deficit notions of intelligence and potential associated with pre-service English second language speakers (Trujillo, 2018). In America, African American PSTs are seen as less capable of being English teachers (Trujillo, 2018). There is safeguarding of the Standard English associated with social and economic mobility.

2.7.2 Sociolinguistics in Africa

Sociolinguistics in Africa has been the subject of many debates and contestations over the years. Some of the key issues include language policy, language standardisation, language variation, and language rights. In Africa, the contestation of English is mainly focused on the balancing of the native languages of Africa and the colonial language, in most cases English. There are contestations that the local languages are not given much space in the education and economic arenas, which has now led to a wide scholarly work calling for decolonisation, putting the local languages at the centre (Kamwangamalu, 2013). However, there are also some realities that have been brought up by other scholars, questioning the sustainability of the idea of decolonisation given the reality of globalisation. Affirming these arguments, Kamwangamalu (2013) says at least three interrelated reasons contribute to the persistence of colonial language ideologies: the commercial value of former colonial languages relative to African languages; Africa's economic dependence on Western nations, particularly former colonial powers; and linguistic instrumentalism.

A question then arises on how English FAL fits into the economic mobility, given that there is linguistic instrumentalism. What can be said is that the policy on additive curriculum on languages is not only constructed in the image of Western countries but also retains the colonial heritage which confines people to their ethnic identities and cannot be expected to be something else beyond that (Bellour, 2021). the researcher strongly believe that those destined to study the FAL curriculum are seen as not having the capabilities of doing it as HL but have the capacity to study their own native language in depth. What the policymakers do not realise is that language policies in different countries in turn impact access to meaningful education and economic opportunities (Bellour, 2021).

This can be explained further to mean any decision made on language policies which gives its recipients a certain sociolinguistic identity which can either enhance or hinder social mobility and participation in the community (Phillipson, 2017). The models adopt an "either/or" approach when, in fact, the two languages are both significant, and thus both need to be

cultivated as part of the child's linguistic repertoire (Banda, 2009, p. 9) and avoid the limitations the native languages can cause. In the same view, Ndhlovu (2020) states that while some language policies have good intentions, they also have a dark side and frequently have unintended repercussions, such as marginalising speakers of language varieties that do not fit the rigid requirements of normative language policy regimes in social, economic, and political spheres. As Tollefson (1991) observed, planning is ipso facto, planning inequality.

Another issue which creates debates is the issue on standardisation of English. In the African context, the local languages affect the way people speak, which is referred to as inferences of language. It then leads to English varieties where only one can be said to be standard, and one which is said to be prestigious (Ferguson, 1991); in most cases, the one attached to colonial powers. It is for this reason that in Africa you find that there are other spaces, especially in schools, where there is prescription on how English is spoken, marginalising any other sociolinguistic identity which the children or the educators and PSTs may have. These attitudes and behaviours are tied to broader issues of social justice and equity. As Ndhlovu (2020) says in post-colonial Africa, most of the languages which are standard are colonial impositions that are being continuously embraced by post-colonial African regimes. Ndhlovu (2020) refers to the preceding practice as Coloniality of language by stealth, when a language is continuously used as subtle cultural normalisation. It is from this backdrop that the current study intends to explore the mentorship experiences of the ESL PSTs in the context where English is taught as HL. In these contexts, there is safeguarding against any form of 'pollution' which can happen in terms of English content and proficiency.

2.7.3 Sociolinguistic identities among South African pre-service teachers

It is vital to situate the participants within the political and historical framework of the colonial era in order to comprehend their sociolinguistic identities. English and Afrikaans were the two languages that were most widely spoken in South Africa. Even now, the additional languages do not have the same status in education as the other two, despite the fact that they were later designated official languages in democratic South Africa. According to Ntombela (2016), South African White English is still widely recognized as the appropriate variant of the language. In schools in the fourth and fifth quintiles, this is the version of English that is taught as HL. Stated differently, HL is seen as superior. Furthermore, as Banda (2000, p. 58) argues, the historical factor of institutional inequality, specifically between the fourth and fifth quintile schools and compared to first to third quintile schools, results to an unequal quality of teaching

and language input is not promoting learning in Black schools. The difference between these two English curricula is that they divide students into first- and second-class citizens, with first class being the mother tongue and second class being the first additional language. This should easily explain why students attending English mother tongue schools are better off than students attending English first additional language schools (Ntombela, 2016). Thus, there is no linguistic or pedagogical reason to teach one group of students English Home Language and the other English First Additional Language. Such a distinction appears to be rooted in the historical fallacy that English is best taught by first language speakers (Canagarajah, 1999).

When it comes to interacting in different spaces the other English varieties are frowned upon. In the case of the current study, the PSTs are in a context where English is highly regarded. Schools in quintiles four and five still uphold the value of their identity as English schools (Carrim, 2013). Therefore, the curriculum to contend with is not at the same level as early on in their studies before tertiary education. Prinsloo (2012) revealed in his study in Cape Town classrooms that English is something different in different school environments, depending on the resources available and the intentions of the social outcome. The inferiority of English First Additional language to English Home language should therefore be understood in the same context. Indeed, problems of incompetence have been reported among learners of English First Additional language where Banda (2009, p. 59) explains that such incompetence does not lie much with the medium of instruction but with how such is taught in the classroom.

The PSTs in the study would have been taught English FAL. The content of the FAL curriculum is less complex compared to the HL used in the quintile four and five schools (Murray & van der Mescht, 1996). In the South African context, the HL curriculum provides a higher level of critical thinking and in-depth language and grammar. In assessing the vocabulary used and the length of the output, FAL learners are not presented with literature such as Shakespeare or poets such as William Blake (see Table 1). This was done for pedagogical reasons to accommodate second language speakers of English (Christie & McKinney, 2017). Unfortunately, such distinctions are not endorsed by some scholars. In explaining the different types of English that South African learners are exposed to, Prinsloo (2012) agrees with Blommaert (2010) who argues that English exists at different levels. The elite and their children have access to prestigious varieties of spoken and written language, while the mass of learners only have access to substandard varieties that are only locally valid. He concludes that “the world language, in other words, exists in at least two forms: a truly

globalised English that connects elites around the world, and a very local variety that offers very little Trans locality” (p. 64).

Martin-Jones (2007) consistently finds that children (and teachers) who already know prestige varieties of English from outside school have an advantage over poorer students who do not have this access. For these reasons, children migrate from township schools to suburban schools because parents seek better exposure to the elite English that allows their children upward social mobility. In light of the foregoing discussion, it can be concluded that the two curricula are incompatible with the additive language policy's goals, which are to provide students with the knowledge, skills, and values necessary for self-actualisation and meaningful participation in society as citizens of a free country, regardless of their socioeconomic background and identity.

Table 2: An extract from the 2017 English Matric question paper

Home Language	First additional Language
QUESTION 1 Write an essay of 400–450 words (2–2½ pages) on ONE of the following topics. Write down the NUMBER and TITLE/HEADING of your essay. 1.1 That day, I told myself that sticks in a bundle are unbreakable. [50] 1.2 #Hashtag [50] 1.3 'I was angry with my friend; I told my wrath, my wrath did end. I was angry with my foe; I told it not, my wrath did grow.' (William Blake) [50] 1.4 Tradition and transformation cannot reconcile unless transformation becomes the new tradition. [50] 1.5 The tapestry of my culture [50]	QUESTION 1 • Write an essay of between 250 and 300 words in length on ONE of the following Topics. • Write down the number and title of the essay you have chosen correctly, for example 1.1 No one knows ... • Spend approximately 80 minutes on this section. 1.1 No one knows ... [50] 1.2 'Alone we are smart. Together we are brilliant.' – Steven Anderson [50] 1.3 My music, my life [50] 1.4 The world in 2050 [50] 1.5 You are not a victim of circumstances; you are a product of your decisions. Do you agree? [50]

From: <https://www.education.gov.za/LinkClick.aspx?fileticket=NrYEDudGoTY%3D&tabid=1856&portalid=0&mid=7320>

Adding to the disparities in the FAL curriculum, the pass rate of FAL students is said to be very low. Webb et al. (2010) state that these learners have limited grammatical, textual, and

sociolinguistic skills. Grosser and Nel (2013) believe that the lack of skills also affects higher education, especially for learners from black township schools. Even policymakers believe that FAL students reach Grade 10 without particularly developed academic and cognitive skills for their additional language. Educators face the challenge of ensuring that by Grade 12 they have reached a higher level that can prepare them for tertiary education or the workspaces (DoE, 2012). There is an awareness that English is necessary for social advancement. However, the words in the document do not reflect the reality in the lecture hall when FAL learners reach the lecture halls. Learners are not a homogeneous mass, and the gap in English skills is reportedly still evident (Maddock & Maroun, 2018). Such limitations in language skills cannot be easily compensated for by the courses they take at university. Therefore, the researcher argues that the nature of socialisation in English teaching and the contrasting backgrounds of the PSTs, as well as the context of schools in quintiles four and five and in some cases the difference between the English discourse of mentor and mentee, draw attention to how mentoring takes place in such a context.

Therefore, what can be said from the above discussion is that good intentions at times do not bring about the intended results. The reality of the world today is that English has become dominant and, to a greater extent, the proficiency in the language has an impact on how people can be integrated into the workspaces. It is for this reason that even some countries which were once solely depending on their languages are now recruiting English teachers so that their nation can become proficient in English. Therefore, when the education system exposes its learners to different levels of English, it is not empowering its citizens equally. In fact, people are aware of the inequality, hence the movement from schools which offer FAL to the HL schools.

2.8 Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework introduces and gives a description of the theories that explain why the research problem under study occurs. In this study, there was a triangulation of the theories: a theory and a theoretical model were used as a lens to view the study. This is consistent with Imenda (2014) who holds the view that, in the social sciences, there is no single theory that one can meaningfully use in dealing with the problems or can fully explain the relationship between the variables. So, in this case, there is a triangulation of frameworks (Tracy, 2010), the social inclusion theory and Hart's 1992 Ladder of Participation. These frameworks complement each other and are both appropriate to use as a lens for the study.

2.8.1 Social inclusion theory

According to Collins (2003), social inclusion theory was developed by the European Community based on Lenoir's (1974) work on social exclusion of the poor in France. The literature has expanded the list of those who are excluded in society, viewing it as a multidimensional phenomenon. Exclusion is when individuals are excluded from formal citizenship rights, the labour market, being participants in civil society and exclusion from social spheres (Rawal, 2008). The core of the understanding of social inclusion, then, is that it involves participation in all of the above, as the theory focuses on how individuals achieve this participation. Therefore, the concept of social inclusion has recently been adapted to mean not only economic inclusion and access to material goods, but also other areas of well-being such as participation in social activities (Silver, 2015).

However, participation requires investment and action as a way of creating the inclusive condition, it does not just 'happen' instantly by removal of barriers (Freiler, 2003). Therefore, inclusion occurs when “members of the community, group or institution can participate fully in the activities of society regardless of their identity such as race, sexuality, age or religion” (Wenger, 2010, p. 10). Similarly, the World Bank (2013) adds that social inclusion means participating in society and contributing to decision-making in any social space in which one finds oneself. In other words, inclusion considers opinions and suggestions and influences the status quo.

I agree with the authors' definition, because such a level of participation corresponds to the desired participation in Hart's (1992) Ladder of Participation model, a participation that is meaningful and acknowledged. According to the authors, if true inclusion is to be achieved, the values of the merging groups must influence each other and share norms and values.

The above point speaks to the fact that belonging to a group is not synonymous with inclusion, as the level of participation is crucial. It can be concluded that effective mentorship is “embedded in transformation, in a flourishing democracy that includes individuals as full members of society and requires recognition and appreciation of the diversity reflected in the attitudes of its citizens and institutions” (Engelbrecht, 2006, p. 254). This would also mean that mentors relinquish the power to be the source of knowledge and instead are flexible and allow for mutual learning, with the mentor learning the new perspectives of current teaching methods from the PST and also the PST gaining teaching strategies from the mentor's experience. The researcher would add that such mutual learning should occur between mentor and mentee

across races, sociolinguistic identities, and academic backgrounds. Such reciprocity would be in line with the values of inclusion and gives a sense of the potential richness of diversity rather than seeing it as a deficiency.

It would then mean that the mentees are given space to teach, despite their backgrounds and identities. Mentors are expected to have no prejudice, to honour the subjugated knowledges and value different forms of diversity (Kluth, Straut & Biklen, 2003, cited in Göransson & Nilholm, 2014). Furthermore, sociolinguistic studies have shown that language use is also a possible cause of inclusion and exclusion (Paoletti, 2011). Hence, this study was aimed at exploring the lived mentorship experiences of English second language (ESL) PSTs in quintile four and five high schools in Johannesburg, particularly with regard to possible sociolinguistic inclusion or exclusion.

Social inclusion was chosen as the theoretical framework because of its characteristics. At the heart of social inclusion is contestation of affordance of enabling members of society to participate fully in social activities. Silver (1995) rightly states that the essence of social inclusion includes broadening social ties of respect, dignity and recognition, cohesion and collaboration in society and institutions. Social inclusion is a more deliberate process that includes and welcomes all people and seeks greater equality and tolerance between individuals of different backgrounds and identities (Paoletti, 2011). In turn, the epistemology, the philosophical study of knowledge of social inclusion focuses on conceptualising the nature, origins, and knowledge of aspects of how people interact in society. It gives understanding of the aspects such as the causes of inclusion and exclusion in social interactions. Furthermore, the theory is multidimensional and covers a variety of aspects in people's lives that need attention to inclusion. Recently the theory has not only been limited to the inclusion of the poor in the community, but also to areas such as formal citizenship rights, the labour market, participation in civil society and social arenas.

Therefore, the theoretical framework “serves as an epistemological guide” (Du Plessis, 2013, p. 5) and a tool to conceptualise the knowledge presented in the literature and later in the data by specifying the relationships between variables to predict and explain the phenomena of this study (Chinn & Kramer, 1999, cited in Imenda, 2014). Therefore, the researcher decided to use it as a lens to explore the experiences of English PSTs who find themselves in a historically English-dominated culture and an English-language discourse that confronts their background. When it comes to teaching, inclusion must have the capacity of empowerment to help the PSTs'

philosophies influence the way they teach in their immediate environment of the classroom in which they will be learning to teach (Arunkumah et al. 2018).

2.8.2 Limitations of Social Inclusion

I am aware that social inclusion is controversial, and it cannot be always taken for what it claims to be. In the contemporary world, exclusion has been found in some attempts to address exclusion. Social inclusion has been criticised for: integration, assimilation, and normalisation. According to Monga, et al., 1984, cited in Sayed et al., (2003) in society there is integration of the less dominant group into the dominant group. The less dominant culture is assimilated into the pre-existing and recognised dominant culture, nothing of the past is recognised in the zone of inclusion (Monga et al., 1984, cited in Sayed et al., 2003). Consequently, the values, language and knowledge possessed by the marginalised group are marginal because there is a lack of appreciation and recognition. This leads us to the other belief that there is normalisation in society (Wenger, 2010). Only those individuals whose practices are approved and whose experiences are respected by the community “will move to the central identity” (Wenger, 2010, p. 14) and participate fully with the legitimised contribution.

The social boundaries of the circles are determined by the notion of normality created by society, and members of society are either inside or outside. Thus, being inside the circle means that an individual has the privilege of participating meaningfully in society, but this cannot be guaranteed. Therefore, there is continuous and rigorous research in various fields to ensure that there is significant inclusion in the society. Hence, the researcher opted for a more progressive understanding of inclusion that guided the analysis and interpretation of the study. In addition, the participation model was used to extend the theorisation of the data.

2.8.3 Defending the theoretical framework choice

Another possible theoretical framework that could have been used this study was Critical Race Theory (Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995). This theory emphasises the ways in which race and racism are entrenched in social structures and institutions, including education (Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995). It would be useful in exploring how ESL PSTs' experiences of mentorship are shaped by their racial identities and the ways in which language use may be linked to power and privilege. However, it was not the intention to racialise the study as the focus was on sociolinguistic identity and not race. The study would not have represented the South African context well, as the level of language mastery in this context has more to do with

the exposure one has and not necessarily with race. There are people of different races who study English as HL and, in this case, they were also not part of the study.

2.8.4 Hart (1992)'s model of participation

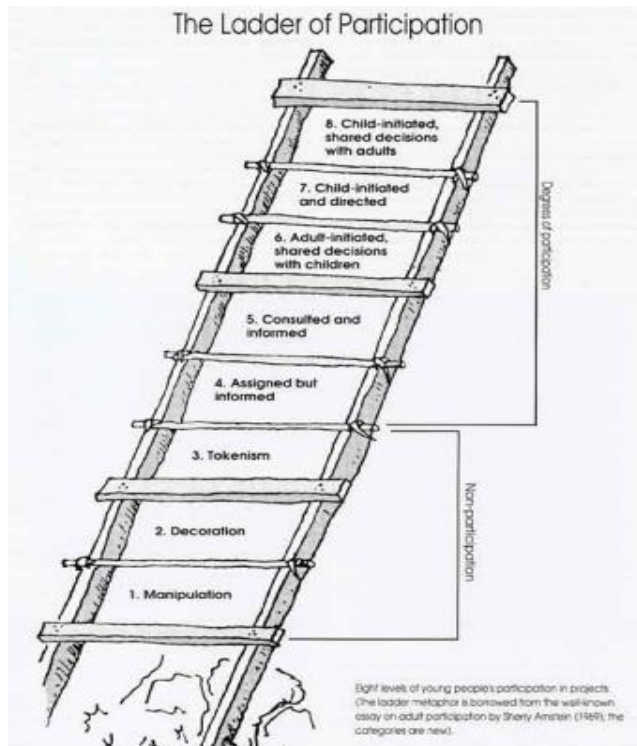


Figure 1: Hart's model of participation (Hart, 1992, p. 8)

The current study adopted Hart's (1992) participation model, which explains the relationship between young people and adults in line with participation as well as decision-making in everyday interactions. The ladder, a metaphor originally coined by Arnstein's (1969) Ladder of Citizenship Participation, represents participation in the democratic processes. The ladder contains eight rungs describing three general forms of citizen power in democratic decision-making: "non-participation (no power), tokenism (counterfeit power) and citizen power (actual power)" (Hart, 1992, pp. 9-14). Arnstein (1969) strongly argues that genuine citizen participation should be characterised by an authentic distribution of power in political decision-making. This means that the have-nots of the society of the time must be able to "bring about significant social reforms" (Arnstein, 1969, p. 3). Similarly, Hart (1992) explains the participation of children typologies in eight rungs. Each rung of the ladder represents a different level of participation for young people rather than for adults. This study is about pre-service English teachers in terms of the participation offered to them by mentors during school-based

mentoring. There are power relations that determine the comparison between the two. The description of the ladder is given below.

Table 3: The eight rungs of Hart's Ladder of Children's Participation
(Hart,1992, p. 9-14)

Rung	Explanation
Non- Participatory	
1. Manipulation	Participation as <i>manipulation</i> occurs when children and youth do not understand the issues motivating a participatory process or their role in that process.
2. Decoration	Participation as <i>decoration</i> occurs when children and youth are put on public display during an event, performance, or other activity organised for a specific purpose, but they do not understand the meaning or intent of their involvement.
Tokenism	
3. Informed	There is a one-way flow of information—from adults to the youth—with no channel provided for feedback and no power for negotiation...meetings can also be turned into vehicles for one-way communication by the simple device of providing superficial information. In informing situations, the youth are intimidated by futility, legalistic jargon, and prestige of the official to accept the information provided as fact or endorse the proposals put forward by those in power.
4. Informed and assigned	Participation that is <i>assigned but informed</i> occurs when the children and youth (1) understand the intentions of the project, (2) know who made the decisions concerning their involvement and why, (3) have meaningful (rather than 'decorative') role, and (4) volunteer for the project after the project was made clear to them.
5. Consulted and informed	Participation that constitutes <i>consulted and informed</i> occurs when children act as consultants for adults in a manner which has great integrity. The project is designed and run by adults, but children understand the process and their opinions are treated seriously.

Participation and empowerment

6. Adult initiated. Shared decisions with the young people. Participation that constitutes *adult-initiated, shared decisions with children* occurs when adults initiate participatory projects, but they share decision-making authority or management with children.
7. Young people initiated and directed. Participation that is *child-initiated and directed* occurs when children and youth conceptualise and carry out complex projects by working cooperatively in small or large groups. While adults may observe and assist the children, they do not interfere with the process or play a directive or managerial role.
8. Young people initiated. Shared decisions with the adults. Participation that constitutes *child-initiated, shared decisions with adults* occurs when children—though primarily teenage youth in this case—share decision-making authority, management, or power with adult partners and allies.

2.8.4.1 Criticism of the model

One of the most common criticisms is that the ladder is too linear, in the real-life situation's participation does not always occur in an orderly fashion from lower levels to higher levels (Cooper, 2009; Treseder, 1997). In fact, forms of participation found at lower levels of the participation ladder are not necessarily inferior to those found at higher levels; they may even be appropriate in certain situations. In addition, Corney, Cooper, Shier and Williamson (2022) criticise the model because it tends to ignore power differences within groups of young people and takes them as a homogeneous group of young people. The same could be true for PSTs, some of whom may need more of the mentor's guidance because PSTs come from diverse backgrounds. A variety of mentoring approaches can be used, which can have aspects of tokenism. All of these can lead to individuals reaching their full potential, which is the intended goal of TP and mentorship.

However, Hart (2008) has written about these criticisms and has acknowledged that this may mislead the reader into thinking that participation can only be successful if it moves gradually upwards. This, he says, was never his intention. He continued to counter the critics and said that the focus should not be on the shape of the ladder with its rungs, but on the process that should lead to full participation. Rather, Hart aims to ensure that children's potential as citizens is fully recognised and that they participate at the highest possible level. The researcher agrees with that because the PST should move from legitimate peripheral participation to full participation (Wenger, 1998). It can be concluded that if mentorship is to eventually achieve its goal, authentic participation should take place and PSTs should be empowered so that they

are prepared for the profession. Therefore, the model was still appropriate for understanding the level of involvement of the PSTs during mentorship.

2.8.5 What social inclusion means in mentorship

The sociocultural perspective of learning emphasises the social nature of learning and the value of the learning community to which participants belong (Lave & Wenger, 1991). In the case of mentorship, the mentor is the custodian of the community to which the PST must belong. Therefore, the mentor must welcome the PST into the community by legitimising his or her authenticity and allowing full participation (Wenger, 1998). In other words, the mentor brings the PST from the periphery to the central part of the community. This ensures that learning, according to Lave and Wenger (1991), occurs through a change in participation rather than through the acquisition or transfer of knowledge. It then promotes the development of the ongoing event (teaching), and the development ensures that the participant is ready for any other similar event. In this form of participation, new roles and identities are acquired that transform participation in the classroom. This means that how the mentor designs opportunities for the PST to participate is important.

2.8.6 Advantages of using the two theoretical frames

Social inclusion theory explains aspects of exclusionary tendencies in society and advocates for genuine inclusion. Hart's (1992) model complements social inclusion theory because the model requires a clearer delineation of participation and a set of concepts that distinguish authentic, maximal, and transformative inclusion from mere integration. Secondly, both theories advocate for transformative and progressive inclusion by seeking participation that empowers individuals as they are recognised and valued in decision-making in society. This means that both theories aim at rethinking options for (youth) participation, a less prescriptive and more flexible approach to interactions between people where power dynamics prevail. In addition, the frameworks will help to understand how mentor educators enabled PSTs to participate during their TP. The outcome will be to highlight what needs to be done to ensure that the PSTs move from non-participation to full participation when needed.

It is important to note that there are limitations in the two frameworks in their advocacy for young people's participation in society. The need for inclusion is not specified, leaving the possibility of generalisation. For example, the frameworks do not consider that young people are very different and therefore have different needs for inclusion. Even in the study, second

language learners of English differ by gender and ethnicity, so full participation and empowerment may mean different things to different genders, races, and tribes. However, despite these limitations, the framework concepts are still the most appropriate for this study.

2.9 Conclusion

The literature reviewed in Chapter Two highlighted the importance and weaknesses of the conceptualisations and descriptions of the core concepts (classroom practice, mentoring, sociolinguistic identity, inclusion, and exclusion). The discussion focused on each concept and then brought to light where they are interconnected. For example, there was evidence that there are some mentoring models that promote inclusion. This means that PSTs are given full participation and recognition. Others, however, are exclusionary and the mentee must adopt the teaching strategies already in place. The literature has also shown that PSTs have had different experiences of mentoring that have had both negative and positive effects on their professional development, although it is true that there are some complexities around mentorship of the PSTs. The researcher also undertook an analysis of sociolinguistics in terms of how it promotes or hinders integration into society. Finally, a theoretical framework has been presented including its limitations and strengths. The next chapter of this study deals with the research design and methodology and how they were applied in this study.

Chapter Three: Research and Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter contains the research design and method of the study, as well as the study sample with a rationale for the selection of the particular sample. The data collection instruments are outlined, with a rationale for why they were appropriate for the study, and data analysis, validity and reliability are indicated. The chapter also addresses the ethical aspect of data collection and the ethical processes at the research site.

3.2 Epistemological Paradigm: Interpretivism

A paradigm is a framework for organising ideas and observations (Babbie, 2020) and serves as a lens through which a researcher views the world (Du Plooy-Cillers, Davis & Bezuidenhout, 2014). Interpretivism was chosen in this study firstly because of its ontological position, relativism. Relativism is the view that reality is “socially constructed, subjective and differs from person to person” (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 110). In other words, each person constructs his or her reality when the brain engages with the world in specific contexts (Braun & Clarke, 2013). Hence the exploring of ESL lived experiences of mentorship as they teach English. Secondly, interpretivism was chosen because of its axiology. The axiology of the interpretivist is to understand the beliefs and values that people have about a specific phenomenon they experienced (Maree, 2012). I, therefore, in this study the researcher gathered varied and multiple meanings to the phenomenon of mentorship because of the complexity and multiplicity of the participants’ cultural variations, different languages, cultural beliefs, and practices (Sefotho, 2015).

However, the subjectivity of interpretivism raises questions about the reliability of data, as individuals view social activity through a value-laden lens (Braun & Clarke, 2013). In this study, the participants are living in a historical era of democracy and sociolinguistic identities still carry symbolic prestige, as evidenced by protests against the suppression of languages other than English (Christie & McKinney, 2017). Nevertheless, the use of a theoretical framework can provide an objective perspective on social interactions (Braun & Clarke, 2013). Thus, the study relied on the subjective experiences and interpretations of the participants, while also utilizing theoretical frameworks to explain relationships in social interactions.

