

TEACHERS' MOTIVATIONS TO MENTOR: A QUALITATIVE EXPLORATION OF  
MENTORING RELATIONSHIPS WITH FIRST-YEAR TEACHERS

by

Christine A. DeGregory  
A Dissertation  
Submitted to the  
Graduate Faculty  
of  
George Mason University  
in Partial Fulfillment of  
The Requirements for the Degree  
of  
Doctor of Philosophy  
Education

Committee:

Guy R. Galluzzo Chair

Dan M.

Aracelis Lamara

Amber Kitzner Program Director

Marcel Dean, College of Education and Human  
Development

Date: November 8, 2016 Fall Semester 2016  
George Mason University  
Fairfax, VA

Teachers' Motivations to Mentor: A Qualitative Exploration of Mentoring Relationships  
with First-year Teachers

A Dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of  
Doctor of Philosophy at George Mason University

by

Christine A. DeGregory  
Master of Education  
National-Louis University, 2001  
Bachelor of Arts  
State University of New York at Geneseo, 1997

Director: Gary R. Galluzzo, Professor  
College of Education and Human Development

Fall Semester 2016  
George Mason University  
Fairfax, VA



THIS WORK IS LICENSED UNDER A [CREATIVE COMMONS  
ATTRIBUTION-NONCOMMERCIAL 3.0 UNPORTED LICENSE](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/3.0/).

## **Dedication**

To my parents, Jean and Percy, who never let me believe there were limits to what I could achieve.

## **Acknowledgements**

With gratitude to my dissertation committee, Dr. Galluzzo, Dr. D'Amico, and Dr. Samaras. Thank you for your time and your commitment to seeing me through this journey.

Dr. G., thank you for being there from start to finish and remaining a reassuring and steadfast guide and mentor.

Amanda, thank you for your friendship and support. Knowing we were traveling the same path together made all the difference.

And finally, my family. Hannah, Daniel, and Benjamin, you so patiently waited while I was busy with school work and were always ready to give me hugs and love when I was finished. Keith, you listened when needed, provided support when I stumbled, and never stopped telling me it would all work out just fine.

## Table of Contents

List of Tables .....	vii
List of Figures .....	viii
Abstract .....	ix
Chapter One: Introduction and Statement of the Problem.....	1
Induction .....	5
Mentoring’s Role in Induction.....	8
Mentors .....	11
Research Questions .....	13
Key Terms.....	14
Chapter Two: Review of the Literature .....	16
Defining Mentoring.....	17
Traditional and Relational Mentoring.....	18
Formal and Informal Mentoring.....	20
Mentoring Functions .....	22
Mentoring Phases .....	24
Conceptualizing Mentoring Via a Dynamic Process Model.....	25
Mentoring Antecedents .....	27
The Sum of Program Antecedent Roles: Formal and Informal Mentoring .....	53
Mentor Motivations.....	61
Participant Similarities .....	72
Summary .....	76
Chapter Three: Methods .....	79
Research Design.....	80
Setting and Participants.....	81

Data Sources Overview .....	89
Validity.....	103
Limitations .....	108
Chapter Four: Findings .....	111
Overview of Findings.....	111
What is Taking Place in Mentoring Relationships?.....	117
Who are Mentors? .....	122
How Does Context Affect Mentors' Understanding?.....	152
What are the Motivations of Mentor Teachers?.....	172
Mentor Teachers' Engagement in Mentoring .....	188
Chapter Five: Conclusions, Discussion, and Implications.....	190
Conclusions .....	190
Discussion .....	193
Limitations .....	211
Implications for Research .....	213
Implications for Practice .....	217
Significance.....	223
Appendix A.....	225
Appendix B .....	226
Appendix C .....	228
Appendix D.....	229
Appendix E .....	231
Appendix F.....	233
Appendix G.....	235
Appendix H.....	236
Appendix I .....	238
References.....	248

## List of Tables

Table	Page
Table 1. Participant Demographics .....	86
Table 2. Interview Lengths .....	94
Table 3. Codes Generated per Participant.....	100
Table 4. Research Questions and Themes Aligned to Wanberg et al.'s (2003) Conceptual Framework .....	115
Table 5. Key Findings: The Act of Mentoring .....	123
Table 6. Key Findings: Mentor Characteristics and Personal Experiences .....	131
Table 7. Key Findings: Mentor's FYT Experience .....	137
Table 8. Key Findings: Beliefs, Critiques, and Expectations Regarding the Teaching Profession.....	142
Table 9. Key Findings: Views and Beliefs about Mentoring and Mentoring Practice ...	149
Table 11. Key Findings: District's Mentoring Program .....	167
Table 12. Key Findings: Obstacles to the Act of Mentoring .....	171
Table 13. Key Findings: The Benefits and Outcomes of Mentoring .....	180
Table 14. Key Findings: What Motivates Mentors? .....	187

## List of Figures

Figure	Page
<i>Figure 1.</i> Origins, roles, and formality's effects on mentoring relationships.....	22
<i>Figure 2.</i> Wanberg et al. (2003) mentoring components.....	27
<i>Figure 3.</i> Total count and percentages of codes per theme. ....	113
<i>Figure 4.</i> Participants' contributions to individual themes.....	116

## **Abstract**

### **TEACHERS' MOTIVATIONS TO MENTOR: A QUALITATIVE EXPLORATION OF MENTORING RELATIONSHIPS WITH FIRST-YEAR TEACHERS**

Christine A. DeGregory, Ph.D.

George Mason University, 2016

Dissertation Director: Dr. Gary R. Galluzzo

A teacher's first year in the classroom is often described as a survival of the fittest experience. Understanding the demands of this first year, school districts have increasingly adopted induction programs, which often include a formal mentoring component to help provide needed support during a teacher's first year of teaching. Despite formal mentoring support, first-year teachers (FYT's) may also receive assistance from informal mentors who unofficially provide support. The purpose of this study was to learn more about teachers' understandings of mentoring relationships with FYT's. Situated in Wanberg et al.'s (2003) mentoring dynamic process model, a constructivist qualitative exploration used semi-structured interviews with one high school's formal and informal mentors to gain a detailed understanding of how participant antecedents, program antecedents, and organizational context contributed to mentors' motivations. Findings indicate the act of mentoring fulfills mentor teachers' professional disposition to

continuously improve and reflect upon their teaching practice. Mentors are aware of and can identify mentoring supports and obstacles within their school context, yet their decisions to mentor formally or informally rely more so on opportunity to mentor rather than mentoring formality.

*Keywords:* First-year teachers, mentor teachers, mentoring, induction

## **Chapter One: Introduction and Statement of the Problem**

First-year teachers need support. Although simply stated, this issue is much more complex than its succinct assertion may suggest. A first-year teacher's (FYT) fundamental task is to do something for which he/she is not entirely prepared - to teach, and manage all that being a teacher entails. As such, a FYT frequently resides in a paradox of having to demonstrate her ability to meet the demands of teaching all the while needing to perform the job in order to learn how to meet the demands in the first place (Schön, 1987). To understand this predicament one must recognize it is partially the result of a confluence of dynamics, including the teacher's preparation program, the extent to which the teacher's first year of employment includes support, and the historical context surrounding teaching.

Educator preparation programs (EPP) play an essential role in preparing preservice teachers for the profession. However, they are by definition, only the beginning of a teacher's education (Northfield & Gunstone, 1997) and subject to inevitable limitations (Feiman-Nemser, 2001). As such, these programs may prepare preservice teachers to learn to teach, but they do not have the ability to prepare them adequately for all of the demands placed upon a FYT.

Additionally, the two different contexts – the one in which teachers are prepared and the one in which they teach – by and large, remain isolated from one another.

Although preservice teachers are placed in schools for field and student teaching experiences, the level of collaboration between EPPs and K-12 schools varies tremendously. The Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation's (CAEP) Standard 2 regarding clinical practice and partnerships may be considered an attempt to bridge this divide, as it requires EPPs to establish mutually beneficial relationships with K-12 partners hosting preservice teachers. However, the application of these standards are only now in their infancy and the potential evidence for what success looks like depends upon the contexts of each EPP. Furthermore, the field continues to struggle to define itself as one profession unified by a shared vision, an understanding, or an agreed-upon process of how these two entities may work together to support FYTs.

Also contributing to the complexity of a teacher's first year in the classroom is the longstanding way in which teachers' work has been completed in isolation; for historically, the profession has been marked by individualization and isolation rather than collaboration and interdependence (Lortie, 1975). Lortie (1975) shared, that as student populations grew, the one-room school house merely gave way to the creation of centralized locations incorporating many singular houses under one roof. Such an arrangement supported an ecology in which "they could deal with the steady loss of experienced teachers without severe organizational shock" (Lortie, 1975, p. 16) and finds teachers "spend[ing] most of their time working alone with a group of students in a bounded area" (Lortie, 1975, p. 23). Contributing to the notion of individualization is Feiman-Nemser, Schwille, Carver, and Yusko's (1999) description that "teaching in the U.S. is a highly personal, often private activity. Teachers work alone in their classroom,

out of sight of other colleagues, protected by norms of autonomy and privacy” (p. 28). Not only does this enduring workplace attribute affect teachers’ emotional states (Mawhinney, 2008), but Sindberg (2014) found that some teachers’ actively attempt to seek out collaboration and conversation to counter this characteristic. Combined, the limits of teacher education, the disconnections between EPPs and K-12 partners, and the historical isolation of teachers’ work create a less than ideal environment for FYTs as they enter the profession.

Adding to this complicated beginning is that FYTs find themselves unrealistically tasked with the same classroom expectations and responsibilities as veteran teachers, such as student achievement, paperwork, and a full course load, all the while most frequently assigned to the schools or classes more senior teachers avoid (Khamis, 2000). Furthermore, the transition FYTs face from “college student to responsible teacher” (Lortie, 1975, p. 79) is not only abrupt as Lortie described, but stands in direct contradiction to research that suggests teaching is complex work and requires on-the-job support (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Ingersoll & Strong, 2011; Wang & Odell, 2002). As such, a teacher’s first year on the job is commonly described in terms of sheer survival, a sink or swim event, or a baptism-by-fire rite of passage (Kardos & Johnson, 2010; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004). Moreover, such depictions fail to align with the overriding vision of teacher education, which embraces the notion that teachers are always students of teaching and require “a collaborative context for successful teacher learning” (Troen & Boles, 2009, p. 844).

Along with adapting to their classroom responsibilities, FYTs have the added burden of trying to understand their new school culture at-large. First, they must familiarize themselves with fellow faculty, students, and the surrounding community (Khamis, 2000). Second, they must become accustomed to how policy affects them in their local school context (Achinstein, 2006). Cumulatively, FYTs' on-the-job demands such as acclimating to a new work environment, knowing what or how to teach, managing imposed reforms (Kardos & Johnson, 2010), and overcoming limitations in their educator preparation programs (Schaefer, Long, & Clandinin, 2012) may all contribute to novice teachers' attrition.

In a profession where even veteran teachers experience high levels of job-related stress (Aspfors & Bondas, 2013), FYTs undoubtedly require support. Concern for new teacher attrition has been highlighted over the past two decades as it results in varied consequences: lost human and financial resources, negative school climate, and decreased student achievement (Ronfeldt, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2013) and organizational stability (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004). Until recently, research indicated that nationally close to 30% of beginning teachers leave the profession within five years (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003) with attrition nearing 50% in hard to staff, urban schools. However, a newly released U.S. Department of Education (2014) report indicated that the attrition rate of new teachers is not as high as researchers had previously reported, identifying that at the four-year mark, attrition is closer to 17%. Despite the variance in data reported surrounding teacher attrition rates, there still remains the need for FYT support. A need that policy attempted to fulfill through the use of induction programs.

## **Induction**

Responding to the needs of new teachers became the focus of policymakers during the 1990s (Carver & Feiman-Nemser, 2009). Consequently, many school districts sought to remedy FYTs' need for support by implementing induction programs (Bleeker et al., 2012). For as Howey and Zimpher (1999) described:

Nowhere is the absence of a seamless continuum in teacher education more evident than in the early years of teaching. At the same time, no point in the continuum has more potential to bring the worlds of the schools and the academy into a true symbiotic partnership than the induction phase. (p. 297)

In addition, the need for FYT support was also punctuated by the passing of the No Child Left Behind Act in 2001 requiring all teachers to be highly effective (Carver & Feiman-Nemser, 2009). The legacy of a high-stakes, accountability-driven focus has paved the way for induction and formalized mentoring to account for and attempt to support such outcomes (Feiman-Nemser et al., 1999). As reported by Ingersoll and Strong (2011), an analysis of national data suggested that beginning teachers' participation in induction increased from 40% in 1990 to 80% in 2008. Frequently "framed as transition from preservice preparation to practice, from student of teaching to teacher of students" induction serves to assist FYTs in the transition of "knowing about teaching through formal study to knowing how to teach by confronting day-to-day challenges" (Feiman-Nemser, 2001, p. 1027).

As Bleeker and colleagues (2012) reported, induction programs aspire to provide continued support to FYTs through activities such as monthly seminars, assistance from content area coaches, observations, professional development sessions, and the assignment of formal mentors. Additionally, communication with administrators, shared

planning time with other teachers, and collaboration are also reflective of other induction program components (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004). However, induction programs vary widely in implementation, resources, and outcomes (Bleeker et al., 2012; Fresko & Alhija, 2009; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004). For example, implementation can differ in the following ways: (a) the purpose and type of activities, which may be tailored toward support and/or assessment of the FYT; (b) the type of new teacher served (a FYT and/or teachers new to a district); (c) the type of veteran teacher selected to support FYTs via mentoring and the training these mentors receive; and overall (d) the duration and intensity of the program's activities and support (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004). Combined with such extensive variety, induction programs are also subject to limitations in the ways in which they are evaluated. Frequently, as Smith and Ingersoll (2004) noted, outcomes are based only on data reported by induction participants; therefore, contrasts with nonparticipant data cannot be achieved. Likewise, studies have difficulty in controlling for other factors, which may affect induction program outcomes. For instance, specific schools may be at increased risk of attrition due to socio-economic status or student body makeup and as such, regardless of induction support, will still have high rates of attrition (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004).

Often induction studies focus on how these programs affect the retention of FYTs. Using the Schools and Staffing Survey from 1999-2000, Smith and Ingersoll (2004) found "a strong link between participating in induction programs and reduced rates of turnover" (p. 706). Furthermore, their analysis revealed that certain induction program components were more effective than others. These included: "having a mentor from the

same field, having common planning time with other teachers in the same subject or collaboration with other teachers on instruction, and being part of an external network of teachers” (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004, p. 706). Other successful induction programs such as Partners in Education (PIE) in Colorado, incorporated intensive mentoring, cohort group networking, and ongoing inquiry into beginning teachers’ practice, which not only helped new teacher retention but also positively affected teacher quality (Kelley, 2004). Finally, Bickmore and Bickmore’s (2010) study focused on a multifaceted induction program designed to support FYTs personal and professional needs through: mentoring, professional development, administrators, new teacher orientation, and interdisciplinary teams. Findings indicated that all components of the induction program supported positive new teacher perceptions. The authors also highlighted that school climate served as “a foundation on which the other elements of the program interacted to support new teachers' needs” (Bickmore & Bickmore, 2010, p. 1020). It is clear that all of these successful induction programs rely on human capital and relationships.

In contrast, through the use of teacher and mentor surveys, case studies, and retention and student data, a review of Illinois schools’ induction programs found that although induction contributed to a new teacher’s self-efficacy and professional growth, results indicated that school context contributed to retention rather than induction support (Wechsler, Caspary, Humphrey, & Matsko, 2010). Similarly, findings by Glazerman et al., (2008) also found induction had no statistical impact on teacher retention. Although research on induction’s effects on FYT retention are mixed, all of these studies include a common specific component that warrants further exploration of its contribution to a

FYT's support, growth, and development: the role of mentoring.

### **Mentoring's Role in Induction**

Even though some programs may use the terms interchangeably, mentoring and induction are not synonymous. Wong (2004) viewed mentoring as a distinct component of induction. He described induction as “a process – a comprehensive, coherent, and sustained professional development process...while mentoring is an action” (Wong, 2004, p. 42). Although Fletcher, Strong, and Villar (2008) highlighted that there remains debate about mentoring being part of rather than induction itself, the key issue is that mentoring plays a very large role in induction programs for FYTs that can be examined empirically.

Issues of nomenclature notwithstanding, mentoring is a widespread and central component in many induction programs, and mentoring relationships can offer a number of benefits to FYTs. This is evidenced in Goldrick, Osta, Barlin, and Burns' (2012) review of state induction policies in which the researchers found that “27 states require some form of induction or mentoring support for new teachers” (p. iv). At the same time, as Desimone et al. (2014) have noted, the formalized origination and structure of mentoring relationships in induction programs can often fail to produce their desired effects. As Smith and Ingersoll (2004) observed, this failure may be attributed to how these programs vary widely in the way they prepare mentors, the attention given to the matching process, and the compensation they provide to mentors. Furthermore, as Wanberg, Welsh, and Hezlett (2003) suggested, “poorly planned mentoring programs do not work but more organized, planful programs do work” (p. 90). Perhaps the dedication

to the planning surrounding induction components contributes to understanding Smith and Ingersoll's (2004) finding that induction programs with multiple components were more beneficial to FYTs, as more components may naturally yield better planning and organization because logistical requirements demand it.

The role of induction mentoring was also explored by Feiman-Nemser (1996) who was keenly prescient in raising three areas of concern for induction program mentoring: (1) the range of local interpretation of mentor teacher responsibilities from assistance through assessment; (2) the time, training, orientation, and support dedicated to those who fulfill the mentoring role; and (3) the ability to successfully formalize a highly personalized relationship. These concerns remain key obstacles in providing FYTs with effective mentors. Policy briefs, such as the one released by the American Federation of Teachers (AFT) (2001) also recognized the role of the mentor in induction programs and suggested the assignment of a qualified mentor to a FYT. Clearly, a key variable in the way mentoring relationships unfold in induction programs is the selection, preparation, and skills of the mentor teacher.

Just as Feiman-Nemser (1996) identified, induction mentoring is highly inconsistent in the way mentors are selected, trained, supported, and compensated. Although formal mentoring programs have been successful, they are substantially "influenced by a range of contextual factors" (Hobson, Ashby, Malderez, & Tomlinson, 2009, p. 211) and as Gibb (1999) reiterated, require several "preconditions for successful implementation" (p. 1055). For instance, Hobson, Ashby, Malderez, and Tomlinson (2009) noted that mentoring effectiveness can be affected by: the amount of release time

provided to mentors to prepare for their role, the allotment of time for mentors and mentees to meet during the day, the rewards, recognition, or incentives mentors receive for their work, and finally contexts that provide the “free[dom] from excessive emphasis on externally determined goals and agendas” (p. 211). As such, knowing “formal mentoring programs are successful if they are supported by the organization, have clarity of purpose, have careful selection and matching processes, and are continuously evaluated” (Rock & Galvan, 2006, p. 334) may help induction programs provide a mentoring component, which can prove beneficial.

Because induction offers a window into visible mentoring relationships, research has offered robust evidence of the mitigating role formalized mentoring can play in a teacher’s beginning years in the classroom. For example, researchers have found mentoring helps to decrease attrition (Hobson et al., 2009; Ingersoll & Kralik, 2004; Ingersoll & Strong, 2011; Lortie, 1975) and boost beginner teacher confidence, morale, and classroom management (Hobson et al., 2009). However, there is relatively little known about the effects of informal mentoring relationships on FYTs (Desimone et al., 2014). In their comparison between the effects of formal and informal mentors, Desimone et al., (2014) found that although the interactions between the two types of mentors was similar, FYTs spent more time on these interactions with their informal mentors. The researchers also suggested that these two types of mentoring serve to complement the needs of a FYT. The fact that informal mentoring relationships serve as a source of support for FYTs implies that formal mentoring and/or other induction supports are not meeting all the needs of FYTs. After all, as Little (1990) shared, “the broader

cultural legacy of mentoring presents a model of human relationship that does not lend itself well to policy intervention” (p. 299). Perhaps Little’s observation can help to explain the phenomenon of informal mentoring that takes place between experienced and first-year teachers and can also direct attention toward the individuals who serve as mentors for FYTs.

### **Mentors**

As Anthony, Haigh, and Kane (2011) wrote, “during this induction period the collective professional community is charged with providing a range of intellectual, social, emotional, and material resources” (p. 861). It is the surrounding professional community of teachers on whom FYTs are dependent to find their formal or informal mentors. Beginning in the 1980s, the role of formal mentor was presented to teachers as a reward (Feiman-Nemser & Parker, 1992), and as Little (1990) shared, it served to provide public recognition for accomplished teachers. At the same time, it can be viewed as a contained form of teacher leadership – for although it recognizes and depends upon experienced teachers’ knowledge to be successful – as Little (1990) described, it is still under institutional control regarding the selection of mentors and the “systematic structuring of teachers’ opportunit[ies]” (p. 305) to engage in these relationships. As she noted further, even more curious is that these formal mentors are readily selected on the basis of their success with children, not colleagues.

Likewise, these professional communities also supply informal mentors - teachers who unofficially provide support and assistance to FYTs. Extant literature provides evidence for the role informal mentors play, demonstrating that they do serve a function

for mentees. For example, Ragins and Cotton (1999) found that mentees reported greater satisfaction and experienced longer relationships with their informal mentors, while Baker-Doyle (2012) found that “the informal support networks the teachers formed in school were critical to helping teachers address their major challenges” and that “teachers tended to avoid *formal* mentorships or programs because of differences in pedagogical beliefs with the formal support persons...” (p. 74). However, the question remains as to why these mentor teachers engage in informal mentoring relationships. Because much of the induction literature on mentoring is concerned with outcomes and effects, literature about mentor teachers who host preservice teachers during their student teaching internships may contribute to a general understanding of why mentors’ formally but also informally mentor FYTs. While studying cooperating teachers’ perspectives on mentoring student teachers, Russell and Russell (2011) found that the cooperating teachers they studied expressed their motivations based upon desires to share their knowledge, encourage and collaborate with student teachers, and learn new trends. In addition, they found that the cooperating teachers were quite sincere in their desire to help student teachers. Beck and Kosnik (2000) were able to explore some of the reasons cooperating teachers take on student teachers – such as providing them with insightful and valuable experiences or to learn new ideas from student teachers – but they also happened upon cooperating teachers’ motivations based upon personal experiences such as the reminder of their own painful experiences and the hope to spare student teachers from similar encounters. Following this work, Sinclair, Dowson, and Thistleton-Martin (2006) also explored cooperating teachers and why they chose to mentor. Their focus was

to identify the personal and professional motivations of cooperating teachers. Among findings, they identified a key motivation was to ensure the quality of future teachers while one detractor was simply not enough time to engage in such relationships (Sinclair et al., 2006).

Although some research exists regarding mentors' motives, such studies are sparse and few venture into the motives of teachers mentoring FYTs. Understanding more about teachers' motivations to mentor is crucial because of the need such mentoring fills. Not only have formal mentors become a frequent resource to support induction mentoring programs but FYTs equally rely on informal mentors for assistance. Also contributing to the growing understanding of mentoring motivations are studies that have demonstrated the complexity of factors that can affect motivation. For example, some researchers have shown that not only do mentors' personality traits such as altruism (Aryee, Chaw, & Chew, 1996) and other-oriented empathy and helpfulness (Allen, 2003) are linked to mentoring, but that organizational context can also affect informal mentor motives (Allen, Poteet, & Burroughs, 1997). Furthermore, some studies have found that various forms of mentor motives lead to different types of mentoring support such as varying levels of psychosocial or career support (Allen, 2003; Janssen, van Vuuren, & de Jong, 2014). Further investigation of teachers' motivation to mentor FYTs can contribute to a growing understanding of this common FYT support.

### **Research Questions**

Extant literature helps to provide an understanding that: (a) beginning teachers need support; (b) mentoring can help provide support to mentees; and (c) understanding

mentors' motivations is critical to maximizing support but also in explaining how the combined sum of a teachers' experiences and organizational structure may affect these motivations. Situated in a context where practicing teachers fulfill a critical support to FYTs, the purpose of this study is to understand teachers' motivations to mentor FYTs. Because the majority of FYTs encounter induction programs with a mentoring component, knowing as much as possible about the motivations of veteran teachers who are relied upon to carry out this support is imperative to maximizing these mentor teachers' efforts, but also to understand how these formal programs may affect the motivations of mentor teachers to enter into informal relationships in addition to - or rather than formal ones. Therefore, the overarching research question guiding this study is: What are the motivations of veteran teachers regarding mentoring first-year teachers? Furthermore, the study seeks to answer:

- To what extent are these veteran teachers influenced to mentor by organizational antecedents?
- To what extent are these veteran teachers influenced to mentor by programmatic antecedents?
- To what extent are these veteran teachers influenced to mentor by participant antecedents?

### **Key Terms**

Mentor: A more experienced individual who works with a less experienced individual.

Mentee: A less experienced individual who works with a more experienced individual.

Mentoring: a relationship in which a more experienced individual (the mentor, veteran teacher) works with a less experienced individual (mentee, first-year teacher) yielding mutual benefits.

Formal Mentoring: a mentoring relationship in which a third party matches the mentor and the mentee in an organizationally-sanctioned relationship. These arrangements typically entail a one-year assignment of a veteran teacher to a FYT with varying requirements on number of meetings, forms of accountability, mentor pay,

Informal Mentoring: a mentoring relationship that develops naturally without third party assistance or intervention.

## Chapter Two: Review of the Literature

The purpose of this study is to better understand veteran teachers' motivations to mentor FYTs. Although mentoring is far from a new phenomenon, its study only gained popularity within the last 40 years. The flow of studies generated after Levinson et al.'s (1978) *The Seasons of a Man's Life* began to investigate the multifaceted construct of mentoring. These approaches to research included: the functions of mentoring (Kram, 1983; Kram, 1988); the antecedents necessary for successful mentoring (Eby et al., 2013; Gosh, 2014; Rock & Garavan, 2006); the outcomes and benefits of mentoring (Clinard & Ariav, 1998; Eby, Lockwood, & Butts, 2006; Hezlett, 2005; Kram & Hall, 1989; Scandura, Tejada, Werther, & Lankau, 1996); the differences between the benefits of mentoring for men and women (Kay & Wallace, 2009; Ragins & Cotton, 1999); the differences between formal and informal mentoring (Desimone et al., 2014; Ragins & Cotton, 1999; Singh, 2002); and more recently, a shift to the perspectives about (Gut, Beam, Henning, Cochran, & Knight, 2014; Parise & Forett, 2007) and motivation and willingness to mentor (Iancu-Haddad & Oplatka, 2009; Laschober, Eby, & Kinkade, 2013; Ortiz-Walters & Fullick, 2015; Sinclair et al., 2006). All the while, these studies remain situated in a climate of what Aryee, Chay, and Chew (1996) described as organizational competitiveness. To remain globally competitive, organizations sought to create environments that would "facilitate life-long employee learning" (Allen et al.,

1997, p. 74). Consequently, mentoring has become a key tool to facilitate these organizational demands.

For the education sector, the organizational competitiveness Aryee et al. (1996) referred to is manifested through, “increased public attention to certification, tenure decisions, and teacher evaluation” (Little, 1990, p. 340). Through the creation of formal mentor roles, experienced teachers were called upon to meet the need for mentors as a component of induction programs for beginning teachers. Frequently, teachers who serve as formal mentors also engage in informally mentoring FYTs – an interaction disconnected from any organizational impetus. However, in order to understand the differences between mentor teachers’ motivations to enter into either formal or informal relationships with FYTs, it is necessary to unpack the complexity of mentoring. This complexity can be explored by defining the construct of mentoring, understanding the functions and phases of mentoring, and examining a dynamic process model to help situate extant literature regarding mentors’ motives to engage in formal and informal mentoring relationships with FYTs.

### **Defining Mentoring**

Because research on mentoring spans many fields and types of mentees (children to adults), there have been some impediments to gaining conceptual consensus when discussing mentoring. Although there is a wealth of research, the field remains inchoate by lack of a common definition as to what mentoring is (Allen & Eby, 2007; Aspfors & Fransson, 2015; Dawson, 2014; Gibb, 1999; Jacobi, 1991; Scandura & Pellegrini, 2007). This is clearly illustrated in Haggard, Dougherty, Turban, and Wilbanks’s (2011)

literature review identifying 40 different definitions for mentoring. These disagreements are frequently over: the role the mentor plays in an organization (mentor's experience versus mentor's position); the way in which a mentor provides support or assistance to the mentee (as a guide, counselor, reality checker, role model); or the outcome or purpose of the mentoring support (emotional support, advice, recognition, protection, skill development) (Jacobi, 1991). Second, terms such as mentor, mentee, protégé, master, apprentice, novice, counselor, guide, or even coach and rookie further cloud the issue. Finally, as Mathews (2002) noted, these terms are additionally complicated by the context from which they are used, placing considerable emphasis on the expectations a specific organization has from mentoring pairs. Along with the multiple ways mentoring can be defined and described, there is one essential shift in the way in which the mentoring relationship is viewed that aids in creating a working definition of mentoring.

### **Traditional and Relational Mentoring**

Despite the numerous interpretations of mentoring, there is a discernable change in the way mentoring has been understood. This evolution, based on two predominant ways to frame mentoring, can assist in building an operational definition. The first is derived from traditional mentoring theory, which describes mentoring as a relationship involving one older and more experienced individual whose role is to help develop and support the career of a younger and less experienced individual (Fletcher & Ragin, 2007; Scandura & Pellegrini, 2007). These relationships are also characterized by emotional intensity, hierarchical distance, and asymmetry - wherein only the mentee receives

benefits from participating in the relationship (Eby, Durley, Evans, & Ragins, 2006; Fletcher & Ragins, 2007; Scandura & Pellegrini, 2007).

However, as mentoring research progressed, other scholars pointed out that the traditional view of mentoring “does not capture the full range of processes, mechanisms, and outcomes of developmental relationships” (Fletcher & Ragins, 2007, p. 374). Notable here is the recognition that individuals can partake in more than one mentoring dyad at a time, over time, and for varied reasons. As Kram (1988) progressed through her research about mentoring, she used the term “constellation” to capture these multiple ongoing relationships in which individuals may be involved. This evolved conception of mentoring has since been referred to as relational mentoring and enhances the understanding of traditional mentoring in three essential ways. First, it changes the focus on the dyad member reporting the outcomes of the mentoring function. Traditional mentoring research as Fletcher and Ragins (2007) described examined mentoring only from the mentee’s point of view. Relational mentoring opens up an entirely new perspective, that of the mentor, because it views mentoring as reciprocal and mutually beneficial. This is key because it allows researchers to address why mentors enter into mentoring relationships. Second, it shifts conventional ideas of success in mentoring outcomes, traditionally defined as the increase of career success to “career development as a process that leads to increasingly complex states of interdependence and connection with others, as well as to the acquisition of relational skills and competencies” (Fletcher & Ragins, 2007, p. 375). In addition, relational mentoring allows for the freeing of hierarchical roles that previously predetermined the value of what the mentor and mentee

could bring to the relationships. For as Fletcher and Ragins (2007) shared, “relational mentoring challenges us to think more expansively about mutual influence” (p. 375) indicating that mentees can bring expertise and influence to the relationship, too. The construct of relational mentoring helps to explain mentors’ motivation to engage in and benefits received from entering into these relationships. For the purposes of this research, mentoring will be defined as a relationship in which a more experienced individual (the mentor, veteran teacher) works with a less experienced individual (mentee, first-year teacher) yielding mutual benefits.

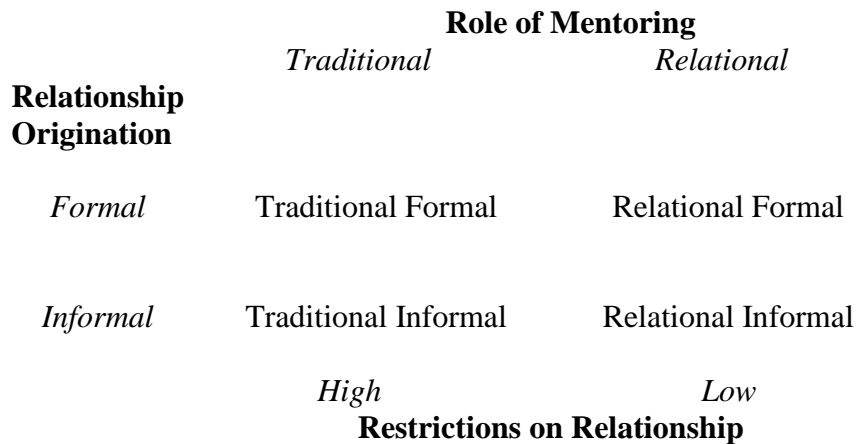
### **Formal and Informal Mentoring**

In addition to the way a mentoring relationship can be perceived (either traditionally or relationally), there is a second element to defining mentoring that refers to the origination of the mentoring relationship. As Eby, Rhodes, and Allen (2007) described, formal mentoring involves a third party matching the mentor and the mentee in an organizationally-sanctioned relationship, whereas informal mentoring occurs when the mentoring relationship develops naturally without third party assistance. As they noted, the element of formality can have a legitimate impact upon the subsequent mentoring dyad because the way in which the mentor and mentee regard one another – for example, perceived similarities of each other can help facilitate a bond between the dyad necessary for successful or effective outcomes. They further suggested that this distinction is not trivial in nature and that the literature provides substantive differences in mentoring relationships based on this characteristic. Despite the differences in formal and informal mentoring, almost 40% of the articles Eby et al. (2007) included in their review failed to

specify whether the mentoring was formal or informal, a distinction that can affect the outcomes of the relationship and research on it.

Formality, as Eby et al., (2007) suggested, also goes beyond just the origination of the relationships, but also to the structure in which the relationship then continues. This structure can be defined as “the extent to which there are predetermined guidelines for one or both persons’ roles in the mentoring relationship, implicit or explicit goals, parameters on when and how to interact in the mentorship, and a prearranged length” (Eby et al., 2007, p. 13). Together, these aspects of the structure within which each dyad resides plays an essential role in the mentoring relationship, for it “places boundaries on *when, how, and how much* mentors and protégés interact with one another which then in turn affects relational processes and outcomes” (Eby et al., 2007, p. 14). These various outcomes as depicted in Figure 1 help to provide a general overview of how mentoring relationships may originate and how a mentor may view his or her role.

The four types of mentoring relationships depicted in Figure 1 can provide general guidance as to the outcome of the relationships. For example, formal traditional relationships may be considered the most restrictive of relationships because they are bound by decisions imposed by formal program antecedents and limited by a one-way view of whom the mentoring should benefit (the mentee only). On the other hand, informal relational relationships may be considered the least restrictive of these relationships because there are no external impositions being placed upon the dyad and the mentor views the relationship as benefiting both the mentor and the mentee.



*Figure 1.* Origins, roles, and formality’s effects on mentoring relationships. Boundaries placed upon mentoring dyads based upon origination of relationship and view of mentoring’s role depicting possible restrictions these boundaries may place on relationship outcomes.

Organizations implementing mentoring programs or trying to cultivate an environment supportive of informal mentoring may wish to consider how the organization’s mentoring program – or lack thereof – in addition to how potential mentors and even mentees view the role/purpose of mentoring. Researchers have found that these boundaries can affect relationship outcomes. These outcomes are defined by the functions that mentoring relationships can provide to both the mentor and mentee.

**Mentoring Functions**

As Wanberg, Welsh, and Hezlett (2003) asserted, mentoring is frequently agreed upon as “the most intense and powerful one-on-one developmental relationship, entailing the most influence, identification, and emotional involvement” (p. 41). Such a description helps to illustrate Kram’s (1983) depiction of the needs of young adulthood, “a time when one’s questions about one’s competence, one’s effectiveness, and one’s ability to

achieve future dreams are most salient” (p. 609). Based upon the appreciation for the lack of experience in young adulthood driving the need for mentoring, Kram (1983) discovered that these questions are generally answered through two main functions in mentoring. She found that most frequently career functions and psychosocial functions address mentoring behaviors (Kram, 1988). Career functions, she defined as “those aspects of the relationship that enhance learning the ropes and preparing for advancement in an organization” (Kram, 1988, p. 22). Career functions entail sponsorship, protection, coaching, exposure-and-visibility, and challenging work assignments (Kram, 1988). On the other hand, psychosocial functions “are those aspects of a relationship that enhance a sense of competence, clarity of identity, and effectiveness in a professional role” (Kram, 1988, p. 22). Most often this function serves to provide acceptance-and-confirmation, counseling, friendship, and role-modeling (Kram, 1983, 1988). She further described that a mentoring relationship can consist of different degrees of either function, but most notably that there is “an interaction effect [which] increases the potency and benefits of a relationship that provides a range of functions” (Kram, 1988, p. 40).

Of further interest is how the functions of career (or frequently referred to as instrumental) and psychosocial support are fulfilled, for the ways in which mentees learn from mentors can vary. For example, Hezlett (2005) found that mentees learn through: observation (29%), mentor explanations (24%), and interactions with mentors (17%). Furthermore, the understanding of how these functions are fulfilled helps to clarify why mentoring relationships are characterized as intense and powerful, for they depend upon personal interactions to be achieved. These personal interactions are dependent upon the

motivations of a mentoring dyad's members. In particular, the motivations of veteran teachers to enter into these relationships will undoubtedly affect the function of the mentoring provided to FYTs (career and/or psychosocial) as well as the opportunity and/or quality of learning experiences (observation, explanation, interaction) for the FYT.

### **Mentoring Phases**

Not only does mentoring serve specific functions, but it also changes over time. Kram (1983) outlined these changes in four phases: (1) initiation; (2) cultivation; (3) separation; and (4) redefinition. The first two, initiation and cultivation, are most relevant to the mentoring relationships in which FYTs partake. Understanding these phases can also help to frame expectations about precisely what mentoring - whether formal or informal in nature - can achieve with regard to the amount of time needed for benefits to arise from the mentoring relationship. For instance, according to Kram, the first phase, called the initiation phase, takes roughly six to twelve months and centers on setting expectations. Of consequence is the rate at which formally assigned dyads can proceed through the initiation phase of the relationship, for undergirding these relationships are the elements of trust, interpersonal bonds, and intimacy, which Ragins and Kram (2007) described as being key foundations for psychosocial functions to occur. Without these foundations being firmly established, the cultivation phase, the second phase of the mentoring relationship, will not be as effective as possible or reach effectiveness in a timely manner. The third phase, the separation phase of a relationship, occurs by either an organization's structural change or in a psychological change in one of the dyad members. As Kram (1988) described, separation is necessary because both members may

realize “that the relationship is no longer needed in its previous form” (p. 620), for at this stage the mentee has gained confidence and can operate independently while the mentor is reaffirmed by successfully contributing to the mentee’s independence. The final phase, redefinition, changes the nature of the dyad’s relationship resulting in friendship or a complete end of the relationship. As evidenced by Kram’s descriptions of mentoring functions and phases, there are many facets to mentoring, which are difficult to capture in just one definition; therefore, researchers have looked for other ways to help account for and describe the many aspects of this highly personal relationship.

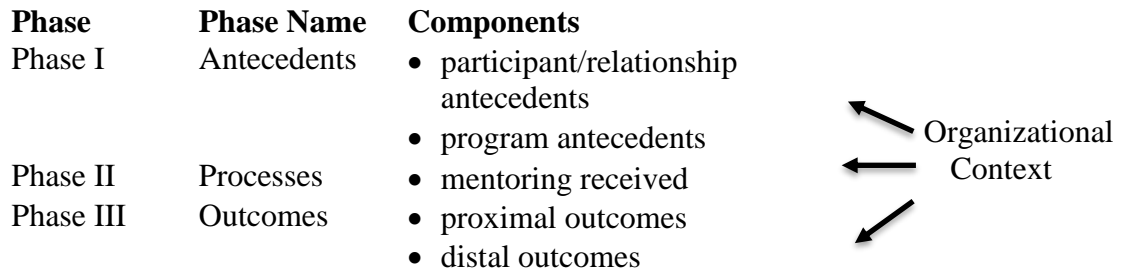
### **Conceptualizing Mentoring Via a Dynamic Process Model**

In an attempt to accommodate mentoring’s complexity – and as a mechanism to promote a shared understanding across fields – researchers have used frameworks to help capture the antecedents, processes, and outcomes of mentoring. Over three decades ago, Hunt and Michael (1983) set out to provide a framework to provide “a model for future study of mentorship” (p. 478). The framework they suggested has five categories: (1) mentor characteristics; (2) protégé characteristics; (3) stages and duration of the relationship; (4) outcomes; and (5) context. Of note, is their description of context, which “can be examined in terms of organizational characteristics, careers or occupations, and social network or interpersonal relationships between mentors and other members of the organization” (Hunt & Michael, 1983, p. 479). This framework explicitly appreciates the organization’s influence as a whole – one which plays a fundamental role in mentoring – because it is responsible for encouraging or inhibiting accessibility. By placing context as first and foremost in their framework, Hunt and Michael “set the scene for stages that

occur during the mentoring-protégé relationship” (p. 480) and underscore that all dyads are affected by context – and not just in positive ways. Other frameworks proposed by D’Abate, Eddy, and Tannenbaum (2003) and Dawson (2014), do share similarities with this earlier framework but remain focused on the immediacy of the mentor-protégé dyad. However, as Langdon, Alexander, Ryde, and Baggetta (2014) observed, recently there has been a shift toward studying the context surrounding how dyads learn from one another.

This shift, or perhaps the re-emergence of Hunt and Michael’s (1983) attention to context was also captured by Wanberg et al., (2003) who developed a dynamic process model for formal mentoring programs (see Appendix A). Recognizing the similarities between formal and informal mentoring dyads, these authors envisioned their model to be a useful tool for researchers studying both types of mentoring. In particular, this model presents a complete picture of mentoring that recognizes six components of mentoring relationships. They are: (a) participant/relationship antecedents; (b) program antecedents; (c) organizational context; (d) mentoring received; (e) proximal outcomes; and (f) distal outcomes. These components can further be categorized into three phases: antecedents, processes, and outcomes as illustrated in Figure 2. Through the examination of phase one, participant/relationship and program antecedents, the model allows exploration of how these characteristics contribute to phase two, processes, and phase three, outcomes of mentoring relationships. Furthermore, the framework illustrates that these components are situated in the ever present component, organizational context. Unlike the Hunt and Michael (1983) framework, the Wanberg et al., (2003) model provides an appreciation

for program antecedents as an individual component and not necessarily synonymous with organizational context. This is necessary to account for the roles that formal induction objectives and goals play in mentoring relationships.



*Figure 2.* Wanberg et al. (2003) mentoring components. Phases of mentoring broken down by components. Adapted from “Mentoring research: a review and dynamic process model” by C. Wanberg, E. Welsh, and S. Hezlett, 2003, *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management*, 22, p. 92.

Furthermore, it can easily adapt to formal or informal mentoring dyads – and as such provides a way to capture differences between these types of relationships. However, investigation of mentoring antecedents is first required in order to appreciate how the existence or lack of formal mentoring programs affects mentoring relationships.

### **Mentoring Antecedents**

Understanding how antecedents can shape mentoring is essential to many of the differences between formal and informal mentoring. A number of researchers have studied the differences (Chao, Walz, & Gardner, 1992; Desimone et al., 2014; Karkoulian, Halawi, & McCarthy, 2008; Klug & Salzman, 1991; Ragins & Cotton, 1999) across different professions and countries and help to contribute to a picture of the

outcomes of formal and informal mentoring. As such, identifying the ways in which antecedents can affect mentoring relationships must first be explored in order to appreciate the extant findings.

Wanberg et al.'s (2003) dynamic process model for understanding mentoring situates the antecedent phase, the first of three phases of the mentoring process in their model, in an organization's context. The antecedent phase consists of two components: participant/relationship antecedents and program antecedents. Together, organizational context, participant/relationship antecedents, and program antecedents play a role in shaping mentoring relationships. Within this model, the existence of program antecedents accounts for an organization's formal mentoring relationships although informal mentoring relationships may still occur in such organizations. However, if there are no program antecedents, then an organization may only generate informal mentoring relationships. Additionally, program antecedents are responsible for determining the way in which participant/relationship antecedents are considered when pairing mentoring dyads, the mentoring received by the mentee, and contributing to the greater organizational context in which mentoring relationships unfold.

**Organizational context.** Organizational context is recognized by the Wanberg et al. (2003) mentoring model as the backdrop for the mentoring process. These researchers described organizational context as including: organizational culture, support for the mentoring program, and broader developmental networks and opportunities (Wanberg et al., 2003). Additionally, the values and attitudes of an organization's members also play an essential role in creating and contributing to the organizational context (Wanberg et

al.). Providing further complexity, Scandura, Tejada, Werther, and Lankau (1996) shared it is also how the organization itself perceives the act of mentoring – whether or not it is valued by the organization. As Kram (1988) explained, “features of the organization, including its culture, the reward system, task design, and performance management systems affect relationships by shaping individual’s behavior” (pp. 15-16). Furthermore, organizational perception, as defined by Kram, shapes the behaviors of both mentors and mentees, thereby directly affecting mentoring dyad outcomes. For example, Kram and Hall (1989) reported that characteristics of workplaces where mentoring makes significant contributions to the organization are those with a history of trust and open communication, an appreciation for employee development, and self-aware individuals.

Johnson’s (2004) discussion of three professional cultures surrounding teachers provides a way to understand the role culture can play in the organizational context. For Johnson, professional cultures are defined as “the blend of values, norms, and modes of professional practice that develop[s] among teachers in a school” (p. 140). These professional cultures have “an enormous impact on new teachers, since they look toward their colleagues for signals about how best to do good work” (Johnson, 2004, p. 140). Even more noteworthy is that these professional cultures may permeate across the school or exist in subunits (e.g., grade level, professional learning community [PLC], academic department).

According to Johnson (2004), a school may be characterized by three different types of professional cultures. These are:

1. Veteran-oriented professional cultures: where workplace norms [are] set by veteran teachers who protect individual autonomy at the expense of professional interaction.
2. Novice-oriented professional cultures: where the values and work modes [are] determined by a predominantly novice faculty.
3. Integrated professional cultures: where there [is] ongoing professional exchange among all teachers across experience levels. (p. 141)

Of note are the implications for FYTs in each of these cultures. In veteran cultures, new teachers lack interactions with and fail to benefit from the wisdom of their experienced colleagues (Johnson, 2004). In these cultures, the benefits of potential mentoring are not capitalized upon. In novice cultures, new teachers may try to rely on one another, yet again fail to benefit from the wisdom of experienced faculty because these schools frequently are hard to staff and cannot retain veteran teachers. Therefore, novice-oriented cultures suffer from a lack of available mentors. Finally, integrated cultures promote and support interactions and exchanges between both veteran and novice teachers. In many ways these integrated cultures can be likened to that of relational mentoring. In other words, veteran and FYTs are both considered valuable and contributing members in the mentoring relationship.

However, the attention to these types of cultures may be further nuanced, for as Pogodzinski (2013) found, “although teaching is rather solitary work...subgroups have their own expectations regarding their work and working conditions which then relate to the type and level of support they give each other” (p. 472). Consequently, there may be a variety of perceptions regarding mentoring within a larger culture. This observation helps to accentuate, once more, the complexity of mentoring and a mentoring dyad’s sensitivity

to the environment; for an organization may play host to multiple subgroups' perceptions about the value of mentoring within itself.

Langdon et al.'s (2014) investigation of mentoring and induction programs in New Zealand also provides compelling evidence for the role of organizational context and influence. These researchers, however, do not differentiate between mentoring and induction, and refer continuously to both components concurrently throughout their study regarding the effects of both upon FYTs. New Zealand schools are required to provide support during a beginning teacher's first two years of teaching. These beginning teachers are referred to as Provisionally Registered Teachers (PRTs) and remain as such for their first two to five years until they apply for Fully Registered Teacher (FRT) status (Piggot-Irvine, Aitken, Ritchie, Ferguson, & McGrath, 2008). National guidelines and policies outline the induction and mentoring provided to teachers – a distinct difference from the United States whereby states, and frequently individual districts, have authority to determine the extent of induction and mentoring services provided to FYTs. This team of researchers first geographically organized schools across New Zealand, and only included schools that currently employed PRTs or beginning teachers. Next, these regions were stratified into four grade level categories (grades K-5, 6-7, 8-12 and K-12). Finally, 200 schools were selected from each of the subsequent 20 strata (5 geographic regions each divided by 4 grade levels) and teachers and administrators were invited to complete an online survey. Respondents totaled 696 individuals and were classified as: school leaders (26.4%), mentor teachers (13.2%), first and second year beginning teachers (9.2%), teaching staff members (40%), and those who identified as both school

leaders and mentors (11.2%). Similar to the United States, New Zealand's teaching population is also heavily staffed by White women. Using the Langdon Induction and Mentoring Scale, researchers' reported that a stakeholder's role (such as school leader, mentor, beginning teacher, or school staff) affected perceptions of mentoring and induction programs. Findings included: significantly more positive perceptions of mentoring and induction by school leaders and those who identified as both school leaders and mentors, followed by non-significant differences in the positive perceptions held by mentors and PRTs (mentees). The final group, school staff (those teachers not involved in mentoring) held the lowest perception of mentoring and induction. Such a finding demonstrates the multiple streams of perceptions that can be found in an organization as previously shared by Pogodzinski (2013). For example, Langdon and colleagues noted that the provision of nationally mandated induction and mentoring as well as guidelines may contribute to school leader's positive perceptions of the program as well as the responsibility of carrying out these programs. Another finding suggested beginning teachers assigned to low socio-economic schools reported the lowest perceptions of mentoring and induction while elementary based respondents held a more positive perception of mentoring and induction than those from the secondary level. Finally, Langdon et al. pointed to how a school leader's perceptions of induction and mentoring "could potentially lead either to new initiatives or to complacency about work conditions provided" (p. 103). These findings echo those from an earlier study by Scandura et al. (1993) who also found that a leader's perceptions can affect the organization. As they wrote, "mentoring quickly becomes a non-issue or is assumed"

(Scandura et al., 1993, p. 54) because frequently it spontaneously occurs. This underutilization of mentoring may be magnified in schools where principals are already stretched thin on a number of fronts and dismiss the power of mentoring because formalized induction programs within the school or district are already in place to cover this need. Overall, this study helps to provide insight into organizational context, identify the existence of multiple perceptions across contexts operating under the same policy, highlight distinctions between elementary and secondary settings, and draws attention to the group of teachers (those not involved in mentoring) with the lowest perception about mentoring. Understanding more about the motivations of teachers who continue to remain involved in mentoring relationships in these schools might help to pinpoint personal or program antecedents correlating to participation.

Another study conducted in New Zealand by Piggot-Irvine et al., (2009) provides additional support for the role of organizational context. These researchers used a success case study approach to identify: exemplary induction practices, context supports, and effective assessment of PRTs. Using four types of sites (early childhood, primary, secondary and the Maori medium - which incorporates the use of an indigenous language), researchers purposely selected five schools from each and collected data through focus groups, individual semi-structured interviews, analysis of induction policy, PRT and mentor generated documents (e.g. feedback notes, teaching materials), and observations of PRT and mentor interactions. One significant finding, spanning across the 20 case studies, was the identification of the “overall culture of support (derived both from systems and personnel) within the organization” (Piggot-Irvine et al., 2009, p. 182).

In particular, one participant went so far to liken colleagues' support to the support provided by one's own family. Importantly, this study noted that having a mentor alone is not enough – that the broader organizational support is also important for a PRT or FYT. This finding supports earlier research conducted by Smith and Ingersoll (2004) who found that an induction package approach (i.e., an induction program consisting of multiple components) yielded a decrease in the probability of beginning teacher turnover – and most notably so when beginning teachers participated in “activities that tied new teachers into a collaborative network of their more experienced peers” (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004, p. 704).

Work by Aspfors and Bondas (2013) further acknowledged the role and importance of the school community into which FYTs enter and how these communities can shape FYTs' experiences. Through an explorative study based in Finland, these researchers wanted to understand the characteristics of and the experiences in FYTs relationships within their school communities. Using 30 open-ended survey questions taken from part of a larger on-line questionnaire ( $N = 88$ ) and focus group meetings ( $n = 17$ ), researchers analyzed data from beginning primary school teachers with one to three years of teaching experience. Similar to US elementary school teacher demographics, the majority of respondents were female (75%) and between the ages of 25-29 (69.3%). Findings suggested that not just quantity of but quality of support is needed to assist new teachers. Researchers identified three categories of relationship characteristics: caring about, reciprocity, and caring for. Within each of these categories, the researchers found what they termed “tensions of paradoxes.” The first category, caring about, addressed the

needs for FYTs to be cared for by others. For instance, FYTs addressed the roles of nurturing leadership, positive recognition, and collegial reception and support. In contrast they also shared what the researchers titled “harassment and the need for putting your foot down.” In this aspect of caring about, FYTs reported being treated opposite of the way in which they wanted to be. For in such instances, FYTs felt the need to prove themselves to veteran teachers. The second category, reciprocity, looked at the equality of those within the school community. Reminiscent of Johnson’s (2004) integrated versus veteran-oriented cultures, Aspfors and Bondas noted FYTs’ recognition of meaningful interactions with colleagues “where everybody is equal” (p. 250) versus school communities where collaboration with seasoned teachers is sporadic or even resisted. The final category, caring for, demonstrated the tension between the joy that teaching can give versus the exhaustion it may produce. This category, however, focused on FYTs’ relationships with students rather than fellow teachers. Undoubtedly, these researchers’ efforts recognize the organizational context within which mentoring programs reside. Furthermore, this study helps to highlight the need for FYTs to be prepared to work with administrators and fellow teachers and not just the students in their classrooms (Aspfors & Bondas, 2013) as well as identifying veteran teachers’ perspectives on the need for FYT support and the role a veteran teacher might play in providing such support. Indeed, the organizational context into which FYTs enter is a complex system of human relationships, responses, and interactions.

Finally, Qian, Youngs, and Frank’s (2013) study provides concluding evidence on the role organizational context can play as they investigated senior colleagues’ collective

responsibility for novice teachers' learning. In particular, the researchers sought to understand if these "perceptions of collective responsibility are critical to the frequency of their interactions with novices" (Qian et al., 2013, p. 446). From the Michigan Indiana Early Career Teacher Study, researchers selected 10 school districts that had significant numbers of FYTs and varied in student population (both economically and racially). Participants included 184 novice teachers and were identified as 26% first year, 44% second year, and 29% third year. The majority were from elementary schools (134), female (80%) and White (90%). Using novice survey responses, researchers contacted participant-identified formally assigned mentors and key senior colleagues to also complete a survey. The final number of mentors/colleagues included was 215. Results indicated "a strong association between mentors' perceptions of collective responsibility and the frequency of their interactions with their mentees" (Qian et al., 2013, p. 457). Senior teachers also followed a similar pattern of perception and interaction with novice teachers. However, as the researchers underscored, senior colleagues only provided perceptions about other teachers' collective responsibility and not their own. This study contributes to how organizational context can affect the support FYTs receive; for as the authors shared, "this research highlights how senior teachers' perception of collective responsibility are important to formal interactions, such as mentoring programs, but also to informal social contact with novice teachers" (Qian et al., 2013, p. 462).

Collectively, these studies provide some key outcomes of organizational context upon mentors and mentees. Primarily, they offer evidence that members within the same organization can have very different perceptions regarding mentoring. Consequently, this

leads to a number of additional outcomes because perceptions of mentoring can affect mentoring dyad members' reaction to, expectations of, and willingness to participate in these relationships. It also raises many questions such as: how might school leaders help promote a more equally positive perception regarding mentoring across all faculty (Langdon et al., 2014)?; what actions might school leadership take within the organizational context to provide a unified vision for FYT support?; how might schools transform into communities that attend to the needs of FYTs?; and finally, how might preservice teachers be prepared to work within these communities (Aspfors & Bondas, 2013)? Although organizational context is a component in which Wanberg et al.'s (2003) mentoring process model is situated, there are other identifiable components at play. Foremost, organizations are comprised of individuals and these individuals contribute unique characteristics to the organization. The contributions of these individuals can be better understood by examining participant/relationship antecedents.

**Participant/relationship antecedents.** Within their mentoring process model, Wanberg et al. (2003) identified participant and relationship antecedents. They described participant antecedents as the unique characteristics, experiences, and personality an individual brings to the mentoring relationship. The outcomes of the way in which these elements interact between dyad members also contributes to the overall outcome of the relationship. These interactions, which Wanberg et al. referred to as relationship characteristics, can manifest in varying results (e.g. intimacy, interpersonal perceptions, and conflict). Primarily, these interactions are affected by the process responsible for matching mentors and mentees, which can be either formal or informal in nature.

Although Wanberg and colleagues' designed the mentoring process model to help explain formal mentoring, these researchers were also cognizant that mentoring occurs informally, and their model can equally serve to help understand these relationships, too. The most notable difference between formal and informal mentoring is in formal relationships, mentors and mentees are often assigned by a third party that may potentially run the risk of ignoring participant antecedents, while in informal relationships, mentors and mentees have the ability to seek out individuals with whom they identify (Chao et al., 1992) or are similar in nature, a term known as homophily in the social network literature (Baker-Doyle, 2012). As such, the ability for dyads to self-select based on participant antecedents may yield very different outcomes than dyads unintentionally matched.

Researchers have identified participant antecedents that can help support more positive outcomes for mentoring dyads such as dyad members' attitudes, beliefs, and values (Eby et al., 2013) and a variety of behavioral (Lee & Jeong, 2013) and personality traits (Wanberg, Kammeyer-Mueller, & Marchese, 2006). Similar to the overall corpus of mentoring research, these researchers' findings extend across disciplines but contribute to a body of knowledge, which can inform the matching of mentoring participants. Additionally, such knowledge can affect the decisions organizations make when implementing a mentoring program (such a formal implementation would be captured in Wanberg et al.'s (2003) program antecedent mentoring process model component).

***Reviewing antecedents via meta-analyses.*** Eby et al.'s (2013) interdisciplinary meta-analysis provides a summary of potential participant antecedents, correlates, and

consequences, which can affect mentoring relationships. The studies gathered for the meta-analysis ranged across a number of disciplines (e.g., education, public health, industrial/organizational psychology); incorporated three main areas of mentoring scholarship: youth, academic, and workplace; and consisted of 173 samples yielding a combined sample size of 40,737.

The researchers' categories of potential antecedents included demographics (gender and race), mentor's human capital (career/instrumental and psychosocial support), and relational attributes (deep-level similarity, experiential similarity, and relationship formality). Researchers found that demographic antecedents such as "protégé gender, mentor gender, and protégé race were generally unrelated to mentoring" (Eby et al., 2013, p. 453). The second potential antecedent, that of human capital, the researchers defined as the wisdom, skills, and expertise the mentor could provide to a mentee. Human capital produced no significant effect sizes with the exception of when a mentor's human capital decreased, the mentee perceived greater career/instrumental support. Finally, relational attributes consist of the mentoring relationship as a whole. Deep-level similarity, the researchers explained, has been operationalized in many ways but "refers to similarity in attitudes, beliefs, values, and other personal characteristics" (Eby et al., 2013, p. 449). Researchers found medium to large effect sizes when "deep-level similarity increased, so did the protégé's perceptions of instrumental support ( $p = .38$ ), psychosocial support ( $p = .56$ ), and relationship quality ( $p = .59$ )" (Eby et al., 2013, p. 454). A second relational attribute is that of surface-level similarity referring to gender and race. Findings yielded weak correlations between surface-level similarity and

mentoring support. Experiential similarity encompassing “educational level, educational background, functional area, department affiliation, job tenure, and geographic location” (Eby et al., 2013, p. 449) showed positive correlations to career/instrumental support and relationship quality. Finally, relationship formality, the difference of formal and informal mentoring relationships, indicated that mentees’ perceptions of informal mentoring relationships also provided small effect sizes regarding instrumental ( $p = .10$ ) and psychosocial ( $p = .14$ ) support over formal mentoring relationships.

Similarly, Ghosh’s (2014) meta-analysis also looked at a variety of mentoring antecedents (individual, relational, and organizational factors). In particular, he provided a review of the findings regarding the individual mentor characteristics of learning goal orientation and transformational leadership and individual mentee characteristics of: proactivity, locus of control, emotional intelligence, learning goal orientation, and self-monitoring. Ghosh described a transformational leader as an individual who possesses charisma, serves as a role model, can intellectually stimulate others, considers others individually, and can inspire motivation. Overall, a mentor’s transformational leadership followed by a protégés proactivity produced the strongest association with career support. Also of note are relational antecedents from this meta-analysis such as gender, self-disclosure, perceived similarity, and trust. In contrast to Eby et al. (2013), Ghosh reported that more career and psychosocial support was reported when dyads were similar in gender and more likely to received psychosocial support when similar in ethnicity. Finally, dyad members who reported higher rates of perceived similarity in turn yielded protégé reports of higher levels of psychosocial and career support. On the measure of

trust, dyads reporting higher levels of trust yielded protégés who were more likely to receive psychosocial and career support.

*Similarity in dyad members.* Eby et al.'s (2013) and Ghosh's (2014) findings provide an overview of various fields' efforts. However, it is helpful to have a deeper understanding of how participant antecedents and the mechanisms behind mentoring relationships affect outcomes. Researchers have looked at these antecedents and mechanisms in a variety of lenses such as: attachment security (Mitchell, Eby, & Ragins, 2015), behavioral antecedents (Lee & Jeong, 2013), and personality traits (Wanberg et al., 2006).

*Similarity via attachment security.* Although Eby et al.'s (2013) meta-analysis investigated potential antecedents of mentoring relationships, a more recent study by Mitchell, Eby, and Ragins (2015) builds specifically on the meta-analysis's findings that deep-level similarity increased protégés' perceptions of support. Premised on work suggesting that secure attachments between mentors and mentees are necessary to yield positive mentoring relationship outcomes, these researchers investigated antecedents and outcomes of perceived similarity. As they explained, "the securely attached mentor is likely to engage in appropriate caregiving toward his or her protégé, and the securely attached protégé is likely to expect and accept the support provided" (Mitchell et al., 2015, p. 3). This concurrent secure attachment between mentor and mentee further builds on the notion of relational mentoring (or symmetrical) relationship between mentors and mentees and highlights the important role both members of a dyad play.

These researchers selected two large state universities and mailed surveys to a 2,501 non-faculty employees. If a participant identified as a mentor, he/she were to complete the survey and pass along a survey to his/her mentee. Although the researchers received 659 surveys, only 82 mentor-mentee matches could be made. The majority of the dyads were informal (75.6%), consisted of predominantly White mentors (91.5%) and White mentees (87.8%), and were also mainly women (mentors, 59.8%; mentees, 73.2%) and reported an average relationship length of 2.54 years ( $SD = 3.41$ ). Using Likert scales, participants responded to six measures: (1) attachment security; (2) relational self-construal (or how an individual defines themselves via their interpersonal relationships with others); (3) perceived similarity; (4) role modeling; (5) organizational commitment; and (6) professional commitment. Researchers also considered five control variables: relationship length, racial and gender similarity, and formal or informal mentoring status.

Of the five control variables, only informal mentoring status provided a significant association with perceived similarity ( $r = -.25$ ). One of the studies most relevant findings is that “actual similarity may or may not predict perceptions of similarity” (Mitchell et al., 2015, p. 7). For example, perceived similarity followed a curvilinear association whereby “protégé perceptions of similarity are highest when mentors and protégés are similarly higher or similarly lower in attachment security, and lowest when mentors and protégés are similarly average in attachment security” (Mitchell et al., 2015, p. 6). Likewise, these researchers found that mentees’ perceptions of similarity to their mentors was what “ultimately influence[d] their commitment to their organizations and their professions” (Mitchell et al., 2015, p. 8). Such findings are

important because they further complicate the assumed notion of positive outcomes of presumed similarity in mentoring dyads. Mitchell et al.'s work indicates the power of perception to skew an individual's notions of similarity in positive and negative ways. Furthermore, this work may provide future insight into how perceptions of similarity may affect motivations of veteran teachers to mentor FYTs in formal or informal ways.

*Behavioral antecedents.* Also of interest to researchers is the identification of behavioral antecedents, which contribute to the involvement and outcomes of mentoring relationships. Researchers Lee and Jeong (2013) were interested in the behavioral antecedents of protégé's who entered into a social mentoring network (SMN). Based on prior research asserting that a mentee's similarity to a mentor and willingness to self-disclose are key factors to successful mentoring, Lee and Jeong studied a SMN in the hopes that similarity to mentors would be more easily achieved in non-face-to-face settings. However, other studies, such as Eby et al.'s (2013) meta-analysis, found that face-to-face similarities may not appreciably affect mentoring outcomes. The SMN is defined "as a special case of informal mentoring couples with a social networking platform" (Lee & Jeong, 2013, p. 37). Likewise, because of its informality, members of these networks have already self-selected themselves. Participants were South Korean ( $N = 376$ ), used a social networking system at least once a day, were between the ages of 25 and 35, and mostly male (69.4%). Participants were to complete two online surveys over two weeks' time. The first survey was to measure behavioral antecedents, while the second assessed actual behavior. Findings included that the variables of "attitude, subjective norm, similarity and self-disclosure played significant roles in determining

behavioral intention, which, in turn, was found to be the single significant predictor of behavior” (Lee & Jeong, 2013, p. 41). Researchers found that the variable of attitude contributed the most to an individual’s intention. Although this study changes the forum of mentoring from face-to-face to online, it does reinforce the importance of similarity between mentors and mentees and the role attitude can play in behavioral intention and actual behavior to engage in mentoring. Understanding that veteran teachers’ attitudes toward mentoring can contribute to their actual mentoring behavior is significant as it stresses the importance of understanding how these attitudes or veteran teachers’ stresses veteran teachers’ motivations to mentor FYTs are shaped.

*Personality.* The team of Wanberg et al. (2006) investigated personality traits of both members in mentoring dyads and how the specific traits of proactivity and openness to experience affected mentoring outcomes. The researchers selected the specific traits of proactivity and openness to experience based upon theoretical origins suggesting such traits drive mentoring mechanisms. The researchers defined proactivity as “the tendency to shape and influence one’s environment” (Wanberg et al., 2006, p. 412) and openness to experience as the use of “imagination, intelligence, curiosity, originality, and open-mindedness” (Wanberg et al., 2006, p. 412). The study used formally matched mentoring dyads from nine different organizations who took part in a 12 month formalized mentoring program. Participants were to complete three surveys over the 12-month period: at the beginning, after their initial orientation meeting; six months into the program; and at the end of the year-long program. Overall, 96 dyads completed both surveys at each interval. These dyads were mostly same-gendered matches (70%) and

matched in race (67%), and had met 5.5 times in the first six months and 5.3 times in the last six months. Results indicated that mentor proactivity yielded positive reports of career and psychosocial support and mentees' perceptions of similarity to their assigned mentors yielded positive reports of psychosocial support. Similar to prior studies, these researchers also warned that "matches in terms of actual similarity do not guarantee that individuals will perceive each other as similar" (Wanberg et al., 2006, p. 421), underscoring that similarity alone is enough for mentoring dyads to be successful.

*Significance of participant antecedents.* Researchers have found participant antecedents do affect mentoring relationships. Primarily, they have identified that successful mentoring dyads rely on more than just superficial similarity. The findings also complicate the notion of a direct correspondence between actual similarity between dyad members and perceived similarity. This has important implications for program antecedents in a program's approach to matching mentors in formal mentoring programs. Foremost, programs should go beyond superficial similarities such as race or gender in dyad members and intentionally seek to foster or maintain similar perceptions between dyad members. Perhaps informal relationships are able to create opportunities to explore a match in perceived similarities that formal mentor matches may not as organically achieve.