3.3 Methodological Paradigm: Qualitative approach

The study utilised a qualitative, interpretive method. Firstly, due to its naturalistic and non-numerical data characteristics, as well as its support for a contextualised, comprehensive description of phenomena (Nassaji, 2020). Secondly, because of the philosophy underlying the use of epistemological and methodological notions of subjectivity (Chilisa & Preece, 2005). Qualitative research is flexible, exploratory, and inductive (Liamputtong, 2013), which again supports a contextualised, comprehensive description of phenomena (Creswell & Creswell, 2017; McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). This approach allowed me to use a descriptive case study to explore school-based mentorship phenomenologically. However, using only a qualitative design limits generalisation of findings, but the study addressed this by drawing on PSTs' diverse experiences in different school contexts (quintiles 4-5) (Chilisa & Preece, 2005; Creswell & Creswell, 2017; Liamputtong, 2013; McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Yin, 2014).

3.4 Research Design: Descriptive Case Design

This study uses a descriptive case study design to closely explore the experiences of ESL PSTs during their (TP) in high schools of varying quintile levels. The choice of a case study design is rooted in the interpretive paradigm, which places a strong emphasis on understanding complex phenomena in their natural context and is consistent with the principles of qualitative research (Nieuwenhuis, 2016). The interpretive paradigm recognises the importance of including multiple perspectives and different viewpoints of participants in the process of understanding the intricacies of phenomena (Denzin & Lincoln, 2017). The case study design lends itself particularly well to an in-depth exploration that allows the researcher to gather rich, contextualised information. The study focuses on PSTs in their third to final year of study, all of whom are completing their Bachelor of Education (BEd) at a university in Johannesburg. These participants represent a specific educational context, and the case study approach was carefully chosen to provide a holistic understanding of their experiences. This approach considers various contextual factors, the nuances associated with their quintile categorisation and the sociolinguistic identity of the PSTs themselves. Data collection methods include interviews, observations, and document analysis to ensure that the information gathered is both robust and contextually grounded. The research findings have been rigorously analysed using qualitative data analysis techniques, which will enable the identification of meaningful themes, patterns and insights relating to the experiences of ESL PSTs during their TP.

3.5 Research Site

The study was conducted with PSTs in the School of Education at a university in Johannesburg, who were pursuing a Bachelor of Education degree. These teachers were being trained to teach foundation phase, senior primary and Further Education and Training (FET) subjects. During their training, PSTs chose two teaching subjects, including English, which could be chosen regardless of their sociolinguistic background. The study explored the experiences of pre-service English teachers who were second-language speakers of English, during their six-week TP under the guidance of qualified mentors in different school contexts. The study was conducted while the participants were back to the university schedule, even though some were not physically on campus after their TP.

3.6 Sampling

Purposive selection was used in this study to obtain data from experts who met specific criteria related to the research question (Teddlie & Yu, 2007). Qualitative researchers seek to gain insight and select a sample from which the most can be learned, thus a purposive sample was used for this study (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). After obtaining approval and consent from the University Ethics Committee, participants were invited to take part based on clearly defined criteria, including previous experience in quintile four and five schools (as outlined in the letter of invitation) to ensure informed and analytical reflections on their experiences. The target group were 3rd year and 4th year PSTs majoring in English or having English as a sub major.

Initially, 30 PSTs were expected to participate in the study, but only 22 agreed. However, this number was deemed sufficient as the qualitative nature of the data would have been compromised with a larger sample size. The questionnaire and consent form were sent to the participants via WhatsApp or email, based on their preference. All 22 participants confirmed their availability and willingness to participate in the interviews. Out of these, 10 participants who had experienced exclusion during the mentorship process were selected for interviews.

However, when the researcher arrived for the interviews after evaluating the questionnaires, only four were available for interviews, so the researcher was unable to reach all participants who had indicated exclusion in the questionnaire. Although this was the case, the four participants who came forward provided me with ample information and insight into what happened. The researcher could have tried to find more data, but after interviewing four participants the researcher felt had reached data saturation, there was nothing new apparent, as

the researcher moved from one participant to the other. Again, there was what Sandelowski (2008) calls 'informational redundancy' (p. 875). Therefore, the researcher felt that the data from four of the intended 10 participants could extrapolate findings about the other six participants who were also affected by exclusion and could not participate in the interviews. This means that the results are empirically generalizable to some extent (Fusch & Ness, 2015).

Again, these were some of the limitations of the study. It is important to note that the objectives of this study were not significantly compromised, even if the desired sample size was not achieved, as this was a qualitative study that was more interested in perspectives and in-depth engagement with integration-related concerns than quantitative trends. Malterud, Siersma and Guassora (2016) claim that "the sampling strategy for qualitative research has less to do with the size of the sample and more to do with the relevance of the sample" (p. 1750). If the format of the interview allows for detailed responses from interviewees that provide thorough feedback that sheds light on their mentoring experiences, this information is considered relevant.

The researcher also had to ensure that the selected participants would have access to virtual interviews due to pandemic restrictions, although at the time of the interviews the restrictions had been lifted and the researcher continued the online interviews with the two participants who were still off campus, they still felt unsafe to be on campus. The other participant preferred to write the answers on WhatsApp rather than engage in a verbal dialogue. The researcher then managed to have a face-to-face conversation with one participant who was back on campus staying in the university residence. These different forms of data collection for the interview questions gave me an insight into the possible variety of data collection options for interviews and the limitations of interviews. For example, the participant who opted for a written interview did not feel comfortable engaging in English, it was easier to chat via WhatsApp. This in turn allowed me to elicit responses and make some clarifications. The researcher was solely responsible for the cost of data collection for those the researcher interviewed online.

3.7 Data Collection Instruments

The data in this study were collected through questionnaires and interviews. It is important to note that the use of questionnaires and interviews in this study was for triangulation and not as a mixed method. The researcher merged the data from the two methods to obtain a comprehensive analysis of the research problem.

3.7.1 Questionnaires

Open-ended questionnaires are an essential component of qualitative research as they allow for the collection of rich and nuanced data. The questionnaire was formulated based on the research questions. For each research question, there were at least three questions to answer. The researcher also worked closely with her supervisors in this process as the researcher followed the steps outlined by McMillan and Schumacher (2010), namely: reviewing the existing literature to establish the rationale; establishing the objectives; writing the items; re-evaluating the items; compiling the general format; and finally revising the questionnaire before its final administration. The questionnaire was chosen because it is beneficial when it is impractical or difficult to conduct individual interviews, as emphasised by Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2017). In this study, the open-ended questionnaires were sent by email. This method was chosen due to the prevailing circumstances of the COVID-19 pandemic, which severely limited physical interactions and necessitated remote data collection methods. The use of email questionnaires offered several advantages. In particular, it allowed for a personalised and direct approach to obtaining responses from participants. This personalisation often increases respondents' willingness to participate in the survey, which can lead to higher response rates (Adhabhi & Anozie, 2017). In addition, the email-based approach facilitated follow-up contact with participants, which was not possible with alternative platforms such as Google Forms, which offer anonymity but do not have an interactive component.

As Creswell (2013) points out, a qualitative questionnaire approach provides a unique opportunity to capture participants' attitudes, behaviours, beliefs and practises, providing valuable insight into their perspectives. The open-ended question format provides participants with the necessary time and space to formulate their responses. In this study, participants were given a three-week window to complete the questionnaires, which contributed to a commendable completion rate for all questions. Another advantage of this method is that participants were under minimal pressure to meet the researcher's expectations as there was no face-to-face contact during data collection.

However, it is important to realise that there are limitations to using open-ended questionnaires. One potential issue is the influence of social desirability, where respondents may give answers that they feel are socially acceptable, even if these answers do not fully align with their true beliefs or experiences (Patten, 2017). In addition, participants may not always be familiar with the specialised terminology and jargon used in the study, which may result in responses that

do not fully align with the nuances of the research field. To mitigate this risk, a pilot study was conducted to ensure that the terminology used was understandable to participants and interpreted correctly.

In some cases, respondents may not be as in-depth or thoughtful in their answers due to the nature of open-ended questions. Despite these limitations, open-ended questionnaires remain a valuable tool in qualitative research. They allow researchers to gain in-depth insights and perspectives from participants, especially in situations where face-to-face interviews are not possible or practical.

3.7.2 Semi-structured interviews

In this study, a methodological approach based on phenomenological interviews with open-ended questions was thoughtfully selected to explore the intricate fabric of participants' lived experiences, as these interviews allow for a deep dive into the emotional and experiential aspects of the central phenomenon (Vagle, 2010). The decision to use semi-structured interview questions stemmed from their inherent flexibility, allowing for adaptability and the possibility of in-depth exploration, which is crucial when seeking a comprehensive understanding of the research topic (Yin, 2014). The semi-structured interviews proved invaluable in collecting data that could not be easily captured using quantitative methods. They offered a unique insight into participants' non-verbal expressions, such as body language, gestures, and facial expressions, which are crucial in interpreting participants' feelings about their experiences of school-based mentoring. This approach was consistent with the tradition of qualitative research and allowed for the collection of rich, descriptive data that delved into the depth and complexity of participants' experiences (Creswell, 2013; Nieuwenhuis, 2016). In addition, the open-ended nature of the questions fostered a favourable environment for participants to express themselves freely and elaborate on their responses, resulting in a more nuanced and holistic data set.

To ensure optimal participant engagement and preparation for the interviews, a proactive approach was taken. Three days before the scheduled interviews, each participant received a reminder phone call. This served a dual purpose by not only gently reminding participants of the upcoming interview, but also giving them the opportunity to confirm their willingness to participate and thus ensure their voluntary participation. The semi-structured interviews were originally scheduled to last 45 minutes each, with the actual duration of course depending on the individual responses and commitment of the participants. The flexibility of the interview

approach allowed for a dynamic exploration of participants' experiences that adapted to their pace and preferences.

However, it is important to recognise that while interviews provide valuable insights, are not immune to limitations. A major concern is the potential for subjectivity and bias in the data collection process, which requires careful consideration and mitigation strategies (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). Participants may occasionally withhold information, whether out of fear or for other reasons, which could potentially impact the completeness and accuracy of the data collected. In addition, there were particular challenges and concerns associated with conducting Microsoft Teams interviews, especially in relation to potential network disruptions. To address this, a contingency plan was put in place to ensure that interviews could be rescheduled, if necessary, even if this meant conducting them on a different day. Fortunately, these concerns were largely alleviated as the network remained stable during the interviews and the recordings could be carried out without any significant interruptions.

3.7.3 Rationale for the use of two data instruments

The decision to conduct interviews after the qualitative questionnaire was not based on the fact that they are clearly superior to questionnaires when it comes to obtaining more in-depth information. As a researcher, conducting a semi-structured face-to-face interview allowed me to build rapport with respondents, get them to explore their feelings, and spend time thinking about issues related to the mentoring experiences that they may not have seriously considered before. As mentioned earlier, answering the questionnaire can sometimes be impersonal for participants, as they may simply scribble answers without thinking deeply about their responses. Therefore, the subsequent interview was a way to validate the data collected through the questionnaire.

3.8 Data Analysis

The data collected were analysed using Braun and Clarke's (2013) inductive thematic analysis method to identify recurring themes and patterns that emerged from the data (Cohen et al., 2017). The questionnaire was answered in Microsoft Word, and some were handwritten. The researcher had to type up the handwritten responses to make them easier to code. After receiving all the answers of the questionnaire electronically, the researcher created a table combining all the answers to each question in order to find and code similar answers (see Table 4). During the interviews, the researcher used Teams to record and transcribe the data from the

interviews for the three interviewees; the researcher even created a meeting on Teams for the during face-to-face interview to allow recording and transcribing. We were in the same space whilst the laptop was recording on the Microsoft Teams platform. Afterwards, the researcher downloaded the transcripts and cleaned them up by correcting spelling mistakes. The fourth participant preferred a WhatsApp chat as she did not feel comfortable expressing herself verbally. In the same way, the researcher compiled the answers to each question. Then the coding and data analysis began. The themes were identified in six phases.

In phase 1, the researcher familiarised herself with the data by reading the transcripts and listening to the audio files of the interviews. After listening to the audio files, the Microsoft Teams transcripts, which were automatically generated during the interview, were corrected. This was done to improve the accuracy of the data, as sometimes incorrect words were captured due to our pronunciation (Maree, 2012). The researcher then applied the iterative process (Braun & Clarke, 2013) to understand what the data from both the interviews and the questionnaires were about (Maguire & Delahunt, 2017) and to get an overall picture from both sets of data (White & Marsh, 2006). The researcher read the data multiple times and even started on a different page each time to increase the stability and reliability of the researcher's findings. The researcher looked at the information as objectively as possible and constantly considered how the researcher's own personal bias might influence her interpretation. In Phase 2, the researcher conducted "heuristic exploratory coding" to find the underlying meanings of the statements (Saldana, 2020, p. 9). First, the researcher coded the questionnaires, then the interviews. The researcher carefully read the answers to the questionnaires line by line, labelling data with similar meanings accordingly (Flick, 2014). The researcher did the same with the transcriptions. The researcher mainly focused on the data that were related to the research questions, but also identified the outliers, i.e., information that did not directly answer the research questions. In phase 3, the researcher looked for themes. Themes are "patterns in the data set that are important for describing the phenomenon and are related to the research question" (Braun & Clarke, 2013, p. 10). In the same vein, Maxwell (2017) argues that excellent data analysis considers the theoretical framework, the research questions, as well as the objectives of the research and the methods. In this study, the themes were the final detailed descriptions of the categories that pointed to a particular research question. For example, in the analysis below (Table 3) on the question of sociolinguistic inclusion and exclusion, the data showed that there was both inclusion and exclusion. For example, for the inclusion question,

the researcher looked for what the researcher would call inclusion (e.g., participation, recognition) and what the researcher would call exclusion (e.g., prejudice, undermining).

In Phase 4, the researcher reviewed the themes by checking the connections between the themes and determining whether they were broad or whether the researcher should group some sub-themes together. In other words, the codes were summarised according to the emerging themes and findings and merged, considering the research objectives (Punch & Ounce, 2014). Through axial coding, the researcher then defined and named the themes "by identifying what each theme was about at its core" (Braun & Clarke, 2013, p. 92). In the final stage, the researcher wrote up the results of the analysis from the merged data as described above. The analysis and conclusions from the data were underpinned by the literature and theoretical frameworks examined.

The inductive analysis described above allowed for the merging of themes from the data, which fits well with social inclusion, which advocates for the recognition and appreciation of individuals, so that their experiences were not overshadowed by the coding of the data by imposing the descriptors of inclusion and exclusion that were already present. According to Scott and Morrison (2006), there are two types of codes: a priori codes and empirical codes. The former refers to the set expectations that should emerge from the data, while the latter refers to the common data points that emerge during the research process. Therefore, the researcher used empirical codes in this study.

Table 4: The coding strategies for the study

Research question	Representative Phrases from Participants	Open Coding	Axial Coding
How have ESL PSTs' experiences of mentorship made them feel socio-linguistically included and/or excluded during Teaching Practice?	"I felt included as my supervising teachers fully involved me in their work and in certain instances sought my advice and ideas " (Participant 5)	Feeling of inclusion and meaningful participation	<i>Afforded opportunities to participate</i>
	"I can say I was included . The supervising teacher equipped me to be an English teacher and I became confident " (Participant 17)	Feeling of inclusion and empowerment	
	"I felt included . As my English supervising teacher would include and consult with me during the selection of teaching and learning materials for respective days . Even when I was preparing my lesson plans, the teacher would assist me where I needed help . Overall, it was smooth-sailing and a meaningful learning experience" (Participant 13).	Feeling of inclusion and recognition as a colleague Guidance and Support	<i>Received pedagogical support</i>
	"I felt excluded during my first year because it was the first time being in an environment where I had to speak English all day non-stop I had difficulty with pronouncing words the way my mentor expected me to . This made me feel inferior as a teacher and it almost made me to switch courses because I felt like South African society will forever undermine a black man, even school children " (Participant 15).	Sociolinguistic identity not matching Feelings of inferiority due to exclusion and undermining Feelings of wanting to give up	<i>Language-related challenges: Prejudice and undermining</i>

3.9 Trustworthiness

The reality of the phenomenological approach to study is that there is a heavy reliance on subjective and perceptual data. Therefore, it is of utmost importance that the results of the study are trustworthy. Therefore, Connelly (2016) says, "study trustworthiness or rigour refers to the degree of confidence in the data, interpretation and methods used to ensure the quality of a study" (p. 435). The components of trustworthiness include credibility, reliability, confirmability, and transferability (Connelly, 2016).

3.9.2 Triangulation

In research triangulation has been defined as using more than one method to collect data or more than one theory to corroborate a research study (Creswell, 2013; Tracy, 2010). In this study, to achieve triangulation the researcher used two research instruments, semi-structured interviews and open- ended questionnaire. Furthermore, the use of the social inclusion theory and Hart (1992)'s model allowed me to critically consider the rigor of the data collected. Hence the interpretation was not only interpreted through one theory.

3.9.3 Confirmability

In this study, confirmability means the extent to which the findings are the product of the research focus and not the researcher's bias (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, cited in Siegle, 1985). In order to achieve confirmability, the researcher recorded all interview results as well as the notes. Again, there was peer review after the preliminary results (Merriam, 2009). The data were seen by her supervisors, so any conclusions the researcher drew from the data collection were discussed between me and the supervisors who should be aware of what happened in the research. After the discussion, the discrepancies were corrected. The researcher also conducted 'member checking' by sharing the researcher's preliminary interpretations with the participants so that they could confirm the researcher's interpretation (Creswell, 2013, p. 252). In this way, the researcher's findings and conclusions were confirmed as correct by the experts and the participants. This increased the validity and reliability of the research.

3.9.4 Audio recordings

The answers were recorded during the interview with the interviewee's consent (Bell, 2010). The purpose of the recording was to have a backup as the researcher could not capture all the details when writing down the responses (Bell, 2010). Another reason for recording is so that the researcher could replay the recordings several times and capture the exact data that was

transcribed verbatim. This helped in getting the accurate and precise information from the participants (Bell, 2010). This increased the reliability and credibility of the data. In addition, when transcribing, the researcher not only wrote down the verbal responses, but also noted the gestures, tone of voice, and facial expressions (Bell, 2010). This observation of expression is the advantage of interviews compared to questionnaires.

3.9.5 Verbatim transcription

One of the ways to ensure the validity and trustworthiness of the research results was to use verbatim transcripts. By reproducing the exact words of the participants, the researcher gives readers the opportunity to judge the credibility of interpretations and conclusions based on the raw data (Wellard & McKenna, 2001). In addition, verbatim transcripts are crucial for qualitative analysis as they allow researchers to recognise patterns, themes, and emerging concepts in participants' own words without paraphrasing them. The danger of paraphrasing is that the researcher only captures what they want to know, leaving out the data that could be useful and provide insights. The verbatim transcripts were a valuable resource for reflexivity. The researcher was able to reflect on her own biases, assumptions, and interpretations by looking again at the participants' original words, which contributed to a self-conscious and reflexive research process (Wengraf, 2001). Finally, verbatim transcription enhanced the methodological rigour of the current research and increased its validity.

3.9.6 Transferability (applicability)

According to Polit and Beck (2014, cited in Connelly, 2016), transferability is the extent to which findings are useful to individuals in other settings. Unlike generalisation and objectivity in quantitative research, in qualitative research it is the readers who determine how applicable the findings are to their situation. Transferability in this qualitative research was ensured through thick description, i.e., a rich, detailed description of the context, the place and the people studied, as well as transparency in terms of analysis and trustworthiness (Polit & Beck 2014, cited in Connelly, 2016, p. 436). Therefore, other universities will be able to identify with the situation of the university under study in the research.

3.9.7 Dependability (consistency)

The reliability of this qualitative data was tested by asking similar questions in different parts of the research instruments to check the extent to which respondents were consistent in their answers. In addition, reliability was ensured by using the same wording in the questions

addressed to all participants (Hambleton, 2012). Furthermore, the reliability of this study was ensured through error-free measurements. To avoid any discrepancy, the researcher ensured that the interview and questionnaire questions were clear (Hambleton, 2012). To ensure that there were no errors in the questionnaire and that the questions were clear, the researcher conducted a pilot study.

3.10 Pilot Study

I pilot tested the questionnaire with three PSTs who agreed to participate in the study via email. These participants were not included in the final sample (Yin, 2014). These three participants were third-year BEd students who were ESL PSTs of English and had participated in TP in quintile four and five schools. The purpose of the pilot study was to evaluate the questions the researcher had for the questionnaire, the clarity of the questions and how well they related to the research.

The pilot study was very helpful as it was found that the PSTs were not familiar with the term mentor educator or mentoring. The researcher therefore amended the questionnaire to include the word supervising teacher in brackets and supervision where it was applicable (see Table 4 below). The modification of the questions is in line with Leedy and Ormrod (2014, p. 205) who point out that "researchers conduct a test run with redesigned questions to ensure that the questions clearly and effectively solicit the desired information."

Also, in the study, the researcher submitted the interview questions to the supervisors so that they could help me to formulate the questions clearly for the participants. Also, each time a participant was interviewed, the researcher checked with the participants to see if they were willing to participate to ensure that there was no barrier to full participation. It is also important to point out that, unlike the questionnaire, the interview questions were not piloted. The decision not to pilot the open-ended interview questions was influenced by the particular circumstances of the participants' ESL use. Pilot testing is traditionally conducted to refine and validate the questions and to ensure clarity and appropriateness (Yin, 2014). The researcher knew that there is opportunity to guide the participants through the interview process and ensure that the questions were understood to meet the research objectives. Their involvement included pre-interview briefings, clarifications on ambiguous wording and post-interview debriefings to confirm alignment with the research objectives. This proactive role aimed to minimise misinterpretation and increase the reliability of the data collected. In this case, the decision was made in light of the potential challenges associated with piloting open-ended

questions. Sometimes the testing of interview questions unintentionally introduces bias or influences participants' responses. Therefore, for ethical reasons, the researcher felt it was essential to capture authentic and unmediated findings without the influence of a preliminary testing phase and also during explanation of the new words was the researcher did not give explanations leading to answers or giving examples (Ormrod, 2014).

Table 5: Pilot study amendments for questionnaire

Initial question and answers	Amended questions and answers
1. Tell me what your understanding of school-based mentorship is. I think its extra academic support offered at schools to kids like your extra classes, after school and weekends.	1. Tell me what is your understanding of school-based mentorship (supervision). School based mentorship is for guiding student teachers by mentors (supervising teachers) to gain experience of being a teacher by allowing them to use strategies which they are taught in the university.
2. What do you think is the purpose of mentorship? I think it's to give guidance to learners that need it. Whether it is academic, social, emotional, or even family and career wise. It's having someone that knows better help the mentee by opening channels and introduce them to places where they can get help.	2. What do you think is the purpose of mentorship (supervision)? The purpose is to train student teachers.
3. What would you consider as an effective school- based mentoring programme during Teaching practice? I think having to be allocated to a few learners that struggle with the subject because of social or academic struggles that the teacher cannot necessarily give full attention to because they have a full class. Six weeks might not be enough to make a difference, but it is enough to at least form a foundation of solutions for that learner to overcome. Seeing the group of learners or learners three to four times a week for two to three hours to assist where they need assistance.	3. What would you consider as an effective school- based mentoring programme during Teaching practice? An effective school-based mentoring programme is when the mentor educator observes the student teacher when teaching and provide feedback afterwards, this allows the student teacher to rectify her mistakes using feedback from the mentor.

In summary, this study, the researcher used a number of methods to ensure trustworthiness. First, the researcher used standard procedures for qualitative research, including a qualitative questionnaire and open-ended interviews. Second, the researcher utilised triangulation, which is the use of multiple methods to collect data or multiple theories to support the research findings. In this case, the researcher used two research instruments (semi-structured interviews and open-ended questionnaires) and two theories (social integration theory and Hart's 1992

model). Finally, the researcher conducted a peer review after the preliminary results. The researcher handed over the work to the supervisors. This gave them the opportunity to review the study and give feedback, which helped to improve the quality of the research. The researcher has been to the schools for a teaching placement and has had the experience of being excluded. The researcher interacts with her fellow students at the university who share some challenges as ESL PSTs. Therefore, as a novice in qualitative research, the researcher strives to be unbiased and impartial. The researcher was guided by the process of inductive empirical coding, which allows the themes to emerge and the participants' reflective mentoring experiences during the teaching practicum to be visible in the presentation, analysis, and conclusions.

3.11 Ethical Considerations

Conducting research requires researchers to adhere to certain standards of conduct (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). This is referred to as ethics: "method, procedure or perspective for deciding how to act and for analysing complex problems and issues" throughout the research (Cohen et al., 2017, p. 56). Consideration must be given to the standards required for participants or access to data. Therefore, the researcher sought ethical clearance from the University of the Witwatersrand ethics number H20/11/47 (refer to Appendix F) and informed consent from the Dean of the Faculty of Humanities and the Head of the School of Education as these are the authorities of the university and I was supposed to be engaged with the students under their care. In addition, the ethical aspects explained by Patton (2002) were considered in conducting this study. These included explaining the aspects of voluntary participation, confidentiality, anonymity, obtaining and securing informed consent from participants, trust, and declaration of no harm to participants, and acknowledgement of potential risks.

3.11.1 Voluntary participation

Voluntary participation means that there is no coercion, duress, or requirement to participate (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). In this study, participants were informed that they were free to refuse to participate and that they could withdraw from participation at any time if they did not feel comfortable with some of the questions, without any negative consequences (Bell, 2010).

3.11.2 Confidentiality

In research, confidentiality refers to the promise to participants that their work will not be identified or presented in an identified form (Bell, 2010). This means that the identification of the participants will be hidden from those who study or read the research findings and they will not be able to infer the identity of the respondent from the transcribed or questionnaire responses. This means that information such as their specific characteristics or particular incidents or names of mentors they have dealt with or other information that could allow identification was avoided (Cohen et al., 2017). For security reasons, the data collected, during data collection and analysis will be kept on a secure laptop with a password known only to the researcher.