Also of importance is the notion of thinking about mentoring dyads in terms of clear cut terms such positive or negative. This outlook is one which Eby, McManus, Simon, and Russell (2000) warned against in their study on negative mentoring experiences. These researchers asserted that negative events in a mentoring relationship

do not automatically produce a failed relationship. Using an inductive, exploratory approach, these researchers sought to understand negative mentoring experiences by distributing surveys to two executive development programs. Participants were also provided with an additional 10 surveys to give to other co-workers (ranging from managers, subordinates and peers). Researchers achieved a 65% response rate ( $n = 277$ ) of which the participants had approximately 6.88 of their possible 10 distributed surveys returned ( $SD = 2.29$ ). The researchers' analysis yielded five broad categories of negative mentoring experiences. Of the five, match within dyad was the highest reported type of negative experience, followed by distancing behavior, manipulative behavior, lack of mentor expertise, and general dysfunctionality. Sub-themes of match within dyad included values, work-style, and personality. Having established the of role participant antecedents, particularly with regard to similarity and perceived similarity in dyad members, the role of program antecedents will further help to situate how these participant antecedents may or may not be capitalized upon. It is the program antecedent component of Wanberg et al.'s (2003) model that plays a direct role in how participant/relationship antecedents are acknowledged.

**Program antecedents.** Program antecedents can greatly affect how participant antecedents are taken into consideration. As Wanberg et al. (2003) outlined, program antecedents include: the selection of participants, the matching process, orientation and training, frequency of meeting guidelines, goal setting, and program objectives. These program decisions contribute to mentoring outcomes in a variety of ways. Foremost, these decisions can have an immediate effect of the mentoring the mentee receives. As

captured in the Wanberg et al. framework, these program antecedents can include: the frequency of dyad meetings, the scope of the material the dyad should address, as well as the strength of influence the relationship can have on its members. They also illustrate the far reaching effects formalized programs can play in mentoring relationship outcomes.

***Role of the matching process.*** Due to a variety of reasons (time, personnel, knowledge about), formal mentoring programs may overlook the unique personal and behavioral antecedents that mentors and mentees bring to a mentoring relationship. As O'Brien, Rodopman, and Allen shared (2007), although the matching process is of little consequence in youth mentoring programs, it is essential to workplace and student-faculty mentoring relationships. For example, Smith and Ingersoll (2004) found that induction programs differ in the attention a program gives in matching mentors and mentees. In their investigation of how induction programs affect beginning teacher turnover, Smith and Ingersoll (2004) used the Schools and Staffing Survey data from the school year 1999-2000. Researchers used the predictors of: "(a) teacher characteristics and school characteristics; (b) participation in mentorship activities; (c) participation in group or collective induction activities; and (d) the provision of extra resources for beginners such as reduced teaching work load or having a teacher's aide" (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004, p. 688) to determine retention outcomes. In particular, the researchers used two measurements that served as important program antecedents. The first was if a FYT's mentor taught the same subject. The second was incorporating networking or collaborative supports such as: common planning time, scheduled opportunities for collaboration, seminars, or regular communication with administrators. All of these

measures are ones which an organization can choose to address with intentionality. Findings included that FYTs with mentors in the same field decreased their attrition rate by 30%, while FYTs who had a mentor in a different field decreased their attrition by 18%. Furthermore, FYTs participating in collaborative relationships, which can also serve as a form of group mentoring, yielded the most promising results and decreased FYTs leaving by 43%.

It is upon program antecedents of mentor-mentee matches that dyad outcomes are dependent (Hobson et al., 2009), for they “can be a source of both satisfaction and emotional strain” (Aspfors & Bondas, 2013, p. 245). Just as Eby et al. (2000) described the outcome of negative mentoring experiences “were particularly likely to occur when the protégé perceived the mentor as having dissimilar attitudes, values, and beliefs” (p. 14), Qian et al.’s (2013) study of beginning teachers also emphasized the role of similarity in matching and wrote, the “similarity of beliefs about students, teaching, and learning may be an important factor affecting teachers’ interactions with each other” (p. 462). These findings share there are particular antecedents that should be given consideration when matching dyad members.

Another consequence of a dyad’s match is the ability of a dyad to communicate effectively. As described in her literature review, He (2009) explained that the “learning of the mentors and mentees occurs through meaningful social communication, interactions and practice in reaching co-constructed goals” (p. 26) and one which “emphasiz[es] both parties strengths, interests and passions” (p. 27). As such, dyads in

which the participants can voluntarily select one another might be more likely in reaching co-constructed goals if, in particular, their interests and passions are aligned.

***Mentor selection, orientation, and training.*** There is no doubt that FYTs are in need of mentoring, but teaching experience does not necessarily equate with mentoring proficiency. This concern is one which Feiman-Nemser has addressed over the past twenty years. She has remained a long-term advocate for what she calls educative mentoring (Feiman-Nemser, 1998). For it is not only the element of support that FYTs require, but it is the intentionality given to the type of support mentor teachers provide to their novice colleagues. However, as Kardos and Johnson (2010) noted, relying on goodwill of teachers to serve as mentors seems to be the propellant of many mentoring programs.

Illustrating the importance of program antecedents setting the stage for mentoring processes and outcomes is Feiman-Nemser and Parker's (1992) report on two mentoring programs for beginning teachers. One program provided alternative certification for on-the-job teachers while the other was designed for preservice teachers who were enrolled in a master's program during their first year of teaching. Through four components, job description, programmatic setting, selection process, and mentor training, it was clear that these program antecedents were responsible for "the conditions of mentoring [that] shaped the practices of mentors" (Feiman-Nemser & Parker, 1992, p. 2). The researchers identified that key differences in these programs included: part-time versus full-time mentor status, the knowledge mentors have of the FYTs program's academic components, and the ongoing support mentors have once they complete initial training.

Furthermore, the researchers also identified differences in the programs' conceptions of what a good mentor does. For instance, one program conducted classroom observations of potential mentor teachers while the other was more focused on the potential mentors' thinking and selection of student activities. Ultimately the authors identified that contextual antecedents from each program shaped how mentors perceived their work as either: (1) local guides, who helped ease the transition for FYTs by solving immediate problems and only saw their role as temporary until the new teacher gained confidence; (2) educational companions, who helped them cope with daily issues but long-term goals of helping FYTs develop sound practice; or (3) agents of change who "break down traditional isolation among teachers by fostering norms of collaboration and shared inquiry" (Feiman-Nemser & Parker, 1992, p. 15).

Although Whitaker (2000) investigated mentoring's effects on attrition in beginning special education teachers, her findings also help to underscore the importance of mentor selection. Using focus groups, she created a questionnaire and refined her cover letter for potential participants, and administered it to two pilot study groups. She then randomly sampled 200 beginning special education teachers in North Carolina to understand their perceptions of effective mentoring and how the mentoring they received affected their retention in the field. After errors in employment were accounted for, 156 surveys of 186 possible participants, were returned for an 86% response rate. The surveys consisted of Likert-type and multiple choice items focused on six categories: (a) form of supports/assistance provided; (b) content of supports/assistance provided; (c) effectiveness of the mentoring; (d) characteristics of the mentor; (e) plans to remain in

special education; and (f) demographic data. Participants were mostly White (86%) and female (94%). Participants primarily taught at the elementary level (52%), followed by secondary (39%), with the remaining 9% reporting mixed grade level assignments. Characteristics of the mentors were divided into four areas: professional characteristics, personal characteristics, professional characteristics-general, and characteristics in relation to the FYT. Using 6-point scales, participants scored the importance of a mentor teachers' professional characteristics regarding knowledge of special education more important ( $M = 4.88$ ,  $SD = .30$ ) than professional characteristics in general ( $M = 4.66$ ,  $SD = .50$ ). Meanwhile, a mentor's personal characteristics had an overall mean score of 4.70 ( $SD = .40$ ). Finally, participants reported that similar characteristics such as planning period ( $M = 2.92$ ,  $SD = 1.82$ ), teaching style ( $M = 2.44$ ,  $SD = 1.60$ ), and gender ( $M = 1.01$ ,  $SD = 1.45$ ) were not as important, but also yielded far more variety in participants' opinions as illustrated by the reported standard deviations as compared to mentor characteristics. This study illustrates the desirability of mentor teachers to serve a knowledge resource for beginning teachers. As such, programs may wish to consider ways in which to evaluate prospective mentors' levels of content and pedagogical knowledge.

As previously illustrated by Feiman-Nemser and Parker (1992), program antecedents play a role in defining mentor qualifications and characteristics, which subsequently affect mentor teachers' views of mentoring and relationship outcomes with FYTs and the extent to which mentor knowledge is considered in formal mentoring programs. For example, Eby et al.'s (2000) study on negative mentoring experiences

identified the meta-theme of lack of mentor expertise. This meta-theme, comprised of interpersonal incompetence and technical incompetence, contributed to 17% of the negative mentoring experiences identified by participants in the study. The research team of Eby, Butts, Lockwood, and Simon (2004), further investigated Eby et al.'s (2000) identified meta-themes but sought to see how the strength of the negative experience related to the phase in the mentoring relationship (initiation, cultivation, separation, and redefinition). Researchers mailed surveys to alumni of a large southwestern university and yielded a 23% response rate (466). Of these, a total of 239 had experienced being a mentee and therefore included in the analysis for the study. Respondents were an average 31 years old ( $SD = 5$ ) and 97% White. The majority were female (66%) and had worked in their present job for 3.4 years. Finally, 71% of respondents also identified being in an informal mentoring relationship. The themes of mismatch within dyad and lack of mentor expertise were the highest in the separation phases. The researchers also found that a mentor's lack of experience played a role in negative mentoring experiences as well as when mentors distance themselves from mentees. Furthermore, these researchers found that these two types of negative experiences were reported more frequently in formal than informal pairings (Eby et al., 2004).

It is this fundamental difference in program antecedents, that of formally or informally matched mentoring dyads, which the field has begun to address. For it is clear that outcomes and implications arise based upon how an organization implements its mentoring program. This is critical for induction programs as the need to support FYTs is essential to help both the initial, pragmatic usefulness of helping “novices [to] get inside

the intellectual and practical tasks of teaching” (Schwille, 2008, p. 139) but the more long-range, student achievement and practitioner effects resulting from “help[ing] novices develop the skills and dispositions to continue learning in and from their practice.” (Schwille, 2008, p. 139)

### **The Sum of Program Antecedent Roles: Formal and Informal Mentoring**

Organizational context and participant/relational antecedents exist regardless of the presence of a mentoring program. Logically, researchers have queried how the outcomes of formal mentoring relationships (programs who are affected by program antecedents of matching, training, program objectives, etc.) compare to those of informal mentoring relationships (the absence of any intervening program antecedent). The following studies capture how program antecedents play a role in mentoring outcomes but also how participant/relational antecedents and organizational context are implicated by this component of Wanberg et al.’s (2003) dynamic process model.

**Differences in formal and informal mentoring.** Klug and Salzman (1991) provided an early window into the differences between formal and informal mentoring relationships. This team used qualitative and quantitative measures to investigate induction program effects on 27 beginning teachers in U.S. rural school districts. Fourteen beginning teachers took part in a formal mentoring program whereby a mentor, administrator, and higher education representative worked with the mentee throughout their first two years of teaching. Each member in these support teams were required to complete two hours of monthly observations during the first semester and two observations during the second semester. Over the course of the school year, teams met

four times, and mentor teachers were asked to spend 72 hours with their mentees. In contrast, 12 beginning teachers participated in what the authors described as an “informal buddy system approach” (Klug & Salzman, 1991, p. 242). However, these informal pairings did not completely fit the definition of informal – as they were still assigned to one another. Rather these informal pairings lacked programmatic intervention. The researchers considered the lack of any structure regarding a set number of hours to meet or any guidelines outlining types of assistance to constitute informal mentoring.

Overall findings based upon end of school year interviews, video-taped lessons of the mentees’ teaching, and a survey administered at the beginning and end of the school year addressed three main areas: attitudes toward teaching, teaching performance, and induction program elements. In general, the team approach (formal mentoring) yielded higher novice teachers’ positive attitudes about teaching than the informal buddy approach. Regarding teaching performance, no significant differences were found between the two groups; however, the novice teacher in the team approach indicated an appreciation for all induction program requirements while the novices in the buddy system noted confusion because of the absence of programmatic structure. All mentees felt that mentor teachers needed careful selection – stating that trust, support, and similar philosophies and grade level assignment or experience were important for mentor teacher selection. Finally, team approach mentors spent the recommended 72 hours with their FYTs and 38 with second-year teachers, while buddy system teachers spent 22 hours with FYTs and 12 with second-year teachers. The researchers noted the team approach yielded an increased sense of collegiality between team members who worked together to provide

support for the mentee, thereby, teams were not only accountable to the mentee, but to the other team members. The finding of time spent with mentees is important as it speaks to not only the role of program antecedents (in this study, required hours of meeting), but the increased sense of collegiality illustrates the Wanberg et al.'s (2003) model's attention to the two-way relationship of organizational context being affected by participant and program antecedents.

In another early study, Chao et al., (1992) compared formal and informal mentoring involving alumni from one large and one small university. This study illustrates a direct response to Kram's identification of mentoring's function to provide to psychosocial and career support. These researchers premised their work on the role the initiation phase – in other words the matching phase – plays in mentoring relationships. They asserted that the dyad pairings, which resulted from (assigned) formal and (self-selected) informal matches would affect the psychosocial and career support the mentee perceives are provided, and affect the outcomes of the level of organizational socialization experienced, intrinsic job satisfaction, and salary.

Using data from part of a longitudinal study on career development, participants completed a survey regarding their mentorship experiences post-graduation. Participants were employed by various organizations and industries and were categorized as those involved in informal mentoring ( $N = 212$ ), those in formal mentoring programs ( $N = 53$ ) and those considered non-mentored ( $N = 284$ ). There were no significant differences in the hours formal and informal mentees spent with their mentor, but there was a significant difference in relationship length. Informal mentees reported a length of 5.22

years versus 2.54 years for formal mentees. This may be contributed to self-identified similarities supporting the longevity of relationships, but it may also be to the required hours formal dyads must spend together – a variable outside of the researchers’ control. Using a 5-point Likert-type scale, mentor functions, job satisfaction, and organizational socialization were assessed using 75 items. Researchers found no significant differences between the amounts of psychosocial support informal or formal mentees received. However, informal mentees reported slightly significant more career support than formal mentees, which may be contributed to the power of similarity in the goals and interests in these individuals who self-selected one another (Chao et al., 1992). In addition, these researchers found that informal mentees also reported “slightly higher levels of organizational socialization, satisfaction, and salaries than formal protégés” (Chao et al., 1992, p. 627). Because this study found there are differences between formal and informal mentoring dyads, it helped open the door for future researchers to study why these differences exist and to what they can be attributed.

Almost a decade later, Ragins and Cotton (1999) looked at mentoring functions as well as the career outcomes of formal and informal mentoring relationships while also taking into account the role gender played. These researchers selected U.S. participants in the fields of engineering, social work, and journalism and offered formal mentoring for employees. The surveys returned (1,258) were close to representing a third of each of the sampled fields for a response rate of 42%, although only 1,162 surveys provided complete data. The authors also took care to provide a definition of mentoring, formal mentoring, and informal mentoring on their survey. Many more respondents reported

having an informal (43.9%) rather than formal mentor (9%), while close to half reported having no mentor (47.2%). Researchers used a reliable and valid measure, the Mentor Role Instrument (MRI), to assess mentor functions, and findings indicated that mentees with informal mentors reported more career development functions than mentees with formal mentors. Similarly, four of six psychosocial functions were also reported as higher by informal mentees. Finally, mentors also reported greater satisfaction with their informal mentees than formal mentees. Ragins and Cotton also found that mentees with informal mentors received higher compensation than those without mentors, but interestingly there were no significant differences between formal mentees and their non-mentored counterparts. Meanwhile, these researchers suggested that formal mentoring is less effective for women than men, even though formalized mentoring was often implemented to help level the playing field in occupational advancement (Ragins & Cotton, 1999). Although the study did not include teachers, participants were selected from organizations who offered formal mentoring. It is clear that the mentoring programs were unable to fulfill all the needs of respective beginning employees (ostensibly for a number of reasons) as many more participants had informal rather than formal mentors. Due to the low number of mentees reporting formal mentors, there is cause to believe that these mentor programs were not required of beginning employees. This is unlike many of the mandated mentoring induction policies currently in place across states for FYTs.

Two more recent studies round out the differences in formal and informal mentoring. Karkouljian, Halawi, and McCarthy's (2008) study of professionals working in 10 Lebanese banks explored the roles of formal and informal mentoring. Viewing

mentoring as a form of knowledge management (KM) defined as “the process by which an organization gains wealth through its intellectual or knowledge-based assets” (p. 410), Karkoulian et al. described KM “an effective mechanism to pass on knowledge within organizations” (p. 411). These authors sought to understand whether formal or informal mentoring provided “higher levels of knowledge sharing, knowledge preserving, and knowledge utilization” (Karkoulian et al., 2008, p. 414). They defined these terms as:

Knowledge sharing: the process of giving and receiving information framed within a context by the knowledge of the source; it also intrinsically involves the generation of knowledge by the recipient.

Knowledge preserving: managing the knowledge assets and the processes that act upon them.

Knowledge utilization: [how] an organization makes the most use of its knowledge and is capable of minimizing the time that assets are utilized to maximize returns. (Karkoulian et al., 2008, p. 410)

Using a questionnaire with 20 items, the researchers measured employees’ perceptions of formal and informal mentoring with regard to knowledge sharing, preserving, and utilization. Results indicated positive relationships between formal mentoring and knowledge sharing but not with knowledge utilization while informal mentoring yielded a positive relationship with both knowledge sharing and utilization. Such results call into question how program antecedents (program structure or lack of program altogether) may inadvertently call for mentors to share knowledge that mentors believe mentees will not find particularly helpful. Furthermore, these findings also suggest that the presence of formal mentoring programs does not necessarily equate with anticipated outcomes.

Desimone et al. (2014) sought to understand the differences between a FYT’s formally assigned induction mentor and informal mentors identified by the same FYT. In

particular, these researchers investigated the nature and quality of the mentoring interactions and how program and participant antecedents may account for these difference. Using mixed methods, these researchers used data from a five-year longitudinal study of induction involving U.S. middle school math teachers. A total of 57 FYT responses were used. Regarding differences in interactions between formal and informal mentoring dyads, Desimone et al. found that beginning teachers spent more time with their informal mentors (17.8 hours) than formal mentors (11.3 hours). Of the time spent, informal mentors spent significantly more time in three areas: expectations for teachers, parent involvement, and emotional support. These novice teachers also reported valuing their observations by formal mentors - ostensibly observations occurred because it was required of formal mentors not because informal mentors do not or cannot observe their mentees - and finally, “novice teachers rated informal mentors slightly higher than formal mentors in all the three categories” (Desimone et al., 2014, p. 99) consisting of the mentor’s mentoring ability, knowledge of mathematics, and knowledge of teaching while they rated formal mentors higher on their focus on performance standards and willingness to initiate interactions. Researchers also found that novice teachers spent more time with formal or informal mentors located within the school than outside of their school and no significant difference in time spent if both a formal and informal mentor were located outside of the school. Overall, these researchers described formal and informal mentoring as providing complementary functions for beginning teachers.

Collectively, the studies reviewed indicate that the presence or absence of program antecedents affect the outcomes of the various mentoring relationships across

fields (business and education) and countries (US and Lebanon). In particular, these studies have generated findings regarding three main differences: (1) the time spent in formal versus informal mentoring relationships; (2) the outcomes formal and informal mentoring relationships can achieve; and (3) the perceptions of mentees regarding formal and informal mentoring. The literature suggests that the structure formal mentoring programs provide, which allow for opportunities for interaction, at the same time may also limit desired outcomes because of the constraints a formal structure may impose. As such, this scenario may disrupt the positive outcomes that research suggests are more easily achieved through informally initiated mentoring relationships. Nonetheless, mentoring can clearly provide a wealth of benefits worthy of an organization to commit to making it part of a FYTs induction into the profession, for these benefits extend beyond the mentee (FYT) to the mentor and the organization as a whole. These benefits may help to provide a starting point for understanding mentor teachers' motivations for entering into relationships with FYTs. Furthermore, if the outcomes of formal and informal relationships can differ, it is natural to ask the question, might the motivations of the mentor teachers who enter into these relationships also differ? In order to understand teachers' motivations to mentor, it is also important to remain cognizant of *how* teachers understand the role of mentor as part of their work. Do teachers see formal and informal mentoring as a personal choice, or is it an integral part in their conceptualization of what teaching is? Such an understanding would help to explain their motivation to engage in a mentoring relationship. To date, there are few studies that explore mentor teachers' motives. The proposed research question would explore mentors' motives by specifically

investigating mentors' motivations to engage in formal or informal mentoring relationships with FYTs.

### **Mentor Motivations**

Overall, the research on mentors' motivations, like mentoring research in general, spans across multiple countries and professions, with researchers applying a variety of theories to help understand and explain mentors' motives such as: prosocial personality (Allen, 2003), contextual prosocial motivation (Bear & Hwang, 2014), altruism and positive affectivity (Aryee et al., 1996; van Emmerick, Baugh, & Euwema, 2005), extrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Iancu-Haddad & Oplatka, 2009), self-determination theory (Janssen et al., 2014), organization based self-esteem (Aryee et al., 1996; Laschober et al., 2013), and social exchange theory (Laschober et al., 2013). To date, the extant research also focuses on either formal or informal mentors, rarely addressing the comparison of formal and informal mentors, while comparisons of formal and informal mentors in one setting are absent. However, the existing studies' findings can all be situated within the Wanberg et al. (2003) framework. The framework provides a structure that helps organize a general overview and understanding of research on mentor motivations at large, and helps provide a cohesive picture of how participant and program antecedents, organizational context, and even mentoring outcomes affect an individuals' motives to engage in a mentoring relationship. Although mentor motives may be placed within the framework's participant antecedent component, these studies all provide evidence that mentor motives are also affected by the other components (program antecedents and organizational context) external to the mentor. As such, mentor motives

can be considered dynamic and alterable; however, the studies also help to focus upon in what ways or to what degree a component can affect a mentor's motives. This has consequences for organizations implementing mentoring programs in understanding the ways a program may or may not be able to alter a mentor's context in order to achieve desired mentoring outcomes. On the other hand, is it simply, as many of the following studies explored, a mentor's propensity for altruism - a case of just being a good person - one which Lortie (1975) asserted about teachers in general?

**Informal mentor motives.** Early research into mentor motives conducted by Aryee et al. (1996) helped to provide the previously less researched perspective of the mentor as they studied the motives of Singaporean managerial employees' who entered into informal mentoring relationships. These researchers specifically studied the individual characteristics of: (1) altruism; (2) positive affectivity or "the tendency of people to be happy or experience positive affect across situations" (Aryee et al., 1996, p. 263); and (3) organization-based self-esteem (OBSE) or "the individual's self-perceived competence within an organization" (Aryee et al., 1996, p. 264). Additionally, two situational influences were also assessed. The first was the organization's rewards system, which would "emphasize employee development" (Aryee et al., 1996, p. 265), and the second were opportunities for interaction within the organization. After selecting three public and five private sector organizations, researchers obtained lists of employees with more than 10 years of tenure from human resource managers at each organization. This allowed researchers to focus on participants at the maintenance stage of a career who would be most likely involved with mentoring new employees. A little less than half

( $n = 167$ ) of the randomly selected potential participants from these lists responded. They were mostly men (88%), married (87.4%), and between the ages of 45-50 (88.3%).

Surveys used 5-point Likert-type scales for six measures totaling 58 items. Results indicated that the three individual (altruism, positivity, and OBSE) and two situational (rewards system and opportunities for interaction) characteristics yielded significant and positive correlations to motivation to mentor. However, when researchers completed a multiple regression analysis, they found that the individual characteristic of OBSE was not significant with regard to mentor motivation. The authors suggested that this finding might be due to the fact that individuals with a high organization-based self-esteem “may not appreciate the problems faced by organizational newcomers” (Aryee et al., 1996, p. 272). The potential explanation for the finding regarding OBSE has questionable generalizability for teachers. Is it even possible for a teacher to forget his or her first year of teaching and the number of challenging situations encountered? Of note is this study’s attention to situational characteristics, which Wanberg et al. (2003) would categorize as program antecedents. In particular, the characteristic of opportunity for interaction is incredibly important in order for mentoring to take place. Current work environments rarely provide teachers with enough time to complete classroom duties and responsibilities; therefore, it would be helpful to learn more about how time and opportunity for interaction affect a mentor teachers’ motivation to mentor. One final note to keep in mind is that this study’s population is very different from the proposed study’s participants in terms of profession and culture.

Allen et al. (1997) also investigated informal mentor motives, again with a focus on the mentor's perspective. However, unlike Aryee et al., (1996) this team of researchers took a qualitative approach in understanding "the specific reasons *why* an individual would choose to engage in a mentoring relationship" (Allen et al., 1997, p. 72). Participants ( $n = 27$ ) served as mentors in five different organizations, were nearly evenly split along gender lines (51.9% female), mostly White (85.2%), and an average age of 41.93 years ( $SD = 9.06$ ). Potential participants (informal mentors) were identified by human resource professionals and participated in a 60-minute semi-structured interview on the phone or at the participant's work site. Using extant research as a base, researchers focused on four components that shape mentor motives. These are: (1) individual reasons for mentoring others; (2) organizational factors related to mentoring others; (3) mentee attractiveness factors; and (4) outcomes of mentoring others.

Overall, 68 % of participants stated that their own mentee experiences influenced their participation as a mentor. However, the researchers do not share how this experience served to motivate the mentor's current participation in mentoring. In the first component, individual reasons for mentoring others, researchers identified 13 dimensions, of which two overall factors emerged. The reasons for mentoring others were sorted as other-focused or self-focused. Other-focused factors included: desire to pass on information to others, desire to build a competent work force, general desire to help others, desire to help others succeed, to benefit the organization, and desire to help minorities/women move through organizational ranks. Self-focused factors included: gratification seeing others succeed/grow, free time for other pursuits, personal desire to

work with others, increase personal learning, pride, desire to have influence on others, and respect from others. The second component, organizational factors related to mentoring, were sorted into facilitating factors (seven dimensions) and inhibiting factors (four dimensions). Most frequently cited in the facilitating factors was the organization's support for employee learning and development followed by company training programs, while repeated inhibiting factors included time and work demands and organization structure. The third component, protégé attractiveness factors, included the dimensions of personality indicators (honesty, flexibility, dependability), motivational factors (strong work ethic, initiative, dedication), competency indicators (high capacity/ability), help arousal (mentor believed he or she could help protégé), and learning orientation (openness/willingness to learn, accept feedback). Finally, the fourth component, positive benefits of mentoring included: builds support network; self-satisfaction; job related: self-focused; and job related: other focused. The findings from this study help to create a more nuanced look at the components (and subsequent factors and dimensions), which contribute to mentors' motives. These components not only provide future researchers specific avenues to explore in greater depth, but also provide pragmatic direction for organizations implementing mentoring programs. For instance, highlighting component four's positive benefits of mentoring to a potential pool of mentors may serve as a recruitment tool for a program (Allen et al., 1997), while addressing component three, mentee attractiveness factors, would be helpful for EPPs as they prepare preservice teachers to enter into classrooms. Although this study does not focus on teachers and gathers participants from five different organizations, it does provide a detailed look at

the mentors' motivations, which may provide future researchers with a comparison for findings.

Also interested in informal mentors' motives, Janssen, et al.'s (2014) study included 20 individuals from 18 organizations in the Netherlands. Using semi-structured interviews, participants were selected on the basis of two criteria: (1) the participant had to hold a senior role; and (2) the participant held a clerical or professional position. The participants were over 37 years of age ( $M = 50$ ) and had an average of 27 years of work experience. The authors do not share the gender of the participants. Interviews began with an overview of the participants' career and then led to questions regarding why the participant was an informal mentor, and then to provide a more detailed description of specific relationships with informal mentees. Researchers utilized ATLAS.ti software and generated a codebook organized into five broad themes of motivation: (1) self-focused motivations, which excluded the mention of the mentee; (2) mentee-focused motivations, which the mentee remains the subject of the motivation; (3) relationship-focused motivations, which focus on mentor and mentee as one unit (we); (4) organization-focused motivations, which focus on the organization as a whole; and (5) unfocused motives, in which motivations were described as a result of coincidence rather than choice. In general, categories of findings are similar to that of the Allen et al. (1997) study. The researchers see their work providing practical implications for mentoring programs, for through "specifying various motivational aspects of mentoring others may help mentors to internalize the value and regulation of behaviors" (Janssen, et al., 2014, p. 274). Consequently, an awareness of the multiple types of motivations may help both

mentors and mentees consider their intentions, expectations, and subsequent outcomes of a mentoring relationship. In sum, these studies' investigations of informal mentor motives offer findings for comparison for future researchers, and provide evidence that mentors are internally and externally motivated to engage in mentoring, and that both the mentee (participant antecedents) and the organization (organizational culture) can affect this motivation.

**Propensity and willingness to mentor.** Shortly after her 1997 study, Allen (2003) continued work on mentor motives by exploring two specific prosocial behavior characteristics, other-oriented empathy and helpfulness with regard to mentor experience and willingness to mentor. Allen hypothesized that not only would these prosocial behaviors indicate a greater propensity to mentor, but that they would also relate to the amount and function of (career or psychosocial) mentoring provided. Members of a professional business women's association and a professional association for engineers were mailed a survey to their business address. The survey included a categorical response to mentor experience along with four measures for a total of 178 items, which were assessed on a 5-point Likert-type scale. A total of 391 participants with an average age of 45.86 years old ( $SD = 11.10$ ) responded. Two hundred twenty-one were female (57.3%), 356 were White (93%), and 249 had been a mentor. Results indicated that: (a) "helpful individuals were more likely to have served as a mentor to others" (Allen, 2003, p. 143); (b) "individuals higher in other-oriented empathy reported greater willingness to mentor others" (Allen, 2003, p. 143); (c) "only helpfulness related to career mentoring while only other-oriented empathy related to psychosocial mentoring" (Allen, 2003, p.

148), and (d) “mentors reporting greater motivation to mentor for self-enhancement reasons were more likely to report providing career mentoring. Meanwhile, mentors motivated by intrinsic satisfaction were more likely to report providing psychosocial mentoring” (Allen, 2003, p. 149).

Just as mentoring research on formal and informal mentoring inform the type of mentoring functions provided (Chao et al., 1992; Ghosh, 2014), this study provides another angle – that the motive of the mentor also contributes to the mentoring function received. This can have consequences for formal mentoring programs with specific objectives or for matching mentors to mentees that have specific mentoring needs. Because mentoring is part of many FYT formalized induction experiences, Allen’s (2003) study provides school districts and induction mentoring leadership with findings suggesting that in order to achieve program objectives, mentors’ motives must be examined.

Using managerial employees from a Dutch bank, van Emmerick et al. (2005) investigated three factors that may affect an individual’s propensity to mentor. These three factors were: (1) attitudinal or “the influence of reactions to the work environment on willingness to mentor” (van Emmerick et al., 2005, p. 312); (2) instrumental or “the seeking to enhance ones’ own career-related benefits” (van Emmerick et al., 2005, p. 313); and (3) social components or “the potential for mentoring to expand and enhance one’s social relationships” (van Emmerick et al., 2005, p. 313). Researchers sent electronic questionnaires to 691 bank employees in middle and upper levels managerial positions. Because the researchers were interested in female employees’ opinions,

researchers oversampled women and sent 491 of the surveys to women and 200 to men. They achieved a 40 percent response rate, which included 182 (69%) women and 80 (31%) men. Twenty-nine participants indicated they were already serving as a mentor, while 128 indicated interest in becoming a mentor. In order to facilitate a shared understanding of terms, researchers included definitions for mentor and mentee on the survey. The survey provided 14 scaled items to assess respondents on the three factors and also queried as to whether respondents had been mentees themselves. Findings indicated that an individual's level of affective commitment (attitudinal) did not affect propensity to mentor, and that the social component of networking activity showed a negative relationship to serve as a mentor. On the other hand, the higher an individual's career aspirations, the more likely they were to mentor. Finally, researchers found a positive correlation between experience as a mentee and wanting to mentor, but a negative relationship occurred during the multivariate analysis stage that found older participants with experience as a protégé were negatively correlated to propensity to mentor. Although outcomes may be contrary to expectations, the study does raise some important areas for deeper investigation. The researchers shared that their findings indicate that the mentors they sampled are motivated to mentor because of career advancement. This finding yields three important questions. (1) Does such a finding remain consistent across Dutch and American cultures?; (2) Due to the lack of career-advancement within the teaching profession, how differently might teachers respond to this factor?; and (3) If there are correlations between prior mentee experiences and propensity to mentor, to what extent do these experiences shape potential mentors?

Finally, the authors suggested that such findings may help organizations to explore the motives of their mentors, for if personal motivations are not aligned with an organization's overarching vision and outcome for mentoring, the program's expectations may not be achieved nor may its resources be used effectively.

Using a human resource development (HRD) lens along with the theory of contextual prosocial motivation, defined as "an individual's motivation to play a role that will benefit others," (Bear & Hwang, 2014, p. 59), Bear and Hwang (2014) studied the correlation between willingness to mentor and contextual prosocial motivation and how organization-based self-esteem (OBSE) and perceived organizational support (POS) may be associated contextual prosocial motivation. The researchers defined OBSE as "the measure of an individual's evaluation of her- or himself within an employee's organization" (Bear & Hwang, 2014, p. 61). Perceived organization support was defined as "the degree to which an employee believes that his employer values his contributions and cared about his well-being" (Bear & Hwang, 2014, p. 62). Researchers mailed surveys to 970 employees from health care companies committed to HRD activities achieving a 33.2% response rate ( $n = 322$ ). Participants represented equal numbers of men and women, mostly White, were an average age of 44 ( $SD = 9.4$ ), and 88.8% had a bachelor's degree or higher. The surveys included six measures with 27 items based on 7-point Likert-type scales along with control variables (e.g. gender, race, educational level). Researchers found that contextual prosocial motivation is positively associated with willingness to mentor and OBSE. As the authors noted, this is significant because this relationship "could create a motivation that is not directly related to external reward

mechanisms” (Bear & Hwang, 2014, p. 70). This result contradicts Aryee et al.’s (1996) finding that the individual characteristic of OBSE was not significant with regard to mentor motivation. Although the researchers used the same 10 item scale (developed by Peirce, Gardner, Cummings, & Dunham, 1989), one key difference exists in these findings, that of the country in which the study was conducted. Aryee et al.’s (1996) study was conducted in Singapore while Bear and Hwang’s (2014) was conducted in the United States. The researchers’ hypothesis that perceived organizational support would be positively associated with contextual prosocial motivation did not yield significance. This finding suggests that perhaps the level of an individual’s contextual prosocial motivation may offer some resilience regardless of the individual’s perception of how supported or cared for he or she may feel by the organization. In this way, perhaps individuals see helping others (prosocial motivation) in an organization as separate from the organization as a whole. This has implications for mentors assisting FYTs who despite feeling unappreciated by their school, may still offer mentoring support to FYTs.

Overall, these studies, which focus on the propensity and willingness to mentor, further enhance an understanding of mentor motivation, but also contribute to how this understanding may shape mentor teachers’ motives and the outcomes of mentoring relationships. Evidence suggests that differences in motivation to mentor can yield different types of mentoring functions and that past mentoring experiences can affect the desire to mentor others. In addition, mentoring may also be viewed as a vehicle for career-advancement and is affected by how an individual evaluates themselves within the organization as a whole (OBSE).

## **Participant Similarities**

Although participants were not teachers, Laschober et al.'s (2013) study on the motives of clinical supervisors (who can be compared to mentor teachers), who provide support to counselors (who can be compared to FYTs), presents participants who experience very similar working conditions as teachers. Similar characteristics include lower than average staff wages and the need to mentor counselors who lack uniformity in licensing and credentialing. Furthermore, like teachers, clinical supervisors may lack the time, energy, and other resources necessary to mentor counselors. Researchers used data from part of the 2008 Managing Effective Relationships in Treatment Services project. Participants included 164 mentors and 418 counselors yielding 418 matched dyads. Participants were compensated for their time (mentors received \$75 and counselors \$50) and surveys were administered in person. The majority of mentors (clinical supervisors) were women (67.5%), White (79.6%), held a master's degree or higher (75.1%). Similarly, the majority of mentees (counselors) were also women (64.3%) and White (64.3%), and held a master's degree or higher (52.2%). Using previously assessed scales, participants responded to five measures consisting of 63 items based on 5-point Likert-type scales and included three control variables. Important findings included that mentees felt less support when mentors reported greater costs in mentoring, while mentees felt more support when mentors reported greater benefits from mentoring and when mentors felt the relationship's quality was high, the mentees felt they received more support. As the authors concluded, "[their] results suggest that clinical supervisors are evaluating the costs and benefits of providing mentoring support to their counselors along with the

overall relationship they have with their counselors” (Laschober et al., 2013, p. 190). This study helps to underscore the mutuality of experience in a mentoring relationship. It is clear that the motivation of mentors in this study is correlated to the mentors’ perceived costs and benefits from mentoring. Learning more as to how a mentor makes decisions based on these perceived costs and benefits can help an organization in promoting benefits or compensating for costs to help foster mentor participation.

**Formal mentor teacher motivations.** Two final studies provide particularly helpful findings as they provide insight into the motivations of teachers. Intent to use findings to inform mentoring learning environments for beginning teachers, Maor and McConney (2015) sought to learn more about the motivations of mentors who participated in a mentoring program for beginning science and math teachers. The Australian seven-month program was implemented to help new science and math teachers avoid the sink or swim phenomena many beginning teachers experience in their first year of teaching. Through survey data and focus group interviews, 36 mentors helped researchers learn more about mentor motivations and benefits of mentoring. Mentors were male (60%), had more than 10 years of teaching experience (75%), and 40% held department head positions within their school (six served as coordinators in their school). Utilizing a mixed-methods approach, data included pre- and post-program surveys, observations of mentor professional development sessions, and focus group interviews during and after professional development.

The researchers found that mentors were motivated intrinsically and extrinsically. Most notable was the intrinsic goal of altruism, which motivated many of the teachers to

participate as mentors. Mentors also reported the motivation of being able to share their experience and knowledge with new teachers. Extrinsic motivations included being asked to participate by a principal or beginning teacher or to increase professional development. Again, altruism resurfaced in the benefits mentors described in taking part in mentoring. These included satisfaction in helping new teachers, rejuvenation, and enhanced reflection on teaching, and even extends to interactions with fellow staff members. This study helps to provide the significance of “mentors’ motivations and dispositions toward their roles [and that they] were fundamental to the success of the program” (Maor & McConney, 2015, p. 345). In the same vein as the van Emmerick et al. (2005) study, Maor and McConney (2015) also explained that:

The effectiveness of mentoring can be enhanced by selecting mentors who are not only interested in improving their mentoring skills or career advancement, but who are interested in and motivated about contributing to the professional success of new teachers and the teaching profession and learning environment more generally (p. 345).

Meanwhile, an Israeli study focused on mentor teachers’ perspectives regarding mentoring FYTs (Iancu-Haddad & Oplatka, 2009). In Israel, mentoring is nationally mandated for FYTs who wish to receive a permanent license. Selected mentors voluntarily participate in the program, should have four years of teaching experience, and share the same subject and grade level experience as the FYT. Participants included 12 teachers (10 females, 2 males). Based on prior research indicating that an individual’s career stage may influence the type of mentoring support provided, participants were purposefully selected to meet each career stage. Establishment career teachers ( $n = 4$ ) had 5-10 years of experience; mid-career teachers ( $n = 4$ ) had 11-20 years of experience; and

late-career teachers ( $n = 4$ ) had 25 or more years of teaching experience. Researchers conducted semi-structured interviews with participants and through qualitative analysis found evidence that informs mentor teachers' motives for mentoring, factors that inhibit mentoring, and contributions of mentoring to the mentor as well as negative consequences. Motives for mentoring FYTs included: (a) wanting to prevent a FYT from a first year without a mentor as they themselves had experienced; (b) to return the favor - by paying back the help the mentor teacher received as a FYT; (c) basic altruism; (d) the conception that mentoring is part of a teacher's role; (e) to help keep FYTs teaching; (f) to show care for the school system, and (g) the notion that helping FYTs can help improve the students that the mentor will one day teach.

Although researchers only interviewed teachers who mentored, they asked participants what could potentially keep them from mentoring. Deterring factors identified included current demands already placed on teacher and the dedication of the FYT to seriously engage in the mentoring relationship. Finally, researchers found two main types of benefits mentor teachers identified about mentoring. First, emotional rewards such as watching FYTs grow and develop and receiving positive feedback and thanks from the FYT, and second, professional benefits including the opportunity to self-reflect and exposure to new ideas, practices, and research. Although financial compensation was mentioned, the mentors shared that it was more of a benefit rather than something that motivated their participation. Finally, negative outcomes from mentoring included: mentors not feeling as though they had made a difference in the FYT, rejection on the part of the FYT, or serving in an evaluative capacity of the FYT. Researchers also

provided insight into how a teacher's career stage might influence his or her motivation to mentor FYTs. Establishment career teachers saw being selected to mentor as an "informal promotion, a sign that they were trusted and being given more responsibility" (Iancu-Haddad & Oplatka, 2009, p. 58). Mid-career teachers saw selection "in itself a badge of honor, recognition of their teaching skill" (Iancu-Haddad & Oplatka, 2009, p. 58). Finally, later career teachers "felt that even though they would soon retire they were passing on a legacy of mentoring a novice teacher" (Iancu-Haddad & Oplatka, 2009, p. 58). Such distinctions between career stages may provide insight into how mentoring programs recruit mentor teachers.

Overall, the research on mentors' motives in general, remains limited, in particular the research on teachers who fulfill this role is even more uncommon. What can be gleaned from existing studies, however, is an understanding that mentor motives frequently incorporate altruistic, helping behaviors; are influenced by context; can provide different functions based upon specific motivations; vary widely; and are sensitive to culture and profession. Consequently, continued research on mentors' motives is necessary in order to help understand how mentors may best achieve expected mentoring outcomes and goals.

### **Summary**

Although mentoring can have a number of beneficial outcomes, achieving these outcomes is dependent upon the contributions of a number of participant, program, organizational, and contextual antecedents. Research has shown that an individual organization can play host to multiple streams of perceptions about mentoring

(Pogodzinski, 2013) and that organizational leadership (Scandura et al., 1993) and school community (Aspfors & Bondas, 2013) can also affect mentoring participation and outcomes. Likewise, participant antecedents such as perceptions of similarity (Mitchell et al., 2015), personality (Wanberg et al., 2006), and behaviors such as attitude (Lee & Jeong, 2013) also affect mentoring outcomes. Finally, program antecedents such as mentor-mentee matches (Eby et al., 2000) and mentor selection and training (Feiman-Nemser & Parker, 1992) can further shape mentoring outcomes.

Adding an additional nuance to these antecedents are whether or not these mentoring relationships are formal or informal in nature. Research has shown an appreciation for formal mentoring such as: the value of formal mentoring requirements such as FYT observations (Desimone et al., 2014), mentee access to a formal mentor, (Desimone, et al, 2014; Klug & Salzman, 1991); and formal mentors' initiating meetings with FYTs (Desimone, et al, 2014). Furthermore, research has shown that outcomes also vary based on the unique contributions that informal mentoring can yield. These include: more time spent with informal than formal mentors (Desimone et al., 2014); reports of higher satisfaction with informal mentors (Chao et al., 1992, Desimone et al., 2014); longer lasting relationships with informal mentors (Chao et al., 1992); and type of support provided, career or psychosocial (Chao et al., 1992).

Research is clear that formal and informal mentoring relationships provide different functions and can yield unique contributions to the outcomes of these relationships. However, no clear picture exists of the differences in mentor teachers' motivations to engage in formal or informal mentoring relationships with FYTs. Because

so many school districts rely on mentor teachers to support FYTs, understanding more about the individuals who provide this support is essential to help make informed decisions about the resources dedicated to fostering and ensuring beneficial relationships. Due to the fact that FYTs are still learning to become effective teachers, mentor teachers also serve as an essential component for FYTs in bridging the continuum from PST to FYT support. Therefore, unpacking the motivations of these mentor teachers is crucial in aiding schools to promote environments, provide training, or assess mentors in ways to maximize mentoring relationship outcomes.

### **Chapter Three: Methods**

The purpose of this study was to explore teachers' motivations regarding mentoring FYTs. Because mentors provide an essential component of support for FYTs, examining their understandings may assist in: creating supportive environments that utilize formal mentoring programs; informing education leaders in ways to continue to foster a culture of and opportunity for mentoring through both formal and informal pathways; and supporting educator preparation programs in cultivating a mentoring mindset in preservice teachers. To achieve a more nuanced understanding of mentors' understandings and their motivations to engage in formal or informal mentoring relationships with FYTs, I used a constructivist qualitative exploration to address the overarching research question: What are the motivations of veteran teachers regarding mentoring first-year teachers?

As Maxwell (2013) explained of constructivism, "we recognize that what people perceive and believe is shaped by their assumptions and prior-experiences as well as by the reality that they interact with" (p. 43). Similarly, as Patton (2015) shared, qualitative inquiry not only allows for examination of how people construct meaning from their lived experiences, but it also recognizes the importance of the system in which these individuals take part. This approach combined two essential components that aligned with Wanberg et al.'s (2003) dynamic process model of mentoring. Wanberg et al.'s

model similarly acknowledged the contributions of both the individual (participant antecedents) and his/her context (organizational context). In addition, the study sought to answer three more questions based upon Wanberg et al.'s antecedent components that contribute to mentoring relationships. These are:

- To what extent are these veteran teachers influenced to mentor by organizational antecedents?
- To what extent are these veteran teachers influenced to mentor by program antecedents?
- To what extent are these veteran teachers influenced to mentor by participant antecedents?

### **Research Design**

Although researchers have frequently used quantitative methods to investigate formal and informal mentoring (Chao et al., 1992; Karkoulian et al., 2008; Ragins & Cotton, 1999) and mentor motivations (Allen, 2003; Aryee et al. 1996; Bear & Hwang, 2014; Laschober et al., 2013; van Emmerick et al., 2005), other researchers (Allen et al., 1997; Iancu-Haddad & Oplatka, 2009; Janssen et al., 2014; Maor & McConney, 2015) have selected a qualitative approach to do so. A qualitative approach permits an exploration of the processes, mechanisms, and culture responsible for mentor teachers' relationships with FYTs. For example, Allen et al. (1997) and Janssen et al. (2014) each employed semi-structured interviews, which yielded rich data permitting the analyses that followed to generate a thorough understanding of the multiple types of mentor motivations and the broad range of participant and contextual factors that can affect these

motivations. As Yin (2011) noted, qualitative approaches to understanding this highly individual and personal phenomenon allows researchers to capture the unique contextual conditions and perspectives of the participants. The use of face-to-face semi-structured interviews, as Blee and Taylor (2002) suggested, “provide greater breadth and depth of information [and] the opportunity to discover the respondent’s experiences” (p. 92).

In addition, relying on “mentor’s own voices” (Maor & McConney, 2015, p. 2) was essential for Maor and McConney as they conducted their study. Furthermore, as researchers (e.g., Allen et al., 1997; Parise & Forret, 2008) in the field have identified, the mentor’s perspective is often missing in the literature. The present study not only captured this frequently missing mentor perspective, but it also investigated how organizational, program, and participant antecedents affected mentor teachers’ understandings of and engagement in mentoring relationships with FYTs.

### **Setting and Participants**

In order to study why teachers engaged in formal or informal mentoring relationships with FYTs, it was necessary to pay specific attention to two site selection criteria. Foremost, selecting a site that had a formal mentoring program yielded a school environment where formal and the potential for informal mentoring could take place. Secondly, a school that hired a few new teachers each year was another important consideration. Without the hiring of new teachers, veteran teachers would be without the opportunity and access to engage in such mentoring relationships.

**Setting.** The decision to select a high school for a study site was based on two main contributing factors. First, were my own experiences as a high school teacher. I am

knowledgeable of the secondary school setting and because of my years teaching in a secondary school classroom, I am very familiar with teachers' experiences in that context. A second contributing factor was that of my familiarity with Kennedy High School. My first introduction to Kennedy High School took place two and half years before the study when I served as a university supervisor to a student teacher assigned to complete her semester long internship at Kennedy. I visited Kennedy High School approximately six times during the course of the semester and often carried on conversations with the student teacher's assigned mentor teacher, Cassidy Pershing. Cassidy and I shared many similarities and our exchanges were easily achieved and animated. During the course of the next year, I maintained contact with Cassidy who shared her teaching experiences with me on two separate occasions. Cassidy, through her role as department chair, was also instrumental in coordinating my pilot study. For these reasons, the site was conducive to the study. Together, these combined experiences helped to familiarize me with the role of mentoring in this setting and facilitated questioning during interviews.

**Site selection.** Kennedy High School belongs to Madison County Schools (MCS) – a school district serving approximately 80,000 students. Kennedy, a suburban high school, is located in a mid-Atlantic state. Of the approximately 2,800 students Kennedy serves, about half of the students are members of minority groups and about 20% are economically disadvantaged. In addition to the site meeting the two selection criteria, it was also chosen based on a combination of the researcher's prior experiences at Kennedy High School (convenience sampling) and purposeful selection. Because I had already

established relationships at the site over the previous two years, convenience sampling was one strategy used. Likewise, purposeful selection was also used to help ensure that I was able to interview participants who had experiences with formal mentoring and those who did not.

As per state policy, Kennedy High School was required to implement “mentor teacher programs utilizing specially trained public school teachers as mentors to provide assistance and professional support to teachers entering the profession” (Mentor Teacher Programs, § 22.1-305.1). Because of this mandate, selecting a school in this state would ensure a formal mentoring program and by extension opportunities for teachers to formally mentor FYTs. However, there still remains a vast difference in the robustness of these programs with regard to resources, training, and implementation. Attributable to my pilot study, I was familiar with depth of Madison County’s induction program that included an established mentoring component whereby teachers who served as formal mentors were selected, trained, and received a stipend for their work with FYTs. Therefore, the site provided veteran teachers with the possibility to formally participate in a mature mentoring program with dedicated training and resources or informally mentor a FYT. This context allowed me to study a school that would provide comparisons of participants’ experiences particularly when addressing the program antecedent component of Wanberg et al.’s (2003) model.

I also considered the number of participants needed in order to adequately explore the phenomenon. As Patton (2015) suggested, breadth and depth decisions are a tradeoff in qualitative design. Although I had determined I needed between four and six participants,

I still needed to take into account school size, which directly contributed to the number of veteran teachers available to serve as potential participants. Another consideration included the recent hiring of new teachers. For without opportunities to mentor, the phenomenon could not be studied. Together, my familiarity, history, and relationship with the study site and the ability for the school to meet the necessary selection criteria contributed to the final selection of Kennedy High School.

**Induction program.** FYTs hired in the Madison County district are required to participate in induction activities that included: an orientation prior to the beginning of the school year, year-long support provided by a trained and assigned mentor, and ongoing professional development. MCS's Mentor Program Handbook (MPH) outlined three main pathways of supporting mentoring at each school site. These pathways for support involve administrators, lead mentors, and mentors.

**Administrators.** Administrators were not selected to participate in the program as mentors and lead mentors were, but rather tasked with a series of expectations regarding the way mentoring would be supported within each administrator's school. Through logistical, collaborative, and visible means (e.g. honoring outstanding mentors), an administrator was expected to support the act of mentoring FYTs within his or her school. Administrators were also responsible for the selection of a lead mentor.

**Lead Mentors.** Lead mentors were required to recruit mentor teachers and monitor the overall needs of FYTs. Lead mentors were not only expected to fulfill leadership responsibilities, but they were also frequently tasked with clerical duties, planning activities, and served as a liaison between different pathways of FYT support

(primarily with administration and mentors). Compared to administrators, who were given more holistic expectations regarding support, lead mentors were provided with very specific and varied requirements as they supported FYTs.

***Mentors.*** All formal mentors met a number of requirements in order to be selected as a mentor. These included: full-time teaching assignment, mentoring experience, identification as a school leader, possession of a valid teaching license, and completion of the district's mentor institute (MPH, 2014). The mentor institute consisted of an eight-hour on-line module to be completed prior to a full day face-to-face training led by district personnel. Mentors' responsibilities throughout the academic year included: timely and detailed electronic log submission of mentoring activities, meeting at least bi-weekly with his or her mentee, using observations and reflections to help support and foster growth in the mentee, and attending school-based mentor functions (MPH, 2014). Mentor teachers received a monetary stipend and continuing education credits for serving as a year-long formal mentor for an FYT.

***Participants.*** The participants for this study were selected from two of Kennedy's academic departments. Participants were selected based on the following criteria: they possessed at least three years of teaching experience, they were currently serving as a formal or informal mentor to a FYT, or they had served as a formal or informal mentor within the past three years. I decided that mentors' experiences with mentoring should be no longer than three years old in order to help with recollection of experiences but also to help increase the likelihood of these experiences taking place in the current organizational environment in which they taught. In total, I interviewed seven

participants (see Table 1). The participants included three females and four males, all of whom are White.. The participants provided a range in years of teaching (6 to 23 years), and included four teachers with formal and informal mentoring experience, three with informal mentoring experience, two National Board Certified teachers. One participant was a department chair.

*Elizabeth.* Elizabeth attended a traditional teacher preparation program and has taught for 23 years. At the time of interview, she served as formal mentor to a former student she taught at Kennedy High School, provided support to the new department chair, and assisted with an extracurricular activity. She spent the first 17 years of her career at Reagan High School, also part of Madison County Schools, before she transferred to Kennedy High School. While at Reagan she was department chair and has supported FYTs as a formal mentor at both Reagan High School and Kennedy High School. She’s held National Board Certification for almost 18 years. She has also participated in an annual program that recognizes top student teachers from across the state as well as National Board Teacher activities.

Table 1

*Participant Demographics*

Participant	Years Teaching	Licensure Pathways	National Board Certified	Formal Mentor Experience	Informal Mentor Experience	Department
Elizabeth	23	Traditional	X	X	X	Math

Jeanine	21	Traditional		X	X	Math
Everett	12	Traditional		X	X	Math
Josh	7	Traditional	X	X	X	History
Amanda	6	Traditional			X	Math
Henry	6	Traditional			X	Math
Nate	6	Traditional			X	History

---

**Jeanine.** Jeanine attended a traditional teacher preparation program and has taught for 21 years. At the time of the interview she served, for the first time, as a formal mentor to a FYT and sponsored an extra-curricular activity after school. She spent the first part of her career teaching at Reagan High School where she met Elizabeth.

**Everett.** Everett attended a traditional teacher preparation program and has taught for 12 years. He has served as a formal mentor twice, the most recent experience being three years ago. He has spent his entire teaching career at Kennedy High School. At the time of the interview he was the head coach of a sports team.

**Josh.** Josh, a National Board Certified teacher, attended a traditional teacher preparation program and has taught for 7 years. At the time of the interview he served as a formal mentor to a FYT, as he had done the year prior, and was the head coach for two sports teams. He began his teaching career at Reagan High School where he taught for two years before coming to Kennedy.

**Amanda.** Amanda attended a traditional teacher preparation program and has taught for 6 years. She has been an informal mentor to FYTs in her department. At the time of the interview, she participated in an evening school program assisting students

completing their course work in a non-traditional setting. Amanda graduated from Kennedy High School and is now a colleague to many of her former teachers.

**Henry.** Henry attended a traditional teacher preparation program and has taught for 6 years. At the time of the interview he was a first year as department chair, served as an informal mentor to FYTs, and working towards a degree in administration. He began his teaching career in another school district and has spent the last three years at Kennedy High School.

**Nate.** Nate attended a traditional teacher preparation program and has taught for 6 years. At the time of the interview he was as an informal mentor to a FYT, a coach, a PLC lead, and a sponsor to two extra-curricular activities. He has been at Kennedy High for two years. Nate was the only participant who was prepared and had teaching experience in another state. Nate was applying to a program to work towards an administration degree.

**Participant sample sizes.** The total number of participants for the study was seven individuals. Participant sample size was informed by my pilot study (n=5 for mentor teachers) and literature provided guidance on participant numbers (Patton, 2015). I had intended to include between four to six individuals for the study based on pilot study experiences. Through the recruitment stage for the study, however, I experienced a lack of response from some participants and ended up contacting a total of seven participants. Consequently, I grew concerned as the time for my scheduled interviews drew near and that I would not have many participants. In the end, all seven teachers contacted responded back to me and agreed to participate in the study. I will share more

regarding the inclusion of all seven participants in the recruitment section below. One final consideration regarding sample size was that of time.

### **Data Sources Overview**

Data for the proposed study included the district's Mentor Program Handbook (MPH) (2014), semi-structured interviews from seven participants, and my analysis journal (Patton, 2015). I acquired the school district's MPH from a member of the school division to further my understanding of Kennedy High School's programmatic context. Semi-structured interviews for all participants were audio recorded at the teachers' place of work, either in a classroom or unused office. The analysis journal, as suggested by Patton (2015), included an ongoing record of my decisions, emerging ideas, and memos. The analysis journal allowed me to keep a continuous record of the study's progress and helped to provide a place for my thinking to be made visible. Further detail about data sources and collection processes will be explained below.

**Procedure.** As a researcher, I was aware that the study is not only a research project, but also an "intrusion into the lives of the participants" (Maxwell, 2013, p. 92). This notion prompted me to consider every interaction from a participant's point of view. In so doing, I cultivated an alertness to the possible ways in which participants' perceived those interactions to include my correspondence with and my own assumptions about them (Maxwell, 2013). As such, I was attentive to how any and all communication (whether in person or on email) or types of exchanges (scheduling appointments, conducting interviews, delivering findings) might be interpreted by participants throughout the study. As Patton (2015) suggested, "time at your research site, time spent

interviewing, and time building sound relationships with respondents all contribute to trustworthy data” (p. 685). One way I exercised this thoughtfulness was by recalling my own experiences as a classroom teacher and considering the ways that I would be most receptive to a researcher’s interest in my own teaching experiences. For example, in my initial email to participants I shared my own teaching background and tried to quickly state my purpose, being mindful of the limited free time teachers have during the course of their day.

*Establishing site relationships.* Because the school district application process required a sponsor at the study site, I began by contacting the Kennedy High School’s principal, Mr. MacArthur. I first communicated with Mr. MacArthur via email (See Appendix B for copy of introductory email) to inquire if he would like to discuss the findings from the pilot study I had conducted the previous spring and to address the possibility of completing a similar study with another department in his school. After a series of email exchanges, I scheduled a phone call with Mr. MacArthur to further discuss these topics. During the phone call I was able to share pilot study findings (which I followed with an email including some key findings) and discussed the potential for Kennedy High to be used again as the study’s site. During this discussion I also shared the study’s purpose, outlined the time required of staff, and shared ways in which the findings may be of use to Mr. MacArthur.

Shortly after receiving Mr. MacArthur’s approval, I completed the school district’s application for research and submitted my protocol to George Mason University’s Institutional Review Board. I received approval from the school district and

my research was judged “exempt” after the University Board’s review. I then contacted Mr. MacArthur to inform him of the study’s approval and to seek his guidance as to which department chair I should contact to help assist me in participant recruitment. After receiving input from Mr. MacArthur, I sent an initial introductory email to, Henry Eisenhower, the math department chair, (see Appendix C for copy of introductory email to department chair) and then scheduled a phone call to further discuss the study and to coordinate the contact of potential mentor teachers from his department. Henry’s input was key in identifying formal and informal mentors within his department. After receiving email addresses for mentor teachers from Henry, I contacted four potential participants via email explaining the purpose of the study and the nature and length of interview (See Appendix D for potential participants’ initial email). At this point in time, including Henry, I had five potential participants for the study.

*Recruitment.* During the recruitment phase, I became concerned about the number of responses I received from the potential participants I had contacted. Because of my ongoing relationship with Cassidy Pershing, I contacted her to inquire as to other teachers who might meet the participant criteria from other departments in the building. Cassidy offered two more participant names; I then emailed those individuals. I only heard back from one of them, but felt confident in the six participants I had secured at this point, three formal and three informal mentors. I was also pleased that I had reached my desired number of participants for the study.

However, this snowball effect eventually accrued yet another additional participant for the study. This final participant thought he had returned my email, but did

not realize he had not actually sent it until he saw me interviewing another participant. He was very apologetic and seemed excited about taking part in an interview. As such, I felt that because I had initiated contact and expressed interest in hearing about his experiences, I should follow through on my invitation. Although I believe saturation was met without his inclusion in the study, he was also a board certified teacher, bringing my total to two National Board Certified participants, which could provide me with another possible way to compare participants.

Once I heard back from a participant, I provided him/her with possible dates and times for interviews along with a copy of the participant consent form (See Appendix E for participant consent form). I then coordinated face-to-face interviews with all participants and sent a final email confirming the scheduled interview time a few days prior to the interview. For overall convenience and logistics, I interviewed six of the seven participants in person at Kennedy High school. Due to a last minute change in plans for one of the participants, I ended conducted Jeanine's interview on the telephone.

*Semi-structured interviews.* I conducted seven semi-structured interviews (see Appendix F for mentor teacher semi-structured interview protocol), and with the exception of Jeanine, all were conducted face-to-face. I chose this interview approach for a few reasons. First, face-to-face interviews allowed me to be observant of participants' non-verbal clues and also allowed me to use non-verbal clues to help put participants at ease. For example, during my interviews it was easy to see when a question I asked was confusing to participant, or it allowed me to give them adequate time to respond before clarifying a question because I could see they were thinking about their response.

Likewise, nodding and smiling were two ways I was able to help put participants at ease through the interview. Second, I used this same semi-structured face-to-face approach for the pilot study and it helped to keep me focused during the interview. Additionally, it ensured that I was asking all participants the same questions, and permitted me the freedom to ask follow up or clarifying questions when needed. At the beginning of each interview, I asked whether the participant had any questions about the consent form, obtained participant signatures for consent, and asked for permission to record the interview using the computer software Audacity.

*Interview length.* Like the two studies regarding mentor teachers' motivations previously reviewed (Iancu-Haddad & Oplatka, 2009; Maor & McConney, 2015), my pilot study also used face-to-face semi-structured interviews lasting approximately 30 minutes, which yielded the rich data needed to address the study's research question. However, I found that although 30 minutes were scheduled to complete the interview, two participants went beyond the allotted time. This signaled to me that the participants were readily engaged in responding to the questions asked; therefore, I elected to extend the amount of time allotted for the study's interview to 45 minutes. Participants still provided a range in length of interview time (See Table 2).

*Interviews.* During each interview, I was mindful of Maxwell's (2013) concern for the relationship the researcher develops with the participant. I began each meeting with a brief introduction, extended thanks to the participant for agreeing to share their experiences with me, and provided a short description regarding the purpose of the study.

I then began the interview with a simple inquiry into how the participant became a teacher. My intent to do so was two-fold. First, I hoped that a low-stakes question would put the participant at ease, and second, it allowed me to gain important background information about the participant. As the interview proceeded, I covered the questions I had already prepared (see Appendix F for mentor teacher semi-structured interview protocol) but also used probes and/or clarifying questions to maximize understanding of each participant's responses. I utilized four possible probes to obtain additional

Table 2

*Interview Lengths*

Participant	Mentor Status	Length of Interview in Minutes
Elizabeth	Formal	50:03
Jeanine	Formal	29:40
Everett	Formal	50:00
Josh	Formal	37:08
Henry	Informal	41:07
Amanda	Informal	26:06
Nate	Informal	60:04
		294:08

information. These are, as Patton outlined (2015): (a) detail-oriented probes to obtain further details from the participant; (b) elaboration probes to help the participant share

more about what they were saying; (c) clarifying probes to make sure I understood the participant; and (d) contrast probes to help the participant compare his or her response to another possibility. I also reviewed Patton's (2015) interviewing skills and competencies (See Appendix G for Patton's (2015) Ten Interview Principles and Skills) as a form of preparation prior to the two consecutive days in which the interviews were conducted. Because obtaining fruitful interviews is a skill, this review helped to keep interviewing practices at the forefront of my mind when meeting with participants. For example, I attended to his advice on asking open-ended questions and making transitions during the interview in my preparation of interview questions as well as intentionally sequencing the concepts my questions addressed. He also recommended that the researcher remain mindful of carefully listening to participants and also demonstrating engagement during the interview. So to provide an external cue to the participant that I was fully engaged during the interview, I only took brief notes, which primarily consisted of a word or phrase capturing key ideas the participant shared or to document when a participant's response required a follow up question.

At the end of each interview, I asked the participant for permission to follow up for member checks. I also provided each participant with a small edible token of appreciation. Following the completion of all interviews, I sent a hand-written thank you note to each participant for his/her time and for sharing his/her experiences.

***Analysis journal: Researcher generated data.*** Researcher-generated data were also collected throughout the study. Patton recommended the use of an analysis journal that would serve as a repository for the researcher's decisions, emerging ideas, and

memos. Particularly important parts of this journal are researcher memos, which Maxwell (2013) stated, “not only capture your analytical thinking about your data, but also *facilitate* such thinking, stimulating analytic insights” (p. 105). Similarly, Saldaña (2013) maintained that researchers use analytical memos as a means to document “whenever *anything* related to and significant about the coding or analysis of the data comes to mind” (p. 42). Thus, the analysis journal served as my mental storehouse. Furthermore, as Corbin and Strauss (1990) explained, this form of data is intertwined with the process of analysis. They shared that, “analysis is necessary from the start because it is used to direct the next interview and observations” and that “In order not to miss anything that may be salient, however, the investigator must analyze the first bits of data for cues” (Corbin & Strauss, 1990, p. 6). To help facilitate this process, I engaged in memoing before and after each interview or set of interviews when they were scheduled in such a fashion that did not permit time for memoing in between (Maxwell, 2013; Yin, 2011). Likewise, I used memoing as a form of capturing thoughts and ideas at the conclusion of any time spent with the data (listening to, transcribing, coding, and so on). Finally, I used the journal as a means for continuous self-dialogue throughout the data collection and data analysis process. The journal helped to capture the sum total and progression of my growing understanding of the phenomenon of study, and aided in identifying and uncovering any reoccurring biases and assumptions.

***District handbook.*** Madison County disseminated a Mentor Program Handbook (MPH) (2014) containing information ranging from the program’s mission, the services offered to FYTs, the selection of mentors, and the district’s avenues of support to mentors

and administrators. As Bowen (2009) articulated, documents have a number of functions in qualitative research, which include serving to provide information about context, generate new questions, and “to corroborate evidence from other sources” (p. 30). I first used the MPH as a means to familiarize myself with the mentoring program prior to participant interviews for it provided me with important contextual information about the program. I then, as Bowen (2009) suggested, completed a content analysis on the MPH that assisted in substantiating evidence.

### **Data Analysis**

I employed three different data sources (participant interviews, researcher analysis journal, MPH,) that were used both individually and collectively to inform the study. Interview data, once coded and sorted into sub-categories, categories, and themes were transferred to Power Business Intelligence (Power BI), an interactive visual analysis tool to help me look for patterns, discrepant evidence, and negative cases (Maxwell, 2013). I completed the same process for the district’s MPH and then compared it to the participant data specifically addressing the district’s mentoring program. The visualizations created using Power BI provided a holistic picture of participant voices as well as individually and by mentor category (formal versus informal mentor status). I added to and referenced the analysis journal throughout the study as I worked with participant and handbook data. As I began to transfer data to Power BI, I also transformed the analysis journal into a timeline to help capture the foci that emerged throughout the study.

**Interview data.** For the 4 hours and 54 minutes of interview recordings I obtained, two main phases of interview data analysis took place. The first phase, referred

to as initial analysis, focused on my beginning analysis of the interview data. I began this phase by listening to and personally transcribing the recordings of the interviews. This allowed me to stay close to the data and maintain a whole picture of participants' narratives (Patton, 2015). Throughout the repeated playing of interviews during transcription I was able to, "develop tentative ideas about categories and relationships" (Maxwell, 2013, p. 105).