3.11.3 Anonymity

According to Cohen et al. (2017), throughout the data collection process there should be anonymity: when a researcher will not be able to identify the participant. This level of anonymity was partly ensured because of the nature of the research. The researcher knew the names of the participants, but the researcher does not know them in person. Thus there would still be anonymity. When saving the recordings from the interviews, the researcher saved those using numbers, and interview transcripts, the questionnaire and the consent forms were saved separately. Again, the anonymous interviews were held discretely and privately, no conference calls or group platforms were held and, as such, complete anonymity from the outsider was assured. Therefore, anonymity in this study was for protection from external readers. No other information was recorded that could identify the participants. The researcher promised to maintain anonymity and confidentiality (Bell, 2010).

3.11.4 Informed consent

According to Patton (2002), consent is essential when conducting research. Consent requires that participants receive a detailed explanation about the research. The PSTs signed the consent form which stated that they could stop participating in the study at any time and that there would be no consequences for such a decision. Again, protection of the rights of the intended participants was ensured through a written informed consent form (Patton, 2002) obtained from each study participant.

3.11.5 Risks

With any research there are potential risks, which can vary depending on the intensity of the topic being studied (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). In this study there was minimal risk. Participants might be inconvenienced if they are asked for an interview after the lecture period. To avoid this, the researcher did not waste time with unnecessary questions. The researcher interviewed individual participants at a time and place that suited their schedules.

3.11.6 Trust

In research, trust is about both the "trust relationship between participant and researcher and the trust of participants and the public in the research process" (Guillemin et al., 2018). To ensure that participants had trust, which is important for participation (Punch, 2013), as the researcher, the researcher disclosed to participants the process, intention, and interest of the research without deceiving or misleading them (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). Participants were also assured confidentiality that their work would not be identified or presented in an identified form (Bell, 2010). That is, the identification of the participants is hidden from those who study or read the research findings. Again, for security reasons, the data collected are kept in a secure device and deleted after three to five years.

3.11.7 No harm to participants

It is the responsibility of the researcher to ensure that no harm befalls any of the participants that participate in the research (Strydom, 2011). In this research, there was a medium risk. There was anticipation that when recalling the events some participants might be re-traumatised. The researcher had decided that if participants showed distress and needed help, distress protocol was going to be followed, by providing the name and contact details of an appropriate provider who could provide support, at no cost to the participant (Horn, Seem & Ndebele, 2014). In the case of this study, the researcher was going to refer the participants to the Counselling and Careers Development Unit (CCDU) available for all Wits students. The toll-free contact and email for CCDU were also provided in the consent letters. However, even though the participants showed hurt because of their experiences, they did not indicate the need for counselling as they have accepted their sociolinguistic identity, and they are determined to become English teachers despite the odds.

3.12 Reflexivity - Role of Researcher

At one point the researcher was an ESL English preservice teacher and did a teaching practicum in the schools and was marginalised mainly because of her accent and pronunciation of words.

The quintile five schools the researcher went to had certain standards for English proficiency that the researcher could not meet. Now as a tutor at the university, the researcher interacts with her fellow students at the university who share some challenges as prospective ESL teachers. Often, they are not given opportunities to teach. While this is the case, with her academic background, experience, and identity, the researcher had no influence on the accuracy of the research findings. As a novice in qualitative research, the researcher endeavoured to be unbiased and impartial. the researcher has been guided by the process of inductive empirical coding, which allows themes to emerge allowing participants' reflected mentorship experiences during the teaching practicum to be visible in the presentation, analysis and conclusions. Bengtsson (2016) argues that fatigue, personal bias and errors are the possible causes of the inevitable human error. The researcher kept in mind these possibilities and tried to reduce them during the process of data interpretation. the researcher has included a table (see Table 3) that illustrates the exact process used to transform the raw data into meaningful results (Bengtsson 2016). In addition, the analysis was informed by the literature, the theoretical framework used as a lens through which to view the data. Also, the researcher does not want to exclude any room for bias, but there is awareness that the research design, focus and methods (discussed in chapter three), especially the research approach (interpretivist), have given room for her own interpretation, while at the same time recognising her participants opinions as they re-lived their experiences, which were different from mine. Furthermore, "scholars acknowledged that interpretation-free, theory-neutral facts" do not, in principle exist" (Alvesson & Lincoln, 2011, p.12, cited in Corlett, & Mavin, 2018).

3.13 Conclusion

The chapter focused on research design / plan, and methods as well as research instruments used in gathering data. It focused on the research design which encompasses the population the sample, sampling techniques and the data collection instruments to be used. The chapter also dealt with data presentation and analysis techniques used by the researcher. The researcher used a qualitative research approach to explore the experiences of school-based mentoring of PSTs. The researcher considered the case study to be an appropriate research design for this study as the research study aimed to gain a deeper understanding of the practices of mentoring PSTs in different quintile four and five schools. The experiences of the PSTs were collected through questionnaires and interviews. Participating PSTs were purposively selected to obtain information-rich data on the context and practice of mentoring. A pilot study was used to test

the research instruments prior to the actual study, and the results were used to fine-tune the research instruments for the main study. The use of triangulation and a range of data collection instruments improved the overall quality of this study. Data collection and analysis did not occur simultaneously as the selection of respondents depended on the responses from the questionnaire. The raw data went through various stages: being organised, read, and re-read, and then coded as part of categorising the themes, linking the themes, and interpreting the themes. The research questions of this study provided the anchor themes. The researcher used throughout the data collection, processing, and analysis phases of this study. The researcher made a conscious effort to minimise researcher bias in this study by highlighting her role in conducting the study.

Chapter Four: Data Presentation

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents findings of the study which had the purpose of “Exploring Experiences of Sociolinguistic Inclusivity and Exclusivity in Mentorship: Experiences of ESL Pre-Service Teachers in Johannesburg”. Data collected in this study are presented and analysed in themes based on the research questions. Demographic information of participants is firstly presented for students who completed questionnaires and those who participated in interviews. This is followed by a reflection on their responses firstly to questionnaires, followed by interview questions.

The objective of the study was to answer the following research questions:

4.1.1 Main research question:

The main research question was:

What are the ESL pre-service teachers’ lived experiences of mentorship whilst on teaching practice at quintile four and five high schools in Johannesburg regarding sociolinguistic inclusion and/or exclusion?

Sub-questions

- What are ESL pre-service teachers’ perceptions of school-based mentorship?
- What do ESL pre-service teachers regard as inclusive or exclusive mentoring practices?
- How have ESL pre-service teachers’ experiences of mentorship made them feel sociolinguistic ally included and/or excluded during teaching practice?

4.2 Section A: Presentation of Data from the Questionnaire

The objective of the questionnaire was to elicit information from PSTs about the intersectionality of the ESL sociolinguistic identity and their experience of mentorship in a specific context described. The data are presented as per participants’ responses to the questionnaire, firstly providing the demographic data of the participants and, secondly, presenting the data from the participants. It is important to note that this is qualitative study, one participant would provide many responses on one question which falls into different categories. Hence when the numbers indicated on the figures (numbers on the vertical axis

represents the number of participants who gave the response on a specific aspect. Hence at times the total number of participants might exceed 22 or 100%. For example on the first theme on the questionnaire the total number adds up to 29. The extract below is an example from data showing how the participants were giving similar responses.

Q1	P1 school based mentorship is for guiding student teachers by mentors (supervising teachers) to gain experience of being a teacher by allowing them to use strategies which they are taught in the university
-----	P2 School based mentorship is when education students gain experience through mentorship
	P3 My understanding of school-based mentorship is predominantly what my supervising teachers have invested in me over the past three two years of the contact Teaching Experience programme together with the 2021 online Teaching Experience module. In essence, school-based mentorship for me includes guidance provided by my supervising teachers (and other teachers inside the school staffroom) when it comes to two things – teaching methods and discipline strategies applied inside their classrooms
	P4 I think it's extra academic support offered at schools to kids like your extra classes, after school and weekends
	P5 My understanding is the support provided by experienced educators to either pre-service educators or novice educators
	P6 Guidance that one finds at school from a preservice pedagogue where they nurture and ensuring academic excellence and personal growth. School based

Figure 2: Photograph of an example data put together from some of the participants responses to question 1(Photograph by Plaxedes Muringani 2024)

Table 6: Profile of the Participants

Participant	The number of languages spoken by participants	The list of the languages spoken by the participants	Is English your First, second or third language?	English Curriculum done at matric level	Participant placements for TE in quintile 1 to 3 schools	Participant placements for TE in quintile 4 and 5	Gender
1	4	Setswana, Zulu, Sepedi, and English. Second	Second	FAL	√	√	F
2	4	Not mentioned	Second	FAL		√	F
3	2	Xitsonga, English	Second	FAL		√	F
4	2	Xitsonga, English	Second	FAL	√ (Teaching HL)	√	F
5	7	Setswana, Sesotho, IsiZulu, Isixhosa, Sepedi, English, Afrikaans.	Second	FAL	√	√	F
6	4	Setswana, Zulu, Sepedi, and English.	Second	FAL	√	√	F
7	2	Shona and English	Second	FAL		√	F
8	3	IsiZulu, English, Sepedi.	Second	FAL		√	F
9	3	IsiZulu, Setswana and English	Second	FAL		√	F
10	7	English, Xitsonga, Tshivenda, Sepedi, Sesotho, IsiZulu, Setswana	Second	FAL	√	√	F
11	6	IsiZulu, Setswana, English, Sotho, Xhosa, Afrikaans	Second	FAL		√	F
12	3	Sesotho, IsiZulu and English	Second	FAL	√	√	F
13	4	IsiZulu, Sotho, isiXhosa, and English	Second	FAL	√	√	F
14	7	Tswana, Pedi, Zulu, Xhosa, Ndebele, Portuguese and English	Second	FAL	√	√	F
15	5	Sepedi, Xitsonga, Zulu and Tswana, English	Second	FAL		√	M
16	5	isiZulu, Setswana, English, Afrikaans, and English	Third	FAL		√	F
17	4	Zulu, Xhosa English and Sotho and English.	Third	FAL		√	F
18	4	IsiZulu isiXhosa and English.	Third	FAL		√	F
19	2	Ndebele and English	Second	FAL		√	F
20	5	Not mentioned	Third	FAL	√	√	F
21	6	Shona, Ndebele, Sotho, Xhosa, Tonga, Zulu	Second	FAL	√	√	F
22	3	English, Sesotho, IsiZulu	Second	FAL	√	√	M

Note. Table 5 gives the demographic data about the participants—mostly their sociolinguistic identity and the categories of schools they went to for teaching experience.

The data that emerged from the questionnaire provided demographic information about the participants' sociolinguistic identity and the category of school they had attended for TP. The questionnaire provided clear information about who was a potential participant, so all the data collected was used. The data in Table 5 show that all 22 participants are multilingual. The minimum number of languages a participant speaks ranged from two to a maximum of seven. While all participants speak English as a second language, it is important to highlight that four of the participants (16; 17; 18; 20) indicated that English is not a second language for them but a third language. It can be deduced from this that 18% of the participants consider English as their third language and the remaining 82% have English as a second language (see Figure 2).

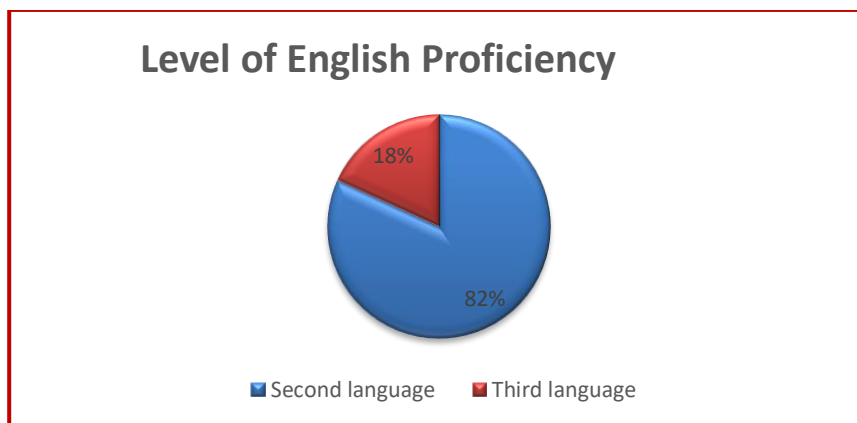


Figure 3: The language proficiency of the participants

The demographic data provided is important because it can help determine if there are correlations between mentoring experiences and sociolinguistic identity in a given context. Another interesting variable that emerged from the data is that one participant reported being ESL and teaching in first and third quintile schools where English is taught as HL. The same participant had also been in fourth and fifth quintile schools. Such a unique experience, different from the rest of the cohort, was not discarded but recognised for its potential to contribute to the richness of the study. This means that we understand the experiences of participants in the two institutions that both teach HL. The demographic data in Table 5 also shows that 11 (50%) of the participants had taught in both quintile one to three as well as quintile four and five schools. The other 11 (50%) of the participants had only been in schools in quintiles four and five. All these experiences of the participants were valuable to the study as they have had experience of mentorship in these two contexts.

Table 7: Themes and sub-themes for the questionnaire

Theme 1	Sub-themes	Out of 22 Participants
Pre-service teachers' perceptions of mentorship	<i>Allocation of pre-service teachers to the mentor educators</i>	3
	<i>Support and guidance given to pre-service teachers</i>	9
	<i>Socialization into the profession</i>	7
	<i>Time for personal identity building</i>	6
	<i>Time for pre-service teachers to share knowledge with mentors</i>	4
	<i>Mentor-mentee relationship building</i>	6
	<i>Time to gain experience.</i>	4
Theme 2 Participants' understanding of inclusive and exclusionary mentoring practices	Understanding of inclusion	
	<i>Participation in social activities</i>	5
	<i>Embracing diversity</i>	3
	<i>Unconditional affordances of opportunities.</i>	6
	Inclusive mentoring practise	
	<i>Unconditional mentorship</i>	7
	<i>Authentic participation</i>	6
	Exclusion	
	<i>Denial of access and opportunity to participate in the community.</i>	12
	<i>When individuals are discriminated against</i>	3
	Exclusionary mentoring practices	
	<i>Refusal of chances to participate</i>	8
	<i>Lack of recognition.</i>	4

Theme 3 Pre-service teachers' experiences of sociolinguistic inclusion and exclusion	Experiences of inclusion	
	<i>Authentic participation</i>	9
	<i>Supported</i>	9
	<i>Empowerment and sense of belonging</i>	4
	Pre-service teachers experience of sociolinguistic exclusion	6
	<i>Degraded and humiliated</i>	7
	<i>Denial of the opportunity to participate</i>	7
	<i>Stereotyping and marginalisation</i>	12
	<i>Professional development of mentors</i>	4
	<i>Change of attitude and mentoring approaches</i>	8
Theme 4 Participants' recommendations	<i>Change the system for allocating mentors in education</i>	2
Theme 5 Unforeseen Themes (will be presented after the presentation of the data from the interviews)	<i>The individual's acknowledgement of their being unequipped to teach English</i>	4
	<i>Lack of resilience</i>	1

4.3 Theme One: Pre-service teachers' Perceptions of Mentorship

One of the research questions was to explore PSTs' perceptions of school-based mentorship. Therefore, the researcher began the study by exploring what PSTs understood about school-based mentorship. In order for participants to provide information about their experiences of mentorship, they needed to know first what the term meant, i.e. the researcher needed to know the participants' ideas about mentorship. The data show that participants have a broad understanding of mentorship, as shown in Figure 3.

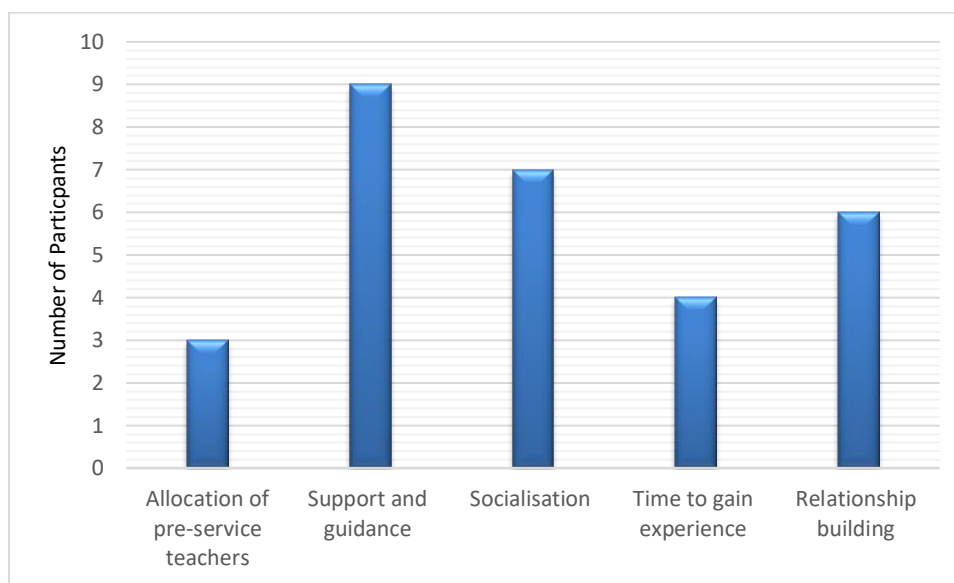


Figure 4: Participants' perceptions of mentorship

The above data indicate that most PSTs believed that mentoring is about supporting and guiding PSTs during TP. Nine participants confirmed this. This was followed by the view that school-based mentoring involves socialisation (mentioned by seven participants) and relationship building (mentioned by six participants) that occur during TP. Allocation of the mentees to the mentor educators was also mentioned with almost the same number of participants as time to get experience.

4.3.1 Allocation of pre-service teachers to the mentor educators

Three out of 22 (13%) participants understand mentoring on a descriptive level. Their definition explains what mentorship means, namely the assignment of PSTs to a mentor educator during TP. Participant 7 explained that it is the assignment of a PST to a senior teacher. Participant 9 expressed a similar understanding when he mentioned that *“School-based mentorship means that a student teacher teaches under a supervisor [mentor educator].”* Participant 13 added that, *“It is an assignment of PSTs to educators.”* The idea of assignment is seen as crucial and not just a process, but PSTs are assigned to mentors who are qualified and have knowledge and experience in the field. Participant 7, for example, pointed out: *“An older educator with more experience and knowledge in the area or subject he or she intends to teach.”* This suggests that the participants know what mentorship means, which is why they also emphasise the qualifications of the mentors. Hence their understanding

4.3.2 Support and guidance given to pre-service teachers

In the context of school-based mentorship, the PSTs do not know everything about teaching. Their theoretical knowledge about teaching is often enhanced through the support and guidance of mentors. The data in this study revealed another dimension of PSTs’ perceptions of mentorship: participants understand this to mean the period when the PSTs receive support and guidance during TP. The qualitative results showed that nine (41%) participants understand mentoring as support and guidance given to the PSTs. Participants 1 and 2 made similar comments, with participant 2 saying, *“School-based mentorship is used to guide student teachers through mentors (supervising teachers).”* Participant 3 further elaborated, *“Mentorship is the guidance provided by my supervising teachers in terms of teaching methods and discipline strategies they use in their classrooms.”* The participants are aware that although the PSTs go for TP with the knowledge acquired at university, mentoring also provides them with guidance and support. This is the time when they need to be shown how to put into practise what they have learnt at university. The participants are also aware that the PSTs are socialised into the profession during this process. This aspect of socialisation is discussed further below.

4.3.3 Socialisation into the profession

The support and guidance are usually aimed at socialising the PSTs into the teaching profession, although the emphasis on what and how to socialise may vary depending on the context. It is significant that seven participants (32%) said that they perceive school-based mentorship as the time when PSTs are socialised and equipped for the profession. Participants said that socialisation consists of the PSTs receiving feedback on their teaching skills to improve them and being able to plan with their mentor educators. For example, participant 6 said that mentoring serves to *“promote and ensure academic excellence and personal growth by providing the necessary feedback and continuing education.”* Participant 16 agreed when she said that *“Mentoring means that mentors take the initiative and responsibility to coach newcomers and help them fit in and adapt to school life.”* Participant 22 further considered that socialisation takes place during mentoring because *“the mentors share their knowledge and experience with the new teachers, making it easier for them to fit into the working environment.”* With these perceptions, the participants agree that the mentors are the experts in the field; hence, they possess the knowledge which has to be imparted to the mentees.

On the other hand, the response of participant 17 brings in another dimension. There is a realisation that during mentorship the sharing of knowledge is mutual. He explained that during *“mentoring teachers have access to new ideas from the university that are brought in by student teachers.”* From participant 17's contribution, the general idea is that the purpose of mentoring is to promote development through socialisation, but there is also reciprocity in knowledge sharing during this period of mentoring. PSTs share their new pedagogical ideas with the mentors. It can be deduced from this that the participants believe that mentorship is mutually beneficial. Although there was only one participant who highlighted this aspect, it is a significant perception to this study as it diverts from the norm and is a point which most of the participants did not mention.

4.3.4 Mentor–mentee relationship building

Another perception of school-based mentorship shows that participants are aware relationships are formed, both social and professional. It is clear from the data that the mentor must have a good relationship with the PST for mentoring to be effective. Six (27%) of the participants felt that effective mentoring occurs when the relationship between mentor and mentees is life-enhancing.

Both professional and social relationships were seen as critical to mentorship. Each form of relationship was described as unique to the development of the PST.

There excepts confirm the professional relationship. For example, participant 2 said effective mentorship can happen *“when students are treated as part of the staff.”* Similarly, participant 18 commented on the issue of recognition: *“When student teachers are given the responsibility of carrying out day-to-day teaching tasks, or supervisors [mentor educator] value their contribution and recognise them as a pre-service teacher”*. Participants also stated that, *“This recognition requires collaboration, sharing of ideas on things like lesson design, assessment, and feedback on learners' work”* (Participant 12).

In the field of teaching, social relationships cannot be undermined because they are the basis for other relationships. In the perceptions of school-based mentorship, participants also mentioned social relationships as a feature of effective mentorship. Participants mentioned aspects such as encouraging mentors who are empathetic, approachable, trustworthy, and open to engagement on a personal level or for professional reasons. This was confirmed by the following narratives:

An effective tool during teaching practice is to connect with the student, be empathetic and understand their level of teaching so that the mentor can connect what they already know with what they expect from them. (Participant 15)

There should be a safe and comfortable space to talk about anything related to one's teaching experience and practice. Mentors are willing to share classroom space. This means that they trust us and allow us to teach rather than giving us tasks that are not in line with our profession. (Participant 5)

The participants were able to emphasise that mentoring does not work in a vacuum. It is a reality that there are relationships between the mentor and the mentee that need to be nurtured. These can be not only professional relationships but also social relationships. If this happens it will be an effective mentoring.

4.3.5 Time to gain experience

Apart from the perception that mentorship is for the socialisation of the PST, mentorship in schools is perceived as a time for gaining experience. This was illustrated by the narratives of four of the 22 participants (18%). Participant 19 said that *“Mentorship is there to gain experience and familiarise oneself with what is to come after graduation.”* Participant 2 expressed similar sentiments, *“Students gain experience and learn more about the teaching profession by applying*

theory to practice.” Participant 22 agreed, pointing out that *“It is the time when pre-service teachers familiarise themselves with the teaching and learning environment, guided by an experienced colleague.”*

Thus, it is evident that the participants are aware that gaining experience through actual practice is considered key to the period of teaching experience. The participants in the study emphasised that the experience they gain prepares them for the time when they will be fully qualified. In other words, it is clear from the participants’ responses that the mentorship period provides the reality of the actual teaching situation.

In the process of gaining experience, there is also evidence that it is perceived as the time personal identity develops. There is mention of becoming the best version of oneself, working on one’s weaknesses and becoming a critical thinker. This was confirmed by the statements of 4 (18%) of the participants who said that, *“They [mentor educators] help students work on their weaknesses and recognise their strengths”* (Participant 9). Also, *“Mentorship makes one be the best version of oneself that they never imagined”* (Participant 6). Participant 15 emphasised, *“Individuals develop into an independent thinker or doer.”* Thus, it is evident that the participants have a comprehensive understanding of mentoring by stating the expected outcomes for mentoring. This means that their perceptions also lead to the understanding that mentoring is a means of professional development for PST.

4.4 Theme Two: Exclusionary and Inclusive Mentoring Practices

One of the research questions of the study was to find out what PSTs consider as inclusive or exclusive mentoring practices. However, in order to find out what PSTs understand by inclusion or exclusion in school-based mentoring, they should first demonstrate an understanding of the concepts of inclusion and exclusion. In asking participants about their understanding of inclusion and exclusion, it was assumed that their understanding of these two concepts would inform their interpretation of their experiences of school-based mentorship. The following themes will illustrate some of the perspectives of the understanding of inclusion and later the understanding of exclusion. PSTs’ understandings of inclusive and exclusionary mentoring practises will be illustrated.

4.4.1 Sub-theme 1: Understanding of inclusion

From the data, it appears that understanding of inclusion was viewed from three different angles: participation in social activities, embracing diversity and unconditional granting of opportunities. These are discussed below:

- ***Participation in social activities***

The meaning of inclusion emerges from the perspective of participation and inclusion in social activities. Five out of 22 (23%) participants felt that inclusion is about participation, adapting and differentiating the needs of the individual. According to participant 10, *“Inclusion is about involving everyone in the process.”* Furthermore, participant 2 stated that, *“Inclusion is when practice is adapted to ensure that all members are included.”* Similarly, participant 4 confirmed that, *“Inclusion is equity, not equality; some individuals might need more support than others and everyone needs to be included, even if that means changing things for them.”*

It is therefore clear from the above that the participants are aware that inclusion cannot be achieved through mere integration, but that there are other factors that need to be taken into account to ensure true inclusion. Therefore, inclusion can be achieved by recognising that each individual has different needs; therefore, including them would also mean that there are different ways to ensure inclusion. This idea was further emphasised in the following sub-theme: Embracing diversity.

Embracing diversity

The concept of inclusion was further expanded as the other three participants (14%) highlighted the aspect of embracing diversity as part of inclusion. In this context, participants also mentioned the recognition and appreciation of individual ideas in the community as another measure of inclusion. This can be seen in the following extracts:

Participants 5 and 7 had similar ideas, participant 5 saying inclusion she means *“overcoming biographical characteristics of individuals when interacting with them, inclusion of all people regardless of race, gender, disability, medical or other needs”* (Participant 5). Similarly, participant 3 rightly said that inclusion of different identities should take place in all aspects of life, *“whether at work, university or in a social setting. Inclusion is meaningful when one's participation in something is recognised and valued. This means creating an environment where*

everyone feels part of a group, their voice is heard, and their views are respected.” From the results presented above, it is clear that participants are familiar with the concept of inclusion.