*First cycle coding.* I began coding with initial coding - an approach that "provide[s] the researcher with analytic leads for further exploration (Saldaña, 2013, p. 101) and allows for the flexibility of either line by line, sentence by sentence, or paragraph by paragraph coding (Saldaña, 2013). As Saldaña (2013) recommended, I began with preliminary coding of one interview to decide on the coding approach that would fit best with the data collected for analysis. This preliminary coding resulted in adopting what Saldaña (2013) called the "splitter" approach, whereby I "split[s] the data into smaller codable moments" (p. 19). At times this resulted in what is referred to as In Vivo coding in which I used the participants own words as the first code (Saldaña, 2013). Furthermore, this approach maintained my ability to integrate Charmaz's (2007) recommendation of keeping close to the data, for it "reduces the likelihood of imputing your motives, fears, or unresolved personal issues to your respondents and your collected data" (p. 94).

After initial coding was conducted, I checked the reliability of the emerging codes using inter-rater reliability and check-coding. I asked a researcher, external to the study, to use open coding as she read through two-page excerpts from three different

participants interviews. I then compared my codes to hers and found an 86% percent agreement rate in codes applied. This process of inter-coder agreement or reliability helped to ensure that my own biases and assumptions were not clouding or omitting salient data (Yardley, 2008) and allowed me to move forward with coding the remaining interviews.

Toward the end of the initial phase of coding, I noticed that I had some very different rates of level one codes being applied to the interviews. At first, I speculated that perhaps a bias about the final interview being coded was at play, for the final interview was from a very animated participant whose responses resonated with me most out of all participants I had interviewed. This interview was also the lengthiest of all the interviews (by 10 minutes). Another consideration was that my learning curve to coding caused the discrepancy. However, upon closer examination of comparing codes per lines of text for each interview, I recognized that there were inconsistencies with the average number of codes applied to each interview. Even though I had attempted to adopt a line-by-line approach to coding (i.e. generally applying a code to each line of text in the transcripts), it seemed there were times when I did not do so. Looking more closely into my initial coding revealed that I was not applying codes to sections of the text when a code seemed to repeat itself. For example, if a participant repeated their enthusiasm for the profession within a paragraph on multiple occasions, I filtered out the multiple times this was expressed and only documented it one time. I then returned to the first six interviews paying specific attention to gaps where codes were not applied. In some cases, gaps were due to the issue of repetition while there were also some instances where I

failed to apply a code in my first round of coding. After re-examining and capturing missed codes, I had achieved a more consistent rate of code identification (see Table 3) across all seven interviews and felt more confident with the level of codes applies to each interview.

Table 3

*Codes Generated per Participant*

Participant	Codes generated	Word count	Average code to word ratio	Line count	Average code to line ratio
Elizabeth	198	7,139	1/36	411	1/2.1
Jeanine	123	3,762	1/31	223	1/1.8
Everett	218	7,230	1/33	419	1/1.9
Josh	236	6,633	1/28	374	1/1.6
Amanda	159	4,598	1/29	294	1/1.8
Henry	193	6,298	1/33	374	1/1.9
Nate	351	11,217	1/32	605	1/1.7

***Second cycle coding.*** After initial coding or the first cycle of coding was completed, I began the transition stage to the second coding cycle (Saldaña, 2013). This process consisted of taking all initial or first cycle codes and applying a level 2 and in some cases level 3 code (Yin, 2011). I completed this process using an Excel spreadsheet so that assigned categories could easily be grouped together and still allow me the ease of

viewing each participant, the text identified, and the initial code represented in the category. This process helped to serve as initial way to reduce the number of codes (Saldaña, 2013).

***Transition to categories and themes.*** Finally, I transitioned from level 2 and 3 codes to sub-categories, categories, and themes. At this time, I employed what Saldaña (2013) referred to as subcoding; for in some cases the “researcher realize[d] that the classification scheme may have been too broad” or that other “emergent qualities or interrelationships” (Saldaña, 2013, p. 78.) were made visible through the iterative coding process resulting in themes incorporating new categories or categories incorporating new sub-categories or codes. This was a helpful technique, for sometimes it was immediately evident the overarching category a particular code belonged to, but I required more time to look at relationships in the data (Maxwell, 2013) in order to adequately capture emerging patterns. In what Yin (2011) described as reassembling data, I embarked on an iterative process in which I made constant comparisons and engaged in rival thinking. After numerous iterative cycles of working with the data, I then reviewed and reorganized categories and level 3 codes in order to help continue to reduce data all the while being mindful of preserving the integrity of the data. During this process I continued writing and reflecting in my analysis journal. Overall, the reassembling phase helped me identify broader themes and assisted in data interpretation (Yin, 2011).

**Analysis journal: Researcher generated data.** Analytic memos are not only a means to generate codes, but as Saldaña, (2013) shared, “they are also embedded *within* analytic memos” (p. 51). Because my use of memoing continued throughout the data

collection and analysis process, I used an iterative approach to analyzing these data. To facilitate the journal's ability to aid me, all entries and memos were dated and as Saldaña (2013) suggested given a descriptive title. Towards the end of the process of creating categories and themes, I ensured all entries had descriptive titles, applied initial codes, and generate key foci. I then compiled the journal titles and key foci from the entries and used them to create a timeline, which served as an additional way of looking at essential ideas or themes as I continued to work through analysis. During this process, I also collected a list of questions I had asked myself to consider from my journal entries and any additional questions prompted by the entries during their review. These questions allowed me yet another way to reflect on emerging ideas throughout the analysis process, helped deepen my understanding, and sparked new ideas regarding patterns emerging in the data and subsequent analysis.

**District handbook.** The MPH helped to inform the study's context and contributed to my growing understanding regarding the district's goals and objectives for mentoring FYTs, but also how mentors' motivations may be influenced by this program. Furthermore, the construct of mentoring as depicted in Wanberg et al.'s (2003) dynamic process model along with the extant research regarding mentor motivations (Allen et al., 1997; Bear & Hwang, 2014) all appreciate the role of context and program antecedents. As such, the MPH provided another data source contributing to the understanding of mentors' motivations. I first reviewed the MPH prior to conducting interviews. It provided me with an understanding of how the program was structured and the responsibilities of mentors. I then conducted a content analysis of the MPH. Patton

shared that although the definition of content analysis is without consensus, it is understood as a way of analyzing text for the purpose of reducing qualitative data in an “attempt[s] to identify core consistencies and meaning” (2015, p. 541). Hsieh and Shannon (2005) defined “qualitative content analysis...as a research method for the subjective interpretation of the content of text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns.” This approach allowed me to analyze this data source in a way which I could then compare it to the interview data I had collected. While I was analyzing the interview data, I coded the district handbook in a similar fashion as the way in which the interview transcripts were coded. However, this process was streamlined because I had already completed coding and categorization for the transcripts, so when possible, I used these previously generated codes and categories for the MPH. I still remained open to the possibility of the need for new codes and categories, too.

### **Validity**

A fundamental question of the study is one identified by Przeworski and Salomon (1988) “How will we know that the conclusions are valid?” In order to address this question, I combatted validity threats both in the way data were collected and during interpretation (Yin, 2011). I found that these strategies required constant attention throughout the study in order to counter these threats.

**Use of comparison and juxtaposition.** The study’s design incorporated multiple participants. The data collected from these participants stand in what Fielding and Fielding (1986) refer to as juxtaposition, for they yield “different accounts of the same

situation” (p. 12). Although self-reported data was collected, the multiple perspectives regarding the phenomenon assisted in helping to limit the personal filters participants may have used when answering my questions during the interview process.

**Researcher bias and reactivity.** I, myself, also posed as another threat that could significantly compromise the validity of the study. Researcher imposed threats as Maxwell (2013) cautioned can manifest as researcher bias and reactivity. There are number of measures I took to help counter these threats. First, I wrote a researcher identity memo sharing my own personal identity and to identify my goals for completing the study, and as Maxwell recommended, I used it to reflect on the possible benefits and liabilities they might have on the study. Exploring these issues helped me create a self-awareness of these personal views, biases, and assumptions and to remain cognizant of them throughout the study. For example, the issues of selecting “data that fit the researcher’s existing, theory, goals, or preconceptions, and the selection of data that ‘stand out’ to the researcher” (Maxwell, p. 124) are direct possibilities of researcher bias. In order to limit this bias, the splitter approach to coding helped me to diligently code in a line by line fashion.

I also used the researcher identity memo and my analysis memos as reflective tools that I referred back to during the analysis process. The identity memo, researcher journal, and the use of a second coder during the coding process, served to counter the threat of my biases by reminding me of my biases and assumptions and creating a heightened scrutiny when they emerged in the data, and secondly, helping to prevent my

assumptions and biases from clouding identification of codes in data by introducing an observer external to the study.

Another threat I, myself, posed was that of reactivity, for as the researcher, I automatically have an inescapable influence on participants (Maxwell, 2013). Being aware of the ways in which I could influence participants during the interview helped me to minimize this influence (Maxwell, 2013). For example, being a fellow educator may have helped establish a bond and credibility with some of my participants. Likewise, these commonalities may have also facilitated participants' sharing their prior experiences with me. Another part of establishing this bond was my ability to put the participants at ease. Responding to participants (e.g. laughing, nodding, and smiling) may have helped make them feel more comfortable in answering questions, but this is a double-edged sword as it may have also affected the experiences they chose to share with me. There was also the concern that the participants may have worried about what they shared with me because their comments may be perceived as positively or negatively affecting their status at the school; therefore, participants may not have been entirely forthcoming with the truth but rather shared the truth they think I wanted to hear. The study's research design of using multiple participants was intended to help counter this. Likewise, because the topic of motivation is open to judgment, I hoped to offset this potential fear by reminding participants that all interviews are confidential and findings will be free of personally identifiable information.

**Member-checking.** In order to help prevent any misinterpretation of participants' responses, I used member-checking to follow-up with participants (Maxwell, 2013) by

sending a graphic demonstrating the number of times a participant was coded for a particular theme along with a brief narrative summarizing salient themes with associated categories and sub-categories (Beck, 2016). This process assisted me in making sure that my own biases or understanding has not led to the misinterpretation of the participants' meaning and/or perspective. I received responses from three of the seven participants regarding the member-check document. Of these three participants, all confirmed that I had correctly captured and summarized their perspectives. (See Appendix H for member-check sample.)

**Rival explanations.** According to Maxwell (2013), contributing to a study's validity is the researcher's rigorous examination of supporting and discrepant data all the while "being aware of the pressures to ignore data that do not fit your conclusions" (p. 127). Such an act requires constant vigilance on the part of myself, as the researcher, and I employed three strategies to achieve the continual pursuit of rival explanations. First, I completed a transparent data analysis process. All data analysis steps were made visible – and all internal thinking was made external by noting it on iterations of coding and through memoing. Second, asking for feedback from other researchers throughout the data analysis process was another way to ensure that my own biases and assumptions were not excluding rival explanations (Maxwell, 2013; Yin, 2011). Finally, As Yin (2011) explained, rival explanations require the researcher to maintain a "continual sense of *skepticism*" throughout a study (p. 80). I worked to achieve this by making transparent biases and assumptions in my researcher memo, memoing throughout the data analysis

process, and reviewing my researcher-generated products throughout the study to help maintain rival thinking and questioning.

**Delivering feedback.** As part of relationship building process, I extended to Principal MacArthur that I would provide him with a brief report of findings from the study. I intended this sharing as a means of thanking Mr. MacArthur for access to his teachers, but it is also stems from the pragmatic lens through which I view my work – that a study should help inform the context from which it was gathered and provide practical information.

It was also important for me to keep in mind how the relationships I developed may affect the delivery of less than favorable findings. As Yin (2011) suggested, the researcher should not confuse the “anticipation of the feedback process” (97) or how the work will be received with the process of findings. Similarly, as Fitzpatrick et al. (2011) cautioned, the researcher must “remain conscious of how their [a researcher’s] own biases can interfere with the accurate presentation of results” (p. 95). Although I did not have pre-existing relationships with any of the participants and my contact with participants since interviews were conducted has been limited, I have spent numerous hours listening to interview recordings and re-reading transcripts. As such, to some degree, my relationships with these participants has grown as I have immersed myself in their responses. Consequently, I remained aware that any commonalities between myself and my participants, such as shared teaching philosophies and beliefs about the profession, or their likeability factor (or lack thereof), must be acknowledged but then separated as findings are reported.

## **Limitations**

The limitations of the proposed study included: the participants, myself as the researcher, decisions surrounding site selection (context), data collection, and data sources. I have attempted to address these limitations in the study's design and in attending to validity threats, but inevitably limitations will persist.

**Participants.** There are a number of limitations that can be attributed to the participants in the study. First, the participants are self-selected. Because of this, participants who have had negative mentoring experiences may choose not to participate; therefore, I cannot capture the motivations of these individuals or know in what ways these experiences have affected these mentors. Second, informal mentors are not as readily visible as formal mentors. The department chair easily identified teachers who served as formal mentors, but informal mentor identification is more difficult. As such, I was dependent upon the department chair to identify who they believe served as informal mentors to FYTs within the department rather than informal mentors voluntarily identifying themselves. This participant selection may have been affected by the department chair's own perception of what constitutes an informal mentor.

Because I did not have pre-existing relationships with participants, the level of comfort established between participants and myself could have affected the depth of participant responses. Although participants may or may not be more forthcoming because they didn't know me, they may not have been as forthcoming because the topic of motivation is one that can elicit judgment. Due to this, participants may have provided

answers they thought I wanted to hear or ones that appeared more altruistic in nature rather than genuine responses.

**One researcher.** Although the study's design included comparison between my coding and an external researcher's coding, there is still only one individual, myself, primarily responsible for conducting interviews and collecting and analyzing data. However, this may have served to reduce multiple biases and inconsistencies in data collection. For example, because I am a fellow educator I may be more aware to subtleties in narratives than someone not involved in education, but concurrently, it may also narrow my lens or sidetrack me as I am immediately drawn to commonalities between participant experiences and my own. As such, my ability to maintain and not overstep a degree of empathetic neutrality (Patton, 2014) may have affected interviews and subsequent data analysis.

**Context.** Another limitation of the study is the single context of investigation. Although a single site helped to provide a detailed look at the processes taking place at Kennedy High School, it did not leave room for comparison to other schools. Findings will remain unique to the individuals and site of study, although in some ways they may be generalizable to other settings.

**Data collection: Single point in time.** Another limitation is only conducting one interview (data collection opportunity) with participants. This may have reduced the amount of information revealed during the interview because the participants may not have felt comfortable (for a number of reasons previously addressed) in sharing all of their experiences. It also hindered my ability to follow up with participants after they

have had time to consider experiences discussed during the interview. For example, during the pilot study, one participant in particular came to his own realization that his role as professional learning community (PLC) leader was indeed a form a mentoring. Perhaps after given time to let this realization sink in, a follow up interview would have provided a more complete uncovering of the motivations for him to mentor in this capacity.

**Data sources.** A final limitation is the lack of triangulation in data sources. The study's design primarily rests on the semi-structured interviews as the MPH only provides comparison for that of the mentoring program. Although Fielding and Fielding (1986) warned that, "It is naive to assume that the use of several different methods necessarily ensures the validity of findings" (p. 20). My use of a second-coder and member-checking is intentional to help contribute to the validity of the data being used despite the limitations in the number of data collection methods used to gather data.

## **Chapter Four: Findings**

The purpose of this study was to explore teachers' motivations to enter into formal or informal mentoring relationships with FYTs and in what ways participant, program, and organizational antecedents may affect mentors' choices to do so. Wanberg et al.'s (2003) conceptual framework provides a scaffold to which emerging themes can align providing an understanding as to how specific antecedent components of the framework affect mentors. However, these components do not work in isolation but come together to contribute to subsequent phases in Wanberg et al.'s dynamic mentoring model and in turn also contribute to prior phases in the model (see Appendix A). Although findings concentrated on the initial phase (Phase I) of the conceptual framework (participant/relational, program, and organizational antecedents), findings regarding the second phase (phase II), mentoring received, and the third phase (Phase III), proximal and distal outcomes, were also revealed in data analysis.

### **Overview of Findings**

The findings present a detailed story of mentoring taking place at Kennedy High School. Ten overarching themes evolved over the course of analysis. However, one theme that of "the act of mentoring" does not directly address any of this study's research questions. Nonetheless, this theme does serve to establish context and will be discussed

prior to the subsequent themes. These themes are presented below in the order in which they will be addressed:

1. Mentor Characteristics and Prior Experiences
2. Mentor's FYT Experiences
3. Beliefs, Critiques, and Expectations Regarding the Teaching Profession
4. Views and Beliefs about Mentoring and Mentoring Practice
5. Structures that Support and Contribute to Mentoring
6. District's Mentoring Program
7. Obstacles to the Act of Mentoring
8. Benefits and Outcomes of Mentoring
9. What Motivates Mentors

As demonstrated in the figure below (see Figure 3), the ten themes received varying support by participants. The theme "mentor characteristics and prior experiences" garnered the greatest percentage (21%); followed by "views and beliefs about mentoring and mentoring practice (12.9%); and by "beliefs, critiques, and expectations regarding the teaching profession" (12.8%); Meanwhile, "obstacles to the act of mentoring" (3.7%) received the fewest. Although the purpose of this research was to develop an understanding of the mentors' motivations, the amount of time mentors spent talking about "what motivates mentors" (7.2%) pales in comparison to the most documented theme. Even when combined with the time they spent speaking about the "benefits and outcomes of mentoring" (9.1%) mentors still spoke more about themselves and their experiences. In the course of understanding why mentors engaged in these

relationships, and the extent to which participant, programmatic, and organizational antecedents affected these mentors, the data presented a rich description of these mentors. Furthermore, the data revealed the ways in which these mentors’ personal experiences as FYTs, the context of Kennedy High School, and their experiences mentoring FYTs have shaped their views not only with regard to mentoring but extending beyond to who they are as teachers and their views regarding the profession.

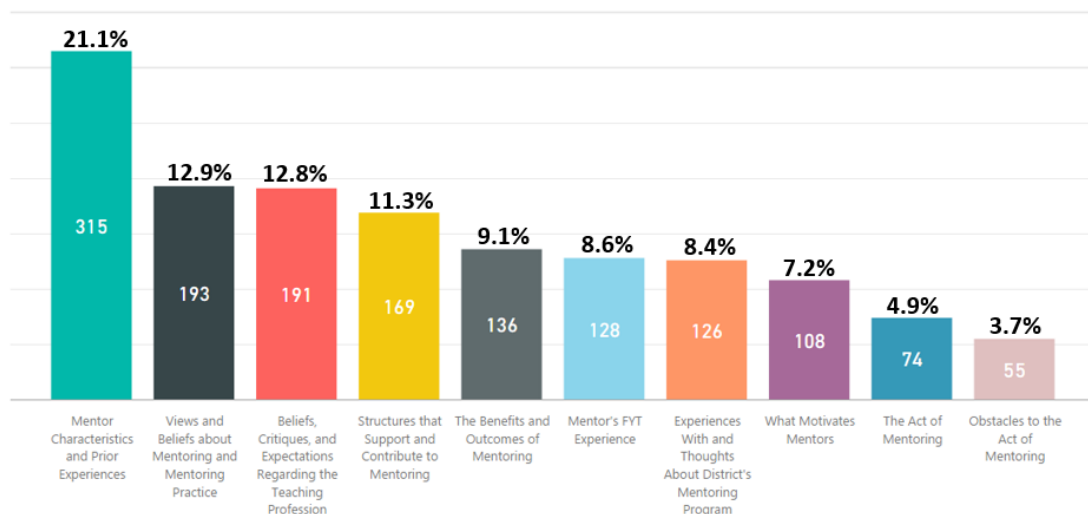


Figure 3. Total count and percentages of codes per theme.

**Thematic alignment to Wanberg et al.’s conceptual framework.** Wanberg et al.’s conceptual framework provides a way to help unpack the construct of mentoring, and as these researchers shared, the framework lends itself to both formal and informal mentoring relationships. As such it provides a way to understand these mentors’

motivations regardless of mentor status and capture the way in which antecedents may affect these motivations.

As demonstrated in Table 4, all 10 themes were aligned to the framework in the phases (order) in which Wanberg et al. share and describe them with one exception, that of the tenth theme, “what motivates mentors.”

The placement of this theme is at the end of findings and not presented along with the other participant/relationship antecedents. The reason for this is two-fold. First, it helps to present the findings in a logical way by allowing the researcher to build a story about the participants and mentoring at Kennedy High School. Second, it attempts to capture the fluidity of mentoring, for it reinforces the idea that the act of mentoring is not bound in a linear fashion, but that it is rather more cyclical in nature, demonstrating that a subsequent component may affect a prior one.

A second purpose of Table 4 is to demonstrate how the themes correspond to but also lend themselves to answering the supporting and overarching research question. However, there is one additional italicized question in this column, “what is taking place in mentoring relationships.” Although this is not a supporting research question, this question and its corresponding theme, “the act of mentoring,” do help to provide context and support for the overarching research question and will be discussed further in Chapter 5.

Table 4

*Research Questions and Themes Aligned to Wanberg et al.'s (2003) Conceptual Framework*

Research Questions	Theme	Wanberg et al. framework phase and component
To what extent are these veteran teachers influenced to mentor by participant antecedents?	Mentor Characteristics and Prior Experiences	Phase I: Participant/relationship antecedents
	Mentor's FYT Experience	Phase I: Participant/relationship antecedents
	Beliefs, Critiques, and Expectations Regarding the Teaching Profession	Phase I: Participant/relationship antecedents
	Views and Beliefs about Mentoring and Mentoring Practice	Phase I: Participant/relationship antecedents
To what extent are these veteran teachers influenced to mentor by organizational antecedents?	Structures that Support and Contribute to Mentoring	Phase I: Organizational Context Antecedents
	District's Mentoring Program	Phase I: Program Antecedents
To what extent are these veteran teachers influenced to mentor by programmatic antecedents?	Obstacles to the Act of Mentoring	Phase I: Participant/Program/Organizational Context Antecedent
<i>What is taking place in mentoring relationships?</i>	<i>The Act of Mentoring</i>	<i>Phase II: Mentoring Received</i>
What are the motivations of veteran teachers regarding mentoring first-year teachers?	The Benefits and Outcomes of Mentoring	Phase III: Proximal and Distal Outcomes
	What Motivates Mentors	Phase I: Participant/relationship Antecedents

**Role of formal and informal mentor status.** Although all seven participants, and therefore both formal and informal mentors are represented in all ten themes, their individual contributions to categories within themes and sub-categories vary greatly (see Figure 4). Overall, these differences appear to be due to the uniqueness of the individual

participants, but in the case of the theme regarding experience with and thoughts about the district’s mentoring program there is a distinct difference, which can be attributed to formal and informal mentor status on the basis of participation. There are few instances when a category is only discussed by either formal or informal mentors. However, no clear patterns exist in such instances indicating that formal and informal

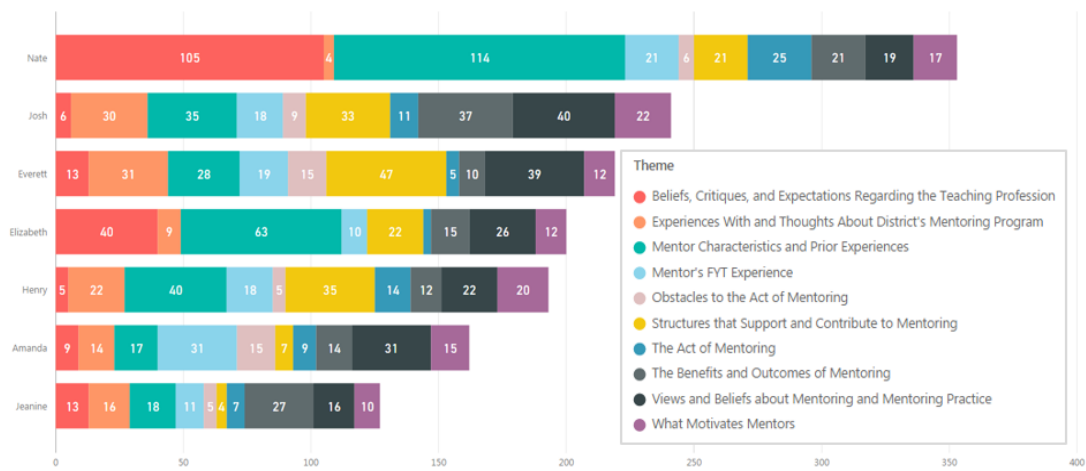


Figure 4. Participants’ contributions to individual themes.

mentors’ understandings and motivations can be understood differently because of mentor status. For the purposes of reporting findings, all findings will be discussed as applying to all mentors, regardless of mentor status, unless otherwise mentioned. A comparison by distinct count per category comparing formal and informal mentors, and total code count by category comparing formal and informal mentors can be found in Appendix I.

## **What is Taking Place in Mentoring Relationships?**

Although the theme “the act of mentoring” does not directly answer the study’s research questions, it does inform the questions the study sought to address by providing an awareness of what is taking place in these mentors’ relationships with FYTs. Understanding the ways in which these mentors support FYTs helps to confirm how these mentors are aware of FYT needs through their specific interactions and subsequently contribute to these mentors’ motivations to provide this support. This theme accounts for almost 5% of these mentors’ responses and addresses Wanberg et al.’s (2003) Phase II component of mentoring received. Although Wanberg et al.’s framework is premised on the notion of formal mentoring programs, these mentors, regardless of whether they engaged in formal or informal mentoring, provided details specifically regarding the support they provide to FYTs. Wanberg and colleagues described three categories that address the mentoring a mentee receives. These are: frequency, scope, and strength of influence. They define frequency as “the prevalence of meetings between the mentors and protégé, influencing the amount of time mentors and protégés spend together” (Wanberg et al., 2003, p. 95). Scope is defined as the combination of the type of mentoring functions the FYT receives (career and or psychosocial) along with “the breadth of subjects addressed or discussed.” (Wanberg et al., p. 96). The third category, strength of influence, is defined as “the degree to which individuals are influenced by the mentoring received” (Wanberg et al., p. 96). This category was not addressed by mentors, although the theme “the benefits and outcomes of mentoring” may assist in an

understanding of the type of influence (rather than the strength of influence) these mentors hope to have on FYTs.

**The act of mentoring.** These mentors displayed two of the three categories Wanberg et al. (2003) discussed regarding the act of mentoring. The first is that of frequency; for these mentors demonstrated a pattern regarding the rate of contact with an FYT. The second is that of scope, whereby these mentors discussed the type of specific support they provided to FYTs.

***Maintaining contact.*** A characteristic of support that these mentors identified is that of maintaining contact and checking in with FYTs, which falls under Wanberg et al.'s (2003) category of frequency. As Josh shared, "I literally talk to Jonathan every day. It's not always about school, but I talk to him to every day." Jeanine echoed this constant contact when she said, "I make sure that I am constantly asking her, 'Do you need other things?'" And as Elizabeth described:

So we see each other usually collaboratively planning and within there you are asking specific questions: What if? What if? Oh, my gosh, this is what happened last class. It was a disaster. What do I do? So it's specific to our curriculum, but it's still almost a mentoring thing... It's also me checking in when I hear that went badly. Then after the next class, hey, how did that go? Did you recover from that?

This frequency of contact led to a variety of support these mentors were able to provide to FYTs.

***Types of support provided.*** These mentors also described the types of support they provided for their FYTs. These supports ranged from being procedural in nature; to planning, instruction, and assessment; and finally content support. Furthermore, these

mentors also had a tendency to share how conversations were a frequent medium in the way they communicated with their FYTs.

*Procedural support.* Josh demonstrated his attentiveness to procedural needs when he described the beginning interactions he had with his FYTs. “So early in the year, it’s lots to learn how school works, all the process, all the paperwork, PGP, all that sort of stuff and learning the administrative stuff.” Jeanine explained, “So in the beginning our primary objective was really, I guess was functionality. And day to day routines and this is what should be done in order to get things done.” She also shared that,

We’d talk about things going on with administration. I’m going to have a formal observation - what do I need to do? Or when she had to turn in her mid-year review, what kind of data am I going to need to show evidence?

Henry, too, remarked about the procedural support he provided. “They started coming to me [for] more of paperwork types of things, different routines, and things like that.”

Finally, Nate stated how he provided procedural support for Jonathan regarding possible future encounters with students.

For example, if a girl comes in here and she’s crying and I’m alone, well I’m going outside to get another teacher in here immediately. And I try not to be in the room with students alone – why would he ever think that? You never know what’s going to happen.

Just as these mentors supported FYTs with the day to day logistics of teaching, they were also attentive to the way FYTs engaged with students and fostered student learning.

*Planning, instruction, and assessment.* These mentors also discussed they ways their support focused on instruction and assessing student learning. For example, Josh explained that, “we worked through a lot of the issues he [Andrew] came up with in class

would come out through our planning. So we could talk through that sort of thing.”

Henry shared how he and David have approached assessment,

We’ve had conversations and a lot of it revolves around the way we do assessments. David and I are both doing quarter tests at the end of the marking period, which acts as a reassessment for everything we’ve done over the term. So we’ve had some conversations with those. Looking at the problems I had set up the past couple of years together and David has come across a few and [asked] why is the question set up like this? Why? - and it’s all multiple choice - Why do we have these answers as opposed to these? And what’s the goal for some of these questions? And I tell him, more than a couple times, I set this up a couple of years ago and tweaked it a little bit, but I haven’t really given it much thought after doing that. So we’ve changed a few, given some better question types, better answer distractor - distractor type answers as well. And what I set up I had a very rigid system. Four questions for every target and we could assess this better maybe even do less questions, do two rather than four. Have two good questions set up a little bit differently.

Nate also provided a detailed look at how he and Jonathan approached planning,

Well, we talk about planning a lot. ’Cause he doesn’t know as much about government like I do. Like I talked about before, it’s my hobby. He’s starting to get there. And I’m not saying it has to be his hobby or anything, but he is not knowledgeable as much as other people would be in the content. So we talk a lot about scenarios. What could go right? What could go wrong? Where do you need to be prepared? And that comes from planning. I remember. I still plan every day. And I tweak stuff, but I have a great base. So what I do is I’ll ask him what he would do for this standard. How would you make this learning target? And what does this learning target look like in the classroom actively? And so our planning is key and we even talk about outside of work. We talk about our classes and what happened... We sit down all the time, like what’s our plan? How are we gonna map this out? What are the assessments gonna look like? How are we gonna get the kids to the assessments? And our assessments are all packed full with four main skills.

And finally, Everett explained how he approached planning and assessment.

Sometimes just having a calendar of where you’re going to go - one of the things is focusing on working backwards. This is the test. How are you going to assess it? What are you going to ask to make sure you’re following a line? What questions do you have prepared? What activities do you have prepared for them?

These mentors' responses frequently included that the support they provided was based in the content FYTs were currently teaching. Consequently, this support feeds directly into another way these mentors provided assistance, by allowing FYTs access to the specific content knowledge they themselves, as mentors, possessed.

*Content mastery.* Mentors also demonstrated how their knowledge of content was also used to support the FYTs they mentored. As Amanda shared, "And she came to me this morning, 'can you check my key?' ...and asking me, 'how do you teach this again?' So it's like, even with the math stuff, she would come to me, 'how does this work again?'" Or as Nate clearly stated, "I'm helping him with the content." Finally, as Jeanine described, "you know going over calculus she would ask questions about just from the math level and going over some of the math things that she needed some review on and that sort of thing."

*Conversational approach.* Just as these mentors provided support for planning, instruction, and assessment, along with access to their own content knowledge, they also demonstrated a consistent way of accomplishing this task. Repeatedly, these mentors' descriptions of supporting their FYTs required FYTs to be part of the conversation. Nate explained his approach, "I'm not just gonna give them stuff. We're gonna sit down and talk about stuff. We're going to constantly talk strategy. Did this work? Did this not work? Here's what I would do in that situation." These conversations were also recognized in Josh's "good discussion" or in Henry's "conversations either during the PLC or after the PLC." The role of conversations and discussions as a medium for support is a tendency these mentors shared and one that complements the previously

discussed theme “views and beliefs about mentoring and mentoring practice,” whereby mentors’ described their approach to the mentoring relationships as being reciprocal in nature.

In sum, these supports revealed these mentors’ awareness for FYT needs, which will further be explored in the theme “mentor characteristics and personal experiences;” for displayed in these acts of support is these mentors’ understanding of what a FYT needed to be successful. These mentors provided ongoing support addressing more general assistance as seen in procedural supports and extending to more specific support regarding planning, instruction, assessment, and content knowledge. Finally, these mentors provided the creation of a new category to Wanberg et al.’s framework (see Table 5), regarding the medium in which they carried out their work, that of discussion and conversation.

### **Who are Mentors?**

The previous theme helped to create an understanding of the type of support these mentors provide for FYTs at Kennedy High School. The reasons why these mentors provide the support they do and in the way that they do it, may further be understood in the following four themes, which help to inform the sub-research question, to what extent are these veteran teachers influenced to mentor by participant antecedents? These themes are all aligned to Wanberg et al.’s (2003) participant/relationship antecedent component and help provide a picture of who these mentors are. These themes include: “mentor characteristics and prior experiences;” “mentor’s FYT experience;” “beliefs, critiques, and expectations regarding the teaching profession;” and “views and beliefs about

Table 5

*Key Findings: The Act of Mentoring.*

Wanberg et al. phase	Wanberg et al. component	Wanberg et al. category	Characteristic name	Veteran mentor teachers
Phase II	Mentoring received	Frequency	Contact with FYT	Check-in regularly with FYTs
Phase II	Mentoring received	Scope	Types of mentoring support provided	Demonstrate awareness of FYT needs through types of support provided: Provide procedural support Provide a variety of support Planning, instruction, assessment Content knowledge
Phase II	Mentoring received	<i>Medium</i>	Way in which support is delivered	Conversational

*Note.* Categories in italics represent possible expansions to Wanberg et al.’s (2003) framework for this study’s population, mentor teachers.

mentoring and mentoring practice” and account for over half of all responses (55.3%).

Frequently the findings from these four themes naturally align to Wanberg et al.’s

description of the five descriptive categories for this component. These categories are:

demographic background, career/job history, ability levels, personality, and attitudes.

However, Wanberg et al.’s model also permits expansion, allowing researchers to

contribute to these descriptive categories by adding participant antecedents for teachers

who serve as mentors. Although all of these categories describing mentors are at some

point touched upon by participants, the category of attitude provides the most promise of

helping to understand who mentors are. In total, these mentors demonstrated specific

attitudes toward FYTs, colleagues, teacher quality, and mentor quality. They also

contributed an understanding with regard to professional dispositions focusing on teaching practice and expectations of colleagues.

**Mentors' characteristics and prior experiences.** The first of four themes that contributes to the participant/relationship antecedent component of Wanberg et al.'s framework, regards mentors' characteristics and prior experiences. This theme, which accounts for a little over 21% of participant responses, describes who mentors are and builds a picture of what is important to them. The findings suggest that mentors are: keenly aware of the FYT's experience and needs, concerned with improving their teaching practice, appreciate and desire relationships with colleagues within their schools, and value the FYT's voice, all the while demonstrating positive feelings toward their departments, schools, and prior mentoring experiences. Significant categories in this theme will be individually addressed below and include: mentors' awareness of and sensitivity to the FYT experience; characteristics of teaching practice; mentor behaviors and values; and mentors' emotional responses. Together, these significant categories help to craft a nuanced picture of mentor teachers.

***Mentors' awareness of and sensitivity to the FYT experience.*** One category of mentors' characteristics found in the theme "mentors' characteristics and prior experiences" recognized by all participants is that of a full awareness of the FYT experience. This awareness was demonstrated in terms of appreciating the difficulties FYTs encounter during their first year of teaching and extend to an awareness of and responding to the unique and varied needs of FYTs. Many participants characterized the first year of teaching in terms of its difficulty. For example, Josh expressed that, "first-

year teaching is surviving” while Nate described it to be, “...a maze. It’s a maze. It’s incredibly overwhelming, we all know that.” This thought is also echoed by Everett who said that “number one, I remember what it felt like to be completely overwhelmed.”

Also contributing to the awareness of the FYT experience is that of a mentors’ mindfulness of and responsiveness to his or her FYT’s needs. Many mentors understand the need for FYTs to be guided through their first year and attribute such needs to the fact that all a FYT needs to know just can’t be learned during teacher preparation. As Henry described,

There are so many other little things that go into teaching whether it’s organization, classroom management, what you do in your off periods to make them productive. So many little things you aren’t taught in your prep program... and a strong mentor teacher can begin and say here’s some of the things you’re going to face; here are some of the things I organize; here’s kind of what I do during off periods, beginning of the day, end of the day, to facilitate all the other little things that go on during the day and in the profession of teaching. Where the new teacher can learn a lot from that. They’re going to learn more in that respect than they would actually teaching it [in the preparation program].

These mentors also realized that not all FYTs will actively seek out this guidance, as Amanda pointed out when she said she “understand[s] that there are some people who aren’t really as outgoing that might be struggling their first year.” Finally, as illustrated by Elizabeth, responding to the needs of FYTs may be at the expense of a mentor’s own convenience, yet when Elizabeth spoke about prioritizing the need of a FYT, she does not intimate at all that she sees her act as an inconvenience:

Any first-year teacher that was my priority. They had to have a classroom hands down... Because however long ago it was, we had a new teacher and we didn’t have any more classrooms. [I said to myself,] Johnson you better find something to do. And I said OK, my room will become their room. And it’s just stayed that way because of growth everywhere you go, you know? The rooms don’t come back.

Despite that all teachers have a first-year teaching experience, these mentors remain sensitive to the difficulties first-year teachers face. This sensitivity cut across mentors with the least amount of teaching experience, such as Henry and Amanda (6 years of experience), to the most experienced participants, Jeanine (21 years) and Elizabeth (23 years), suggesting that this awareness is not based on the recency of a mentor's own FYT experience alone.

*Characteristics of teaching practice.* A second category found under the theme “mentors’ characteristics and prior experiences” is that of how mentors described their own teaching practice. Of all the participants, Nate, in particular, spent more time than the other mentors in sharing about his teaching practice; for he accounted for 56 of the 90 total coded responses regarding this category. However, there still remains one prominent sub-category that resonated among participants. This characteristic was that of seeking growth, reflection, and improvement in their teaching practice. As Elizabeth voiced,

I can't be the same teacher I was in 1993 – keep that quiet – I can't be that way. That's not true – I could, but that's just not acceptable. I can't do that. And so I look back to my old school, our mantra that we're constantly saying was continuous improvement – that's all you can ask for – is continuous improvement.

Nate, too, picks up on the need to continually improve when he stated, “But as long as, in my opinion, we are trying to get there, trying to improve on something every year, then I think we've really hit our goal.” Finally, Everett provided a detailed account of his practice and how the role of collaboration in his PLC has continued to support how his practice has changed.

Everything [has changed]. If you came to my classroom and watch what we do on a weekly basis now compared to what we did seven years ago – it's not even

close. Everything from how class starts, the middle, the end, the assessments, the informal assessments, the formal assessments, showing kids doing grade improvements, my homework policy, everything is based on that carryover.

These mentors are not static in their teaching practice and reflection plays an essential role in improving their craft. As Josh commented, “some days a lesson ends and I go, ‘I can’t do this. This was terrible.’” Or as Nate conveyed his struggle to enact formative assessment more frequently in his instruction,

It’s hard to consciously stop at a point when there’s something critical I need to talk about. And I try to do it every 15 minutes. I probably should do it every eight, but I don’t, so that’s something I need to get better [at].

Finally, as Henry shared, “I’ve tweaked and kind of guided classes a little bit and my calc. class this year through conversations with Elizabeth.” These mentors are actively committed to their own practice and engaged in improving their teaching. The desire for this improvement and the necessity for it in these mentors’ teaching practice will further be discussed in the themes “the benefits and outcomes of mentoring” and “what motivates mentors.”

***Mentors’ behaviors and values.*** There are also a number of other reoccurring behaviors and values that these mentors exhibited. Combined, these behaviors and values revolved around the relationships they formed with other teachers. They demonstrated a desire for interaction and contact with colleagues, as presented below.

***Involvement in other activities.*** These mentors demonstrated a tendency to be involved in other activities such as coaching or sponsoring a club, taking on leadership roles such as serving as department chair, or taking part in leadership activities at a regional or state level. Their interests are not confined solely to what takes place inside

their own classroom. Perhaps this attribute helps explain why they embrace the act of mentoring; for their conception of teaching and participation in the workplace is not confined to just that of the classroom. As illustrated in the next two sub-categories, these mentors do not keep themselves isolated from their colleagues, but choose to engage with them and value the relationships they form with them.

*Engagement in supporting and interacting with colleagues.* These mentors also have a history of collaboration with other teachers and are also engaged in supporting and interacting with their colleagues, as when Henry recalled when he arrived at Kennedy High School,

When I first came to Kennedy working with Elizabeth, she was an informal mentor to me without me knowing about it that first year. So one of the things I always wanted to do was to flip my classroom and it was something at Washington that nobody was on board with. But that point in my career I wasn't confident going out and saying I'm going to spearhead this. So when I came to Kennedy, Elizabeth had already started it with geometry. I was able to bounce ideas off of her and get ideas of what she's doing. And use that to springboard into my own flipped classroom - which is very cool.

Henry's description depicted not only his desire to interact with colleagues, but also captured Elisabeth's engagement with her colleagues as well. Elizabeth shared how she engages with her colleagues in other ways.

So now I'm not department chair, Henry is department chair, but I support him. I order supplies, I make sure everybody has everything that they need. So I try to do the little things to make his life a little bit easier.

This interaction with colleagues lends itself directly to another category many participants identified as being of value to them, relationships and friendships.

*Relationships and friendships in the workplace.* Relationships with others appears to be another hallmark of these mentors. It's illustrated in the value they place in their

relationships and friendships with their colleagues. For Amanda, forming and developing relationships was very important. As she said,

I think it's a good quality if you're outgoing like that and you're willing to strike up a relationship or friendship or anything with a new teacher. It's good in any job, I think, to have those kind of relationships with your coworkers.

Nate, too, articulated the level to which he values the relationship he has built with his principal, Mr. MacArthur:

One of my best friends here, is my boss [Mr. MacArthur]. I mean, I never in a million years would have been able to say that in Maine because there was this division. We work together. I'm a better teacher because of him. The feedback is amazing. And we're able to sit down. I truly am a better teacher because of what's been happening.

These mentors not only desired these relationships with colleagues - but the value of relationships extended to those they seek to develop with FYTs.

*FYT voice, input, and perspective.* These mentors also valued FYTs' voices, input, and perspectives. Jeanine emphasized her FYT's perspective in how she debriefs with her mentee after PLC meetings. "We usually meet for each unit separately to sort of go over how she would interpret what we all talked about." Elizabeth, in particular, commented frequently throughout her interview about her desire to hear what a FYT is thinking and has to say. She stated, "What was really important, now and then, as working collaboratively with your mentee, is making sure that they know they have a voice, and that their voice is important." She further accentuates this when she said,

It's strange because if we're gonna talk about a topic, I kind of want to hear from the new teacher first. Tell me your thoughts before any of these experienced teachers open their mouths and taint what you're about to say.

Finally, as Henry described, “there’s a lot of great conversation...built around having a connection and having a valuable part to their planning group to their professional learning community.” For these mentors, they don’t see FYTs in terms of deficits, but what they can bring to the collective conversation.

***Emotional responses.*** Participants also expressed a number of positive emotions for their department, school, and former mentoring experiences. These positive responses reinforced and supported the value they placed on relationships and interactions with colleagues and their school. As Josh stated, “I think we have a pretty close knit department.” Or Nate, “I think he’s lucky to jump into a department like this. I look around and we have such a good department.” Participants also described their departments as “great,” “hard-working,” “phenomenal,” and “fantastic.” Josh succinctly captured his enthusiasm for mentoring when he said, “I love mentoring Jonathan. I have no problem doing it. I’m friends with Jonathan. I love helping Jonathan.” Amanda felt that, “to mentor somebody it's like building another relationship in my life so it makes my job more enjoyable.” Combined, these mentors demonstrated a general sense of positivity regarding mentoring. But is it possible that when Elizabeth shared, “when I have formally mentored people, they have been rock stars” that they have all have been exceptional FYTs? Yes; however, there might be something about Elizabeth that helps FYTs become, as she calls them, rock stars.

Overall, these findings suggest that mentors not only have an awareness of the FYT experience, and FYTs’ associated needs but that they remain sensitive to FYTs’ struggles and difficulties. This focus on the FYT continues into the value mentors’ place

on FYTs’ voices and perspectives. And in turn, mentors seek and desire relationships with FYTs and other colleagues. At the same time, mentors also express positive emotion for their work place, to include their departments and mentoring experiences. Finally, mentors’ teaching practice is characterized by an active component – of engaging in reflection and seeking growth in their teaching practice. All of these salient characteristics of mentors can be placed in Wanberg et al.’s participant antecedent component. However, their existing framework can be expanded upon with regard to defining a mentor’s professional dispositions as seen in Table 6.

Table 6

*Key Findings: Mentor Characteristics and Personal Experiences*

Wanberg et al. phase	Wanberg et al. component	Wanberg et al. category	Characteristic name	Veteran mentor teachers
Phase I	Participant Antecedents	<i>Professional disposition</i>	Attitudes toward FYTs	Value FYT’s voices and perspectives Demonstrate an awareness and sensitivity to FYT experience
Phase I	Participant Antecedents	<i>Professional disposition</i>	Attitudes toward colleagues	Seek and desire relationships with colleagues
Phase I	Participant Antecedents	<i>Professional disposition</i>	Teaching practice	Seek reflection, growth, and improvement
Phase I	Participant Antecedents	Attitudes	Emotion	Demonstrate emotion for workplace and mentoring experiences

*Note.* Categories in italics represent possible expansions to Wanberg et al.’s (2003) framework for this study’s population, mentor teachers.

**Mentor's FYT experience.** The second theme of exploration which also contributes to the participant antecedent component of the mentoring model is that of the mentors own first-year teaching experience accounting for 8.6% of participant responses. Two of the three informal mentors in the present study, Henry and Amanda, were assigned formal mentors during their first year of teaching. Henry and Amanda were also prepared and began working in a state where assignment of a formal mentor to a FYT was required. Furthermore, they themselves also experienced the Madison County Schools (MCS) induction program. The third informal mentor, Nate, came from out of state and was not assigned a formal mentor during his first year. Of the formal mentors, the two most senior mentors Elizabeth (23 years teaching experience) did not have a formally assigned mentor while Jeanine's (21 years teaching experience) formal mentor was from a different academic subject and offered assistance on one occasion. The more junior mentors, Josh and Everett (7 and 12 years teaching experience, respectively) were both assigned formal mentors during their first year of teaching. The formal mentors' assignment or lack of assignment and depth of mentor program fell in step within the state's policy context, for it wasn't until 1999 that FYTs were required to be assigned a mentor teacher. Three threads that were present among these mentors' interviews, despite assignment of and satisfaction with an assigned mentor were: mentors' behavior as a FYT, the way in which mentors described their own first-year teaching experience, and the type of support mentors received as a FYT.

***Mentors' behavior as a FYT.*** As mentors recalled their own FYT experiences, many talked about exhibiting help-seeking behaviors. As FYTs they actively sought out

individuals who could answer questions or assist them, rather than passively waiting for someone in the department to recognize that they may have been struggling or required advice. Of the three informal mentors, Amanda and Henry, who also went through the MCS mentor program, talked most about these help-seeking behaviors. For example, Amanda said that, “I was the only new teacher in math, so I felt it was just a matter of making friends and kinda figuring out the people who I could go to if I needed something.” She further shared that she would have sought out help regardless from her mentor had he not been formally assigned to mentor her, because he had been her geometry teacher when she attended Kennedy.

I didn’t know the mentoring program existed. I’m glad it did, because I’m glad somebody was assigned to me and they helped me. But I think I would have been OK regardless, I would have probably sought him out [my mentor] anyway.

Or as Henry recalled,

I was very comfortable coming in day one and seeking people out, and saying, so I need to know how to do this. Can you guide me? Can you just walk me through how I get this done? Where some teachers aren’t quite as willing to kind of step out and say I need help with this, so that help had always been there and I had learned to value that through that program [preservice teacher preparation program]. So I stepped into my first-year teaching, I never hesitated to go find my department chair, my official mentor, or someone in my PLC and say I need help with this.

In both these cases, Amanda and Henry took ownership, sought help, and felt comfortable doing so. This level of comfort, although to some degree based on these individuals own internal initiative to do so, may have also been influenced by the positive responses they received by the teachers in their departments. This falls in contrast to Nate, who, although acted on help-seeking behaviors, was met with more resistance when he encountered a more veteran-oriented department:

[I] didn't have a mentor. Struggled finding who I was as a teacher and you know it was a pretty good department where I was, a place called Mayflower HS. But they were all vets. There was no one hired for seven years before me...I asked a lot of questions, and I didn't get a lot of answers.

Although Nate described his department as “pretty good,” his characterization does not apply to the way that he was received as an FYT. This same experience was also communicated by Elizabeth, who like Nate, was also an anomaly in her FYT status to her department. When asked if she sought out help from others she said that, “I wanted to, but I was coming into an environment that was already established. So trying to get this cohesiveness wasn't really there.” However, regardless of the difference in FYT experience, it appears that these experiences still served to support these mentors' engagement in future mentoring. The role of the department will be explored later in greater detail in the theme “structures that support and contribute to mentoring.”

*Describing their own FYT experience.* As Elizabeth and Nate's recollections of their own first-year teaching experience illustrated, seeking help from fellow department members was not always readily received. A number of participants expressed that they felt their departments were not FYT centered or left them feeling isolated as they navigated their first year of teaching. As Jeanine shared,

...in my first year when I went and said, OK what are we – we're the 8th grade team, what are we going to do as far as the math – are we gonna lay out the year? And I was told, no. We're not doing that. We don't do that. You do what you do and I do what I do. And that's it.

Or as Everett described his first year. “The way you were brought in was you were brought in as a lone wolf.”

Just as many mentors exhibited an awareness of the FYT experience – it is likely that their own FYT experiences shaped and influenced their view regarding FYTs’ needs and struggles. As Everett recalled,

So it became very overwhelming because it was constantly, well there’s this, and there’s this, and there’s this, and there’s this. And it was never, OK, what do I need to do this next week? Or what do I have to have? What am I going to get fired for not having done in the first month? So it was one of those kind of things. It was a lot of admin stuff, like administrative things with teaching. I think that was my challenge my first year was going through that process not knowing, well, what do I really need to do?

Jeanine also described the isolation she felt when she said that “I pretty much I had to kinda go it on my own.” And Nate even went so far as to question his choice of career. “My first-year teaching was such a disaster. It really was... The first four months were not enjoyable for me. I literally questioned: this is what I want to be? Is this, is this [*sic*] what I want to do?”

***Mentors’ support received during their FYT.*** Despite the struggles these mentors faced during their first year, they did often identify the degree to which they were supported by their mentors and other teachers within the department. For some, these supports ranged from a procedural nature, as Everett recollected, “It was sort of I’ll sort of show you the ropes kind of deal.” While other mentors experienced a wide gulf between the type of support they received. Jeanine explained,

So like the only real mentoring thing I got from her is one day she took me in the office with the assistant principal and said, “Hey listen, this girl has no idea what you’ve put her in the middle of in terms of the political things that are going on in the school.” She’s like, “people are shooting across her bow and she doesn’t even know they’re shooting. So you’ve got to tell her what’s going on politically” and because they were moving to keep me and get rid of older teachers, which I didn’t know... So she was like, “she needs to know what’s going on so she doesn’t get in

trouble.” But other than that you know it was this is where you turn in your attendance. That was about the amount of mentoring I got.

Whereas Henry described,

There was a lot of good informal mentorship. Talking with people who were on my PLC, a couple other teachers in my building. Kind of a need by need basis. I’m doing this, how do we approach this? Or we’ve got some sort of drill coming up or we’ve got a paperwork process coming up, how do I handle this?

And as Amanda shared,

I thought it was every single day I went into his classroom and was like what are we teaching tomorrow? And he was OK with it and he was fine with helping me out. And he - even when I had him as a teacher he made things so simple and that’s the way I like to teach, too, just making things very clear and simple. So he was like this is how we do it, remember this? And he would show me how to do it and I’m like OK.

Finally, as Josh recalled,

But I didn’t teach the same preps as my mentor, so I also kind of had what I’ll call my department, content mentor. I had a team I worked closely with in figuring out assignments and working more towards planning. So I guess there was my big picture mentor, one I went to on a more daily basis for content and planning and things like that.

It is clear that mentors still remember these FYT experiences; however, the degree to which they differ is quite vast. Despite this, these teachers still remained in the profession and have engaged in assisting FYTs. Although the amount of support or lack thereof they received is characterized by extremes, the end result is the same, these mentors mentor.

In continuing to answer how participant antecedents affect these mentors’ engagement in mentoring relationships with FYTs, this theme helps to provide a view into mentors’ own FYT experiences by confirming two prevalent occurrences. First, a teacher’s first year on the job is difficult. Second, FYT’s receive varied levels of support. Finally, these mentors demonstrated a tendency to seek help as a FYT (see Table 7).

**Beliefs, critiques, and expectations regarding the teaching profession.** A third theme that helped to explain who mentors are focuses on how mentors responded to that of their profession. In this theme, “beliefs, critique, and expectations of the teaching profession,” which accounts for 12.8% of responses, these mentors’ characterizations of the profession, views about their fellow teachers and their expectations of them, and their strong emotions about the field, demonstrated a solid commitment to their profession, the seriousness with which they approach their work as educators, and the implications of when other teachers do not.

Table 7

*Key Findings: Mentor’s FYT Experience*

Wanberg et al. phase	Wanberg et al. component	Wanberg et al. category	Characteristic name	Veteran mentor teachers
Phase I	Participant Antecedents	Personality	FYT behaviors	Demonstrated help-seeking behavior when a FYT
Phase I	Participant Antecedents	Career/job history	FYT experience	Encountered challenges and difficulties as a FYT
Phase I	Participant Antecedents	Career/job history	FYT support received	Received varied levels of support as a FYT

**Characterizing the profession.** Participants characterized the profession in terms of being isolated. Nate captured this isolation when he said, “And if you don’t have someone to ask for advice, it’s lonely. You look like you’re on an island.” He also went on and described making an effort to avoid the isolation of one’s own classroom,

Sometimes as teachers in the classroom we are very narrow – we’re very focused on our kids and our students, and our class, but it’s important to look around and what’s going around and say, OK what is going on around our department? What’s going on next door over there? What is he doing today? The kids are laughing. They seem like they are having fun and they are coming out with all these high test scores. What is he doing?

Jeanine said, “for a long while a lot of people were thrown to the wolves in the beginning. And the number people had dropped out after the first couple of years – I was like why?” Or as Everett described what the environment was like before mentoring became more widely embraced, “when you had no mentoring people and you’re mentoring program was literally hey look here are the classes you’re going to teach. Well, yeah, you’ve developed a lone wolf philosophy because you have to.”

The language mentors used to describe their experiences, brings up some very vivid images of existing in one’s own classroom world, separated from others. There’s also a metaphor of savagery brought to mind by either being thrown to wolves as Jeanine commented or acting like one in trying to make it on your own as a FYT as described by Everett above. Although mentors previously described the difficulty of their own FYT experience, these descriptions tend to capture a more survivalist tone.

***Issues of teacher quality.*** These participants readily described many thoughts regarding teacher quality. Some, like Elizabeth identified characteristics of what they believed are the qualities of good teachers, such as being “reflective educators who are interested in and committed to continuous improvement.” Or as Amanda stated, they are “comfortable with the content...and know you can answer any question on it.” Josh cited the characteristic of experience – for he “didn’t feel like [he] was a competent teacher until [his] third or fourth year teaching.” But perhaps more interesting was the amount of

time mentors talked about teachers who did not possess desirable characteristics and the way in which they did so – for they felt a need to distinguish between types of teachers. As Nate shared, “I think we have to be able to differentiate between a solid teacher and not solid teacher,” or Henry who said, “I think there are definitely two groups of teachers. There are the ones that I said earlier go in the classroom lock the door – it’s their world.” It is this second group of teachers – the “not solid” or “it’s their world” - that these mentors pointed out some key characteristics. These included teachers who do the bare minimum and those that lacked a desire to change their practice.

*Bare minimum and lack of desire to change.* Nate’s frustration with bare minimum teachers was evident when he stated:

And this isn’t about me, it’s about the team and the team is working so hard and then I look over there and you’re gone at what – 2? Come on! I’m never gone that early. I want to be, sure...but I’m grading 120 papers right now...what I get from people in the school they’re like– then don’t assign the paper. And I’m like, are you serious? This is a critical skill. These kids can’t write because you give them to me this way. You know, I don’t say that. Do I want to? Of course.

Everett was similarly irritated,

Yeah, but here’s the thing...Cause that person makes it sound like that’s a great idea. Backdrop is I know that doesn’t work. Kids aren’t getting it. I got parents that are telling me it doesn’t work. You know? And as a teacher you should be passionate about what you’re doing. The question is does it work? Does it work? That’s the common question we ask in our PLCs. Great, I teach factoring cubes this way. And what were the results of that?

Teachers who fail to actively seek change in their practice were also met with dissatisfaction by participants. As Elizabeth voiced, “The reality is, you have teachers who - I don’t want to say their mantra is mediocrity – why do anything differently? –

Everything is fine. People are like that. In every profession, there are people like that.” Or as Jeanine echoed,

That’s the thing that I think is scary when you have a lot of veteran teachers who are not excited about anything. About coming to work and coming up with new ways of doing things. They just want to get their job done.

*Negative outcomes of poor teachers.* Just as these mentors acknowledged frustration over teachers who do the bare minimum or seem too disinterested in improving their practice, mentors also expressed their fears regarding the outcome of such teachers as Elizabeth when she stated,

And it’s unfortunate that they have such an impact in an educational setting that they can. And no matter where you go, great building, terrible building - whatever. Those people are going to be there. And so yes, we have a lot fewer of those people since Mr. MacArthur came.

Jeanine voiced that,

We have a lot of people who have done their stuff for a while, who get negative, and they get, they’re very set in their ways. And they don’t want things to change. And I don’t want people to push their views and their negative sayings onto new people.

Or Nate who expressed aggravation regarding teachers not giving their all:

I know that there is [sic] corners being cut. And this is not the career to be cutting corners. I work hard, and I know a lot of us as teachers do and I will say most, but those that are not are hurting us and they need to go. They need to go. ’Cause you know, I look around, and I just get really upset about that.

Nate also summed up the ultimate outcome of poor quality teachers – that of the effect they have on students.

So I guess the real question is, why can’t we make a system that evaluates correctly? That weeds out the people? Right? We don’t have a union, so why are we allowing other things to get in the way? Since when do we allow that to happen with the most crucial part of our society - our youth? I don’t get it. I really don’t. And we need people fighting for that. And if we don’t...

For these mentors, the negative outcomes not only affect fellow FYTs but also students. These high stakes undoubtedly help fuel the expectations mentors have for their fellow teachers as demonstrated in this theme's next category.

***Expectations for members of the profession.*** These mentors also demonstrated a tendency to share a wide variety of expectations they have for their fellow colleagues. Elizabeth expected that “we need to have this mentality of I’m calling it continuous improvement...But we all need to have this same mentality.” Or as Everett demonstrated in his expectation of teachers to relay material to students successfully. “Instead of saying they [the students] just didn’t put the time into it. You know, it can’t be the excuse for everything.” Nate also felt strongly about teachers valuing and welcoming feedback. He shared, “If you’re nervous for another teacher to come in your classroom, and this is my personal belief, then I think you’re not doing something right. I really do.” Or Josh, regarding the expectation that teachers will step up and help mentor FYTs, when he said, “but I feel like that most people are aware that someone is going to help them. You’re not just going to throw them in the classroom and say go.”

***Emotion for profession.*** These mentor teachers were also passionate about education and the profession as Elizabeth demonstrated, “you get me talking about education and I’m - I’m on. I’m in. I’m passionate. Obviously I cry sometimes.” Her emotion also appeared when talking about her involvement with recognizing outstanding student teachers. “We pin them – it’s going to make me cry – we pin them – it makes me cry, we pin them into the profession.” Or Jeanine, “I want the new people who come to

embrace the teaching that I feel really strongly about.” Nate captured the serious commitment he feels when he explained,

I mean if we’re going to require kids to go to school, it’s a law. Then why are we going to half-ass it? Why would we ever do that? I think that is just that the most criminal thing I hear. And why are we not going to fund it?

The findings from this theme, “beliefs, critiques, and expectations regarding the teaching profession” again demonstrated mentors’ attitudes toward the profession (see Table 8). First, these mentors characterize the nature of the profession as isolating. Again, this demonstrates these mentors’ awareness of the challenges a FTY will face. They also

Table 8

*Key Findings: Beliefs, Critiques, and Expectations Regarding the Teaching Profession*

Wanberg et al. phase	Wanberg et al. component	Wanberg et al. category	Characteristic name	Veteran mentor teachers
Phase I	Participant Antecedents	Attitudes	Characterizing the profession	Describe profession as isolating/potential for being isolated
Phase I	Participant Antecedents	<i>Professional disposition</i>	Attitude toward teacher quality	Characterize poor teachers as ones who: do the bare minimum and do not make changes to practice  Believe poor teachers can have negative outcomes
Phase I	Participant Antecedents	<i>Professional disposition</i>	Expectations regarding the profession	Demonstrate expectations for members of the profession
Phase I	Participant Antecedents	Attitudes	Emotion for the profession	Demonstrate emotion for the profession and teaching

*Note.* Categories in italics represent possible expansions to Wanberg et al.’s (2003) framework for this study’s population, mentor teachers.

feel strongly regarding issues of teacher quality and expectations for fellow teachers, and do so with strong emotion for the profession to which they are committed.

**Views and beliefs about mentoring and mentoring practice.** The final theme, which helps to answer the how mentors' participant antecedents affect engagement in mentoring relationships with FYTs and contributes to Wanberg et al.'s antecedent phase, is that of "views and beliefs about mentoring and mentoring practice." Emerging categories from this theme accounted for 12.9% of responses and demonstrated these mentors' tendencies regarding: views about the mentoring relationship, issues of mentor quality, mentoring as teachers' work, and future mentoring intentions.

***Views about the mentoring relationship.*** One emerging category in this theme pertained to how these mentors view the mentoring relationship. These views continued to fall under Wanberg et al.'s (2003) participant/relationship antecedent category, but widened the scope of antecedents to include FYT characteristics and relationship characteristics. Three salient sub-categories provide insight into what these mentors believed are important characteristics in FYTS, the way these mentors approached the mentoring relationship, and the value they placed on the relationship.

***FYT characteristics.*** One FYT characteristic these mentors identified was that of FYTs being open to improvement and assistance. This openness is not one directional. As these mentors' recognized, it includes the way in which a FYT receives help and also the ability for a FYT to seek assistance from their mentor. As Amanda recalled,

Anytime she had something that would stress her out, she'd be like, "What do I do in this situation? How do I deal with this parent? This upset me." Anything that just kind of was off her radar a little bit, I think she would go to me for.

Or as Josh shared,

And I notice that Jonathan has some things he does go to me for and sometimes he goes to Nate for. And I've noticed there are some things he goes to me for that he won't go to Nate for. And vice versa.

Or Henry, who said that for FYT David, "I think it kind of depends on who is available.

He's equally comfortable coming to me or going to Elizabeth as they come up."

Likewise, these mentors appreciated FYTs who openly received feedback, as when Nate expressed appreciation for Jonathan being "open to suggestions." Or when Henry remarked, "David has been great to work with because he's so open to new ideas. Not just to new ideas but to feedback and mentorship." Perhaps part of this receptivity to feedback and assistance in these FYTs is related to the way in which these mentors approached the mentoring relationship.

*Mentors' approach to mentoring relationships.* These mentors' approach to mentoring embraced reciprocity. Mentoring relationships were viewed as symmetrical in nature, whereby these mentors treated FYTs as partners in the relationship with them, rather than an individual having something done to them. Amanda explained, "so if you're teaching a new teacher how to do something, I think that they'll also teach you something as well." Or Henry who shared that,

It's more a sharing of ideas between the two of us. Where this is what I've done over the past few years. What do you think about? What are your thoughts? How do you think we should change it?

For Elizabeth, she approached these relationships with the belief that, "I feel like what I bring is that idea that together let's do better." Finally, this is demonstrated in the way

that Josh spoke about the relationship in terms of his relationship as a collective unit. “It works for us. We’ve figured out what works for us.”

*Value placed on mentoring relationship.* Just as these mentors approached the relationship with symmetry and reciprocity in mind, they also spoke to the importance of and the attention to developing these relationships. To these mentors, relationships required activity and not passivity. As Everett stated, “I think that that relationship needs to be developed.” He further spoke about how this might happen,

So I think that developing that mentor relationship early and then little things - and I didn’t have this with my mentor - is a little bit of, hey, develop the relationship. Who is that person? Are you having math activities? Whether that’s getting together at someone’s house - you can start to ease [into] that process. So I think starting that relationship early.

Henry described that mentoring relationships required intentionality when he discussed the role of shared similarities in mentors and FYTs. He said,

So if you’ve got a mentor set up with a mentee where they don’t have anything in common whether it’s a common PLC or common minds or something like that, then that relationship is formed simply over the compensation that’s provided to the mentor.

In overseeing the formal mentor match between Elizabeth and her former student, David, Henry said that, “She wanted to make sure David was comfortable, that he understands we’re now peer to peer, we’re in the same profession, we’re co-workers.” Finally, Amanda also recognized the role of relationships in mentoring – when she discussed the need to “make a relationship with the person.”

*Issues of mentor quality.* Just as these mentors acknowledged characteristics of and worries about teacher quality with regard to the profession, mentors similarly identified characteristics of and worries regarding the quality of a mentor. One

characteristic that yielded a divide is whether years of teaching experience is a contributing factor to mentor quality. This issue, as Everett commented upon, is also separate from determining teacher quality. He explained,

I think that from a mentoring standpoint you have to be someone who is somewhat duplicatable [*sic*] and some of - that is the best teachers, some real good veteran teachers sometimes aren't as duplicatable [*sic*] to a brand new teacher.

Nate questioned, "Why can't they come in? And just because I've been teaching longer doesn't mean I'm one, smarter, or two, better." Meanwhile, Josh said, "I haven't been teaching that long. I would not have even thought about it [formal mentoring] until last year anyways, 'cause I'm relatively new to this compared to some other teachers."

Henry explained,

You know certain teachers that are experienced teachers that would make a really good mentor and then you look at others and say you're not quite sure about, but that second teacher - there's something along the way where they either went into their own world, doing their own thing. Where the teacher that locks the door behind them in their classroom and nobody sees what's going on in there. So I think that there's definitely something missing in that, in that path for that teacher.

Some participants expressed the importance of a shared vision in mentors as Josh described, "I don't see a lot of old school teachers being mentors. I see a lot of the mentors being not even younger teachers, 'cause it's not an age thing it's more of a philosophy thing." Jeanine, stated that she doesn't want "to see people come in and get put with someone who will just tell them to do the minimum to get by." Or as Everett expressed:

I think as a mentor also you have to be mindful of who you put those new teachers around. You know the teachers who are lone wolves, or have issues in the classroom or all their kids are failing...it's one of those fine line to walk. You

don't want a first-year teaching doing something someone is already rogue on. It's one of those fine lines of who do you get that person around.

These sentiments are echoed by Nate who said, "So yes, yes, but I think we need to be careful and hand pick the people we want to have influencing our teachers, I think that's just tough love." And finally, as Elizabeth stated,

I think it depends on the teacher. I think or a lot of people it's just part of – another aspect of the job. That teacher's gonna get all the paperwork turned in on time. That teacher is gonna make sure they get paid. That teacher is going to go to very single meeting. That teacher is going to answer every single question. But that teacher's not going to enhance the new teacher and bring them to a different level. I see it all the time. And it's unfortunate because you can see it in a new teacher. They don't want to be status quo – that's why they're a teacher. But if that person is put with a status quo teacher, they're gonna think, well am I just wrong? So I think it's very important who – the other aspect here is at least that teacher does have the opportunity to work with other people who hopefully have this mindset of let's elevate where we are.