Most participants had similar definitions for the aspect of embracing diversity in inclusion, even if different terms were used. In general, it was emphasised that any identity must be overcome when working together in a community or society. Every person should be treated with dignity and have a sense of belonging. Furthermore, the participants made it clear that inclusion is also about getting opportunities in life, as the following data shows.

- ***Unconditional affordances of opportunities***

The third understanding of inclusion from the data is the understanding of inclusion as unconditional enabling of opportunities. Some responses explicitly state that inclusion is when these opportunities are also granted to those who were once excluded. Thus, the aspect of fairness and making amends for the past can be derived from the participants' responses. Six participants (27%) confirmed this view. Participant 15 stated that, *“Inclusion means providing equal access and opportunities to all people, including the historically excluded and the historically advantaged.”* Participant 18 added: *“When you have equal access to opportunities and resources, you become empowered and grow.”* Similarly, participant 22 understands inclusion as *“giving everyone a chance without prejudice, and valuing differences.”*

Overall, the data indicate that the participants are familiar with inclusion in a broader sense. They are aware that inclusion means more than just being in places where you were previously not allowed to be. Instead, inclusion also means recognising the value of the individual and empowering them. However, it is also important that they understand what this means in the context of mentorship. Therefore, the following data shows what the participants understand by the term inclusion in the context of mentorship.

4.4.2 Sub-theme 2: Inclusive mentoring practices

The following sub-themes focus on the understanding of what inclusive mentoring practices entail. The participants mentioned that it is when there is unconditional mentorship and authentic participation.

- ***Unconditional mentorship***

Participants measured inclusion through the mentor-mentee relationship. Seven participants (32%) felt that inclusion in mentorship means that mentorship should be all-inclusive rather than conditional. Participant 15, for example, said that, *“An inclusive school-based mentorship programme considers the needs of all student teachers equally, without favouring or disadvantaging them.”* Participant 13 further elaborated that, *“The equality of mentorship ensures that despite the different backgrounds of students, be it in terms of race, community, the learning of teaching through participation is equal and not limited.”* Importantly, participants emphasised that there is differentiation in the support provided to PSTs. Participant 4 picked up on differentiation by mentioning aspects of *“equity rather than equality when it comes to mentoring.”* It can be concluded that participant 4 is saying mentees' needs must be considered so that they are offered the solutions they need so that they are not hindered in their academic journey. Another participant highlighted an important aspect of inclusion:

For mentoring to be inclusive, schools should open their doors and allowing individuals formal access to any school of their choice regardless of their identity, i.e. any student [pre-service teacher] can be accepted into any affluent school, even if he/she went to a different type of school, and still receive the support he/she needs. (Participant 21)

There is awareness that there is diversity among the PSTs who go to schools for TP. Their needs for support for and guidance may differ, and mentors should be able to accommodate the PSTs without excluding other PSTs. The researcher can say the participants understand the aspects of inclusion and the core principles it entails.

- ***Authentic participation***

In addition to the emphasis on equal treatment, six participants (27%) drew attention to the fact that inclusion in the context of mentoring also involves authentic participation. This means that PSTs enjoy the trust and support of the mentor and engage in the teaching and learning process through collaboration. This is evident in these reports:

“I describe it as your mentor educator entrusts you with the learners and trusts that you will teach the learners the right and correct content” (Participant 18). Similarly, participant 19 brought in the aspect of understanding and flexibility by adding that, *“It is when the mentor-educator understands the pre-service teacher and allows them to teach the way they want as long as the*

content is taught, and the learners understand it.” Furthermore, participant 7’s response summarises the above conceptualisation of inclusive mentoring by mentioning that “It is about creating equal opportunities and access and eliminating discrimination and intolerance.”

Another emphasis on authentic participation can be inferred from the fact that participants mentioned collaboration in teaching and learning. Three (14%) of the participants felt that collaboration was one of the elements that participants considered to be an important feature of inclusive school-based mentoring. Participants indicated in their responses that inclusive mentoring also includes *“the mentor educator and pre-service teacher working together to share ideas for effective teaching strategies”* (Participant 12). Participant 17 shared the same understanding as she confirmed that *“the mentor includes me in his planning.”* In agreement, participant 11 holds that *“An inclusive mentoring relationship is one in which there is no ‘boss’/autocratic person, but where respect and belonging prevail, regardless of the differences the mentee may have.”*

From the data, it appears that participants understand inclusion as formal access, collaboration, authentic participation, and equality through attentive and differentiated mentorship. The responses shed light on their conception of inclusion, which provides us with a basis for perceiving their personal experiences. In the discussion, it becomes clear that inclusion does not only mean the physical presence of the mentee in the classroom. However, inclusion takes place when the mentee is able to participate. Participation must lead to ideas being put forward, which are then acknowledged and implemented. There is also an important aspect of inclusion in mentorship, which is unconditional mentorship. As PSTs have different backgrounds and identities, mentors should take this into account and differentiate the expectations and support they give. The following discussion looks at the participants' concepts of exclusion.

4.4.3 Sub-theme Three: Exclusion

The two main aspects that emerged from the data are that exclusion is understood as follows: denial of access and opportunity to participate in the community and discrimination. The following examples explain the responses that support the above assertion.

- ***Denial of access and opportunity to participate in the community***

The data on the conceptualisation of exclusion show that exclusion is understood as the denial of access and the opportunity to participate in the community. This exclusion mostly relates to aspects of the individual's identity. That is, 12 out of 22 participants (55%) believe that exclusion is due to the social structure and its norms, resulting in not belonging. Participant 4 believes that *“Exclusion means not being able to participate in something because of obstacles. This can be rules, physical, mental, or emotional demands associated with a particular thing.”* For participant 12, exclusion means *“marginalising others or keeping them outside the group because they are seen as different from the norm.”* Participant 15 pointed out in this context that *“exclusion means that people are not given equal access. Some are favoured while others are excluded.”* So the understanding of exclusion is that there are boundaries in society that are set by some people. As a result, some are excluded if they do not meet the requirements of the norm. In some cases, they are denied participation.

- ***Discrimination***

While exclusion has been explained above as denial of access, the data also shows that sometimes even belonging to a group or community is no guarantee of inclusion. Whilst inside the group there can be aspects of discrimination. Three participants (13%) attested to this. For example, participant 11 said that, *“Exclusion means being belittled or not belonging to a group because you are different. It is when you feel you are ‘not good enough’. This can range from explicit rejection, removal, or banishment to subtle forms.”* Participant 8 added to the above description and explained aspects of discrimination by way of example as she said, exclusion is *“when student teachers are excluded from participating in certain programmes because of their origin and background, e.g. students from black communities are not allowed to teach in Model C schools [quintile 4 and 5 schools].”* In addition, participant 3 understands exclusion as *“denying a person access to knowledge, skills and experiences they possess in order to prevent the next person from learning something new.”*

To sum up, the answers to this question show that participants do understand exclusion and the different forms it can take. It is therefore hoped that the data provided will shed light on what it

might mean to measure exclusion in the context of school mentorship. The following is therefore an account of what the PSTs might consider to be exclusionary school mentorship.

4.4.4 Sub-theme 4: Exclusionary mentoring practices

Having explained what exclusion is, participants were also able to identify what might be exclusionary practices in the context of mentorship. The aspects identified are as follows:

- ***Refusal of chances to participate***

In relation to the aspect of exclusion in mentoring spaces, the data show that PSTs perceive exclusion as being denied the opportunity to teach during TP. The responses of eight (36%) of the participants confirmed this assertion. Participant 1 holds that *“Exclusion in school is when some students are excluded in the classroom because they are not allowed to teach during teaching practice.”* However, this is the core element why PSTs go to schools. Participant 18 made similar comments but was a little more specific about what could be the reason of exclusion. She pointed out that *“it could be because of the colour of your skin.”* Participant 20 added that, *“Mentors feel that student teachers cannot teach the content effectively, so they assign them to administrative tasks instead of teaching the learners.”* The data also show that in the case where the PST is excluded, even the tasks assigned to him/her are not in line with the purpose of mentorship. Participant 12 concurred with participant 20 when she said, *“A student teacher is reduced to the role of an assistant.”*

However, from a different perspective, participants felt that exclusion does not just mean that they are denied teaching; sometimes opportunities to teach are provided, but denial of individuality is a form of exclusion. For instance, code switching to accommodate learners may be criticised if it is a school where teachers mostly use English as the medium of instruction. A particular accent may also be expected (Participant 11). The aspect of denial of identity can lead to dictatorship, as participant 22 said: *“Exclusion in mentorship means dictating to student teachers how to teach if a mentor does not allow student teachers the freedom to develop their teaching strategies.”*

The data have shown that there are two forms of refusal to participate. Firstly, individuals may be denied permission to teach in the classroom altogether. Secondly, being allowed to teach but not having the freedom to implement ideas is also a form of exclusion, which is explained in more detail in the following sub-theme.

- ***Lack of recognition***

Some of the PSTs expressed that lack of recognition is a form of exclusion. Four (18%) of the participants gave as an example that exclusion can occur when PSTs are left out of the planning process and their ideas are not considered. For example, participant 21 argued that, “*Exclusion occurs when the mentor does not acknowledge the presence of the student teacher and carries out planning and teaching without involving the student teacher*”. There was another explanation as to why someone would be excluded. According to participant 16, “*The supervising teacher does not consider me in the planning of the lessons ... because of the mistrust the supervising teacher has in me.*” There is also a realisation that exclusion can also be when the PST is consulted in planning but “*the student teacher's contribution or ideas about teaching strategies are pushed aside and not considered*” (Participant 12).

The data presented shows that the mere presence of the PST in planning does not indicate inclusion but meaningful participation. Participants emphasise that participation should lead to professional growth and development. Their knowledge of teaching must be noted, and they must be given the opportunity to put into practise what they have learnt at university.

4.5 Theme Three: Pre-service teachers’ Experiences of Sociolinguistic Inclusion and E

It is clear from the data that the PSTs did experience both inclusion and exclusion. That is, despite their contrasting identities, some participants had welcoming and supportive school-based mentors who allowed them to learn and grow. Yet in some instances exclusion was also experienced. The themes below provide elaborate more specifically on these experiences.

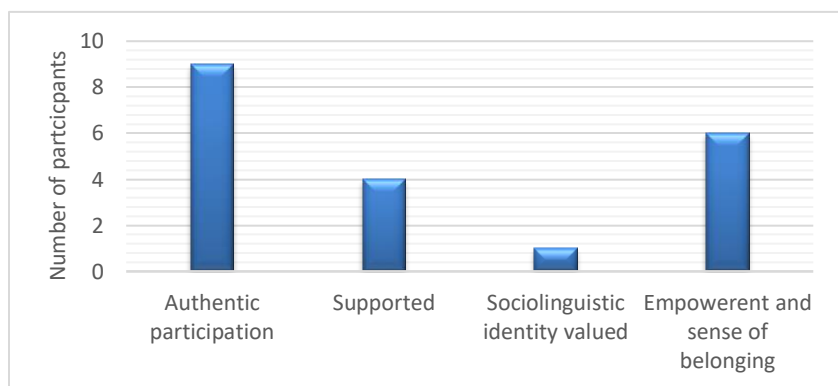


Figure 5: Forms of inclusion experienced by the participants

According to Figure 4 a significant number of participants experienced inclusion, which is evident in the diverse forms of inclusion which were evidenced in the data. Most significantly, authentic participation was experienced by nine participants, followed by the experiences of empowerment and sense of belonging. The least mentioned was the aspect of sociolinguistic identity valued, which was only mentioned by one participant.

4.5.1 Sub-theme 1: Experiences of inclusion

As mentioned earlier, PSTs have had experiences with inclusion. However, inclusion can have similar traits, but in general it differs because inclusion can take different forms. Therefore, experiences of inclusion are further divided into sub-categories and explained in more detail using data from the questionnaire.

- ***Authentic participation***

In relation to the different types of inclusion practices of the mentors, it was mentioned that some of the PSTs experienced inclusion when they taught and were also allowed to participate in lesson planning. They were not only participating but being influential in decision making as their ideas were considered important and recognised. This was highlighted by nine (41%) participants. Participant 8 said: *“I was included in all the teaching processes.”* In the same way, participant 16 explained that:

My mentor would at least be kind enough to allow me to teach and not interfere while the researcher was teaching. At first, would share all my ideas, was excited because my mentor would also show interest and allow me to see if it was working or not. And we would discuss why certain things do not work and my mentor would even try it out with his classes for me to see, which would be very nice.

It can also be said that PSTs experienced authentic participation because they were able to collaborate with the mentor in lesson planning. The data show that the mentors were open to the pedagogical ideas of the PSTs and had confidence in their abilities.

Participant 17 confirmed the experience of working together when she said that, *“Before I knocked off from work, we sat down with my mentor and discussed what our next day would be like and what we needed to cover or do in terms of lessons and activities.”* Participant 17 also showed that there was a reciprocal relationship with the school-based mentor as she went on to share, *“I also*

presented different strategies for group work, and she was interested to see how the procedures worked. I also helped her with the assessment.”

From the excerpts above, it is clear that the mentors were receptive to the mentees. Thus, participants were given the opportunity to participate in the teaching and learning process. The participants felt recognised and valued as they contributed to learning and teaching during the TP period. Another aspect that made them feel included was the pedagogical support they received from the mentors. This is illustrated below.

- ***Supported***

Inclusion was also experienced by four of the 22 (18%) PSTs through the support they received from the mentor-educators. There were times when mentors offered pedagogical support by providing resources and guidelines, but also listened and supported the mentees' pedagogical approaches. The participants' responses testify to this, as they stated that:

She allowed me to sit in for at least two days to get settled and then she gave me resources to choose what I liked to teach from and allowed me to bring other resources beyond what she gave me. (Participant 18)

In other accounts, participants have stated that their sociolinguistics did influence their mentoring experience, but in a positive way. In fact, the mentors were aware of the fact that the PSTs lacked some skills. They took the opportunity to mentor them and give them the support they needed. This is what emerged from these reports, *“I know that the supervising teacher realised that I was struggling with English, so she always accompanied me in planning and teaching. She did not try to force me into her pre-existing plans”* (Participant 17). Similarly, participant 6 said that her sociolinguistic identity did not result in exclusion, as she testified, *“Even though I was black and he was white, he really went out of his way for me whenever I needed help.”*

- ***Empowerment and sense of belonging***

What the data also revealed in relation to inclusive mentorship is its impact on participants. The six participants (27%) confirmed that they were emotionally and psychologically strengthened by the experience of inclusive school-based mentorship. The following accounts support this position: *“In another year, I was included in all the processes and was able to regain my self-confidence, even though it took time as I thought I would never make it”* (Participant 8). Such empowerment

was also experienced by participant 17, who explicitly stated: *“I can say that I was included. The supervising teacher gave me the tools to work as an English teacher and I became confident.”* Similarly, participant 18 reported that *“She [the mentor] asked for my opinion in class when she was teaching herself and this really helped to build my confidence.”* In addition, PSTs also felt a sense of belonging as they anticipated exclusion but there was inclusion instead. Participant 6 expressed her feeling saying, *“I felt included, and the teacher was responsive to all my needs even though I thought I would be excluded because of my race and gender. But he was a great English mentor.”* Participant 3 also testified to a sense of belonging as she wrote:

One might think that teaching in a class with white students and students of other races would lead to poor treatment, such as discrimination, but that is not what I experienced in my teaching practicum at an English home language school as an English second language pre-service teacher. Instead, my experience has been that mentoring, and supervision are as inclusive as it gets without any conscious effort on the part of my supervising teachers. That is, from both native English speakers and second language English speakers. I was able to remain stress-free in their classrooms and had equal supervision in both English and Geography.

The sentiments expressed in the experiences of inclusion embody the view that there were some instances of inclusion. Participants testified that they felt they belonged, that they participated authentically, and that there was support and collaboration. It can be said that in their mentorship, the mentors were responsive to the needs of the PSTs based on their backgrounds. The responsive mentoring strengthened the PSTs and gave them self-confidence. They were also valued as individuals as their socio-linguistic identity was helpful to the ESL learners as they were able to code-switch. In this way PSTs found their identity to be a resource for learners. There were situations where their bilingual identity helped to intervene with learners who were struggling because they understood ‘the struggle’. Participant 13, for example, said:

Because I am a black, young, inexperienced teacher, some learners understood me because they are also black. Even when I code switched during the lesson to help them understand certain English words, they could easily relate to me. Therefore, my teaching skills were seen as effective, and I was trusted more.

To summarise, the sociolinguistic involvement during the school-based mentoring helped the PSTs to develop the pedagogical skills and knowledge needed to teach English as a first language. However, not all of them have had the experience of inclusion. The following theme addresses the experience of exclusion.

4.5.2 Sub-theme Two: Pre-service teachers' experiences of sociolinguistic exclusion

To measure exclusion, student participants were asked about their experiences of mentoring and their feelings about it. This question was designed to gain insight into whether there was intersectionality between their sociolinguistic identity and their mentoring experiences. The data showed that the PSTs experienced some challenges that were categorised as exclusionary. These exclusions included: humiliation and degradation, denial of the opportunity to participate, stereotyping and marginalisation.

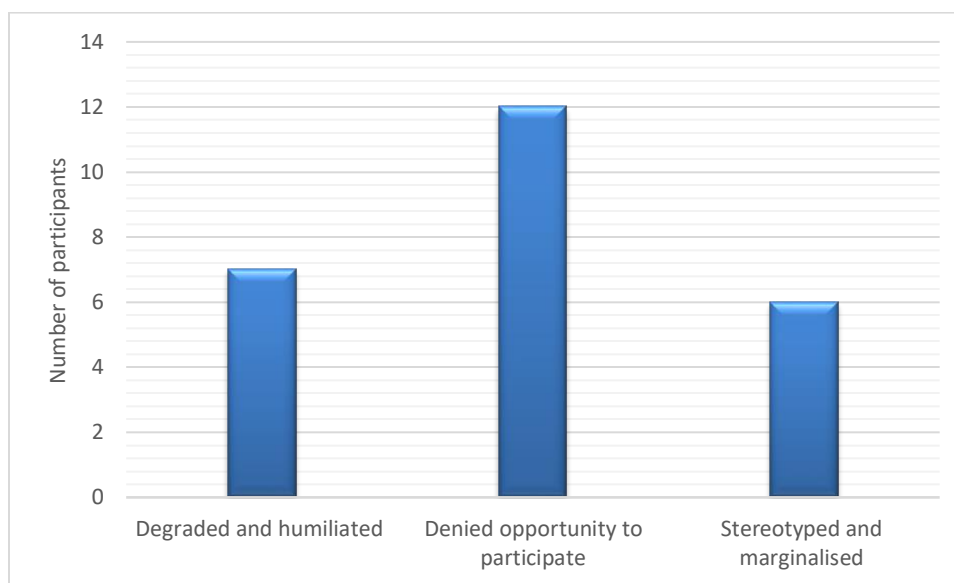


Figure 6: Forms of exclusion revealed in the data

In the bar graph above there is an indication that the most prominent form of exclusion was denial of opportunity to participate in teaching and learning noted by 12 participants—the very purpose, why the PSTs go on TP. The aspects of degradation and humiliation were also significant, with seven attesting to this. It should be noted that some participants experienced more than one aspect of exclusion.

- ***Degraded and humiliated***

A striking finding from the student data is that PSTs experienced degrading and humiliating practices from their mentors. This was witnessed by seven participants, 31% of the total. There were instances where the PSTs were undermined by their mentor educators in the presence of

learners. In most cases, participants were undermined because of their pronunciation of words and accent. For example, when the mentees were teaching, the mentor educator would interrupt them and correct the pronunciation of words. It also happened that the mentor took over the teaching. The participants had this to say:

Participant 16 stated that pronunciation was a big problem. She said, *“The mentor would interject while I was teaching and correct my pronunciation as she found this problematic for the learners.”*

Participant 9 also faced challenges and was able to pinpoint the cause of the problem when she passionately said, *“I faced a lot of challenges in terms of pronunciation; I did English as the First additional language and now was teaching it as Home Language, so I faced a lot of challenges.”*

In the same vein, participant 1 also commented:

My first year as a student teacher was a mess ... because I was not used to speaking English all the time because I attended a deep village school where English was not compulsory. My mentor did not like me, so I almost failed in my teaching experience. She was constantly correcting my pronunciation of words in front of the learners and emphasising what I was teaching as if I was doing nothing at all.

Thus, from the data, it appears that cultural capital and Discourse played an important role in how participants experienced their school-based mentoring. There are some English conventions that they could not meet because of their academic background. As a result, there were prejudices which also led to mistrust and PSTs not being allowed to teach. In other words, in some cases, refusal to participate was linked to mentors doubting the competence of the participants. It was assumed that they were not capable of teaching English. The following accounts provide some insight into the processes involved in teachers refusing to allow PSTs to participate in teaching.

- ***Denial of opportunity to participate***

The 12 (55%) participants who witnessed exclusion first mentioned that they were not allowed to teach. For example, participant 18 said:

She [the school-based mentor] did not even take the time to see if I could teach or not but assumed that everything that needed to be taught would be difficult for me, and only taught the class when my university tutor came to observe me.

Participants also recounted experiences where they were denied the implementation of their ideas. The mentor was inconsistent in decision making. In the words of participant 16:

In the fourth year, I shared my ideas, but my mentor did not allow me to try them. Sometimes she would say yes, and then when I was supposed to teach, she would change her mind and not let me teach. Sometimes she would let me teach and while I was teaching, she would stop me and take over.

From the data, it appears that participants who experienced challenges during their TP experienced some aspects of prejudice due to their sociolinguistic identity. Participant 20 said: *“There was a day when I had a lesson on gerunds and my pronunciation was not up to standard. The teacher taught the same lesson again and that was the last day I presented a lesson in her class.”* In some cases, denial of the opportunity to teach stood in the way of the university’s minimum requirements, which state that the PST must teach a certain number of lessons under the observation of the mentor educator. The mentor educator is then required to write a comprehensive report. Participant 7 commented as follows: *“I did not have the opportunity to teach the five lessons required for my teaching practise. I ended up forging the comments and grades myself in order to complete my teaching practice and continue with my studies.”* It can be said that exclusion had effects also on the validity of the mentee’s assessment.

From the above data, it can be deduced that the sociolinguistic identity of the PSTs was a contributing factor in their marginalisation during the TP. There is evidence to suggest that the mentors were unable to give the PSTs a chance to teach. What is also emphasised here is that the participants were aware of their contrasting sociolinguistic backgrounds in the given context. Unfortunately, the exclusion also meant that they did not achieve the minimum benefit of TP and mentoring.

- ***Stereotyping and marginalisation***

The result of the data analysis from six (27%) of the participants' narratives reveals the stereotypes that the mentor educators had about the PSTs. The mentors refused to allow the PSTs to teach because they had certain ideas about the PSTs and therefore doubted their competence to teach English. For example, their pronunciation of words was considered incompetent. It was assumed that they were not capable of teaching English. The following accounts give an insight into what happened when they were denied the opportunity to teach. Participant 18 said, *“Some people think that English second language learners do not fully understand English and therefore cannot teach it: You cannot teach what you do not know.”* Participant 19 also held the view that *“English is not my first additional language so sometimes pronunciation of words becomes a problem, and the*

mentor thinks that you are not able to teach their children.” In support of participant 19's perception, participant 16 said that the mentor was verbally clear about her position on why she did not want the participant to teach. The stereotyping was fuelled by the parents. Participant 16 stated:

In some cases, when I begged my mentor to let me teach, she said that parents were emailing and refusing to let student teachers teach their children. I did not understand that other student teachers who were not black were still allowed to teach, and I was allowed to teach my major (history).

While the above participants highlighted the problems of being seen as incompetent and undermined, Participant 16 emotionally said that, *‘There is still a big gap. We still have to prove ourselves.’* Her point of view can be understood in the following narrative:

When I was allowed to teach, my legitimacy was questioned. I was asked questions like 'Where did you get these examples from?' when I used my own examples, suggesting that they were too good to be mine.

Stereotyping also led to mentors distrusting mentees and dictating what mentees should teach. This deprived the PSTs of the opportunity to plan and use their own strategies. Participant 19 reported dominance and prescriptive mentorship during teaching practise; as she put it:

The teacher wanted the learners to be taught his way [traditionally]. When I tried to introduce new methods, such as looking at current stories/topics, he did not understand and said that was not part of learning, we had to stick to the textbook.

In some cases, participant 16 was expected to mimic the mentor's teaching. She said, *“The mentor would teach one class and have me take notes, then I had to teach the next class and expect the lesson to be the same.”*

The conclusions about the experiences of exclusion were based on their feelings and on comparing the incidents they had gone through. First, they compared themselves with their fellow students who belonged to a different sociolinguistic identity. Second, they would compare their mentorship experiences in teaching English with their experiences in the other subjects in the same school. Third, some of the PSTs experienced both environments and found that they did not have the same experiences of stereotyping, being denied participation and doubts about their legitimacy when teaching English as Home language in the township schools. For example, Participant 4 said, *“It is sad that the predominantly white school did not allow me to fully experience teaching, compared to schools that were not so predominantly white, or to the township schools.”* It is important to note that participant 4 taught English (HL) but in the township schools. Participant 4 reported that

she used her skills effectively without her competence being doubted as she said she was resourceful. The data also revealed that the PSTs were emotionally affected by the exclusionary practices from the mentors.

While most of the limitations in the data seem to boil down to physical restrictions on participation, there is a correlation between these barriers and PSTs' emotions; negative emotions such as mistrust, demotivation, frustration, inferiority complexes, sadness, fear of failure and destroyed self-confidence. The following narratives provide some examples: Participant 16's experience was of constantly being suppressed when sharing ideas: *"It demotivated me and I stopped sharing my ideas."* This is evident when PSTs feel that they are wasting their time. Participant 7 said that, *"Correcting word pronunciation in front of learners destroyed my confidence."* When participant 15 found that his pronunciation of words was not acceptable, he said, *"I felt inferior as a teacher and almost changed my course because I felt that South African society would undermine a black man forever."* Fear of failure led one of the PSTs to commit fraudulent acts. After being denied teaching and not having access to a mentor, she confessed, *"I faked the comments and grades myself so that I could finish my teaching practice and continue with my studies."*

The data show that participants were excluded from teaching because the mentors held certain beliefs about their ability to teach English. The problems mentioned included the pronunciation of words and also the content. It was clear to the participants that they experienced such treatment because of their sociolinguistic identity and also the context in which they found themselves. The treatment which was given to their counterparts was not the same because they were first language speakers of English. The effect of marginalisation affected them emotionally and also caused some fraudulent actions.