These mentors' demonstrated a consistent concern regarding the quality of mentors and the effect they can have on a FYT. This notion of mentor quality feeds how these mentors' perceived the role of mentoring as part of teachers' work.

*Mentoring as teachers' work.* The issue of mentor quality extends to how these mentors' discussed mentoring as part of teachers' work. For example, although Everett expressed that all teachers should be able to mentor, he still voiced concern when he said, "but here's the thing, you've got to watch because there are some people who are toxic."

At the same time, Everett also raised the point that for him, compensation is necessary regarding this potential aspect of teachers' work.

I have no desire to be a department chair. I have no desire to be an administrator. So the idea that why would I take on a harder task for no more money, no more benefit, no more anything, beside out of the goodness of your heart, you know – I'm sacrificing other time that I could be spending, and that time is going to come from something.

The conflict these mentors felt about all teachers' mentoring continued with Nate, whose response also captured the notion of mentoring as a teacher's duty. He described,

Well I would say yes, the only reason I hesitated is thinking about trying to put myself in the shoes of people who wouldn't want to do it. Because then those people are going to have negative impacts on the newer people and I would try to avoid that. So I guess the answer to the question is yes, because if you have all this knowledge and you have all these techniques that you want to share, I think it is the duty of the other teacher to be able to - as a community bring this person along.

Henry, too, addressed the idea of duty as Nate mentioned when he explained,

There are the ones that I said earlier go in the classroom, lock the door – it's their world. And I think that group of teachers doesn't really look at mentorship as their responsibility or something they need to do or should do.

And finally, Elizabeth simply stated, "It depends on the teacher. It depends." Although the views these mentors hold regarding mentoring as teachers' work vary to some degree, these mentors' future intentions to mentor are not, as seen in the final category of this theme.

***Future mentoring intentions.*** These mentors shared a desire to continue to engage in mentoring in the future. For two participants, Nate and Henry, their future moves into administration would change the pathway in which they currently engage in mentoring. Despite how becoming an administrator would affect the way Nate and Henry would be able to mentor FYTs in the future, they both remained committed to mentoring. For Henry said, "I don't foresee not being able to mentor somebody." While Nate explained, "As a teacher, the only thing that would get in the way would be moving up to administration, but then I'm doing that indirectly in other ways. It's a different level." Josh stated that, "I don't think there's anything that would stop me from doing it

[mentoring].” Amanda, too, expressed her desire to mentor in the future. She said, “[I] would see myself down the road probably being a formal mentor since I have six years of experience.”

In this final theme, “views and belief about mentoring and mentoring practices” mentors continued to demonstrate a commitment to the profession, but also their continued involvement in mentoring FYTs (see Table 9). For they all see themselves engaging in some type of mentoring relationship in the future. It is also evident that these

Table 9

*Key Findings: Views and Beliefs about Mentoring and Mentoring Practice*

Wanberg et al. phase	Wanberg et al. component	Wanberg et al. category	Characteristic name	Veteran mentor teachers
Phase I	Participant Antecedents (FYT)	Personality	Help seeking behavior	Appreciate FYTs openness to feedback and help-seeking behaviors
Phase I	Participant Antecedents (Mentor)	Attitudes	Attitude toward mentor quality	Believe not all teachers make good mentors Believe mentor teachers can have negative outcomes
Phase I	Relationship Antecedents	Complementary Nature of Interactions	Mentoring relationship	View mentoring relationship as symmetrical
Phase I	Participant Antecedents (Mentor)	Attitudes	Mentoring relationship	Value mentoring relationships and by extension need for them to be developed
Phase I	Participant Antecedents (Mentor)	<i>Professional Disposition</i>	Beliefs about teachers’ work	View mentoring as teachers’ work as teacher dependent
Phase I	Participant Antecedents (Mentor)	Attitudes	Mentoring involvement	Demonstrate desire to mentor in the future

*Note.* Categories in italics represent possible expansions to Wanberg et al.’s (2003) framework for this study’s population, mentor teachers.

mentors are sensitive to the issue of mentor quality and acknowledge that FYTs are susceptible to a mentor teacher's influence. These responses also captured the complexity of how these mentors' view mentoring relationships as part of a teacher's work. Even though these mentors' value the mentoring relationship they are hesitant to commit all teachers' to the act of mentoring.

**To what extent are veteran teachers influenced to mentor by participant antecedents?** From these four themes, which contribute to the participant/relationship antecedent component (Phase I) of Wanberg et al.'s (2003) framework, an emerging profile of mentor teachers takes shape. This profile is helpful in answering a sub-research question of this study, "to what extent are veteran teachers influenced to mentor by participant antecedents?" Overall, the majority of findings from these four themes corresponded to categories already identified by Wanberg and colleagues. The category of career/job history highlights these mentors' own FYT experiences, which were challenging and difficult and varied in the levels of support they received. The category of personality was also addressed in these mentors' comments regarding their own help-seeking behavior, which they also identified as an important trait in the FYTs with whom they worked. The most common existing Wanberg et al. category these findings aligned to was that of attitudes. Findings revealed patterns regarding these mentors' attitudes toward: mentoring and the mentoring relationship, teacher and mentor quality, colleagues and FYTs, and expression of emotion. From these attitudes, it appears these mentors are influenced to mentor because they simply value mentoring. Although these mentors characterized the profession as isolating, they seemed to counter this aspect through their

engagement with colleagues but also the mentoring relationships they built with FYTs. This interaction is further underscored when these mentors discussed how they approached mentoring relationships as reciprocal in nature, and with an appreciation for FYTs' contributions to the relationship. These mentors also provided distinctions between types of teachers and mentors and demonstrated a sensitivity to how their colleagues behave with regard to professional practice but also to the consequences this behavior may have. They specifically identified professional dispositions in poor teachers: they do the bare minimum and do not make changes to their practice. This gives way to the addition of new category, professional dispositions, as the existing categories identified in the Wanberg et al. framework are unable to capture this aspect of this unique population. These dispositions include teachers who seek reflection, growth, and improvement in their own practice and hold varied beliefs about mentoring being viewed as part of teachers' work. How these mentors' view their own practice and the expectations they have for other members of the profession may also help to inform findings from other themes addressing the ways in which these mentors provide support and their motivations for doing so. The next section continues to build on a growing understanding of these mentors by addressing two more research questions: to what extent are these veteran teachers influenced to mentor by program antecedents? And to what extent are these veteran teachers influenced to mentor by organizational antecedents?

## **How Does Context Affect Mentors' Understanding?**

The first four themes presented above help to create a picture of these mentors through the identification of participant antecedents, to include salient features of their teaching practice, views about mentoring, opinions regarding mentor and teacher quality, and associated concerns for and understandings about FYTs. However, as the next three themes will demonstrate, these mentors did not engage in mentoring or form beliefs in a sterile environment. Who they are as individuals and the degree to which they participate in mentoring have also been influenced by the presence of the district's formal mentoring program and Kennedy High School itself, for both contribute to these mentors' understandings of and engagement in relationships with FYTs. The three themes that will help address the role of context are: "structures that support and contribute to mentoring," "the district's mentoring program," and "obstacles to the act of mentoring." With regard to Wanberg et al.'s (2003) framework, these themes align to Phase I components of program antecedents and organizational context.

**Structures that support and contribute to mentoring.** The first theme, which helps to deepen an understanding of how these mentors' context affects their engagement in mentoring FYTs, is that of "structures that support and contribute to mentoring." This theme accounts for 11.3% of participant responses and directly addresses Wanberg et al.'s (2003) antecedent component of organizational context. For these mentors, Kennedy High School served as the organizational context in which their formal and informal mentoring relationships with FYTs were embedded. Furthermore, these mentors recognized and identified several structures that helped to support and contribute to these

relationships, such as: same course assignment of mentor and FYT, professional learning communities (PLCs), school leadership, and academic department. Of note is that none of these structures found within Kennedy High School (these mentors' organizational context) were a result of the district's formal mentoring program, and of the four structures mentors identified, the PLC is the only one formally implemented by the school, yet the mentoring that took place in these PLCs was considered informal in nature by these mentors. Finally, these structures served an extension of the organization's values. For the intentionality and support these structures received at Kennedy High School demonstrated the organization's priorities regarding mentoring, whether intended or unintended.

*Mentors and FYTs sharing same course assignment.* One structure these mentors identified that helped support mentoring was that of sharing the same course preparation with the FYT they were mentoring. This played an especially important role for formal mentors because of their assignment to a FYT. As these mentors identified, this structure, shared course, directly contributed to mentoring relationships. In particular, Josh expressed how sharing a course and not sharing a course with his formally assigned FYTs led to two very different mentoring experiences between the FYT he mentored last year and the one he is currently mentoring. He described,

And they've been two very, very different experiences, which is good. So last year I mentored a teacher who was fresh out of college and was, had the same, at least similar preps to me. He had three preps he shared with me and then two that he didn't. So we worked in very much a co-teaching fashion I suppose...So then he and I ...Andrew and I developed into more of a co-teaching role pretty quickly. Like by mid-term we were essentially co-planning every lesson together. We would map out the units together, map out the activities, work on the test together. I mean, truly co-teaching. Even though we were never teaching in the

same room obviously. And I think that worked out really well...Jonathan is my mentee this year. And we don't have the same preps. So it's created a very different – it took a while - we didn't know how to approach that. 'Cause we did the same stuff at the beginning of the year, met a couple of times and discussed the same sort of things as Andrew. Like this is what you put in your syllabus. This is how you deal with this. This is how you set up your classroom - stuff like that. But then when Andrew and I then transitioned into planning, I couldn't really do that with Jonathan because we don't share the preps. So I actually immediately set him up with someone, with Nate, who teaches the exact same preps as Jonathan does.

As Josh explained, the type of support he provided to Jonathan differed to that of Andrew because of the commonality of experience and timing that a shared course can provide for mentors and FYTs. Henry, an informal mentor, recalled his own experience as an FYT and highlighted the lack of a shared course between his mentor and himself affecting their meeting. "I was assigned a formal mentor, but the two of us didn't teach the same subject, so most of our conversations were forced conversations. We had to find time to meet to talk..." For Henry, the lack of a shared course not only caused difficulties in finding time to meet, but the quality of his discussions suffered, too. Everett, as well, in response to a discussion during his formal mentor training, identified the necessity of mentors and FYTs sharing the same shared course experience. He recollected,

At some point [the trainers said] you should have mentors that aren't even teaching the same subject. That kind of caught me off guard. Yeah, that's theoretical mentoring overall, but there is a lot of what overwhelms - I've found first-year teachers and myself -the just day to day lesson planning, the day to day stuff, and if you're not involved with that...

As Everett revealed, there's a necessity for mentors to not only be of the same academic discipline, but that to truly be able to assist a FYT, a mentor needs to be intimately familiar with the demands of a course. Amanda also communicated how sharing a prep

easily facilitated providing mentorship, for without that connection, it was difficult to come together with other new teachers. She shared that,

So sometimes just checking in on Emma because she teaches the same subject. But I haven't really talked to, there are a couple of other teachers who are first year and I don't really talk to them much just because we don't teach the same subjects. We have so many meetings during the regular school day and meetings so it's like I haven't even had a chance –

For these mentors, sharing the same course as a FYT was crucial as they provided specific support to meet FYT needs. Additionally, this commonality directly impacted a teachers' placement in another significant structure these mentors identified in supporting mentoring FYTs, that of professional learning communities (PLCs).

*Professional learning communities.* Of the four prominent structures mentors identified, only one was recognized by all seven mentors - that of professional learning communities (PLCs). For these mentors, PLCs served as a vehicle to support mentoring of FYTs. Mentors' understandings of PLCs tended to distinguish the organic opportunity PLCs provided to mentor. For Henry, the role of the PLC was fundamental in the mentoring taking place within in his department. He stated,

I think a lot of all this comes back to the collaboration in the PLCs. I think that's why our mentorship has been successful the past few years. Is we have that built in connection already and that foundation that starts the conversation. I think that's been part of the key to our success – that PLC community.

Josh, too, underscored the organic and natural way PLCs supported mentoring. He explained,

I think at our school, because [of] the PLC program, I think it's [mentoring] kind of already in there because you are collaborating with other teachers and inevitably it means you'll help a younger teacher out without even realizing it.

He further clarified that, “PLC programs create mentoring – almost group mentoring by design.” And finally, as Everett remarked, “so if you’re in a PLC with your [mentee]... it’s another opportunity for you guys to be together.” For these mentors, PLCs provided a natural space characterized by a key similarity (shared course) and perhaps more importantly, one that provided a designated time for mentoring to occur.

In addition to PLCs being viewed as a structure that supported mentoring, there seemed to be a commonality in responses in which these mentors distinguished that the mentoring received in these PLCs is informal by nature. As Everett stated, “I’m in a PLC. I’m involved in with a new teacher, so from that standpoint I think it helps that first-year teacher. It’s informal, but you’ll also get some things that will actually help you.” Or as Josh shared about a former FYT, “So he kinda got an informal mentoring through the PLC program, which I think is really helpful.” Jeanine also recalled how her informal mentoring of a FYT was facilitated by the contact time the PLC provided. “So I think Elizabeth was her official mentor, but I was on her PLC, so I was the one who made sure she had what she needed on a more of a daily basis...” Regardless of mentor status, these mentors viewed PLCs as being an integral part of providing the time and space for mentoring FYTs. However, these mentors also recognized that PLCs required the school administration’s support to help flourish and provide a place for these relationships to occur.

***Role of leadership.*** Instrumental to the implementation of PLCs was that of school leadership. These mentors repeatedly identified that the administration’s intentionality in supporting PLCs is crucial to PLC sustainment, and by extension the

mentoring that takes place in PLCs. As Nate conveyed, “Well I think at this school, specifically administration, has given common planning time in the day, which I think is critically important in so many different ways, especially for a PLC to thrive.” Everett, too, recognized leadership’s role in making common planning a reality. He explained how PLCs have not only affected interactions between colleagues, but expressed his appreciation for the administration’s role in providing common planning.

I think our admin has probably done a real good job at just - number one, I know how hard it is to get common planning – that they set that up. Honestly, I don’t know how you develop an informal relationship without common planning. Before when we had random off periods, yeah, you could be sitting there with an algebra teacher and geometry one teacher, and probably those people never taught that stuff before, but maybe they have taught – they’re not teaching that stuff now. I think they do they go above and beyond, I think, giving us common planning.

Josh, too, communicated a similar appreciation for the role of PLC support at Kennedy.

“I think that we have a strong PLC program here. I think it’s been an emphasis here, having a good PLC program.” For these mentors, administration played an essential role in supporting a structure that enabled mentoring to regularly take place. Just as administration intentionally promoted and supported the act of mentoring via PLCs, these mentors identified how their departments also played a role in contributing to the mentoring taking place at Kennedy. In this way, departments served as another structure of support embedded within the greater organizational context.

***Role of department.*** One last structure these mentors identified was the role their department played in supporting mentoring. This was most frequently demonstrated in mentors’ descriptions of their departments as supportive of and welcoming to incoming FYTs. Nate described that last year FYT Andrew received a strong welcome into the

department. He recalled, “and our department just grabbed him, and took him, and gave him advice, and he ran with it. And I think that’s really important to do for these first-year teachers.” Likewise, this same reception was offered to a FYT the following year; when Nate expressed, “I think Jonathan is going to be an amazing teacher. Not necessarily because of what I’ve been doing, but I think because of the foundation he’s getting around him...” Henry, too, articulated the type of environment his department provided to FYTs:

David and Emma are very fortunate in working with the teachers that they have. We have such a good department here with so many good experienced teachers that are willing to share their experiences. So Emma getting a chance to work in a PLC. She has a PLC with Jeanine...And then David getting a chance to work and Elizabeth through the calculus PLC, and both those teachers are just fantastic in terms of both sharing their experiences. Helping where necessary. Having the extra conversation when they can. And you know when I was working at Washington...I came here after school when I knew Elizabeth was staying after school with students, just to have a conversation with her. And she was always willing to do that. She cares. She wanted to help and wanted to be there.

Elizabeth also expressed that FYTs feel comfortable seeking out other department members, “a lot of times, people are looking for their mentor first, but if they can’t find their mentor to ask questions, it’s whoever they can find.” Finally, Josh’s response accentuated the role his department environment plays with FYTs,

I think our department is pretty good. I think we have a pretty close knit department. Even people that aren’t best friends, everyone gets along. So I think that helps foster that as well. I don’t think any new teacher has ever felt like they – either there’s no one they can talk to or there’s only one person they can talk to. So I think that environment helps foster not only the formal mentoring, but almost more the informal mentoring.

These mentors recognized the role their department plays in a FYT’s experiences.

These departments extended to FYTs the message (organizational value) that FYTs are

welcome and that support will be provided to them. This message is also echoed in the other three structures that helped to support and contribute to the act of mentoring. First, the role of shared courses between mentors and FYTs permitted a specific understanding of the content and possible difficulties a FYT may face as a mentor works with a FYT. Second, the opportunity for mentoring to take place in PLCs provided mentors with a time and space for these exchanges to take place. By intentionally providing such time to mentors and FYTs, the organization sent a message that these interactions are important and valued. Finally, mentors' perceptions of administration's intentionality and prioritizing of PLCs and common planning, reiterated the organization's values about this structure. As described by these mentors, Kennedy's organizational culture is one that is supportive of mentoring from the individual, to small group (PLC), to department, and school wide through administration's leadership. It is evident that these mentors feel that these structures assisted them by providing authentic opportunities to engage in mentoring relationships with FYTs. When addressing the sub-research question "to what extent are these veteran teachers' influenced to mentor by organizational antecedents?", these mentors' identification of such structures (see Table 10) at Kennedy High School demonstrated that not only did they value these structures, but that these structures, in and of themselves, may have communicated the organization's support for mentoring.

*Key Findings: Structures that Support and Contribute to Mentoring*

Wanberg et al. phase	Wanberg et al. component	Wanberg et al. category	Characteristic name	Veteran mentor teachers
Phase I	Organizational context	Structure	Course subject	Acknowledges shared course permits specific support that facilitates mentoring
Phase I	Organizational context	Structure	PLCs	Identifies that PLCs permit organic platform and opportunity for mentoring
Phase I	Organizational context	Structure	Leadership	Demonstrates an appreciation for leadership's intentionality for dedicated common planning time
Phase I	Organizational context	Structure	Department	Recognizes department's mindset, one which welcomes and supports FYTs

**District's mentoring program.** The second theme which helps contribute to how environment affects mentors' engagement with FYTs, is that of these mentors' understandings of Madison County School's (MCS) formal mentoring program. This theme accounts for 8.4% of participant responses and helps to address the question: to what extent are these veteran teachers' influenced to mentor by program antecedents? For this theme, mentors' experiences and reactions to the district's formal mentoring program were compared to the county's Mentoring Program Handbook (MPH). This theme fits under Wanberg et al.'s (2003) framework as a program antecedent of which these researchers identified six characteristics. These include (1) seeking participants; (2) matching; (3) orientation or training; (4) frequency of meeting guidelines; (5) goal

setting; and (6) program objectives. All six of these characteristics emerge to varying degrees through the MPH and in these mentors' responses. The characteristics of orientation or training, goal setting, and program objectives are specifically addressed by these mentors and demonstrated how this aspect of the mentor program contributed to engagement in mentoring FYTs. Likewise, the presence of the mentoring program can also affect the overall organizational context in that the very adoption of a program may connote the way in which the organization values mentoring.

*Experiences with and thoughts about the district's mentoring program.* The first category from this theme is that of these mentors' experiences with and thoughts about the district's mentoring program. Despite not having taken part in the formal mentoring program, informal mentors were responsible for a third of the responses for this category. Two prominent sub-categories emerged: (a) issues with training and (b) program requirement outcomes and consequences.

*Issues with training.* Some formal mentors addressed specific areas of concern regarding the mentor training they received. As Everett recalled, "But I thought there was a lot of extra stuff which was really administrative. Like check this box, respond to this discussion post, or rate this survey." He further shared,

I felt it was taught in a way that it wasn't a true relationship. They could have brought in multiple people within the county who were currently mentoring and say, OK here's how we mentor. Here are some of the things. But it was more of an accounting system - of here's theoretical mentoring rather than practical mentoring.

Jeanine, too, expressed her frustrations with training, along with a solution as well.

I think that we have all these things that we want to do. And all these things that we have to do. And with our designated amount of time, you've got to take care

of the things you have to do first. And I think that if something could have been – I don't know, some time built in differently, then we could actually work with the people we're mentoring. That we could have time to have these discussions. Because it was like we had all these mock discussions with each other. We don't need to have mock discussions. If I could spend a day - just give us a sub and actually just sat with the person I'm working. That – that would be better than 50 mock discussions.

Henry, an informal mentor, said that,

I think it would be valuable for a lot of people to look at and kind of go through that [the training]. Could have a better idea of what the district expects from mentors, how they envision the program itself.

Similarly, Josh also echoed the open access suggestion to mentoring training. "I think that the training should be advertised if you want to be a mentor. 'Cause I think if that was the case, Nate would have had the training already." Combined, these mentors' responses indicated knowledge about and concern for the program and the way in which it is delivered and made available to teachers.

*Program requirement outcomes and consequences.* One issue that emerged from the interviews with the formal mentors was that of the program requirement of completing logs, which serve to document mentor-FYT meetings and interactions. Some mentors simply did not value the logs. Jeanine, most succinctly stated her opinion when she said, "Right now, the thing I hate the most is the logs." Elizabeth, too, shared why she does not value this program requirement.

And I've told this to administration - me and pointless paperwork don't really go well together. So the number of papers I've turned in for mentoring formally is miniscule. Now that doesn't mean I'm not checking in with who I need to be checking in with. I just, I've got enough stuff to do. If it's not for any purpose, then I don't feel the desire to do it.

For Josh, the logs have become burdensome and stressful, for he does not share the same courses and PLC as his formally assigned mentor, Jonathan. He described,

I get along great with Jonathan and we have no problems, but every once in a while, I'll say, "Hey, Jonathan! Can you stop by for meeting?" And he'll laugh and say, "We'll get one of those logs filled out." But that's not how it's supposed to be.

Josh also detailed the inauthenticity meeting program requirements can produce:

...Andrew and I's [*sic*] best interactions were when I didn't have to pull a log out. And sometimes I feel like when I go to Jonathan, like today. And I say, "Hey – can we meet? I know I talk to you every day, but can we sit down together, and fill out goals and how you feel about mentoring?" It's a burden that you shouldn't have to do, honestly. Like Jonathan is coaching right now. The fact that he had to take 10 minutes out of his planning period for us to have a conversation that we would probably have had informally at lunch anyways, seems like not good. I understand why they make you do the formal, fill in the logs, because I'm sure there are some people that would never talk to their mentee. But I feel like, I talk to him every day some days about teaching, some days about coaching. Some days about the baseball game the night before. That's still mentoring without it being like what goal did you have? Did they reach their goal yet? And stuff like that. I feel like sometimes it gets in the way.

Everett also explained how documentation clouds what he feels the real purpose of the mentor – FYT relationship should produce:

Well as long as you have to document every single hour in order to get this time, when the reality is you can be with that person 30 minutes here and 20 minutes there, and they don't really reward you for the mentoring – it just eats up your time to do it. So instead of just saying, hey, look here's what we want you to do – develop this relationship. You know, check in on them once a week, have an informal conversation, and for doing that your reward is 90 recertification points - whatever it is.

For these mentors, the program's documentation requirement frequently overshadowed or obstructed the true purpose of what they believed should stem from a mentor and a FYT's interactions. And even though Elizabeth expressed an understanding for the need

for accountability when she said, “I get you want a piece of paper with what I did. But this isn’t why I do it,” the requirement still left a sense of frustration for these mentors.

*District’s mentoring program’s goals, expectations, and beliefs.* A final category that emerged from this theme is one that both the district’s Mentor Program Handbook (MPH) and the mentors themselves contributed to. In this category, MCS’s mentoring program goals for FYTs were explored. This emerging category helps to demonstrate the extent of overlap between the district’s intentions and the mentors’ perceptions. Before these comparisons are explored, the MPH provided insight regarding the district’s beliefs about the construct of mentoring, which helped to contextualize the program’s subsequent goals for FYTs.

*District beliefs about mentoring.* A number of beliefs regarding mentoring surfaced from the MPH. One belief that emerged was that of the role of collaboration in mentoring. For example, the MPH stated, “collaborative mentoring provides multiple tiers of support for beginning educators at the school level” and that the relationship between mentor and FYT is one that is characterized as collaborative and “promotes ongoing reflection and refinement of classroom practices” (p. 3). Likewise, an awareness for FYTs’ needs and also the responsibility to address these needs was also demonstrated. “It is the responsibility of school-based induction leaders on the Educator Support Team (EST) to design the school’s mentor and induction program to meet the needs of their stakeholders” (MPH, p. 4). And that attention to FYTs’ needs can best be addressed in the workplace where, “learning opportunities related to mentoring and induction can be more easily differentiated” (MPH, p. 3). Just as mentors identified in the theme “mentor

characteristics and personal experiences” their own awareness of and sensitivity to the FYT experience, Madison County also demonstrated an awareness of FYT needs, took responsibility for implementing a program to address these needs, and approached it in a collaborative fashion within the FYT’s workplace.

*District’s goals for FYTs.* This particular sub-category reveals the comparison of the district’s goals for FYTs and these mentors’ perceptions of the district’s goals for FYTs. For these mentors, the most common response about the district’s goal for mentoring focused on the type of teacher mentoring would help to create. Amanda stated that it was "for mentors to be able to mold first-year teachers into good teachers." Jeanine’s response provided a specific component, that of reflection, when she answered, “to create better, more self-reflective teachers.” Elizabeth, too, reiterated the notion of the program’s goal to be that of teacher quality when she said,

I think the ultimate goal is to be sure that we have quality teachers in every classroom. So to do that they’re going to partner everybody with a mentor. Obviously the goal would be to make reflective educators who are interested in and committed to continuous improvement. I think that’s their goal. Making that happen and having the goal are two different things.

Elizabeth’s statement is echoed by the district’s goals for FYTs. For the district expected that FYTs “observations of professional educators...[will] promote professional growth” (MPH, p. 15), and that the district seeks to find mentors who “embrace[s] mentoring as an investment in professional learning and continuous improvement” (MPH, p. 11).

Another common perception of these mentors was that the district also wanted to retain FYTs through mentoring. As Henry shared, “they’re looking at the retention,

especially retention of good teachers.” This is also echoed by Jeanine who felt that the program had a few goals, and one of those was, “new teacher retention.” Finally, Amanda believed that the district’s goal for mentoring was, “for first-year teachers to continue teaching.” The handbook made mention that, “mentors are the foundation of a successful induction program. Research has consistently shown that providing new professional educators with highly trained mentors can increase satisfaction levels, improve student achievement, and increase staff retention” (MPH, p. 12) yet this is the only connection made between mentoring and the outcome of FYT retention expressed in the MPH. These mentors’ program-based experiences focused on issues with training and the accessibility for all teachers to have mentor training and dislike the requirement to document interactions with FYTs. The district beliefs echoed some mentor beliefs regarding mentoring in that both expressed an awareness for FYTs’ needs and take a collaborative approach to mentoring. With regard to mentoring outcomes, the district and these mentors expressed similar outcomes for the types of teachers mentoring can help create, while only mentors expressed that they believed the district was also combatting retention issues through mentoring (see Table 11). The way these mentors responded to their environment and in particular to the formal mentoring program will be explored in the next theme “obstacles to the act of mentoring.”

Table 10

*Key Findings: District's Mentoring Program*

Wanberg et al. phase	Wanberg et al. component	Wanberg et al. category	Characteristic name	District Program	Veteran mentor teachers
Phase I	Program antecedents	Orientation or training session	Content		Express frustrations but provide recommendations for training improvement
Phase I	Program antecedents	<i>Program requirements</i>	Documentation		Express frustrations over logs
Phase I	Program antecedents	Goal setting/ Program objectives	Beliefs about mentoring	Awareness for FYT needs  Responsibility to address needs  Collaborative approach to support  Site based	
Phase I	Program antecedents	Goal setting/ Program objectives	Goals for FYTs	Professional growth and continuous improvement	Quality teachers who are reflective, seek continuous improvement  FYT retention

*Note.* Categories in italics represent possible expansions to Wanberg et al.'s (2003) framework for this study's population, mentor teachers.

**Obstacles to the act of mentoring.** The third theme, “obstacles to the act of mentoring,” addresses the ways in which the context of Kennedy High School contributed to the extent to which these veteran teachers' were influenced to mentor by organizational and program antecedents. Collectively, these seven mentors spent the

least amount of time on this theme, for it accounts for 4% of all responses. The obstacles these mentors identified, for the most part, can be classified using one of three antecedent components from the Wanberg et al. (2003) framework: (a) participant; (b) program; or (c) organizational in nature. Of the three primary obstacles identified by these mentors, the first, requirements of MCS's formal mentoring program, naturally aligns to the framework under program antecedents. The second obstacle, which was identified even more frequently than the formal mentoring program, was that of job-related obstacles. The third obstacle these mentors identified was that of structural obstacles found at Kennedy High School.

***Program obstacles.*** These mentors identified the mentor training component as a program obstacle to mentoring. For Josh, he believed that having already received the district's mentor training was the reason why he, and not Nate, was selected to be Jonathan's mentor. "Honestly, the only reason I think that Nate wasn't Jonathan's mentor was because I have the training already. I think that's the only reason." However, this training only proved to impede Nate's ability to be assigned as Jonathan's formal mentor; for he still served as an informal mentor to him. Jeanine identified another training related obstacle, yet it was potential in nature. She said, "If I had to do the training every year, I don't know if I could handle it." Nate similarly speculated on a potential training obstacle when he said,

Maybe the fact that I would have to pay for some kind of course that I would never be reimbursed for and doing it for five years and never make up for it. I don't know, maybe something like that.

Both Jeanine and Nate demonstrated that they could not identify anything in the present that would prevent them from formally mentoring FYTs. In contrast, Everett expressed a program related obstacle of documentation and the associated time involved to complete this program requirement.

Yeah, you can mentor, but you don't get all the hours, so you could mentor 2 or 3 years to get the maximum number of hours. So it became like, OK so do I want to spend my time or do I want to do a class and a couple of conferences and not that? So that's my only part of it – look we're going to reward you...but they want you to document literally every minute you met to prove you earned those hours. Which was sort of, I don't know, became that in the end, you were putting time in, but you were using all your off time to help that person. You were using your planning period, you were using your PLC. So the time you were using, yeah, I understand there's a certain amount of time, [but] these hours were taking up my part of what I had to do, so I didn't have extra time, so it really did factor into – inconvenience isn't the right word, but it factors into the sacrifice you were making to mentor that person.

Everett's experience also identified another important obstacle frequently recognized by these mentors, that of time.

***Job-related obstacles.*** Most often these mentors acknowledged job-related obstacles that focused on the element of time. For these mentors, time was a precious commodity, one that they never had enough of. As Jeanine expressed, “it's the time more than anything...So justifying, we all could use so much more time. It helps encourage people's decisions [to mentor].” Amanda, too, identified the demands of her work,

I think I try as much as possible with time constraints, it's all about time and what I have to do. Even yesterday I was out one day for professional development and I have piles of grading and my kids are like have you graded my quiz and I'm like I just got here ten minutes ago, no I haven't graded your quiz. So there's so much going on and especially once we get towards the springtime we've got our standardized testing and things get crazy. So, at the beginning of the year it's a little more calm and it's easier to build relationships with people and mentor and check in on them. But then towards the end – good luck 'cause I'm going through it too, so it's just a matter of time and what all I have on my plate.

Henry, who expressed a desire to serve as a formal mentor made the deliberate choice to not formally mentor a FYT because of the demands of his other work-related responsibilities. He recalled,

It was something I talked to my AP about last year, the possibility of being the formal mentor for David. But we decided that with the department chair, and I'm also taking over a new course, with a new prep and department chair responsibilities and grad school responsibilities, it wasn't a good year to start that.

Although time and job demands proved to be an obstacle for Henry to serve as a formal mentor, it was not enough for him to not informally mentoring his department's two first-year teachers. As he stated,

I can't see myself being more pressed for time than I am this year, between department chair, and learning and figuring how to teach BC calculus and doing the grad school thing, so much of what I've done mentor wise, it's three minute conversations, five minute conversations here and there as needed.

***Structural obstacles.*** The final types of obstacle these mentors identified were structural in nature. These obstacles were found within Kennedy High School. For Amanda, an obstacle to her ability to formally mentor was in the simple fact that she had not been asked to mentor a FYT.

There hasn't been anybody saying, does anyone want to mentor? Let us know if you're interested. It's been more like this person is going to do it this year and next year and the year after... There's one time I was in a meeting with my assistant principal she said, oh you've got three years under your belt. You're eligible to mentor. Yeah, that would be great! And that's all I heard of it. I don't see that there's an interest inventory or anything involved.

While for Josh, the ability to share the same course with a FYT was essential. He stated, "Honestly, if they ask me to mentor somebody and we don't share a prep after this year, I might actually say no." Whereas Nate relayed that sharing the same course as his FYT

had inhibited him from providing support in the way in which he'd like. He explained, "I have not had the opportunity [to observe Jonathan]. We can't because we teach the same periods and so I've actually asked to come out of the classroom to have a cover, that hasn't happened yet." Overall, regardless of challenges in their context, these mentors still attempted to support FYTs despite program-, job-, and structure-related obstacles (see Table 12).

Table 11

*Key Findings: Obstacles to the Act of Mentoring*

Wanberg et al. phase	Wanberg et al. component	Wanberg et al. category	Characteristic name	Veteran mentor teachers
Phase I	Program antecedents	Orientation or training	Program obstacles to mentoring	Access to training
Phase I	Organizational context	Structure	Job related obstacles to mentoring	Demonstrate a desire for more time to mentor
Phase I	Organizational context	Structure	Structural obstacles to mentoring	Selection to be a mentor Shared course

**Role of organizational context and program antecedents.** These three themes help to address two questions. First, to what extent are these veteran teachers influenced to mentor by organizational antecedents? And second, to what extent are these veteran teachers influenced to mentor by programmatic antecedents? These mentors identified four essential structures within their organizational context (Kennedy HS) that support and encourage the work they do with FYTs. These included: teaching the same course as

their FYT, PLCs, their department, and administration. These structures speak specifically to the organizational context, for the structures these mentors' identified are independent of the formal mentoring program; for how same course assignment, PLCs, and department culture are fostered are contextually specific to the school site due to staffing.