4.6 Theme Four: Participants' Recommendations for School-based Mentorship

When participants were asked what they could recommend for school-based mentoring, they had varied responses. From the data below, the main recommendations were as follows:

4.6.1 Change of attitude and mentoring approaches

Some felt that mentor educators should change their mentoring approaches. Participants in the study questioned the approaches. Some of the approaches mentioned in the study were that mentors dictate what mentees should teach. In some cases, PSTs were denied the chance to teach and they

became mere assistants, and ended up receiving an evaluation from the mentor-educators that was not authentic. The mentors wrote the evaluation forms without observing the mentees.

Participant 16, for example, felt that *“Sometimes the mentors are used to their methods. In some cases, it is because they think we are incompetent and prefer to let us copy what they have done.”* Participant 22 added: *“Mentors should allow student teachers to live out their individuality, they should trust them more.”* Similarly, participant 4 confidently said, *“I think it would be good to let the teachers know why we are there so that they do not make us do mediocre assignments that do not contribute to our development as teachers.”* In addition, the mentees feel that the attitude of the teachers is an important factor regarding the approaches they use. If their attitude does not change, the problems mentioned above may continue. Therefore, another recommendation that emerges from the data relates to changing the mentors' attitude towards the PSTs and *“see the new teacher as a partner/colleague and not undermining his/her efforts”* (Participant 11). Additionally, participant 15 agreed that *“teachers should be taught that pronunciation does not determine whether someone is competent or incompetent, but that teachers should be taught to focus their attention on content.”* PSTs also believe that mentors should be professionally trained to combat the above problem.

In terms of recommendations, participants indicated that it is important for mentors to change their attitude on how they treat the PSTs during mentorship. Attitude was seen as key to how mentors can treat their mentees. They expect that their sociolinguistic identity should not be a determining factor in how PSTs are treated during TP. In addition, there is a perception that mentors must treat mentees as colleagues.

4.6.2 Professional development of mentors

The other recommendations made by participant 11 and participant 20 concerned the professional development of mentors. The following excerpts demonstrate this. *“Mentors need a short course on how supervisors should guide, support and mentor students. This way they can put aside their differences and help the students to the best of their ability”* (Participant 11). Participant 20 highlighted a similar point by saying that *“Mentors also need to be taught what to do to help student teachers gain experience.”* Participant 11 added another dimension by stating that *“IQMS should be used, and mentors can be evaluated like teachers and receive a bonus depending on the*

results. Institutions should use student feedback to solve these problems instead of having a repetitive cycle.” The weakness of mentor-educators was attributed not only to their personal attitude, but also to a lack of knowledge about how to be a mentor. Hence the suggestions for professional development so that mentoring experiences can be effective.

4.6.3 Change the system for allocating mentors in education

From a different perspective, one participant recommended changing the system for allocating mentors. Participant 10 strongly argued that discrepancies should be avoided: *“Mentorship must not be forced on teachers. It must be a choice to avoid burdening a teacher with this task, but teachers must do it wholeheartedly for the experience to be useful.”*

It is clear from the recommendations that the participants expect a change in mentoring. They believe that there will be an improvement if professional development, attitude and mentoring allocation strategies can be changed. Unfortunately, instead of making a recommendation, participant 21 feels that the issue of attitude of mentor educators in such a context is hopeless, as she despondently said:

I do not think there is much you can do because it has to do with people. People have attitudes that you cannot change overnight. It is what it is and may everyone one day see the light and treat people on their merits and not on the colour of their skin.

4.7 Section B: Presentation of Interview Data

The data presented here are the responses of the four participants (participants 9, 11, 15, 19) who were part of the main cohort and answered the questionnaire presented above. These respondents were selected because on the questionnaire they had indicated that they had experienced some elements of exclusion. It was evident that one of the respondents was more inclined to share his experiences of inclusion in the interview responses than when answering the questionnaire. This provided some insight into the comparison of the effectiveness of interviews and questionnaires.

Table 8: Summary of themes from interviews

Themes	Sub-themes
Perceptions of school-based mentorship	• Time to gain experience
	• Guidance and support from mentor educators

Experiences of sociolinguistic inclusion and exclusion	Experiences of sociolinguistic inclusion
	• <i>Supported and guided</i>
	• <i>Participation</i>
	Experiences of sociolinguistic exclusion
	• <i>Being denied participation</i> • <i>Mistrust and inherent marginalisation</i>

4.8 Theme One: Perceptions of School-Based Mentorship

One of the research questions was to explore ESL PSTs' perceptions of mentorship. The interviews also sought to find out the perceptions of the PSTs on mentorship. To this end, they were asked whether the mentorship they experienced corresponded to what they knew about mentorship. From their responses, it can be inferred that they perceive mentorship as a time when they gain experience and receive support and guidance from the mentor educators. This was evident when some of the students said that there was alignment of what they think mentorship is and others that there was not. The following responses confirm this.

Participant 19 said,

In the first-year teaching experience, I would say that there were links to what I had learnt at university and that we needed a student teacher as scaffolding. But in another [different school context], uh, I had to do everything myself. I got little to no help from my supervising teacher.

So it is evident that the student in this case attests to both alignment and lack of alignment in mentorship. Participant 11 said that the purpose of mentorship was never fulfilled during her teaching career as she commented, *"Ok, I feel like the teachers who are teaching us now just want to get it done. It's like we are not welcome."* She went on to say that the teachers do not really mentor them as she emotionally said, *"It's literally about how many credits do you need? OK and we focus on that, but not really on guidance on how to build a teacher."*

Participant 15 confirmed that his experience is consistent with what he understands mentoring to be, that is, when the mentor and mentee also have a social relationship caring for the well-being of the mentee. There is evidence that the mentor was aware of the student's possible fears, so the participant acknowledged the mentor's care when he said:

I agree, he was really very helpful, OK, he helped me to find out some things because he was also my teacher and he just asked about my feelings in the context, which was all white. And I told him,

OK, that I felt like I did not belong here. I mean, these kids know a lot, because from my observation of your teaching, I can tell.

Participant 15 continued to attest to the mentor's effective mentorship as he encouraged the mentee and provided social support when the mentee expressed fear and self-doubt:

Do you know what you are as a teacher? You know because you have done this. You have learnt English as a subject, right? So you know the content; learners although they know how to speak English, they do not know the content. I can say that my mentor helped me to develop, to find myself.

Participant 9 confirmed that mentorship in quintile four and five schools was pretty much what was expected of mentorship, because *“Although there was no guidance on lesson preparation or how to teach a topic, the mentor sometimes complimented me on my teaching after the lesson.”*

The data therefore show that the PSTs experienced the mentoring as they expected. This means that the mentors support the teaching and learning process to some extent. In addition, the PSTs were encouraged by their mentors to believe in themselves, despite their contrasting backgrounds and the context in which they found themselves.

4.9 Theme Two: Experiences during the Mentoring Process

The similar experiences that emerged from the questionnaire data were confirmed in the interviews. Participants commented on aspects of inclusion and exclusion. Inclusion included being supported with both with pedagogical ideas and social support. Exclusion was experienced when the PSTs were denied teaching, stereotyped, marginalised, and humiliated. In the following sections, the experiences of inclusion and then exclusion are explained and revealed.

4.9.1 Sub-theme 1: Experiences of sociolinguistic inclusion

During the interviews the participants also indicated that there was inclusion during the school-based mentorship, as they had already indicated in the questionnaires the following themes:

- ***Supported and guided***

In the study data, participants were able to highlight the effectiveness of mentorship during their TP. Participant 19 acknowledged that in her sociolinguistic identity, being ESL and having done FAL in high school, she was unfamiliar with some aspects of HL, so mentorship effectively provided her with this knowledge. She expressed gratitude when she said, *“There were some types of poems that I would have taught, and I did not even know what kind of poems they were. And he*

told me how to analyse them.” The participant also highlighted the importance of the awareness that the mentor had given her, that is, the difference between the FAL and HL curricula. Therefore, she was told that she needed to change her approach to teaching. Participant 19 said,

He told me that the fact that I taught the first additional language will be different from the home language. So I have to change my perspective from the first additional language and adapt to the mother tongue.

Participant 15 also got guidance through observation and feedback after teaching, as he said: *“I observed the mentor educator analysing the poems and teaching novels.”* Participant 15 added: *“He wanted me to learn from experience. His attitude was very good. OK, so we discussed afterwards, and he sort of showed me the way so you can see your mistake.”* Participant 15 had a good relationship with his mentor. He acknowledged that at some point his mentor was able to recognise the limitations he was experiencing because of his sociolinguistic identity, and intervened. He explained:

Yeah, the guy was good, he helped me because I was struggling. The thing is that because of our education we are exposed to some things and not others, and it's difficult to get through that now. So we have to understand, especially when it comes to poetry, even grammar, grammar. They do it like in detail, like properly. You could see he was trying to stop me sometimes, yeah. Yeah, because Ekhasi (in townships) we do not do much Shakespeare in Ekhasi. They do it in university for two weeks, then it's over. And then just that. That's all you know.

However, the quotes show that despite the support, participant 15 felt that he would not reach the standard in the short time. The self-doubt and anxiety were so strong that he left the school and transferred to a quintile two school. Another factor was that he was afraid of failing as it was his final year. He recounted, *“I said, no, I cannot be here, I cannot change this [lack of ability to teach] right now. In one week. Yes, I had to go to Tembisa.”* It can be deduced that inclusion was difficult because the PSTs had inferiority complexes and low self-esteem, so they could not cope with the contrasting environment. Participants acknowledged that they had a lot to do with the different teaching styles and content as they came from a FAL background and received support and guidance that they needed.

- **Participation**

Data from the interviews also show that the PSTs were given the opportunity to teach. Participant 15, for example, reported his experience that the mentor educator gave him the autonomy to plan and gave him space to make mistakes in order to learn and grow from them. He said:

He [the mentor educator] really tried to listen to what I had to say, and I feel like he did not tell me either when he knew I was wrong. He wanted me to do it and find out for myself that it was not working. I feel like he did not want to discourage me. That's right. So he was open to me learning in his classroom.

In some cases, PSTs were allowed to teach, but the trainers had reservations about what and how the PSTs should teach. In relation to the use of their teaching strategies, two participants stated that there was a conflict of ideas between them and the supervising educators. This was mostly more about the teaching strategies than the content. For example, the PSTs preferred learner-centred approaches that promoted interaction, but the mentors did not agree with them, instead prescribing their traditional methods. According to participant 11:

The supervising teacher specified what you had to teach and say, so I did not really have the opportunity to decide for myself what I wanted to teach or to explore other teaching methods. If I find that the children are still struggling with certain things and I want to go back and revise, she will say no. And then it's pointless for me if you go on but the children do not understand. Teaching is for the children to understand.

Participant 19:

We disagreed on what we should do when we do drama. I felt that maybe the learners should read a few characters and then read all of them and then analyse it as a teacher. After the class she told me that we do not do it like that. You read for them, they take notes.

The above experiences show that there was participation. However, there were also some aspects of restriction and resistance to the new ideas from the mentees, which led to some form of frustration among the mentees. However, it cannot be compared to the total refusal to allow PSTs to teach or marginalisation.

4.9.2 Sub-theme 2: Exclusion

In this study there was evidence that the PSTs did experience exclusion. The following sub-themes and their excerpts will confirm this claim.

- ***Denial of opportunity to participate***

The data show that three out of four participants (75%) experienced challenges during TP. One of the challenges was being excluded—either being physically left behind in the staffroom while the mentor went to class or being left behind in the teaching process while sitting in the classroom and just observing. For example, participant 19 shared that sometimes “*she [the mentor] leaves me and goes to class and I hear from other teachers that, do you know you had a class?*”

Participant 19 went on to say even in class, *“I will say I was one of the learners in the classroom. I was there when she was in class, I was just observing.”* Participant 11, who made similar comments about her role as an observer in the classroom, was clear that her identity was the main reason why she could not engage. Participant 11 commented,

As I said, I was one of the learners [laughed sarcastically]. I had to sit down and listen to her teaching. If you are an English major and you are black, it's very difficult to automatically be seen as good. It's always just 'that one black person who thinks they know English, but they do not.

So the mentor educators are guarding their territory and checking and preventing PSTs from participating in the classroom because *“they are not really seen as suitable or not up to the standard that they expect”* (Participant 11). Furthermore, participant 11 clarified her argument by comparing her experience with a colleague who happened to have the same mentor. She said, *“When you interact with other students, you see that you do the same thing, but they get more applause than you do because of the racial aspect.”* Therefore, participant 11's general feeling was that *“I feel like I am not accepted.”* Unfortunately, this resulted in the participant ending up having to write fake lesson plans in order to complete the TP paperwork and get recognition from the university tutor. Sharing a similar experience, participant 11 at one point laughed ironically at the superficial mentorship she experienced when she explained that *“At one school I literally taught for a day before the assessment by the university tutor and on the day he came. Then my assessment documents were signed, and the teacher said: OK, that's it.”*

While the other participants experienced challenges, participant 15 said, *“Had two supervising teachers [mentor educators], one for history and one for English. For English, I was ok with him.”* Furthermore, Participant 15 brings a different understanding of the experience in relation to the answer to the question. His experience was not that he was denied the implementation of the strategies, but that he felt inadequate and unable to do so because of his identity and background. This was the result, he tried nothing else but to follow what the mentor educator did. He shook his head and said:

I had my method when I went to public school. I taught the way I was taught, now I have to teach these [multiracial learners in quintile five school]. Also, it was new for me to teach in a multiracial classroom. So, it was not easy for me to develop my view of teaching because I did not know the implications. What if I try to teach something and they tell me they do not like it because it just does not make sense? Eish.

From the data, it appears that not having the status of an educator was a problem for some. Participants attributed such experiences to their sociolinguistic identity. However, one of the participants had another experience that also shows the complexity of the PSTs' experiences, that is, the intersectionality of the sociolinguistic identity and experiences of mentorship.

- ***Mistrust and inherent marginalisation***

The mentor educators were not convinced that the mentees could plan and teach without their help. Hence what seems to be common is that lesson plans need to be reviewed before participants teach, which I believe could be normal because the mentor educators at the end are accountable for what is taught. However, the reviewing system was then used as a tool to deny the mentees opportunities to teach. Thus, if they were not reviewed, what they had planned could not be implemented in the classroom. Similarly, participant 11 also stated that her lesson plans had to be approved before teaching. She mentioned:

Yes. So she would not look at my lesson plan. So I had to follow up. So there were always excuses and of course that led to me not being able to teach. Then when I do teach, she always interferes.

In agreement, Participant 19 shared that, *“When I make a lesson plan and show it to her, she was too busy to look at it, so I never taught.”* Participant 9 also shared that she was mistrusted, hence undermined in some ways by her mentor educator who did not see her teaching as important. She then sadly emphasised that these were the biggest challenges: the lack of confidence and trust from the mentor educator. The participant emotionally said,

In quintile five school the challenge would be teachers were uncomfortable with you teaching the students. It went to the extent that when you were teaching a subject, students were supposed to write on a sheet [not in formal, everyday activity books]. I do not know if that was because I was a black person teaching English or what the reasons were. In the schools in quintile one had confidence in my lesson preparation, they gave me the freedom to teach under supervision. They trusted that I knew what I was doing and that I had new ideas.

In summary, the experiences of exclusion had a great impact on the PSTs. They were not able to implement their ideas in the process of teaching and learning. Yet this is the purpose of TP. Even when they were allowed to teach, they were to follow certain ways of teaching. However, there are some complexities in some situations when the mentees did not want to initiate teaching strategies because they felt inferior. In that case, the blame could not be put on the mentor.

4.10 Unforeseen Themes

At the beginning of the study, the main objective was to determine at the end of the research whether the ESL PSTs had experienced inclusion or exclusion during mentorship. As always in research, there are some aspects that emerge that are worth acknowledging. In the study, the PSTs not only shared their experiences but also reflected on their legitimacy to teach English as HL. In these extracts from the questionnaire and interviews, they also showed that they were not blaming anyone. First of all, the participants admitted that they were not familiar with the content they were supposed to deal with. The following excerpts confirm this.

4.10.1 *The individual's acknowledgement of being unequipped to teach English*

As mentioned earlier, the content differed in aspects such as poems and literature, including Shakespeare, which they were supposed to teach, so it was difficult to manage. Participant 15 said, *"I felt like I am useful there"* (Participant, 15). In addition, participant 15 compared himself to his mentor, who had an HL background, saying,

And then I have twice as much work as him. I mean, when I read something, I have to translate it into my language first. I have to understand it and translate it back into English to be able to teach it. But for them it's just playing around with things. Yeah. So I thought to myself: OK, that's my difficulty.

Similarly, participant 19 noted, *"There were some kinds of poems that I wanted to teach, and I did not even know what kind of poems they were. And he told me how to analyse them."* Participant 9 also acknowledged, *"I did English as my first additional language and now I teach it as Home Language, so I faced a lot of challenges."*

Secondly, participants acknowledged that their accent and pronunciation were not up to standard in the schools where they were teaching. Participant 20 said:

This was a bit difficult at times. As a speaker of a second or third language, you do not sound as perfect as someone who speaks the language as a first language or learned it as a home language, some of the words you pronounce differently.

Participant 18 agreed: *"English is not my first language, so sometimes pronouncing words becomes a problem and the mentor thinks you are not able to teach their children."* Participant 15 also explained: *"I come from Ekhasi, 12 years of my life I was taught a certain way and spoke a certain way. Then I came into a very contrasting environment which was very different from mine. So it was difficult."* These were the realities which contributed to the sociolinguistic exclusion

during mentoring of the PSTs in the study. On another note, it was also evident in the data that there was a lack of resilience to the new spaces, as one PST indicated. This will be explained below.

4.10.2 Lack of resilience

Although this theme is mainly based on participant 15's responses, it is important to note that it also helps to understand whether the characteristics of the PSTs do not also contribute to how they experience mentorship in these contexts. Participant 15, for example, decided to change schools and return to his comfort zone even though the mentor wanted to help him. He was afraid because the results of the teaching practise were a life-changing decision that the university teacher would make. There were signs that the participant was very anxious because he said to himself, *"I am sure these kids know English better than I do. And now I just do not understand anything."* All this can demonstrate the complexity of the issues around the experiences of ESL PSTs in quintile four and five schools.

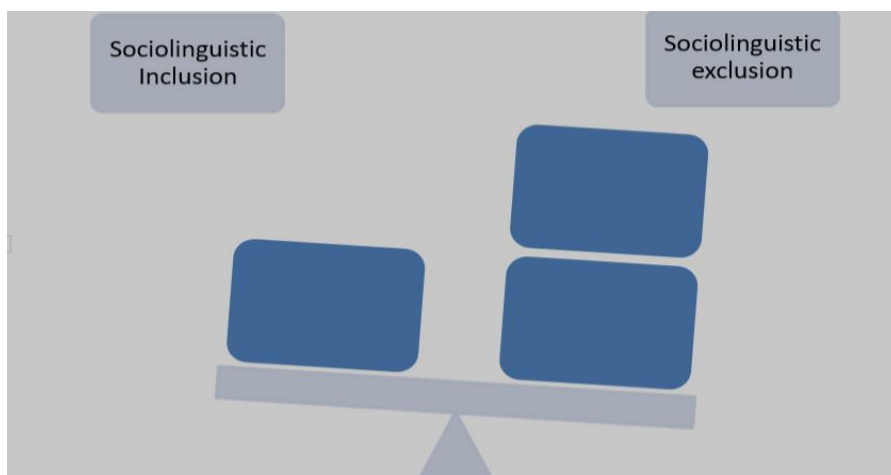


Figure 7: Visual summary of the experiences of the PSTs—inclusion compared to exclusion

4.11 Conclusion

In this chapter, the research results are presented using tables, bar charts and pie charts. The data presented was collected using the selected research instruments. The researcher used qualitative methods to analyse the data. In this chapter, the researcher has also presented the findings of the study in the form of themes based on the research questions and the sub-themes that emerged. The data from the questionnaire were presented first, followed by the interviews.

The two sets of data helped to confirm some of the unforeseen themes that were not anticipated by the aim of the study. However, the participants have differing understandings of the term school-based mentorship. They also know what is meant by inclusive and exclusionary school-based mentoring. Finally, sociolinguistic identity also had an impact on how they experienced mentorship. There were aspects of both inclusion and exclusion during mentorship. The researcher also presented the unanticipated themes when presenting the data in order to take advantage of all the data provided by the participants and to acknowledge the insights and contributions they could make. This reveals the complexity of the issue of ESL teachers' experiences in education, which will be analysed in depth in Chapter Five. In order to understand the data presented, it is useful to discuss the findings of the study in the light of the existing literature in order to establish their correlation with other studies and the theories underlying the study. The next section of this chapter therefore focuses on the discussion of the results.

Chapter Five: Discussion on Research Findings

5.1 Introduction

This study primarily explored the mentoring experiences of PSTs during their time in fourth and fifth quintile schools in Johannesburg. While the researcher's main aim was to examine sociolinguistic inclusion and exclusion, other experiences unrelated to sociolinguistic identity were also reported in the data. Both provided rich data on what ESL PSTs experience during TP. Even though there were also mentorship experiences which were not linked to sociolinguistic identity, inclusion and exclusion, the presentation of data could not foreground such experiences or put much emphasis. The aim and purpose of the study was not much interested in ordinary experiences but experiences which highlights answers the research aim. In addition, the study could not ignore that the PSTs took a closer look at school mentorship and their understanding of inclusion and exclusion. This was important in order to have background information so that participants could contextualise their experiences of inclusion and exclusion. In addition, the study explored unforeseen themes that emerged from both the questionnaire responses and the interviews. The unforeseen themes that emerged during the data analysis are in the nature of inductive data analysis and the researcher could not ignore them as they provide insight into the research and open up avenues for further research. These discussions are anchored in the research findings and related to the existing literature and theoretical framework while addressing the key research questions of the study.

5.2 Theme One: Pre-service teachers' Perceptions of Mentorship

Mentorship is a multifaceted concept and scholars define it differently in different contexts (Ambrosetti et al., 2014). Similarly, in the responses to the questionnaire and interviews there was a wide range of perceptions on what mentorship entails.

5.2.1 Sub-theme one: Perception 1 - Allocation of Pre-service teachers to the mentors

Thirteen per cent of the PSTs' explanations included the descriptive level of mentorship, the observable action which is done by mentors during the practicum. The participants understood that as soon as the PST is allocated to the mentor, educator mentorship takes place. What the PSTs did not realise is that there are possibilities of what Hart (1992) refers to as "tokenism" in the

mentorship process during TP. What the researcher mean is that the mentor educators might take in the mentees as a symbolic gesture and yet not do as expected.

For instance, Trujillo (2018), in Columbia, reports that some PSTs are not allowed to teach because their teaching strategies are not aligned with those of their mentors. In addition, even the current study revealed that mentorship did not happen even though the PSTs were allocated to the mentor educators. Hence, one can say that this shows that according to this definition of mentorship, some of the participants have a narrow understanding of school-based mentorship. It can be concluded therefore that the above understanding of mentorship lacks depth given that there are complexities to what authentic mentorship entails. A mere allocation of the mentee to a specific educator cannot guarantee that the PST will get mentorship. The above comment does not disregard that the descriptive part is the first step towards receiving mentorship; however, it cannot be taken as the end but as the means to mentorship.

5.2.2 Sub-theme two: Perception 2 - Support and guidance given to Pre-service teachers

A more comprehensive explanation was given from the questionnaire; 41% of the participants held the view that school-based mentorship is the period when the PSTs receive support and guidance. It can be inferred that the aspect of support and guidance was also evident in the responses during the interviews as the PSTs argued that there was no alignment with what they would regard as mentorship because there was no support, guidance, and availability from the mentor educators. The PSTs definition of mentorship resonates with Roberts (2000), and Smith and Lynch (2014) who explain mentorship as the process when the mentor takes on the supporting role of guiding and promoting reflection and learning of the mentee. When elaborated further, support and guidance would mean mentorship which involves counselling, directing, and promoting the intellectual and/or professional growth of the mentees (Blackwell, 1989). In the process of support and guidance, what the mentor educators are doing is socialising the PSTs into the profession, as elaborated below.

5.2.3 Sub-theme three: Perception 3 - Socialisation into the profession

Furthermore, from the questionnaire, 32% of the participants also understood school-based mentorship in terms of socialisation of the PSTs. The forms of socialisation stated were, for example, pedagogical strategies and also the resource materials to be used. In some instances the

PSTs were introduced to the teaching standards of the HL curriculum, and they also admitted that teaching HL requires deeper critical thinking compared to FAL. In the interviews participants indicated that they found no alignment in what to expect as there was no socialisation on how to prepare the lesson. The findings in the current study complement the scholarly arguments and contentions. In the scholarly work, another central activity in mentorship which contributes to professional growth is the socialisation of the PSTs. According to Scanlon (2008), mentorship is seen as a process of induction or socialisation, whereby PSTs are inducted into the norms, pedagogy and practices of the school and the school system. The same argument is held by Mudzielwana and Maphosa (2014), who indicate that mentorship in the education system entails the facilitation given to the PSTs during TP. This understanding is aligned with some of the scholars who state that in the process of being mentored, some of the PSTs' characteristics and knowledge about the teaching profession get challenged (Damar & Sali, 2013), particularly those traits which are not aligned with the ethics and expectations of the teaching profession. Hence, it is during this period of mentorship that the PSTs embody their values, beliefs, and skills related to teaching (Damar & Sali, 2013).

However, an equally significant aspect to take note of from the above analysis, is that the PSTs inherently understood that during the mentorship process the mentors are the ones who are the more knowledgeable other and the PSTs are receivers of knowledge. This understanding speaks to the apprenticeship model of mentorship. According to Maggioli (2014), the apprenticeship model is based on mentor educators' know-how and the imitation of PSTs. Mentor educators are highly regarded as skilful craftspeople's (Brooks & Sikes, 1997, as cited in Ekiz, 2006) and PSTs are expected to emulate the modelled TPs. However, this is not what contemporary scholars refer to as mentorship anymore.

On the contrary, Hudson (2013) argues that mentoring is rather a more collegial, dynamic, reciprocal, collaborative, democratic, supportive, and equitable relationship with shared decisions rather than a top-down supervisor hierarchy. Hence it was important to recognise the contribution of participant 17 who mentioned that during mentorship there is the benefit of university pedagogical knowledge from the PSTs. It is the true reflection of the contemporary world in the workspaces. The world is changing, there are new teaching strategies which are coming up as a result of research, and these strategies are being taught in the universities, hence the constant

change of knowledge. As a result, mentees bring in new knowledge necessary for the job (Paquette, 2012). To add, Aderibidge et al. (2016) emphasise that such collaboration in the context of school-based mentorship must also not be subject to age, gender, race, and experience. In addition, this kind of perspective or understanding of the role and purpose of mentorship fits in well with one of the models of mentorship, referred to as educative mentorship (Schwille, 2008). The mentor educator takes the position of being a learner, not only the source of knowledge, but also a recipient, with the mentees having the ability to initiate and share ideas with the adults, which Hart (1992) believes should be the ultimate goal of inclusion.

As a result, in this study, Hudson's (2013) previously mentioned definition of mentorship is what this study resonates with, as mentioned in Chapter Two. This is the type of mentorship which promotes inclusion and takes the PSTs on board. The expertise and the professional knowledge of the two parties are taken into consideration and enhance inclusion. The mentorship which promotes inclusion is also what Hart's model emphasises: empowering inclusion, when the young adult (in this case the mentees) initiate ideas, collaborate, and have the autonomy. In this way there is also the forming of relationships, which is the next theme to be discussed.

5.2.4 Sub-theme four: Perception 4 - Time to build relationships

One of the areas mentioned by Hudson et al. (2005) when discussing effective mentoring is the personal attributes and the personal qualities of the mentor. Hudson (2013) points out that the mentor is supposed to be supportive and comfortable while engaging with the mentee. In other words, a relationship should be established. Castanheira (2016) strongly believes such egalitarian professional relationships can yield important promises for teachers' career development and job satisfaction and higher levels of confidence. That is, on a social level the relationship would allow sharing of the mentees' fears, doubts, and self-doubts. The participants in this study, from their answers on the questionnaire and interviews, also hold the perceptive that a life-giving relationship is key to mentorship both in professional and social relationships. From the questionnaire, participants believed that encouraging mentors who are empathetic, responsive, and open, will allow engagement either at a personal level or for professional reasons, despite the identity of individual mentees. In the interviews there was mention that the alignment happened because the mentor educator would ask about the well-being of individuals. All this is crucial as it creates a good environment for the mentees to gain experience, as it is one of the perceptions stated.

5.2.5 Sub-theme five: Perception 5 - Time to gain experience

From a psychological perspective, TP is rooted in the experiential learning initiated by Dewey (1938) and in the social-cognitive theory of Vygotsky (1978). Therefore, TP is believed to be an excellent opportunity to provide PSTs with an authentic learning environment, test their knowledge and skills related to their pedagogical philosophies and theories, develop self-confidence, and increase their effectiveness as future teachers (Altintas & Gorgen, 2014). In view of the stated points on TP, in the study, the PSTs' perception on mentorship also states that it is the time to gain experience. They understood that during this period it is important to get to know what is expected in the teaching profession so that there is no struggle after graduation. In addition, the PSTs get to put into practice the theories they learnt at university. Morrison and Werf (2012, p. 1) rightly say, "Theory without practice is empty; and practice without theory is blind." Furthermore, it is also important to note that besides the five perceptions above, the participants explained what outcomes are expected after the mentoring process. Participants stated that effective mentoring should have a positive, observable outcome; that is, there should be evidence of professional growth for the PSTs; thus, "moving beyond the mere transmission of skills and knowledge to promote professional development and emphasise reflection on practice" (Nam et al., 2013, p. 816).

In summary, in theme one, there are different levels of perceptions on mentorship. Some refer to physical access to the classroom and being attached to a mentor; others refer to school-based mentorship as building relationships and significant participation and gaining experience. Given what was discussed, inclusive mentoring practices are key to achieving effective outcomes. Therefore, it is paramount that there is meaningful participation, support, and guidance during the mentorship process.

5.3 Theme Two: Participants' Understanding of Inclusive and Exclusionary Mentoring Practices

People have different perceptions of what might be considered inclusion or exclusion. The data show that participants have a deeper understanding of inclusion and exclusion that is not limited to the level of formal access or mere integration into the group. Their understanding of exclusion is also broad. The same depth of understanding of these two concepts was then applied to the

understanding of inclusive or exclusionary school-based mentoring. The discussion below will first discuss the aspects of inclusion.

5.3.1 Sub-theme one: Inclusion

The following sub-topics explain the understanding of inclusion.

- ***Participation in social activities***

Inclusion is when “members of the community, group or institution are enabled to participate fully in the activities of society regardless of their identities such as race, sexuality, age or religion” (Wenger, 2010, p. 10). The emphasis of participation is also key in Hart’s (1992) model. He gives different levels of inclusion, but he regards the two rungs at the bottom of the ladder as non-participation because individuals would be in the community but are manipulated or just present as decoration. Furthermore, he does not regard the one-way of communication as inclusion because other people are just informed and become recipients of already made decisions without opportunities to give their views. Hence, the study was aligned to the perspective of inclusion as was mentioned in terms of participation. This is evident from the views of 23% of the participants from the questionnaire data. They considered inclusion as involving and participating in social activities. In other words, inclusion means that social structures do not erect barriers that prevent some people from participating in society's activities. For example, having a community where certain people of a certain gender, race, academic background, or sociolinguistic identity are not active citizens in some contexts.

- ***Embracing diversity***

In addition, embracing diversity was also key to understanding inclusion in this study. Fourteen per cent of participants felt that inclusion is demonstrated when those included are acknowledged and valued for their ideas and make a meaningful contribution to the community. The World Bank (2013) explains that social inclusion means participating in society and contributing to decision-making in any social space in which one finds oneself. In other words, inclusion takes into account opinions and proposals to a greater extent and influences the status quo. It can be concluded that social inclusion is a more deliberate process that includes and welcomes all people and promotes greater equality and tolerance between individuals from different backgrounds and with different identities (Silver, 1995).

- ***Unconditional provision of opportunities***

Similarly, 26% of participants emphasised that inclusion is when opportunities are provided unconditionally, without discrimination. It is recognised that in the history of the community there are people who were once marginalised and that these people need to be recognised and participate in the activities of society. In this case, inclusion is seen through the lens of correcting the past, when the formerly excluded are moved from the margins of society to the centre. This compelling understanding of inclusion speaks to Freiler's (2003) argument about inclusion: it goes beyond bringing people in from the outside or imagining the periphery against the centre or 'us' and 'them'. She proposes a transformative agenda that points to the changes needed in public policy, attitudes and institutional practice. In summary, social inclusion requires more than just removing barriers. Therefore, the inclusion of the PSTs is measured by their ability to enter schools that were previously known to be segregated. Formal access is not crucial here, but rather what happens in the classroom, i.e. epistemological access to the teaching profession.

5.3.2 Sub-theme two: Inclusive mentoring practices

The following sub-themes explain the understanding of inclusion in the context of school-based mentorship.

- ***Formal access and unconditional mentoring***

According to Allan (2007), inclusion is a contextual concept. Schools, different institutions, and society in general can explain it differently. In the case of workplaces, it could mean that individuals feel part of the organisational system, both in the formal and informal processes. Shore et al. (2011) further develop the essence of inclusion: to feel accepted in a work group, two complementary needs must be met—Belonging and Uniqueness. This understanding was also shared by the participants in the current study. The study showed that inclusion in the context of school-based mentorship means that formal access to any school is possible for individuals. This means that no identity or background should be a barrier to being part of the teaching team at any school during the placement. This could be understood in the context of South Africa, where there are different school contexts due to the history of the country. Historically, some of the schools were reserved for certain racial or ethnic groups.

In terms of acceptance, it is not enough that the PSTs are allowed to teach in the schools. There is a consensus that the PSTs should be unconditionally mentored in any school context. The mentor should fully mentor the diverse PSTs he or she encounters and respond to their needs (Abiddin & Hassan, 2012). In other words, the study showed that a mentor should be responsive to the uniqueness of the individual. Considering the differentiation in mentoring different mentees, this could mean that on Hart's (1992) ladder of participation, some of the PSTs need to be assigned tasks but informed and tasks should be modelled for them. The researcher argue that such a starting point would lead to more meaningful and authentic participation if they were given more practise. In this way, individuals could feel they belong when it comes to contexts that require a higher level of content knowledge than they have acquired.

- ***Authentic participation***

As mentioned by the World Bank, the definition of inclusion is one that takes into account opinions and suggestions that affect the status quo. In Hart's (1992) ladder of participation, he also points out that there are different levels of participation. Participation that can be considered effective inclusion is when young and old people share decision-making power; in some cases it is the young people who come up with the ideas. These specific elements of inclusion were also mentioned in the current study. Twenty-seven per cent of participants felt that inclusion in the context of mentoring should include authentic participation, and 14% of participants cited collaboration and learning as hallmarks of inclusion in school-based mentoring. This means that participants felt that mentors should recognise and trust the mentee's legitimacy to teach and collaborate. If weaknesses are identified in the mentee, there should be a supportive mentoring relationship, as described in the previous paragraph.

5.3.3 Sub-theme three: Exclusion

Participants also explained what they understood by the term exclusion and how exclusion can be identified in mentorship. Evidence suggests that exclusionary mentoring means not being recognised in planning and teaching, being denied individuality and not having the opportunity to teach.

- ***Discrimination***

The current study looked at exclusion in two different perspectives. The study also shows that sometimes belonging to the group does not lead to inclusion. Instead, there can be inherent or sometimes explicit forms of discrimination. The analysis revealed that exclusion is characterised by discrimination, as confirmed by 14% of respondents who hold this perspective. Discrimination was explained as being treated differently from other members of the community. The purpose of discrimination is to deny excluded members of the community access to knowledge and skills that lead to higher mobility. The consequence of discrimination is denial of participation, another theme that emerged in the explanation of exclusion. Discrimination is also key to the history of the development of social inclusion, when the poor were discriminated against based on issues such as race, gender or ethnicity (Paoletti, 2011).

- ***Denial of access and opportunity to participate in the community***

Fifteen per cent of participants believed that exclusion could manifest itself in denial of access and opportunity to participate in the community. There is a belief that in some communities there are rules that can exclude members from participation. The analysis has shown that the community may impose some requirements that the other group cannot meet, leaving that group on the margins of society because they are seen as different from the norm. The two perspectives on exclusion support the idea that participants do understand exclusion, its definition, its characteristics and its impact on people. Therefore, their self-reflection on their experiences as mentors is significant. Thus, the following theme focused on the understanding of exclusion in school-based mentorship.

The understanding of exclusion in this study is in line with existing views on exclusion. There are two paradigms of exclusion captured in this study. First, exclusion is described as "the process by which individuals or groups are wholly or partially excluded from full participation in the society in which they live" (de Haan, 1999, p. 2). The second paradigm, which is in the Northern European tradition, is the monopoly paradigm, based on the work of Weber, who argues that power relations are an essential component of social order (de Haan, 1999). Exclusion is defined as "a consequence of the formation of group monopolies that restrict the access of outsiders through social closure" (de Haan, 1999, p. 6). In the paradigm of monopoly, it can be understood that members of society who do not share the same values and identity can be excluded. Importantly, monopoly is not

always exercised by the majority of the population, because numbers do not equal power. De Haan's work is corroborated by the work of Weber, who argues that social order is coercive and enforced through hierarchical power relations. This has to do with historically developed power relations that have existed for a long time.

5.3.4 Sub-theme four: *Exclusionary mentoring practices*

After giving their understanding of exclusion, the participants go on to explain what exclusion would mean in the context of school-based mentorship.

- ***Refusal of chances to participate***

According to de Haan (1999), "exclusion reflects discrimination, the drawing of group distinctions that deny individuals full access to or participation in exchange or interaction" (p. 6). The analysis refers to the definition of exclusion mentioned above and indicates that exclusion in mentorship can also mean denial of teaching opportunities. This was noted by 36% of the participants. There are several forms of denial of teaching opportunities for PSTs that can be inferred from the study. Firstly, PSTs are overlooked and asked to watch the mentor teach just because they are of a certain skin colour. Or, in some cases, they are just assistants without direct interaction with the learners. It is therefore evident that the data points to a permanent refusal to participate throughout the practicum period. However, it is important to note that the study does not refer to the period of observation, which is essential at the beginning of the practice. The researcher also agrees that the abovementioned forms of mentorship can be considered exclusionary because in such cases the epistemological access to the teaching profession—which is the aim of mentorship—does not take place.

Secondly, exclusion can also occur when the PST is not even allowed to be in the classroom to observe when the mentors are teaching. It is safe to say that such a form of exclusion during the mentorship corresponds to what is called decoration in Hart's (1992) model of participation, i.e., only being seen during an event organised for a specific purpose. In this case, that would be the event of practicum.

- ***Lack of recognition***

In the case of this study, it is also clear that exclusion in school mentorship would include a lack of recognition. From the study, 18% of the participants felt that there was a lack of recognition in

the process of lesson planning. This form of exclusion means that the mentor does not recognise the academic credentials of the PST. Therefore, their contribution to the teaching strategies is not seen as appropriate. In some cases, participation is controlled; it must be done according to the norms of the context. Therefore, denial of individuality was also mentioned as a form of exclusion during TP. The data suggest that individuality can also be lost through dictatorship when the mentor prescribes all teaching methods. This can be understood to mean that PSTs are aware that it becomes problematic when assimilation occurs (Monga et al., 1984, cited in Sayed et al., 2003).

5.4 Theme three: Pre-service teachers' Experiences of Sociolinguistic Inclusion and Exclusion

In society, humanity is divided because of ideologies based on language. These ideologies influence all the decisions people make and how they may view certain people in different areas. This means that some ideologies inevitably and often unconsciously contain "certain idealised evaluations and judgements about appropriate language forms and functions, together with opinions about individuals and groups that follow or defy conventional expectations" (McGroarty, 2010, p. 3). The researcher agrees with the above argument along with the argument on sociolinguistic competence, there is a belief that second language speakers of English lack competence (Norton & Morgan, 2013). However, the data in this study confirm that the evaluations and judgements which happen based on the abovementioned ideologies have both a negative and positive impact on people in the society. At times these result in the exclusion of others, as well as inclusion when some individuals take their time to teach those who need help. The following themes and sub-themes elaborate on socio-linguistic inclusion and exclusion during school-based mentorship.

5.4.1 Sub-theme One: Experiences of Inclusion

There were different forms of inclusion. These will be explained below:

- ***Authentic participation***

First, the questionnaire data show that PSTs participated authentically. It is clear from the interviews that the PSTs had time to observe and teach. The data show that observation did not happen only once, but that the different topics presented different challenges, so they were able to observe more often. This allowed them to be involved in the planning and delivery of the lessons.

A very important aspect of the questionnaire showed that 18% of the participants were allowed to bring their material to incorporate into their lessons and they had the opportunity to implement the lesson plans without interruption. In other words, they were allowed to make mistakes, gain experience, and correct it through reflection under the guidance of the mentor. This kind of participation is what the participants in this study had envisioned as effective and inclusive mentorship in the previous discussions. This is the kind of mentorship that can be praised: participation that provides an epistemological approach to knowledge about teaching.

Moreover, these findings are consistent with Xie and Cui's (2021) study from Hong Kong in which pre-service ESL teachers encountered open-minded mentors during their English teaching. The mentor gave the PSTs enough autonomy to make professional decisions, put his or her beliefs about teaching into practice, and treated the mentee as a colleague. Flexibility prevailed, with the mentors allowing mutual learning. The mentor learnt the new perspectives of current TPs from the PST, and the mentee acquired teaching strategies from the mentor's experience. It can be inferred that the mentors treated the PSTs as valued members of society (Silver, 2015) who participated and contributed to decision-making (World Bank, 2013). These outcomes are also what Hart (1992) calls participation and empowerment in his model. With this experience, PSTs will be well equipped to be effective educators.

- ***Supported***

Hudson (2013) points out that the mentor should be supportive and comfortable engaging with the mentee. In the case of this study, such support was necessary given the sociolinguistic identity of the participants. Webb et al. (2010) note that FAL learners have limited grammatical, textual and sociolinguistic competence. Grosser and Nel (2013) agree, noting that the lack of language skills also spills over into higher education, especially for learners from black township schools. It is contested that English exists at different levels. The elite and their children have access to prestigious varieties of the spoken and written language, while the mass of students only have access to “substandard varieties that are only locally valid” (Prinsloo, 2012, p. 31). In the current study, such diversity was found to affect the ability of PSTs to teach English in fourth and fifth quintile schools. It is therefore important that PSTs are supported by their mentors as this shows that they are integrated. The PSTs are then socialised and prepared to be better teachers, firstly in

terms of content, pedagogy, and social support, despite the gaps that exist because of their academic background.

- ***Pedagogical Support***

In terms of content and pedagogical support, it is clear from the questionnaire that participants 17 and 13 recognised that the mentors noticed their *struggle*. Participant 19 explained in detail in the interviews and questionnaire how difficult it was for her to teach poetry at the level of HL and the teacher modelled and explained the difference between the requirements of the two curricula. There was pedagogical support through joint planning, regardless of race and gender, which surprised some of the mentees such as participant 6 who had expected exclusion because of his race and gender. The gratitude in the data thus speaks volumes about the importance of the support that PSTs receive from their mentors. This embrace of diversity is cited as one of the characteristics of social inclusion, whereby citizens bring about change by recognising diversity (Engelbrecht, 2006), i.e., individuals are integrated into the social relations of daily life and participate as valued members of the community (European Community, 1980, cited in Collins, 2003). The foregoing results are plausible as they challenge the normalised model of mentoring the PSTs—the competence model. In this model, usually one of the popular aims of TP is assessing the competence of the mentees guided by the standards of their contexts (Leshem, 2012). In the case of the above results, the focus was on fostering professional development.

The findings of the current study are also consistent with those of Aderibigbe (2013) in Scotland, and Ok and Capa-Aydin (2019) in Turkey. They report that pre-service English teachers received support and affirmation on their teaching attempts from their mentors. Trujillo (2018) adds that some pre-service English teachers testified that their skills and content knowledge had improved during their TP. The mentors were accommodating and introduced the PSTs to different teaching strategies for different content. This is evidence of the effectiveness of sociolinguistic inclusion during mentorship. Furthermore, there cannot be doubts that in this study, cognitive development took place in the classroom, confirming Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory. Vygotsky argues that cognitive development occurs through social interaction between members of society and that social interaction, language and cultural contexts influence an individual's cognitive development (Shooshtari & Mir, 2014). However, even if the PSTs received support, the researcher would argue that it is not the cure for their incapacity to teach. The incapacity to teach speaks to the debates

from sociolinguistics. The lack of exposure to what is regarded as prestigious English is detrimental to the future prospects of the individuals (Cavanagh, 2016). The reality of the difference of the two curricula is evident in this study. The good intentions of the educational policy with regard to English in the schools have resulted in the unintended consequences. The linguistic landscape in South Africa has proven that it is diverse, there are some constricting norms they have to fit into. Furthermore, besides the pedagogical support, in some parts of the interviews and questionnaire data in the current study, there was a good relationship between the mentors and the PSTs; the mentors provided social support. These aspects are discussed in more detail in the following sections.

- ***Social support***

Social support was not explicitly mentioned in the questionnaire but was acknowledged by the PSTs in the interviews. The mentors persuaded and encouraged the PSTs to teach and to believe in themselves. There was evidence that the PSTs doubted themselves at some point, given the circumstances they faced. Participants also praised the support they received from mentors during the interviews. All this was done to make the PSTs feel valued and at the centre of the teaching community rather than on the margins (Wenger, 2010). However, social support is something which is missing in the definition of mentoring. Much emphasis is on pedagogical support. For example, Mudzielwana and Maphosa (2014) and Ingersoll and Strong (2011) define mentorship as the support that PSTs receive during TP as they plan, deliver, and evaluate lessons. Therefore, the emphasis on inclusive mentorship in mentoring PSTs is still of great importance as it also gives PSTs a sense of belonging.

- ***Empowerment and sense of belonging***

When the PSTs received support and were allowed to participate, they felt a sense of belonging and empowerment. They acknowledged the treatment because they had expected exclusion due to their identity, but this was not the case. Furthermore, the inclusion built their self- confidence, and they felt their race, sociolinguistic identity or gender orientation were not grounds for prejudice. These experiences are consistent with what Nikoçeviq-Kurti and Saqipi (2022) suggest for the quality of mentoring when mentors demonstrate qualities such as hospitality, openness to collaboration, non-judgmental methods, space for participation, and encouragement to take the

initiative. Also, in explaining the key elements of inclusion, Mor-Barak (2015) emphasises that the concept of inclusion in the workplace refers to the individual's sense of being part of the organisational system, in both formal and informal processes. Furthermore, the African paradigm of inclusion also emphasises that inclusion is rooted in personhood, which emphasises being human within a community, with social cohesion as a fundamental value. The central idea of the communality paradigm is *mothofatso*, the binarity between people (Ramose, 1999). Most importantly, in African customs and cultures, there cannot be societies where the 'others' do not belong, so there is an ontological equality (Phasha et al., 2017). This sense of belonging on the part of the pre-teachers thus attests to the aspect of inclusion during the school-based mentorship. The aspect of belonging was also evident in that both sets of data showed that PSTs felt that their sociolinguistic identity was valued. Participants in these two data sets indicated that being bilingual was found to be a resource that helps ESL learners doing HL curriculum. Hence, there was genuine integration with not having to give up some identities in order to 'fit' into the dominant system (Carrim, 2001).

5.4.2 Pre-service teachers' experiences of sociolinguistic exclusion

The data show that participants experienced exclusion because of their sociolinguistic identity. This exclusion included humiliation and degradation, denial of participation, stereotyping and marginalisation and these experiences of exclusion led to negative emotions. The first point to be discussed is degradation and humiliation.

- ***Degraded and humiliated***

It is also clear from the interviews and the questionnaire that in some cases there were moments when teaching was taking place, but the teaching process was characterised by humiliation. Firstly, the most striking instances of interjecting became part of the mentoring experience. It can be said interjection in some ways was a humiliation in front of the learners that led to the loss of dignity and respect of the ESL PST. This is an issue put forth by Fairclough (1995) who states that PST education can be viewed as an apprenticeship into a 'mainstream' teacher culture, into particular linguistic and cultural norms. There are some standardised, normalised cultures of a particular dominant culture and these are often reproduced and deemed relevant, legitimate, and appropriate. The researcher agrees with Fairclough because the study has demonstrated this as there were also

moments, especially as mentioned in the interviews, when the mentor educator took over teaching from the PST in the middle of the lesson.

Secondly, there was constant correction of the pronunciation of words in front of the learners. The mentors pointed out that there are some expected skills that are characteristic of 'being a teacher'. Being an English teacher requires not only content but also what Bourdieu (1986) calls cultural capital in its embodied form, attuned to the standards and episteme of the English language. This refers to the issues of Discourse, which refers to socially established ways of thinking, being, acting, knowing, valuing, and believing through language and is regarded as of significance (Gee, 1999). Without these elements, ESL pre-service English teachers remain on the periphery of the teaching community. Their practices are consistently seen as irrelevant, and their meanings and values are not verified as they cannot be expressed in terms of the dominant culture and are therefore not recognised (Byrne, 2005). Moreover, outside the school context, there are certain monolithic beliefs in society about a single, correct, and authoritative standard way of writing or pronouncing the English language, and the belief that there is only one correct dialect, while others are "slang" (Siegel, 2006, cited in McGroarty, 2010, p. 19). As a result, even qualified educators, and mentees (as evident in the literature) who speak a second language have difficulty asserting and negotiating their identity as legitimate English educators (Reis, 2011). They are often seen as second-class professionals. There are some stereotypes also associated with their sociolinguistic identity.

- ***Stereotyping and marginalisation***

Instances of stereotyping were reported in the data. There, people doubted the PSTs' ability to teach. Mostly the stereotyping was based on the fact that the PSTs were not HL speakers; hence, they could not teach English. In the questionnaires there were cases where people were asked about the resources and teaching examples they had used because they were too good to have come from the PST. In the interviews, there was more evidence of mistrust stemming from stereotypes about the PSTs. The PSTs would not be allowed to teach if their lesson plans were not checked. Refusal to check lesson plans was understood by mentees as inherent marginalisation because then they would not be able to teach. A difference was noted between the experiences of mentees in quintiles one to three where their ability to teach was not questioned. This confirms Trujillo's (2018) observation of deficit notions of intelligence and potential associated with pre-service English

second language speakers. However, such ideologies are incompatible with social inclusion values, particularly the paradigm of communality from the Afrocentric tradition (Menketi, 1984; Ramose, 1999), which emphasises personhood, where being human within a community is highlighted, with social cohesion being a key principle. According to Phasha et al. (2017), there is an "ontological sameness", mainly because in African traditions and cultures there cannot be communities to which the 'others' do not belong (p. 12).

Another level of stereotyping and marginalisation was undermining the activities given by the PSTs. For instance, it was degrading when a participant from the interviews indicated that the work which she gave to the learners was supposed to be written on paper, not the formal exercise books for activities. It can also be concluded that the reason behind the stereotypes might be that mentorship is also affected by the cultural and social context (Wang, 2001). For example, schools identified as English schools in the past would be different from their counterparts. Furthermore, in this study it was evident that the context played a significant role because the issues of stereotyping of ESL PSTs was also a way of the school being loyal to the stakeholders who did not agree with their children being taught by ESL PSTs, given that other PSTs with HL background were teaching English. Furthermore, Koster et al. (1998) argue that mentors' context of work entails particular domains of knowledge and generates specific roles. Therefore, the experiences of the PSTs in this study are located in the broader ideologies about mentorship and sociolinguistic identities. Hence the participants did acknowledge in answering the questionnaire that, as ESL English PSTs, there is still a long way to go until they are accepted as authentic teachers of English. They will continue to be there for what Hart (1992) refers to as decoration, operating on the first rung of non-participation. At the end, the different forms of exclusion above resulted in being denied the opportunity to teach, which the next theme to be discussed below is.

- ***Denial of opportunity to participate in***

In this study, there were different levels of denial opportunity to participate. In some cases, for example in the interviews, the participants encountered issues of being left in the staff room during teaching time. Secondly, in both the interviews and the questionnaires, it was reported that they were only observers while the mentor-educators taught and the PSTs did not have the opportunity to implement their teaching strategies. At times they were assistants with tasks other than teaching.

These findings are not new; Alemdag and Simsek (2017) confirm that PSTs have experienced being labelled as assistants. As a result, there are often communication problems and PSTs are ignored and not trusted to practice in the school. Similarly, Nayir and Cinkir (2014) report that the PSTs were dissatisfied because they are sometimes introduced as an 'older sister' rather than a PST. This title already had the connotation that they are not seen as colleagues. This would then lead to PSTs feeling that TP does not provide them with opportunities to apply teaching strategies and theories learnt at university (Aderibidge et al., 2016). It is unfortunate that PSTs can be excluded on the basis of their sociolinguistic identity. Such practices of mentorship are not in line with the goals of mentorship: mentors are expected to be non-judgmental, to honour suppressed knowledge, and to value various forms of diversity (Kluth et al., 2003, cited in Göransson & Nilholm, 2014). Aderibigbe et al. (2016) points out in their study that PSTs expect their mentors to treat them as colleagues, that is, to be treated as legitimate teachers despite their sociolinguistic identity, which might be different from the school context.

This problem is also raised by Trujillo (2018), Xie and Cui (2021) who report that the pre-service English teachers perceive language teaching as prescriptive and objectified and therefore have no room for alternatives. The researcher would say this is a reality, that English is categorised, having one variety which is regarded as standard. Its dominance results in disregarding of any other variety because there are yardsticks when it comes to grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary. It is for this reason that countries like Korea drive towards pushing for Standard English so that its citizens are globalised (Cavanagh, 2016). In South Africa, the educational system offers different English curricula, resulting in sociolinguistic exclusion when individuals are meant to participate in the contrasting teaching and learning environments. In the present study, in some cases there was total refusal to allow PSTs to teach and they would only teach for the university tutor to assess and nothing else beyond that. Such negative relational experiences lead to emotional upset (Gormley, 2008) which is going to be discussed below.

The exclusionary mentorship had a negative impact on the mentees. They felt mistrusted, demotivated, frustrated, inferior, sad, and afraid of failing and their self-confidence was destroyed. Hudson and Hudson (2018) agree that exclusionary mentoring experiences even have the potential to harm and can be a major barrier to the emergence of productive mentoring (Gormley, 2008). In the case of this study, mentorship did not fulfil all its goals. Research shows that there are four key elements for a positive practicum: support from the supervising teacher, freedom to develop own

teaching style, constructive feedback, and approach to assessment (Moody, 2009, p. 159). Moreover, it is these mentoring experiences that motivate PSTs to make important career decisions about whether to stay in their profession. However, although the participants in the study experienced exclusion, they did not strongly indicate that they would change their teaching profession; instead they considered changing the course to avoid taking English as a major teaching subject. They were also determined to continue because they realised that they were needed in such spaces to facilitate epistemological access to English as a subject for ESL learners. Participant 19, despite the direct exclusion that she experienced, still proudly said, “*This is my profession.*” There is also complexity on the issue of exclusion which was experienced.

Another perspective on the lack of participation was not necessarily that they were excluded, but that the mentee from the interviews lacked confidence and therefore did not want to participate in case the ideas he initiated were met with rejection. This confirms Hoben’s (2021) point of view that the tensions and exclusion during the practicum are often caused by the frustration of the mentors when they find that PSTs lack content knowledge and other basic qualities. However, an experienced mentor can help negate such undesirable behaviours and practices and work with the mentee.

All in all, despite other contributing factors such as the loopholes in the English curriculum in South Africa and also individual traits, exclusion cannot be condoned or justified. The standardisation, when critically analysed, is not a fact but a fallacy and a myth. Chomsky (2000) strongly argues, “The only intrinsic superiority of one language over another is that if one of them has more guns the other” (p. 6). She continues to say that when the Greeks were in power English was one of the barbaric languages, a language considered as not a language at all (Chomsky, 2000). Hence the power of English lies mainly in its imperial powers. Therefore, competencies are historically, socially, and politically constructed, and the focus is on preparing a predominantly white, monolingual teaching force (Haddix, 2010). As a result, other English varieties and skills do not find a place in some places. This is also true of the experiences of the PSTs in this study in fourth and fifth quintile schools. It was noted in the questionnaire that some participants were resourceful and valued when teaching the HL curriculum. Similarly, one of the participants stated in the interviews that if he could not cope in fourth and fifth quintile schools, he did well in first to third quintile schools. In some cases, other participants did not experience marginalisation in

fourth and fifth quintile schools when they had mentors with similar sociolinguistic backgrounds. Instead, they felt they were a useful resource for ESL learners who were struggling to study English HL. The researcher therefore admit that the findings of the current study are complex, and one can add that exclusion was merely an "attitudinal barrier", with low expectations, stereotypes, and negative attitude (Ahmad, 2012, p. 4). The researcher says this because some mentors, native speakers of English, involved the PSTs and had good results. In light of their experiences, participants made suggestions on how mentorship could be improved to bring about a paradigm shift in mentors' attitudes towards exclusionary practices.

5.5 Unforeseen Themes

There were reflections revealed in the study which were not part of the study, but very important as they contribute to the understanding of the intersectionality of sociolinguistic identity and context during the teaching practicum.

5.5.1 Sub-theme One: Pre-service teachers' acknowledgement of being unequipped to teach English

Webb et al. (2010) claim that in South African schools, learners who teach FAL have limited grammatical, textual, and sociolinguistic competence. Grosser and Nel (2013) agree, noting that the lack of language skills also spills over into higher education, especially for learners from black townships. This is true because the data showed that the PSTs in the study acknowledge that they faced some challenges. For example, the teaching environment required them to speak fluently and yet they were used to speaking in their language. In some cases, participants also admitted in the interviews that they were not able to teach in the given context, so they did not want to implement new ideas, but only wanted to teach what the teachers told them to teach. It can be concluded that the sociolinguistic identity of the participants in the context of the fourth and fifth quintile schools resulted in low self-esteem. It can be deduced that offering the FAL curriculum to students does lead to a limited form of citizenship outside of school. This is in agreement with Ndhlovu (2020) who argues that some language policies are designed with good intentions, they also have the darker side, and they often result in unintended consequences such as social, economic, and political marginalisation of speakers of language varieties that do not fit with the

rigid normative language policy regimes. As Tollefson (1991) adds, such language planning is ipso facto planning inequality.

I would argue that the differentiation of the curriculum in school can be seen as systematic exclusion. Learners doing FAL are at risk of failing TP as in the questionnaire, one participant indicated that, in some cases, they were on the verge of failing the practicum because their level of proficiency could not be accepted by mentors. This included word pronunciation and content knowledge. Because the South African education system failed to transform the English curriculum and equip ESL learners with sophisticated English, it continued to marginalise this group of learners even after the end of apartheid. The researcher can use the analogy of getting a gun without bullets to explain the role of FAL for ESL English PSTs. The argument is that equal opportunity at the same level of English should not be undermined. The literature repeatedly points out that though field placements are spaces in which particular teacher identities can be tried out and practices and pedagogies tested, PSTs' identities are also exposed to new conceptual, pedagogical, cultural, and political influences within their school internship (Danielsson & Warwick, 2014).

5.5.2 Lack of resilience

Hoben (2021) foregrounds the complexity of mentoring, posing the issue that mentoring requires the willingness and participation of the two: mentor and mentee. If the mentee lacks the desire to teach it, this puts strain on the mentor. There is evidence from the interviews that one of the mentees could not adapt well to the HL context even if the mentor was inclusive. Instead, the mentee opted for familiar contexts, leaving the quintile four school. Therefore, as much as there was inclusion, and the participant was supposed to take the opportunity to learn, he admitted that the environment was too different

5.6 Conclusion

This chapter served as a platform for discussing, analysing and interpreting the data collected throughout the study and provided insights into the unique experiences and challenges faced by ESL PSTs during their mentorship in Johannesburg. The aim was to make connections between the data and the research objectives and to explore the factors that contribute to sociolinguistic inclusivity and exclusivity in the mentoring context. By summarising the findings, Chapter 5

appeared to provide valuable insights into this critical aspect of education, with the ultimate aim of informing strategies and recommendations for more inclusive and effective mentoring practises that better prepare ESL PSTs for the teaching profession in diverse linguistic and cultural settings. Furthermore, in this chapter, the researcher analysed the results of the study in terms of three main themes that the researcher had identified and the related sub-themes that had emerged. The researcher contextualised the results against the background of existing literature and the theoretical framework and Hart (1992)'s ladder of participation. The findings of this study indicate that what the PSTs experienced was not something new, there are some PSTs who have also experienced inclusion and exclusion during school-based mentorship. In addition, the theoretical framework also deepened the understanding of why there were some aspects of inclusion and exclusion during the mentorship of ESL PSTs in this study. The analysis also revealed that there is complexity in why at times the PSTs can be excluded. It is not only that the mentors are prejudiced, but it is a reality that the PSTs lack the knowledge needed to teach English as HL. This has been admitted by the mentees in the study and also literature confirms the gaps in ESL speakers' proficiency in English. While the focus can be on how to enhance mentorship, there is also a need to look at the possibility of having one English curriculum leading to economic mobility with easy participation in the society. The following chapter presents the overview, recommendations, and limitations of the current study.

Chapter Six: Overview, Recommendations, and Limitations

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the researcher summarises the diverse insights gained from researching the mentorship experiences of ESL PSTs in Johannesburg. The central aim of this study was to develop an in-depth understanding of these experiences, focusing on perceptual data from the PSTs' perspective employing an exploratory approach. Therefore, the research questions and methodology were exploratory and centred on the PSTs' encounters with mentoring, in particular whether it manifests as inclusive or exclusionary. This chapter serves as a bridge to comprehensively review and summarise the research journey. Firstly, it provides a concise overview of the previous chapters. Next, the researcher systematically derives conclusions that align with the research questions and embed the findings within the broader context of the study's objectives. The chapter then addresses the implications that the research has for practice and policy. It highlights the transformative potential of mentoring and emphasises the importance of considering different sociolinguistic identities. It then discusses the limitations encountered during the research process and addresses the methodological challenges and limitations of the research design. The chapter then goes on to detail the distinct contributions of the study and emphasises the interdisciplinary synergy between social inclusion and Hart's ladder of participation in mentoring research. The researcher concludes with recommendations based on the research questions and concluding remarks summarising the significance of the study. Thus, this chapter serves as a comprehensive summary of the extensive findings that have emerged in the course of the study.

6.2 Overview of the research

This section describes the structure of the study from Chapters One to Five.

Chapter One: Introduction

Chapter one contains the introduction, background and rationale for the present study, as well as an explanation of what led me to choose her particular research focus. The gap in knowledge that the study aims to fill was outlined as well as the significance of the study and the expected contribution of the study. The researcher explained the purpose of the research and posed the main research question and three sub-questions that guided this descriptive study. This chapter also

presents the historical background of South Africa in terms of languages and how this contributes to the sociolinguistic identity of ESL PSTs. Furthermore, it explains how the existing education system perpetuates colonial objectives by offering learners different curricula for English. Such a plan affects individuals as they attempt to integrate into a society whose English proficiency differs from their own. The researcher also describes the research problem that despite the sociolinguistic identity that is diverse among PSTs, research has not yet adequately addressed how it can contribute to the mentoring experience. The key concepts were explained, the structure of the dissertation was outlined, and finally, the researcher drew the conclusion of the chapter.

Chapter Two: Review of Literature

This chapter provides an overview of the literature on the conceptualisation of TP at the international level, in Africa and in the South African context. It also outlines the policy on TP in the South African context. It recognises that the meaning of TP is influenced by the psychological aspects of experiential learning initiated by Dewey (1938) and Vygotsky's socio-cognitive theory. The chapter also looks at the history and background of mentoring, focusing on the conceptualisation of the term as well as the expectations of the mentor and the factors that influence the mentoring process. It also describes the international, African and local experiences of PSTs with mentoring, both negative and positive. The chapter also provides an overview of the conceptualisation of inclusion and exclusion and the different paradigms that explain these two concepts. This chapter examines sociolinguistic identity and the relational issues involved. The concept is analysed internationally, in Africa and in the South African context. This chapter also links the theoretical perspectives and model to the study. The chapter concludes with an examination of the purpose and benefits of using the theoretical framework and model. The conclusion summarises the chapter.

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology

In this chapter, the research process was described in detail with regard to the chosen research design and the methodology used in this descriptive case study, and the steps taken to analyse the data were explained. The study was based on an interpretative qualitative research design. In addition, the chapter dealt with the research sites, the sample populations, the analytical tools, ethical issues, a comprehensive discussion of the quality criteria and the limitations of the research

methodology. The methods used to analyse the data were described in the conclusion of the chapter. This chapter was concluded with a description of her role as a researcher and a reflection on her experiences.

Chapter Four: Presentation of Data

The chapter begins with a table listing the themes and subthemes of the data that emerged from the inductive thematic analysis. The themes presented come from both the questionnaires and the interviews, which were coded separately before the codes were merged. Therefore, the fourth chapter presents the empirical results on the participants' voices under each theme in order to answer the research questions. Firstly, the questionnaire data is presented, and the themes are identified, followed by the interviews. The chapter presents the four main themes with sub-themes, starting with the presentation of perceptions of school-based mentoring, followed by the understanding of inclusion and exclusion in the context of mentoring. Finally, this chapter presents the aspects of sociolinguistic inclusion and exclusion during school-based mentoring as well as the recommendations. Pie charts and graphs were also used to visualise the data. The chapter was concluded with a visual representation of the summary of the PSTs' mentoring experiences during the TP, showing an almost balanced scale of both sociolinguistic inclusion and exclusion during the TP.

Chapter Five: Discussion on Research Findings

This chapter discusses the four themes presented in the previous chapter. In this chapter, the research findings were analysed and interpreted, using the theoretical framework and the literature discussed in chapter two as a guide for the discussion. A conclusion was drawn as to whether the PSTs experienced inclusion or exclusion during the mentoring programme.

6.3 Summary of the Study

The aim of the study was to explore ESL PSTs' lived experiences of mentorship whilst on teaching practice at quintiles four and five high schools in Johannesburg by focusing on their socio linguistic inclusion and/or exclusion.

As the study sought an understanding based on perceptual data from the PSTs, it took an exploratory approach. Accordingly, the research questions and methodological approach were exploratory in order to explore PSTs' experiences of mentoring. A set of research questions was developed to guide the investigation.

In the following sub-sections, therefore, the researcher draws conclusions from the findings of the study. The researcher begins with the main research question that guided the descriptive case study, followed by a discussion of the secondary research questions.

6.3.1 The main research question was:

What are ESL pre-service teachers' lived experiences of sociolinguistic inclusion and/or exclusion during their teaching practice at high schools in Johannesburg?

Experiences of inclusion and exclusion were identified across the entire sample of the two data sets; PSTs indicated that they had experienced inclusion, exclusion and both inclusion and exclusion. The PSTs who reported having experienced inclusion stated that their mentors had recognised them as colleagues and had shared some pedagogical ideas. They had been given the opportunity to teach and implement their ideas from the university. In some cases, the mentor educators had had to guide and support them, as they had found that the PSTs lacked content and pedagogical knowledge in teaching English as HL due to their background. Thus, the evidence gathered in this study shows that the mentoring process is influenced by individual attitudes, values and beliefs in addition to context and sociolinguistic identity. Although the sociolinguistic identity of the PSTs in the fourth and fifth quintile schools was at odds with the standards, the mentor educators were accommodating and allowed room for learning. Such an attitude in turn promoted the empowerment of the PSTs and the building of their identity and self-esteem.

Those who felt excluded explained that they had not been allowed to teach and had been denied participation. This was due to attitudinal barriers; the mentor educators had doubted the PSTs' ability to teach. There are various forms of exclusion such as marginalisation, stereotyping, judgement, undermining and discrimination in the mentorship process. The main problem was the issue of accent, skills and content knowledge. This led to low self-esteem and self-doubt and, in some cases, to their abandoning teaching in such contexts and seeking a more comfortable place. It is safe to say that elements of exclusion overrode aspects of inclusion in this study as well. The

study is therefore important enough to call for intervention and more research in this regard so that mentoring can be made more inclusive.

Sub-question 1

What are ESL Pre-service teachers' perceptions of school-based mentorship?

It was found that understandings of mentorship in school are influenced by what PSTs expect from mentorship in school. The response from both data sets therefore reflects important elements such as socialisation and time to gain experience. The PSTs largely understood school mentorship as hierarchical, with PSTs as recipients of knowledge about teaching. However, there was one participant that demonstrated an understanding of mentorship relationship as reciprocal and mutual. This indicates that the most common understanding is that of traditional mentorship and not the progressive concept of mentorship used in this study—integrative and collaborative mentorship. The current study shows that the paradigm shift in mentorship is far from complete, as PSTs will enter practice with the traditional understanding of mentorship and the cycle of exclusion will continue. There is an urgent need to educate PSTs about aspects of mentorship.

Sub-question 2

What do ESL pre-service teacher's regard as inclusive or exclusive mentoring practices?

As with the explanation of the understanding of school-based mentorship above, teachers' responses were guided by their experiences when explaining inclusive and exclusive mentoring practices. Inclusive mentorship was most often described as one that involves collaboration, feedback and authentic participation with support and guidance when they are allowed to teach. In relation to exclusionary school mentorship, the study pointed out that whenever there is a lack of participation, a lack of recognition and evidence of discrimination, this can be seen as exclusion. It was also argued that exclusion exists when mentors treat the PSTs differently in the process of mentorship. In addition, aspects of denial of formal access were also considered as exclusion. It is important that all students are treated with respect and dignity and receive support when needed.

Sub-question 3

How have ESL pre-service teachers' experiences of mentorship made them feel sociolinguistic ally included and/or excluded during teaching practice?

The analysis shows that PSTs' sociolinguistic identity and context of PSTs are important factors in how they experience mentorship. First, the sociolinguistic identity of PSTs contributed significantly to their feelings of exclusion during mentorship. The main reasons for exclusion in mentorship spaces are language proficiency, accent, and lack of ability to teach HL content knowledge. Evidence suggests that there is a notable difference in the depth of engagement with English in the HL curriculum compared to FAL. They felt excluded mainly because the mentors tried to protect their domain and prevent the learners from getting any form of knowledge from the PSTs.

Secondly, there was inclusion. There is evidence that mentors in some schools recognised the gaps in knowledge of the PSTs and ensured that the PSTs were equipped with the necessary content and pedagogical skills to teach English as HL. The results of this positive attitude were found to be empowering by the participants in the study. The study therefore concludes that inclusion offers hope for better and more effective ESL support in such contexts. This is very important as a significant number of the current demography of PSTs come from FAL backgrounds.

Another important conclusion is that in mentorship, the Hart's levels of participation cannot literally be described as hierarchical. The lower levels at which children are informed and directed cannot be seen as less important. Each level is essential to particular contexts because TP is situated learning, and TP varies because of the context in which it takes place; that is, the social and academic culture of the school is determined by the quintile level of the school and the location of the school. In the case of this study, it was important that PSTs were informed as they were not familiar with the content to be taught. Again, even the traditional models of mentorship such as the apprenticeship model cannot be discarded in favour of the educative model or models that advocate collaboration. The traditional notion of mentorship should be the means to achieve the ultimate goal of autonomous and independent PSTs.

All is not gloomy, then, about the experience of mentorship in fourth and fifth quintile schools. In cases where inclusion and collaboration are present, contact with fourth and fifth quintile schools enables PSTs to engage in profound professional development in pedagogy and content knowledge as they observe mentor educators modelling teaching. Modelling gives them insights into teaching and unlearning other aspects from the "apprenticeship of observation" (Lortie, 1975, p. 275), which refers to what they have learnt during their school years by observing their educators. In addition,

the study concludes that their pedagogical knowledge of the HL curriculum improves when they teach and receive feedback. In addition, their self-esteem and self-confidence are strengthened.

On the other hand, the study shows some complexity in the inclusion or exclusion aspects of ESL PSTs. It cannot all be blamed on the mentors or the system. Mentees have at some point shown a lack of resilience when it comes to learning in the new spaces and prefer the comfort zones where their sociolinguistic identity is not challenged. This alone can hinder professional development. Even if mentors are willing to support and socialise the PSTs, both parties must be equally willing to engage in the process.

6.4 Implications

In this study, the participants' perspectives were obtained through real experiences of mentoring. Therefore, the results of their experiences and suggestions for moving forward are always worthy of consideration. Thus, this study aims to explore ESL PSTs' lived experiences of mentorship whilst on teaching practice at quintiles four and five high schools in Johannesburg by focusing on their social linguistic inclusion and/or exclusion

6.4.1 Implications for practice

One of the key findings is that inclusive mentoring can be effective in the professional development of PSTs, i.e., when they are moved from the periphery to the centre of the community through meaningful participation. This means that during mentorship there should be collaboration between the mentor and the mentee, and learning opportunities should be provided through which mentees can become accustomed to the work. If this is not done, there is a risk that the assessment results at the end TP could be forged and not genuine. In some cases the PSTs are prone to failing their TP. In addition, mentees should be prepared to face the new challenges that come with the quintile four and five English curriculum and develop rather than flee from such spaces.

It is also clear that for better and more effective mentoring, the reality of mentees' diversity should be recognised and embraced, especially in the teaching and learning of English. The study illuminated the need for responsive mentorship to cater for diverse sociolinguistic identities. This is crucial because the study shows that acknowledging mentees' deficits led to effective guidance and support that resulted in mentees' professional growth and self-efficacy. Such inclusive mentorship can be a model for other mentor educators who have negative attitudes towards ESL

PSTs, i.e., mentors who are sceptical about the suitability of PSTs for teaching English. Therefore, the current study contributes to challenging stereotypes, judgements and exclusion of ESL PSTs. In addition, examining the experiences of student teachers can shed light on some of the challenges faced during TP that counteract positive outcomes in classroom practice. The findings can help teacher education institutions to review their approaches to TP and promote the desired outcomes of this exercise.

6.4.2 Implications for policy

The study has shown that there are some challenges in mentorship related to the academic background and sociolinguistic identity of ESL PSTs. This speaks to the South African policy for the English curriculum. The findings have also shown that there are pitfalls in the current education system and policy on the English curriculum that cast doubt on its relevance and effectiveness in imparting adequate knowledge to PSTs. If the FAL curriculum is to serve its purpose, it should have content appropriate to the context in which PSTs find themselves. Therefore, the English higher education department should ensure that it takes note of the deficit and finds ways to fill the gaps in the PSTs' knowledge.

6.5 Limitations of the Study

Limitations of the study include factors that the researcher cannot control and limitations in the use or interpretation of the results (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014). This study was subject to some limitations which are discussed below.

6.5.1 Methodological limitations

Firstly, the lockdown conditions and the threat of the Covid-19 pandemic over the last two years made it very difficult to collect data as the PSTs did not go into traditional TP. When they resumed teaching, it made more sense to consider collecting data as it would provide more accurate data. This then affected the sample; it was no longer focused on fourth years since they had left in 2020. Secondly, seeking rich data is one of the aims of a qualitative research method. In this study, it related to the epistemological exploration undertaken in interpreting the experiences from the participant interviews and questionnaire responses. In presenting the data results, the researcher found it difficult to compress the enormous amounts of data that resulted from the hidden meanings of these study instruments. This was in response to the observation that using a variety of research

instruments in qualitative research is challenging when trying to avoid compromising the data by either generalising or losing the specificity of the aim of the data (Kapoulus & Mitic, 2012). Therefore, the researcher needed time to engage with the data so that the researcher could use all the data without losing all the important contributions of the participants. Lastly, one of the limitations the researcher encountered was also the language barrier. As the researcher I am not fluent in the Sesotho language, one of the respondents had to write down her answers because she was uncomfortable speaking in English. This meant that some aspects of the purpose of the interview were not fulfilled, such as probing and capturing the respondent's emotions.

6.5.2 Limitations of the research design

One of the limitations was that the sample (some ESL PSTs from a university) may not have been appropriate and not a sound sample for generalising the findings of the study to other contexts. However, the power of the data and the conclusions drawn from it are strong enough to be accepted in other research contexts. According to Anderson (2010), there was enough research to cope with the amount of information needed to provide adequate support. Moreover, dense description, i.e. a rich, detailed description of the context, place and people studied (Polit & Beck, 2014, cited in Connelly, 2016, p. 436), enables transferability.

6.6 Potential Study Contributions

This study is expected to make some contributions as follows:

6.6.1 Theoretical contribution

The study was based on social inclusion and Hart's ladder of participation. The combined application of these two theories helped to determine the level of inclusion and exclusion of ESL PSTs during the mentorship period in a particular context—fourth and fifth quintile schools in South Africa. It turned out that these two theories complemented each other. Social inclusion indicated what it means to be included in social space, while Hart's ladder of participation strengthened the view of inclusion by making concrete what it means to participate by indicating different levels of participation. The researcher has concluded that research on mentorship experiences should be approached through interdisciplinary synergy, using theories from other disciplines to deepen the research. Such an approach allows for the exploration of mentorship, considering aspects such as sociolinguistic diversity, culture, power relations and context.

Table 9: Interdisciplinary synergy

Social inclusion values	Hart's ladder of participation	Principles of Mentorship <i>(Bradbury, 2010 & Hudson 2013)</i>
• Participation • Access • Removal of barriers • Embracing of diversity • Respect • Acceptance and accommodation	• Participation and empowerment • Shared decisions	• Collegiality • Dynamism • Reciprocity • Collaboration • Democracy • Support • Equitable relationship

Table 8 shows the common values and principles among the concepts, and the researcher has established that the social inclusion theory and Hart's model of participation can become a new lens for identifying and analysing mentorship experiences.

The study concludes that there are also levels of inclusion. Therefore, a modification of the ladder of participation has been formulated. This is a similar model to Hart's but is specifically tailored to mentorship and comprises seven rungs– Plaxedes' Ladder of ESL Pre-service Teacher Participation.

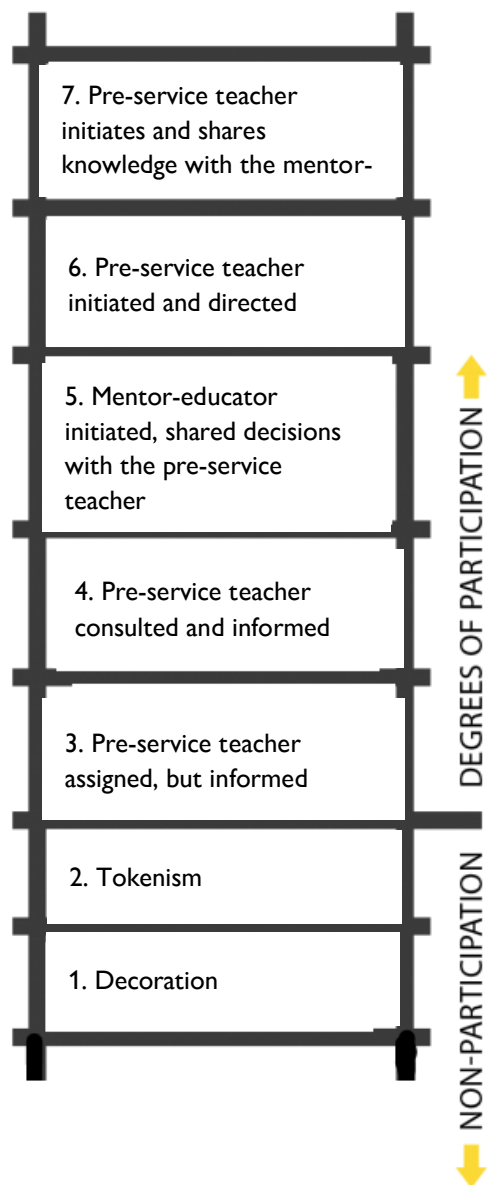


Figure 8: Plaxedes' Ladder of ESL Pre-service Teacher Participation

Decoration: When mentor educators are in the classroom and PSTs are not given the opportunity to teach, and any form of contribution is not acknowledged. They are observing throughout TP.

Tokenism: When PSTs appear to have a say but, in reality, have little or no choice in what they do or how they participate.

Assigned but informed: They are given the opportunity to teach, but how and what to teach is dictated by the mentor educator. The PST should emulate the teaching strategies of the mentor. There is only one direction of information.

PSTs are consulted and informed: The PSTs act as consultants for the mentor-educators in a manner which has respect, and they are treated as colleagues. Even if the planning is designed and run by the mentor-educators, but the PSTs understand the process and their opinions are treated seriously.

Mentor-educator initiated shared decisions with the PST: The mentor initiates and shares his knowledge with the PSTs. In mentorship, there are contexts in which the mentor-educators appear as the knower because of their experience. Mentor-educators share the pedagogical and content knowledge with the PSTs and discuss the ideas and their implementation together with them.

PST initiated and directed: In this case, the PSTs contribute the pedagogical or content ideas and are guided in their implementation by the mentor-educators. The mentor-educator can observe but does not intervene in the process and does not play the role of a director or manager. There is room for automaticity.

PST initiates and shares knowledge with the mentor: When PSTs share decision-making, management, or power with mentors, they have a high level of empowerment.

6.6.2 Methodological contribution

This study joins the ranks of studies that use an interpretivist paradigm to understand mentors' experiences during teaching practicum. This study primarily explored the experiences of ESL PSTs at a particular university in South Africa and their understanding of inclusion in the context of mentoring. As a result, the study has contributed to the use of interpretivist phenomenology as an existing research approach to mentorship in teacher education. The research has confirmed that the paradigm has similar characteristics to inclusion. In particular, the relativistic nature of the paradigm's ontology conveys the view that reality is "socially constructed, subjective, and varies from person to person" (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 110). This view makes the paradigm inclusive, as it seeks knowledge from the different voices and perspectives of individuals. In this way, different individuals are taken into account, and it is recognised that their experiences are not the same. This is similar to inclusive education, which acknowledges diversity and recognises individuals as they are.

6.7 Recommendations

In order to better understand the lived experiences of ESL PSTs with regard to mentorship whilst on TP at quintile four and five high schools in Johannesburg in relation to sociolinguistic inclusion and exclusion respectively, the following recommendations are made.

6.7.1 Research sub-question 1: What are ESL pre-service teachers' perceptions of school-based mentorship?

Finding: School-based mentorship means that PSTs are assigned to mentors, have time to gain experience, build relationships, as socialisation of the PSTs. As a result, the mentee develops professionally and becomes a critical thinker and independent teacher. There is also a mention that the sharing of knowledge is reciprocal. These perceptions agree with the traditional as well as the contemporary models on mentorship.

Recommendation for training

- Perceptions of the PSTs on school-based mentorship need to be improved. The university needs to incorporate modules on mentorship in ITE. This will promote a paradigm shift in the perception of school-based mentorship. As future mentors, there is need for PSTs to have a contemporary and progressive perception of school-based mentorship; the ones which debunk the aspect of hierarchy and, in the process, of mentorship. This could help to combat the problem of exclusionary mentoring practices.

6.7.2 Sub-question 3: How has ESL pre-service teachers' experiences of mentorship made them feel sociolinguistically included and/or excluded during teaching practice?

Finding: The PSTs experienced both sociolinguistic inclusion and exclusion. Inclusion was present when mentors supported and acknowledged PSTs' efforts to participate in teaching and learning. Exclusionary mentorship was evident when there were aspects of prejudice, stereotyping, discrimination, and refusal to allow the PST to teach. Some of the reasons for exclusion were that the PSTs did not have sufficient content and teaching skills of English that reflected their sociolinguistic identity. This led to the mentees being frustrated and, most importantly, the mentorship did not produce the expected result. To ensure that improvements are made, the study makes recommendations in the following sub-categories:

Recommendation: For practice

- The study recommends that the teaching experience office and the faculty should take note of the exclusion in schools when ESL teachers go into teaching in certain contexts. That is, they read the reflections and research studies that have emerged from the experiences of ESL PSTs during school-based mentoring. This will help them inform their decisions when placing PSTs and contextualise some of the reported challenges during TP. In addition, there is a need to foster communication and dialogue with schools and find solutions to exclusionary mentoring practices that are counterproductive and harmful to the professional development of PSTs.
- The schools, in collaboration with the university, should provide programmes of in-service training for the mentors. This should include cultural sensitivity and inclusivity to cater for the sociolinguistic diversity of the PSTs and debunk the socially arbitrated conceptions about ESL English PSTs which is seen to be deficit treatment.
- Universities must ensure that the PSTs understand the South African landscape in relation to language issues, as this will help prepare them for a diverse environment in the teaching profession. That is, language teacher education programmes should include sociolinguistic training in their curriculum to prepare PSTs to teach in diverse linguistic contexts. This may include training on language varieties, sociocultural norms, and language policy.

Recommendations for policymakers

- Policymakers should consider revising the separate English FAL and HL curricula in the basic education system. The study found that the FAL curriculum does not provide teachers- in- training with competencies for the HL context. The university should look for ways to bridge the gap between the FAL and HL as this has significant implications for the competence of pre-service ESL teachers, leading to exclusion during school-based mentorship. This in turn would have further implications for learners.
- The HEQC which reviews the experiences of PSTs during their TP, should consider a comprehensive document detailing the ‘what’ and ‘how’ of mentoring student teachers during TP. The document should also include criteria for the selection of the mentor.

6.7.3 Recommendations for further studies

Based on the findings of this study, the researcher recommends the following for further research.

- It is recommended that further research be conducted into the experiences of HL PSTs in the same context. This research will reveal whether or not mentorship experiences when teaching English in quintiles four and five depend on sociolinguistic identity.
- It may be beneficial to explore mentors' experiences of mentoring ESL PSTs from FAL backgrounds in the context of fourth and fifth quintile schools. Such a perspective may add a new angle to the study by highlighting what they find in the process of mentoring. In interviewing mentors, Shier (2001)'s Pathways to Participation should be used as a guide for the quantitative questionnaire.

6.8. Chapter Summary

The chapter included a summary of the research findings as well as a summary of the objectives. The researcher identified and explained the conclusions and recommendations of the research objectives and findings. The main focus of this chapter was to summarise the findings, draw conclusions and make recommendations on the experiences of sociolinguistic inclusivity and exclusivity in mentoring: Experiences of ESL Pre-Service Teachers in Johannesburg.

6.9 Concluding Remarks

The study explored mentorship experiences of ESL PSTs in fourth and fifth quintile schools in Gauteng. The results of the questionnaires and interviews with the PSTs shed light on the intersection of sociolinguistic identity and context and mentorship during the teaching practicum. There were aspects of both exclusion and inclusion during the teaching practicum. Inclusion was found to be beneficial and important to the professional development and identity development of the prospective teachers, while exclusionary mentoring practices were found to hinder the goals of mentoring in teacher education. Aspects of mentorship experiences should not be ignored. Inclusive practices can be seen as exemplary for mentoring ESL teachers in these contexts, while exclusionary practices should be challenged. Thus, this study makes recommendations for policy, training, and further research. By implementing these recommendations, teacher education programmes and schools can create more inclusive and equitable learning environments that value

linguistic and cultural diversity. This will not only benefit ESL PSTs, but also foster better mentoring experiences for all future PSTs. In this way, the democracy we believe in can be seen in the work areas and beyond.

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APPENDIX A: PRE-SERVICE TEACHER INFORMATION SHEET



February 2022

Dear Student

My name is Plaxedes Muringani, student number 1240001. I am a master's student in Inclusive Education at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. As part of my studies, I have to undertake a research project, and I am investigating school-based mentorship under the supervision of Dr Moeniera Moosa and Dr Thokozani Mathebula. This research project aims to explore ESL PSTs' lived experiences of mentorship whilst on teaching practice at quintiles four and five high schools in Johannesburg by focusing on their social linguistic inclusion and/or exclusion.

As part of this project, I would like to invite you to take part in the research by participating in a virtual interview. The interview will include some open-ended questions where you will be asked to share your experience during your teaching practice, specifically, the period when you were placed in Quintiles 4 and 5 schools to learn to teach English. I would like to invite you to participate in a single interview on BigBlueButton, a platform zero-rated from Sakai. However, you are free to advise on what online platform is easily accessible to you. The interview will require you to share your experiences during your teaching practice in schools in Quintiles 4 and 5 and will take around 40 minutes. With your permission, I would also like to record the interview using a digital device.

There will be no monetary costs that you will have to incur if you participate in this project. You will not receive any direct benefits from participation and there are no disadvantages or penalties if you choose not to participate or if you withdraw from the study. You may withdraw at any time or not answer any question if you do not want to. The online interview will be completely confidential and anonymous as I will not be asking for your name or any identifying information during the recording. I am bound by ethical rules that I ensure anonymity and confidentiality; therefore, there will be no one in my office when I conduct the interview. The information you

give to me will be held securely and not disclosed to anyone else. I will be using a pseudonym (false name) to represent your participation. More so, once I finish with the interviews, during the data analysis process, anonymity will be ensured. If you experience any distress or discomfort at any point in this process, we will stop the interview or resume another time. In case you need further help on any negative experiences you may encounter, the CCDU will be available for counselling at no cost. The CCDU contacts: Phone number: 011 717 9140, Emergency phone number 0800 111 331 (toll-free and available 24/7); Email: info.ccd@wits.ac.za

If you have any questions during or afterwards about this research, feel free to contact me on the details listed below. This study will be written up as a research report which will be available online through the university library website. The data collected from this research project will be stored in a computer which requires a password to access it and will be kept **for 5 years**. If you have any concerns or complaints regarding the ethical procedures of this study, you are welcome to contact the University Human Research Ethics Committee (Non-Medical), telephone +27(0) 11 717 1408, email hrecnon-medical@wits.ac.za

Yours sincerely

Plaxedes Muringani

Researcher:

Plaxedes Muringani

Email: 1240001@students.wits.ac.za

Supervisors:

Dr Moeniera Moosa

Email: Moeniera.Moosa@wits.ac.za

Wits Tel: 011 717 3085

Dr. Thokozani Mathebula

Email: Thokozani.Mathebula@wits.ac.za

Wits Tel: 0117173746

APPENDIX B: PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS' CONSENT FORM FOR QUESTIONNAIRE AND INTERVIEW



February 2022

Please fill in and return the reply slip below indicating your willingness to be a participant in my research project titled: **Exploring sociolinguistic inclusion and exclusion of English Second Language pre-service teacher during teaching practice.**

Name of researcher: Plaxedes Muringani

I,, agree to participate in this research project. The research has been explained to me and I understand what my participation will involve. I agree to the following:

(Please circle the relevant options below).

I agree to answer the email questionnaire.	YES	NO
I am aware that my participation will remain anonymous (except for I) and also the information will be kept confidential and safe	YES	NO
I am aware that I will use pseudonyms when using quotes in her research report.	YES	NO
I agree that the telephone/online interview may be recorded, and I can ask not to be audiotaped.	YES	NO
I agree that interviews will be virtual using a video call and I can ask not to show myself during the video call.	YES	NO
I agree that the information I provide may be used anonymously only for this project.	YES	NO

I do not have to answer every question and can
Withdraw from the study at any time.

YES NO

All the data collected during this study will be deleted
Within 5 years after the completion of this project.

YES NO

..... (signature)

..... (name of participant)

..... (date)

..... (signature)

..... (name of the person seeking consent)

..... (date)

APPENDIX C: QUESTIONNAIRE

Biography:

a) How many languages do you speak? Please state what those languages are. Is English your first, second or third language?

b) In grade 12 did you do English as First Additional Language or Home Language?

c) In case I choose you for interviews, which platform are you able to access? (Circle your response)

Big Blue button

Teams

Phone call

WhatsApp

Zoom

d) Tick the appropriate school you have been to for your TE:

School category	Description	Tick
Quintile 1-3	Schools in poor areas. Teaching African languages as home language (African languages, Sotho, Tswana, Zulu etc).	
Quintiles 4-5	Schools in rich communities Teaching English as Home language	

1. Tell me what is your understanding of school-based mentorship (supervision)?

2. What do you think is the purpose of mentorship (supervision)?

 3. What would you consider as an effective school-based mentoring programme during teaching practice?

 4. What is your understanding of inclusion?

 5. How would you describe an inclusive school-based mentorship programme?

 6. What is your understanding of exclusion?

 7. How would you describe exclusionary school-based mentorship during teaching practice?

 8. Tell me about your school-based mentorship experience as an English Second language speaker when you were teaching English.

 9. Based on your experience, how did you feel about your mentorship experience at school during teaching practice? Did you feel included or excluded in the process of mentorship?

 10. Do you think your sociolinguistic identity was a contributing factor to how you experienced your mentorship? Why?

 11. Based on your answer in question 9, what do you think could be done to improve/affirm the mentorship experience at school during teaching practice?
-

APPENDIX D: PRE-SERVICE TEACHER CONFIRMATION FOR THE INTERVIEWS



February 2022

Dear Student

Thank you very much for your detailed and informative response to the questionnaire. As indicated in the previous letter and consent form, this letter serves to request your confirmation of your availability for the interview. I would like to interview you so that I get more information about your experience. Please complete the table below and return it to me at your earliest convenience. If you have any concerns or complaints regarding the ethical procedures of this study, you are welcome to contact the University Human Research Ethics Committee (Non-Medical), telephone +27(0) 11 717 1408, email hrecnon-medical@wits.ac.za. Please also indicate your availability with regard to:

Date:

Time:

Platform: (WhatsApp call; phone call; Microsoft teams; zoom; Big Blue Button)

Yours sincerely,

Plaxedes Muringani

Researcher:

Plaxedes Muringani,

Email: 1240001@students.wits.ac.za

Supervisors:

Dr Moeniera Moosa

Email: Moeniera.Moosa@wits.ac.za

Wits Tel: 011 717 3085

Dr. Thokozani Mathebula

Email: Thokozani.Mathebula@wits.ac.za

Wits Tel: 0117173746

APPENDIX E: INTERVIEW GUIDELINES

1. Would you say there was an alignment between the purpose of mentorship and teaching practice and what you experienced? Why would you say so?
2. Would you say there were challenges during the mentorship process? Please elaborate.
3. Would you say that your supervising-teacher had confidence in your lesson planning and teaching as an ESL? Why would you say so?
4. What would you consider as interesting and beneficial aspects of mentorship during teaching practice? Elaborate on your answer.
5. Tell me more about how you integrated your way of teaching into the already existing teaching methods used by your supervising teacher. Give specific examples.
6. What was the attitude of the supervising-teacher when you had new ideas?
7. Would you say your sociolinguistic identity enhanced or constrained your mentorship experience? Elaborate on your answer.

APPENDIX F: ETHICS APPROVAL LETTER

UNIVERSITY OF THE
WITWATERSRAND
JOHANNESBURG



Research Office

HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (NON-MEDICAL)
R14/49 Muringani

CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

PROTOCOL NUMBER: H20/11/47

PROJECT TITLE

Exploring sociolinguistic inclusion and exclusion of English
Second Language pre-service teachers during teaching
practice

INVESTIGATOR(S)

Ms P Muringani

SCHOOL/DEPARTMENT

Education/

DATE CONSIDERED

20 November 2020

DECISION OF THE COMMITTEE

Approved
Risk Level: Minimal

EXPIRY DATE

10 December 2023

DATE

11 December 2020

CHAIRPERSON

(Professor J Knight)

cc: Supervisor : Dr M Moosa and Dr T Mathebula

DECLARATION OF INVESTIGATOR(S)

To be completed in duplicate and **ONE COPY** returned to the Secretary at Room 10004, 10th Floor, Senate House, University. Unreported changes to the application may invalidate the clearance given by the HREC (Non-Medical)

I/We fully understand the conditions under which I am/we are authorized to carry out the abovementioned research and I/we guarantee to ensure compliance with these conditions. Should any departure to be contemplated from the research procedure as approved I/we undertake to submit an amendment of the protocol to the Committee. **I agree to completion of a regular progress report. For Minimal and Low studies, this is due annually on 31 December. For Medium and High Risk studies, this is due twice annually on 30 June and 31 December.**

Signature

13/12/2020

Date

PLEASE QUOTE THE PROTOCOL NUMBER ON ALL ENQUIRIES

APPENDIX G: INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT PARTICIPANT 19

Interviewer: Would you say there was an alignment between the purpose of mentorship and teaching practice and what you experienced? Why would you say so?

Participant: Should I speak on behalf of what I experienced last year or first year or I can include both?

Interviewer: Both.

Participant: When I did a practicum in my first year, I would say it had a connection to what I had learned in university and all the support that you need as a student teacher such as scaffolding. I got that from my supervising teacher. She was there for me when I wanted to ask questions. When I did not understand something. If she told me what to do and I did not understand, I went to her, and she will go over everything.

Interviewer: Ok.

Participant: And last year it was different.

Interviewer: Oh ok. What was different?

Participant: Sometimes she will leave me and go to class, and I will hear from other teachers that you do know that you had a class, she actually left you. So it was something like that.

Interviewer: Would you say there were challenges during the mentorship process? Please elaborate.

Participant: I will say I was also one of the learners. I was there if she was in class, I was observing. Even raising my own points felt like I was taking over her own class. I had to sit there and listen to her. Most of the time that is how it happened; to a point I had to find another supervising teacher on my own secretly. It was only when my university tutor came and she allowed me those classes, even though she even told her that they are doing revision. But she's going to allow me the chances because they need to do my assessment for the university. So she allowed me those classes and I had to do everything for my university tutor and then it went back to normal I mean listening to her.

Interviewer: Oh ok

Participant: It was difficult; it is surprising that I even finished. Like I finished all the weeks there. Because some days I just couldn't even feel like going there. Because I felt like there was no need of me going there as I was not gaining experience. And then, I think in the second last week, I talked to this other teacher, who was not my supervising teacher. That's when I started feeling like I'm at school. I'm doing something. I talked to him like, do you mind having me in your class? And then he was doing grade sevens and then he was like, just make sure that your supervising teachers don't get to know this. But you can come to class with me every time. So I started going with him for most of the time until the end of my teaching practicum.

Interviewer: Ah. Ok. Umm and can we go to the next question?

Participant: Yes.

Interviewer: Would you say that your supervising-teacher had confidence in your lesson planning and teaching as an ESL? Why would you say so?

Participant: I had lesson plans. I showed her lesson plans.

Interviewer: What would happen thereafter?

Participant: She was also the deputy principal and the exam writing officer, hence she would say, I will look at it later, I'm busy for this right now. I'm sure you can do something. I will look at it later. And then when I went back the following day, she said like she was too busy to look at it. But when I gave it to the other teacher, he looked at it and he also gave me points on how to improve my lesson. Planning's, he said, like they were good. You need to improve on these things he gave me, which you are still lacking on this sort of things. So that's why I'm saying I got most of the things from him instead of my supervising teacher.

Interviewer: Ah, Ok. Let us go to the next question if you are done.

Participant: Yes, we may continue.

Interviewer: What would you consider as interesting and beneficial aspects of mentorship during teaching practice? Elaborate on your answer.

Participant: Yes. She modelled classroom management she engaged well with learners in a classroom of more than 40 learners. He [the mentor educator she found for herself] was very easy

to talk to, and I did not even know what kind of poems I was going to teach. And he told me. And he also told me that the fact that I taught English as FAL it is different from HL. So I have to change my perspective of the first additional language and adapt to the home language. So it helped me with all these things. How to analyse poetry in the home language, how to teach novels with critical analysis. And how to teach grammar in the native language and not in the first additional language, and the difference between the two curriculums.

Interviewer: Oh I see. Anything more?

Participant: Not really.

Interviewer: Tell me more about how you integrated your way of teaching into the already existing teaching methods used by your supervising teacher. Give specific examples.

Participant: With analysing poems, I was looking at it at a much simpler level, but then I had to go deeper. And another thing that we did not agree on is that when we're doing drama I wanted learners to take turns to read and then I analyse it as a teacher. But the learners were only supposed to participate in the writing. And then after class she told me that that's not how we do things. We are supposed to read for them and then analyse it and analyse it for them. To avoid clashing, I had to follow how she was doing things - read and then analyse. My supervising teacher preferred you as the teacher reading the whole play. Read the first play and then you analyse it. They're just there to take notes. Her method, *yoooh*, she was the one even doing all the writing for them.

Interviewer: Oh, that was the original supervisor teacher. Or ...

Participant: The original one

Interviewer: Thank you. We are now moving to the next question. What was the attitude of the supervising-teacher when you had new ideas?

Participant: I couldn't. I couldn't raise new ideas in class. As I said before, I was one of the learners. I had to sit down and listen to her teaching. You know, she was very old, so I felt like she felt she had been doing this thing for a very long time and she knows what is best for her learners. They said she normally takes student teachers and then after some time they moved to the other mentors. She never has student teachers that I would have for the whole of teaching experience.

Interviewer: Oh ok. Now the last question. Would you say your sociolinguistic identity enhanced or constrained your mentorship experience? Elaborate your answer.

Participant: Yes, yes.

Interviewer: Please explain further.

Participant: Mum... Because in two ways. In the case of my supervising teacher, I would say he hindered me because, I would also say, I don't know if it's true, but people usually say you can't teach what you don't know. I'm not an English first speaker and I think in her mind she had that thing of you can't teach what you do not know, and in her mind, I didn't know English as it was not my home language.

Interviewer: Ok. Ok.

Participant: Yaa. But with the learners. Having who has isiZulu as a home language, it was easy for me to communicate with them because if they didn't understand something, I will say it in isiZulu. And at the end of the day, they all got what I was trying to say. We managed to have a relationship where they would ask questions if they didn't understand.

Interviewer: I think this was, *uh*, my last question. *Uh*, thank you. Do you have anything you are thinking about? You want to share about your experience?

Participant: I want to see the experience I'm going to have this year because I'm looking forward to it. This is my profession and I love doing this.

Interviewer: I can see how you are saying it really you are enjoying. Thank you very much for your time. This is the end of our interview.

Participant: Thank your bye.

APPENDIX H: QUESTIONNAIRE PARTICIPANT 19

This research aims to explore your experiences as ESL PSTs of mentorship whilst on teaching practice by focusing on your social linguistic inclusion and/or exclusion. Your experience is important as it will give insight into mentorship practices whilst at school for teaching practice. It is hoped that the study will contribute to the literature on Pre-service teachers' experiences of mentorship (supervision by supervising teachers) on teaching practice.

NB: Please send back the questionnaire together with the consent form below. Please circle the responses on it and signing your initials will be adequate.

Section A: Biography

a) **How many languages do you speak? Please state what those languages are. Is English your first, second or third language?** Two, Ndebele and English.

b) **In grade 12 did you do English as First Additional Language or Home Language?** FAL.

c) **In case I choose you for interviews, which platform are you able to access? Circle your response.**

Big blue button

Teams

Phone call

Whatsapp

Zoom

d) **Tick the appropriate school you have been to for your TE.**

Quintile 1-3 schools	Schools in poor areas. Teaching African languages as Home Language (African languages, Sotho, Tswana, and Zulu etc.).
Quintiles 4-5 schools ✓	Schools in rich communities Teaching English as Home language.

Section B: Questions

1. Tell me what your understanding of school-based mentorship is.

It is when a student teacher goes to a school to observe and teach under the supervision of a teacher/mentor.

2. What do you think is the purpose of mentorship?

To gain experience and to be familiar with what will face after graduation.

3. What would you consider as an effective school-based mentoring (supervision) programme during teaching practice?

Observation was the best because you will see how the senior teachers managed their classes, which made it easy when it was my turn to teach.

4. What is your understanding of inclusion?

When everyone is included in the classroom regardless of their background, ethnicity and language and qualification.

5. How would you describe an inclusive school-based mentorship (supervision) programme?

It is when the mentor understands the student and allows him/her to teach the way they want if the content is delivered. And the learners understand.

6. What is your understanding of exclusion?

When the mentor wants everything to be done their own way – they don't allow you to come up with your own strategies.

7. How would you describe exclusionary school-based mentorship (that is, the supervision from your supervisor) during teaching practice?

When teachers only focus on their learners, forgetting that there is a student who is there to learn from them, to impart knowledge to the student.

8. Tell me about your school-based mentorship experience as an English Second language speaker when you were teaching English.

The teacher wanted learners to be taught his own way (traditional). Learners only had access to textbooks. When I tried to introduce new ways like looking at trending stories/topics he didn't understand; he would say it's not part of learning. I then told him that these learners will

understand more if we give those stories/topics that are trending as they discuss these things in their everyday life. He said we must stick to the textbook.

9. Based on your experience, how did you feel about your mentorship experience at school during teaching practice? Did you feel included or excluded in the process of mentorship (when being supervised by the supervising teacher)?

I felt excluded most of the times because some mentors will not allow you to teach or when you teach you must follow their strategy only.

10. Do you think your sociolinguistic identity was a contributing factor to how you experienced your mentorship? Why?

Yes. English is my first additional language, so sometimes pronunciation of words becomes a problem, and the mentor will take it like you were not prepared or you are not fit to teach their kids.

11. Based on your answer in question 9, what do you think could be done to improve/affirm the mentorship (supervision) experience at school during teaching practice?

Mentors should understand that as a student you are there to learn. If you make a mistake, it's their duty to correct you and allow students to use their own teaching strategies.