Another way context has contributed to these mentors' understandings is with regard to training and the documentation required by the formal program. Although documentation requirements in the form of logs frustrated these mentors, they still persisted in engaging in the formal mentor program. This is further supported by the obstacles these mentors shared with regard to mentoring at Kennedy. For these mentors, program obstacles are not the logs per se, but rather access to training, which is a prerequisite for formally mentoring a FYT. Likewise, the job-related obstacle of time is yet another commonly cited challenge. Regardless of these obstacles, these mentors remained willing to provide support FYTs, as is demonstrated in the next section regarding the motivations of mentors, for it may help to uncover what these mentors find so important about the support they provide to FYTs in these relationships.

### **What are the Motivations of Mentor Teachers?**

The previous three themes helped to demonstrate how these mentors are affected by their context, both programmatically, through the county's formal mentoring program, and organizationally, via the structures in place at Kennedy High School. Two final themes address the guiding research question for this study: what motivates mentors to engage in mentoring relationships with FYTs? These themes, "the benefits and outcomes

of mentoring” and “what motivates mentors” help provide a detailed look into these mentors’ motivations. In certain cases, benefits and motivations may be one in the same; however, these mentors demonstrated that there are times when they are not. These themes also begin to provide a sense of perspective in contrast to the three previously addressed questions of:

- To what extent are these veteran teachers influenced to mentor by participant/relationship antecedents?
- To what extent are these veteran teachers influenced to mentor by organizational antecedents?
- To what extent are these veteran teachers influenced to mentor by program antecedents?

These questions help to inform the participant antecedents, which provide insight into these mentors as individuals, as well as organizational and program antecedents, in order to facilitate an understanding of mentors’ motivations. They can also be gauged with regard to how much these antecedents affect a mentors’ motivation to engage in mentoring relationships with FYTs.

**The benefits and outcomes of mentoring.** The theme “benefits and outcomes of mentoring” accounts for 9.1% of responses, aligns to Wanberg et al.’s (2003) third framework phase, and addresses the category of mentoring outcomes, which Wanberg et al. describe as proximal or distal in nature. As they defined, proximal outcomes focus on mentee changes but also the mentee’s overall satisfaction with his or her mentor (Wanberg et al., 2003). Distal outcomes concentrate on the outcome and consequently the

benefits of mentoring. Wanberg et al. further categorized distal outcomes with regard to the individual or group they belong: mentors, mentees, or the organization. However, these researchers most heavily addressed mentee outcomes because mentees are the focus of formal mentoring programs rather than “the processes and specific means by which mentors benefit from the formal mentoring process” and as such “are not elaborated in the [Wanberg et al.] model” (Wanberg et al., 2003, p. 92). In contrast, although these mentors addressed the benefits and goals they have for FYTs, they concentrated more so on the benefits and outcomes for themselves.

*FYT benefits.* These mentors identified a wide range of benefits that FYTs received from mentoring, regardless of its formal or informal origin. One common benefit these mentors identified was that a mentor provided a FYT with a pathway to support. As Josh shared,

It’s just nice to know you have somebody that you know you can go ask a question to and they’re not going to look like you’re crazy or like shouldn’t you know that?... Just knowing there’s always somebody you can go to.

Jeanine also captured this same pathway benefit when she stated, “So it’s nice to have that these are people who want you to ask them for help. Who want to spend time with you so that new people don’t feel like they’re taking time.”

Another key benefit of mentoring that these mentors commonly identified was improvement in a FYT’s teaching, but also success extending beyond the first-year. As Nate commented,

I think he’s going to be a better teacher quicker. I don’t think there’s any doubt. He’s going to be a better teacher quicker.... So I would say that’s his main benefit. He’s going to be a very good first-year teacher.

Likewise, Amanda also spoke about the importance of mentoring helping FYTs become the best FYT that they can when she said,

And I just think that if you've been mentored about how the best way possible to get an idea across to students, then you're going to be the best teacher you can at your first year – the best possible that you can be.

Meanwhile, Josh's approach integrated his own shortcoming to help his FYT. He described,

The thing I try to do more than anything else is I try to think where I messed up even as a 7th year teacher. When I mess up with something, I like to immediately go tell Jonathan what I messed up on so that he doesn't do it. So I guess they get some foresight. Some like, this might be something I need to keep an eye on. So I think they get the perspective, they can kind of know what's coming.

Finally, Henry discussed the conversations he had with FYTs David and Emma as he began course assignments for the following school year,

I want to give you [David and Emma] the opportunity to teach that same course over again, now that your first year, you've got past your first year –figured out the inner workings. Now you can really tackle that course again. And they both had the same response. "Yeah, that's exactly what I want to do. I've gotten used to everything this year, I've got a feel for everything this year, next year I can look at it and say this is what I want to change, here's how I want to do it differently." That's kind of the biggest benefit of having that strong mentor teacher for a first year.

*Goals for FYTs.* The goals these mentors identified for FYTs appeared to be more specific in nature than the benefits identified from being mentored. The following demonstrate the variety of these mentors' desires for the FYTs they mentor. Elizabeth expressed,

I want continuous improvement. I want them to constantly be wanting to work with other teachers to not only improve their own classroom, but to help it improve the other classrooms as well. And to recognize their value in that. I don't know how many times, I need to hear what you say, 'cause you're gonna make me better that's just as important as me trying to help you find the copy room.

Jeanine, too, spoke to FYTs knowing their own value when she said she wants them to know “they’re bringing something to the table, to the department.” Whereas Josh emphasized, “I want them to be able to next year be able to take what they’ve done this year and not have to like start over, but be able to build on it.” For Jeanine and Nate, part of their goals for FYTs pointed to how an FYT’s practice remains student-centered in nature. As Jeanine stated, “I want them to feel like they’re making a difference for kids.” Nate explained,

And I hope that he is able to adopt one thing from me. Always question, why is this better? Why is this good for kids? I hope that’s the one thing he does, ’cause that’s what I - every single argument I have in education is – Ok, so how is this benefiting kids?

Finally, these mentors’ goals also included that of FYT retention, as when Amanda voiced, “I want them to teach for many years to come.” Or when Henry said,

Whatever I can to make that process simpler and easier then it’s going to give a better first-year experience and spring board them into their second year where they are more confident and hopefully give them, make it easier to retain them in their profession, and kind of give a good base to stand on and grow on.

And finally for Nate, the issue of being a good teacher resurfaced but also the concern that it is ongoing. “My goal with him is to make him a good teacher – long term.”

Although these goals are varied, they revealed that these mentors have a clearly defined outcome for their FYTs.

***Mentor benefits.*** Of all the benefits and outcomes from mentoring relationships identified, the responses regarding mentor benefits accounted for half of the total categories identified in this theme. With one exception, key areas identified all revolved around the effects these relationships had on these mentors’ teaching practice. These

benefits included: teaching practiced infused with new ideas and perspectives, mentoring exchanges supporting growth and change in the mentors' practice, and the opportunity for mentors to reflect on their own teaching practice. A final benefit these mentors identified was with regard to the relationship itself.

*Teaching practice infused with new ideas and perspectives.* For these mentors, exchanges with FYTs provided an opportunity for their practice to be exposed to new ideas and FYTs perspectives. Even junior mentors, such as Josh with 7 years of teaching experience, are appreciative of the new and creative ideas FYTs can offer. He shared,

The other thing is I've been teaching the same prep for five years now. And it's the exact same prep. So I could literally print off my work from last year, put it in the copy center, and hand it out. But and I like to think that I wouldn't do that anyways, but the fact that I'm talking to new teachers who have new ideas has helped me make sure I don't - my stuff doesn't get stale I suppose - as I've been doing it a while. It's helped a lot with that.

Henry also commented that he had, "gained a lot of good ideas this year from David coming in with some new perspectives." While Elizabeth said that these FYT exchanges have helped to keep her teaching "fresh."

*Mentoring exchanges supporting growth and change in mentors' practice.* The benefit of gaining new ideas and perspectives these mentors spoke of have in turn fostered change and growth in these mentor teachers' practice. As Josh explained,

Just kind of keeping me on my toes and reminding me of the stuff good teachers do that I sometimes forget to do because I've been doing it for a while. You fall into a rhythm so it kind of upsets my rhythm, which is a good thing.

Elizabeth speaks directly to changes in her practice when she said,

I think it allows me to change. So whether it's a big idea. It was a big idea when I'm not collecting homework anymore for a grade. Homework is not part of your grade. It has nothing to do with what you know and don't know. And I'm gonna

stop doing that. Whether it's as simple as that –and going, so you haven't been in education for ten years, you're brand new. What do you think a grade should look like here? Help me here ... Just this kind of a check. I think I want to do this crazy idea. And you haven't been in education forever, you don't have these things ingrained in your brain. What do you think about this?

Finally, for Nate, changes to his practice were holistic in nature. He stated, "I think it makes me more data driven. It makes me have more connections to large concepts, and getting and drawing clear lines." These mentors' responses captured how mentoring has supported change and growth in their practice. At the same time, connected to this aspect of their practice, is the need for these mentors to first see the value in change – as demonstrated in the next benefit, the act of reflection.

*Opportunity to reflect on practice.* Combined, the benefits of new ideas, perspectives, and changes these mentors gained from working with FYTs, are supported by another benefit these mentors identified, the ability to reflect on their own teaching practice. As Jeanine explained,

You find yourself just when you're asking someone else these kinds of questions, you're asking yourself and saying to them, so I know that I didn't do this at all when I should have... You're just forced to look at yourself more.

Nate, too, demonstrated how this reflection has enabled him to make adjustments in his practice, when he described,

But it faces you when you have a first-year teacher - why are we doing these? When are we doing this? And I'm like, here you go. And he's like, I don't understand what you're saying. And I'm like ahhh let's break this down together and then it makes me realize, well if he doesn't understand, do the kids? Well maybe that's why they didn't get it last year.

Amanda, also acknowledged this benefit when she said,

I think it makes you reflect on what you're doing and if they ask you a question and how do I do this and why do I do this like that and explain. If you're

explaining to somebody why they're doing it, it kind of makes you second guess and rethink your own process, which I think is good.

For these mentors, the act of mentoring presented an opportunity to think about their own practice as they supported FYTs in their own. However, the benefits these mentors identified with regard to their own practice extended to the actual relationship they form with FYTs.

*Relationships.* One last benefit was that of the actual relationship these mentors developed with FYTs, which for these mentors, was tightly intertwined with friendship. As Nate simply stated, “selfishly, I have gained a new friend. That’s fantastic.” He also described his relationships as “very close.” Josh, also echoed the role of friendship when he shared,

It’s netted me two friends as well, which is nice, obviously. I’ve been lucky that both my mentees have turned into friends. I mean Andrew’s going to be in my wedding and I’ve only known him for a year – so it’s nice that I got lucky in that sense, that I don’t have to force interaction because we’re friends.

Amanda, too similarly expressed that, “we have a great friendship now. She’s in my wedding. She’s one of my best friends.” And as Everett said, “the guy I mentored, his name is Jim. We’re good friends today and we’ll still talk about stuff.”

The benefits these mentors identified extend to both themselves and the FYTs with whom they work (see Table 13). Some of these benefits also corresponded to previous themes, in particular with these mentors’ participant antecedents. For example, these mentors demonstrated a professional disposition of seeking growth, reflection, and improvement in their practice, which they also identified as a benefit from mentoring. A

Table 12

*Key Findings: The Benefits and Outcomes of Mentoring*

Wanberg et al. phase	Wanberg et al. component	Wanberg et al. category	Characteristic name	Veteran mentor teachers
Phase III	Distal outcomes	Protégé outcomes	Benefits	FYTs are provided a pathway to support FYTs successful first year and beyond
Phase III	Distal outcomes	Protégé outcomes	Goals	Have varied, yet clearly defined goals for FYTs
Phase III	Distal outcomes	Mentor outcomes	Benefits	Teaching practice: -infused with new ideas and perspectives -growth and change -reflection
Phase I	Participant-Relationship antecedents	Intimacy	Benefits	Value relationships, frequently referred to in terms of friendship

second example is how these mentors see relationships with FYTs as another benefit; for these mentors also shared the participant antecedent of seeking and desiring relationships with their colleagues and FYTs. Although these mentors identified a number of benefits and outcomes for entering into mentoring relationships, these benefits do not necessarily serve as the primary reason for why they take part in relationships with FYTs. The final theme, “what motivates mentors” will allow for a comparison to provide an understanding as to the extent to which these benefits affect mentors’ motivations.

**What motivates mentors?** This final theme, “what motivates mentors” accounts for 7.2% of responses and focuses on mentors’ motivations to engage in relationships

with FYTs. It differs slightly from the benefits and outcomes these mentors identified in the previous theme, for these benefits and outcomes do not necessarily serve as the motivating factor for these mentors. In other words, they serve in a secondary or as a bi-product rather than primary reason for these mentors' motivations. This theme also brings Wanberg et al.'s (2003) model full circle, because although these motivations may be due to mentoring outcomes, they are also a result of the combined experiences these mentors have had; as such these motivations are situated within Wanberg et al.'s antecedent phase, participant/relationship antecedents, while addressing the question of mentors' motivations.

Overall, these mentors addressed motivations that can be categorized based on the focus of the motivation. For these mentors, these categories included: FYT-focused, mentor-focused, incentive-focused, and student-focused motivations. One additional category also emerged, that of perceptions of colleague's motivations to mentor.

***FYT-focused motivations.*** Although all mentors identified FYT-focused motives to mentor, the informal mentors, Amanda, Henry, and Nate spent considerably more time (twice as much) identifying FYT-focused motivations. The desire to help a FYT was a clear motive for many of these mentors, but they also demonstrated how their own personal experiences and understandings affected these motivations. As Henry stated, his role as department chair affected how he views mentoring FYTs. He explained,

I look at it a lot more from a leadership perspective in terms of when we get a good teacher in the building we want to make sure we set them up for success. And everything that I can do to make David's first year and Emma's first year as easy as possible, where they don't get hung up on so many of the things that we can get hung up, I can do whatever I can to make that process simpler and easier

Whereas Nate’s experiences as a FYT still resonated with him in motivating his decision to support FYTs,

I want to make sure no one feels as uncomfortable as I did, that was horrible... This was kind of thrown at me. And I said absolutely. I had no problem – what was I going to do, let the kid drown? Absolutely not.

For Josh, he simply “like[s] helping them [FYT]s out.” Amanda shared that she had, “seen a couple of first-year teachers not teach after their first year because I don’t know if they had the support they deserved or that they really needed.” Jeanine’s also described motives fueled from her own FYT experience.

So, after getting knocked from that my first year, then into my second year having a really good experience, I guess that would be something that has led me to want to encourage other new people to do what they are capable of and what they want to do.

Finally, as Elizabeth expressed, “I don’t want to see people come in and get put with someone who will just tell them to do the minimum to get buy.” Regardless of these mentors’ personal experiences serving as a trigger to motivate their mentoring, they all feed the same FYT-focused motivation.

***Mentor-focused motivations.*** Similar to these mentors’ FYT-focused motives, mentor-focused motives also elicited a set of wide responses. For Elizabeth, motivation resided in the improvements her teaching practice yields from the exchanges she has with FYTs. As she stated, “That’s my number one – it gives me new strategies whether it is approach to a concept or a teaching strategy in the classroom.” She further revealed, “I do it, `cause I love it.” Josh’s motivation focused on the personal satisfaction from working with FYTs. He stated,

I like working with new teachers. And I think it makes me and them a better teacher by us working together. I just, I like, I don't like working in my room by myself. So this gives me a way to work with other people in the department. And I like the idea that the new teacher is attached to me... I like helping them out and showing them what I do and hearing what they do to help my practice.

He also explained that being asked to mentor was a validation of his teaching abilities,

On a personal level - gives me some confirmation that my administration likes what I'm doing and thinks I'm doing it well. And when we're in a school this big and I don't see my administrator in class often, knowing that they trust me with a new teacher is an affirmation that I am personally doing a good job.

For Amanda, informal mentoring was a pathway to one day becoming a formal mentor.

She expressed, "One day I do want to be a formal mentor, so hopefully people will see I'm helping somebody else informally, they might recommend me. Maybe she would be good at doing this formally."

*Incentive-focused motivations.* The MCS district provided a monetary stipend to formal mentors and recertification points. These mentors addressed these incentives in a wide variety of importance with regard to their motivation to mentor. Formal mentors Josh and Elizabeth held similar views regarding incentives as motivation to mentor. As Josh said, "The pay is a very minimal part of it. I would do it without the pay." Or Elizabeth who explained,

I don't do it for the money 'cause I don't get paid. No one's turning me in for mentor of the year because I can't do my paperwork. I do it 'cause I love it. I just like, I love education... The fact that I have the opportunity to work in the same department with two teachers I taught – not to mention the other two or three that in the building that I taught – to work with them – very closely on better educating students through math – I mean. It's just awesome. You know the fact that they are OK with that. That fact they were willing to walk in this door. Oh Johnson's there, I guess I'll come. Just that alone is fabulous.

Even Nate, who is not a formal mentor, said that, “I’d gladly, proudly do it for zero pay and zero recognition. Because I don’t want it. It doesn’t matter to me.”

In contrast, the last two formal mentors, Jeanine and Everett spoke more directly about the motivation incentives can foster. However, Jeanine’s comment focused on how the incentive affected completing a program requirement, the logs, not the actual act of mentoring. For she remarked, “So yesterday I really didn’t want to spend my day off writing all these logs. But when you figure \$700 dollars for a few hours on logs, I’m like OK.” Finally, Everett’s opinion represented the most incentive-based motivation to engage in formal mentoring compared to the other mentors when he spoke about the importance of the district offered incentives. He said,

So the idea that why would I take on a harder task for no more money, no more benefit no more anything, beside out of the goodness of your heart, you know – I’m sacrificing other time that I could be spending, and that time is going to come from something. It’s going come from my program, my family. How do I justify that besides I’m doing something good for somebody? I think that, I don’t know how programs do it without any incentives.

These mentors demonstrated a wide variety of responses to the strength of incentives affecting their motivation to formally mentor FYTs.

***Student-focused motivations.*** One last type of motivation identified by these mentors to mentor FYTs centered on a group external to the mentoring relationship dyad - that of student-focused motivations. As Everett explained, “if you don’t have good first-year teachers, there’s going to be a whole crop of kids that don’t know what they’re doing.” And as Henry articulated, he felt it important to help, “especially strong teachers like David and Emma, and keep them in the profession, because of all the good they can

do. Anything I can do to help them with that, I feel like at this point it's my responsibility." Or when Nate stated,

So I do think it is our responsibility as teachers to make sure that someone isn't drowning, not just to save them, but what about the kids that are in that classroom? What about the kids in there? That you decided I'm going to be selfish and not give them any of my stuff or talk about techniques, and then he goes in front of kids and he's like OK, well democracy yeah, vote. Come on! What kind of justice is that?

Or when he further shared,

Again, it's selfish reasons. I want kids to be better. And I will not, if I have the opportunity to influence teachers to be positive and to have this better outlook and to teach at a high level and have rigor and 21st century skills and focus and build on those things.

*Perceptions of colleagues' motivations.* Again, as in the previous types of motivations these mentors described, perceptions regarding their colleagues' motivation to mentor FYTs also varied widely in nature. These mentors perceived that their colleagues also shared FYT-focused motivations to mentor. As Henry shared, "So I think with that, it's the teachers that do end up mentoring do it because they care and they feel like they can either give something back or they should give something back." For Jeanine, she believed that, "I also think there are a lot of people out there who have a rough beginning experience or know what it's like to be new at something and just want to help people." Similarly, Amanda referred to the mutual understanding of having experienced a first year of teaching motivating her colleagues. "I think that pretty much every body - they've been through the first year process before - and they know how it is, that they want to help someone else out that's going through that."

These mentors' perceptions of their colleagues' motivation to mentor also included identification of incentive-focused motivations directly affecting such engagement in relationships with FYTs. Elizabeth expressed that incentives were instrumental in some of her peers' decisions to mentor when she said, "I think there are people who will not do it unless it's a paid position. There are people who will not do it unless you get recertification points." Or Henry who expressed, "Those that do mentor, are the ones that are doing it for a little bit extra money or whatever the compensation is." Or Josh when he stated, "There are probably occasionally teachers that do it for the recert points because it can get stressful when you need them and don't have them." And finally as Jeanine speculated, "I do think the recert and money is that extra push for a lot of people."

Overall these mentors demonstrated how their motivations to mentor not only stem from varied personal experiences and self, or mentor-focused mentors, but also incorporated FYT and student-focused motivations along with incentive-focused motivations. However, these mentors' perceptions of their colleagues' motivation to mentor only included FYT- and incentive-focused motivations (see Table 14).

Table 13

*Key Findings: What Motivates Mentors?*

Wanberg et al. phase	Wanberg et al. component	Wanberg et al. category	Characteristic name	Veteran mentor teachers
Phase I	Participant Antecedents	Attitudes	Motivation	Help-based FYT-focused motivations with varied trigger experiences Mentor-focused motivations Incentive-focused motivations with varied strength Student-focused motivations
Phase I	Participant Antecedents	Attitudes	Attitudes about colleagues' motivation	Help-based FYT motivations Incentive-focused motivations

**Mentors' motivations.** These two themes help to address the overarching research question, what are the motivations of veteran teachers regarding mentoring first-year teachers? by furthering an understanding of what makes these mentors engage with FYTs. These themes provide a comparison between what mentors identify as the outcomes and benefits and what they identify as the underlying motivation for the relationships they enter into with FYTs. These mentors made clear their views on how mentoring benefits FYTs in both the way it provides a pathway to support for FYTs and how it can help FYTs be successful. These mentors also identified how mentoring benefits their own teaching practice through the acquisition of new ideas and perspectives, and the ability to grow, change, and reflect. Furthermore, these mentors demonstrated an appreciation for the relationships they formed with FYTs. When these

mentors discussed their motivations for mentoring they expanded beyond the confines of the mentoring relationship to include the role of incentives and the students that attend Kennedy High School. However, these mentors' perceptions of colleagues' motivations tended to shrink, leaving only FYT and incentive based motivations remaining.

### **Mentor Teachers' Engagement in Mentoring**

From the ten emerging themes, it is clear that these mentors are not only motivated to mentor FYTs because of personal reasons, but that their context plays an important role in supporting or dissuading these mentors to engage in these relationships. Findings indicated that these mentors provided varied support to their FYTs; they were responsive to an FYT's individual needs and remained in contact with them primarily in the form of face-to-face conversations and discussion. In turn, this knowledge helped to inform who these mentors were - for they shared a number of participant antecedents. Likewise, these mentors had clear professional dispositions - they sought growth, change, and reflection in their practice, which in part contributed to their motivation to mentor FYTs because exchanges with FYTs fulfill this need. These mentors also had clear ideas about teacher and mentor quality and the negative outcomes poor teachers and mentors can have on FYTs. They also demonstrated an awareness for how specific structures in Kennedy High School served to support mentoring, either formally or informally, with FYTs. These included the role of shared course, PLCs, the department, and the administration. Although these mentors tended to dislike the formal mentor requirement of logs, this requirement was not in and of itself a deterrent to participate in formal mentoring, rather lack of time was a frequent obstacle. Although not insurmountable, it

did affect some of these mentors' choices to engage in mentoring informally rather than formally. Finally, these mentors' motivations varied widely, as they demonstrated FYT-, mentor-, incentive-, and student-focused motivations.

## **Chapter Five: Conclusions, Discussion, and Implications**

The purpose of this study was to gain an understanding of the motivations of veteran teachers regarding mentoring first-year teachers (FYT). Based upon Wanberg et al.'s (2003) dynamic process model, three additional sub-research questions were addressed. These questions permitted a growing appreciation for how participant antecedents, program antecedents, and organizational context influenced these mentors to engage in formal or informal mentoring relationships with FYTs.

### **Conclusions**

This study presents a picture of mentors whose profession plays an integral role in how motivations to mentor are shaped. Not only did the act of mentoring fulfill these mentors' professional dispositions, but through their participation in mentoring, these mentors provide multilayered support, which not only affected FYTs, but by extension themselves and their school organization as a whole. Categorically, these mentors' motivations to engage in mentoring can be organized into four main groupings: (1) FYT-focused; (2) mentor-focused; (3) incentive-focused; and (4) student-focused motivations. Although these four foci appear neatly sorted, they were the result of multiple factors affecting mentors' motivations: these mentors' participant antecedents (career experiences and professional dispositions) and their context (MCS's formal mentoring program and Kennedy High School). These antecedent categories also provide rich

details to help deepen an understanding of how these four motivational foci have emerged. In particular, these mentors' participant antecedents play a significant role in addressing their motivations, while the program's antecedents and organizational context may affect motivations via the obstacles to and supports for the act of mentoring. Of note is that these mentors' motivations appear unaffected by formal or informal mentor status, for it did not generate distinctions in motivations to engage in the act of mentoring FYTs.

In addressing the first sub-research question regarding the extent to which veteran teachers are influenced to mentor by participant antecedents, the findings indicated that these mentors' clearly-stated beliefs regarding the teaching profession and their own professional dispositions motivated them to engage in mentoring FYTs because it fulfilled their need to develop relationships with colleagues, provided opportunity for reflection on their teaching practice, and ultimately contributed to their professional growth. Also connected to these professional dispositions were these mentors' distinctions in teacher and mentor quality. These mentors not only saw poor quality teachers failing to embrace the same practices to improve their teaching practice, but they were also concerned for the negative outcomes such teachers and mentors may have on FYTs. Furthermore, these mentors' own understandings of the FYT experience stemmed from their own experience as FYTs, suggesting that the education profession, in particular, poses a unique entry year experience, which remains so memorable to veteran teachers it serves an elemental guiding force in the type of support mentors provide to FYTs but also the motivation to mentor FYTs.

Just as this study identified participant antecedents that influenced these mentors' motivations, it also sought to understand how program antecedents from the district's mentoring program affected veteran teachers' motivation to mentor FYTs. The findings indicated that the program requirement of submitting logs documenting mentor-FYT interactions was an obstacle that yielded frustration in these mentors. The findings also revealed similarities and differences between their perceptions of the program's goals compared to those stated in the school district's Mentor Program Handbook (MPH).

Additionally, this study investigated how the organization itself may affect mentors' motivation to engage with FYTs. These mentors identified four structures that play valuable roles in supporting the act of mentoring: (a) teaching the same course subject as the FYT; (b) PLCs; (c) the academic department; and (d) leadership. Likewise, these mentors also identified three types of obstacles to the act of mentoring the organizational context: (a) program-; (b) job-; and (c) structure-related obstacles. Such identification indicated that these mentors were aware of their organizational context and understood how supports and obstacles affected the act of engaging with FYTs.

The preceding sub-research questions not only deepened an understanding of these mentors' motivations, but they also contributed to the overall understanding of why veteran teachers are motivated to mentor FYTs. Ultimately, these mentors' motivations can be categorized as: (1) FYT-focused; (2) mentor-focused; (3) incentive-focused; and (4) student-focused. Not only did these mentors see mentoring as a path for supporting and assisting FYTs in becoming successful practitioners during their first year on the job and beyond, but they provided this assistance out of a genuine desire to help the FYT.

These mentors also identified benefits for themselves. For example, the fulfillment of professional dispositions such as growth in and reflection about their teaching practice and the satisfaction of engaging in professional relationships, which developed into friendships. However, student- and incentive-focused motivations were minimally addressed by these mentors.

Despite mentor status (formal or informal) or years of teaching experience (6 – 23 years), fundamentally, these veteran teachers saw mentoring playing a crucial role not only for the FYT, but perhaps more importantly, for themselves. These mentors revealed a variety of motivations to mentor, and combined findings intimate that the act of mentoring is tied to these mentors' professional dispositions of an effective teacher, suggesting that teachers' overall understanding of the act of mentoring, and therefore their motivation to engage in mentoring, may be tightly intertwined to who they are as teachers.

## **Discussion**

This research contributed to the existing body of mentoring literature in two main ways. First, because the corpus of extant mentoring literature is vast, for it spans a wide variety of fields and participants, the alignment of this study's findings to Wanberg et al.'s (2003) pre-existing conceptual process model of mentoring, answered the call to "move the mentoring literature forward" (p. 112), by studying mentoring of FYTs. Second, this research addressed the frequently missed perspective of the mentorand provides and even less investigated perspective, that of veteran teachers who mentor FYTs. For as many states continue to adopt induction programs, which frequently

provide a mentoring component for FYTs, understanding the ways in which teachers as mentors' are motivated to engage in mentoring relationships is key to providing this important avenue of support.

Before discussing the findings as they pertain to each research question and Wanberg et al.'s (2003) framework, it is important to address this study's contribution to the literature regarding the comparisons of formal and informal mentors of FYTs in the same setting. Not only does it provide context for other key findings, but it also, to the knowledge of the author, is the first study to compare formal and informal teacher mentors' motivations of mentoring FYTs within the same setting. However, because of the finding that the formality of the mentoring relationship appears to have little bearing on these mentors' motivations to engage in relationships with FYTs, future attention to organizational supports may elicit increased focus, for these mentors recognized structural supports within the school as crucial to the act of mentoring, independent of mentoring formality. Additionally, when obstacles to the act of formal mentoring occurred, these mentors still pursued participating in mentoring informally. This discussion of these results will begin by placing the findings in the context of Wanberg et al.'s (2003) framework of participant, program, and organizational antecedents.

**Participant antecedents.** In general, findings from this study regarding participant antecedents of mentors aligned with Wanberg et al.'s (2003) framework. This is helpful for two reasons. First, by adopting Wanberg et al.'s model the present study helped underscore the model's utility and helpfulness to the mentoring community at large. It also, by Wanberg and colleagues' design, can include formal and informal

mentoring relationships and accommodate additional categories as a result of new research.

Across disciplines, researchers have studied mentors' and mentees' participant antecedents pertaining to the effects they have on mentoring relationship outcomes (Eby et al., 2013; Ghosh, 2014; Mitchell, et al., 2015; Wanberg et al., 2006). In particular, knowledge about these antecedents is useful in the pairing of mentors and mentees. However, the participant antecedents that this study revealed frequently focused on antecedents that were closely tied to the participants' profession. As such, one contribution the current study provided is a new participant antecedent characteristic not addressed by the Wanberg et al. (2003) framework, that of professional dispositions. Although it could be argued that professional dispositions may fall under the existing component of attitude in the Wanberg et al. framework, I suggest that they are essential to the education profession, as demonstrated by their inclusion in the Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation (CAEP) standards, the Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (InTASC) standards, and in the National Board Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) expectations for teachers, and therefore serve as an individual category under the participant antecedent component. Their centrality to the teaching profession was brought forth by Katz and Raths (1985), when they asserted that professional dispositions should be an outcome of teacher education. These authors clarified the difference between attitudes, "pre-dispositions to act," versus dispositions, "a summary of actions observed" (Katz & Raths, 1985, p. 302). In addition to the frequency with which actions occur, professional dispositions, as these authors

contended, are those that “focus exclusively upon behaviors of teachers related to effective teaching in the classroom” (Katz & Raths, 1985, p. 302).

Decades later, as Shoffner, Sedberry, Alsup, and Johnson (2014) defined, “dispositions represent the habits of mind guiding teachers’ practical theory and, subsequently, their actions, views, and beliefs” (p. 176). The current study demonstrated that the professional disposition of seeking growth and change in these mentors’ practice is not only vital but frequently satisfied through the act of mentoring. Elizabeth articulated the need for continued growth in her teaching practice when she expressed, “I can’t be the same teacher I was in 1993...I can’t be that way. That’s not true – I could, but that’s just not acceptable. I can’t do that.” Furthermore, these mentors repeatedly identified reflection as being essential to their practice, which has also been identified as being strongly related to dispositions (Shoffner et al., 2014).

A new study investigating Dutch mentor teachers of student teachers may help to inform this study’s findings regarding the role of professional dispositions. Researchers van Ginkel, Verloop, and Denessen (2016) investigated the relationship between two mentoring conceptions, developmental and instrumental, and two dominant types of motivations, generative outcome and participant learning. Specifically, the nature of mentors’ conceptions as described by these authors, in particular developmental mentoring conceptions, bare similarity to this study’s mentors, for under this conception “mentors see themselves as creative partners in dialogue and cooperation about teaching” (p. 105). These researchers found that mentors with a participant learning motive (in which mentors themselves benefit in a reciprocal manner from the relationship) are likely

also to have a developmental conception of mentoring. These findings are quite similar to the current study's participant antecedents regarding professional dispositions in that these mentors not only approached mentoring as a collaborative act (symmetrical relationship) but that the act of mentoring permitted them to fulfill their need for growth in their professional practice. This symmetry (or development mentoring conception) is captured by the current study's participants when they described these relationships as, "a sharing of ideas between the two of us," "together let's do better," and "we've figured out what works for us."

Another participant antecedent of these mentors is that their own experiences as FYTs appeared to motivate their engagement with FYTs. Extant literature regarding mentors of student teachers (Beck & Kosnik, 2000; Sinclair et al., 2006) and mentors of undergraduate students (DeAngelo, Mason, & Winters, 2016) found that a common motivation to work with a student teacher/undergraduate student is grounded in the mentor's own experience as a student teacher/undergraduate student. In particular, researchers have found that student teachers' mentors acted preventatively in an attempt to spare a student teacher from a poor student teacher mentoring experience (Beck & Kosnik, 2000; Sinclair et al., 2006). The current study's findings similarly revealed the importance of mentor teachers' own FYT experiences, with a focus on how these mentors remained aware of and sensitive to the challenges and difficulties a FYT faces. Unlike Beck and Kosnik (2000) and Sinclair et al. (2006), the role of poor mentor teacher quality in the current study's findings concentrated more on the interviewees' general concern

for the negative outcomes such teachers can have on FYTs, rather than their engagement in mentoring as an act of prevention. Elizabeth demonstrated this when she said,

I think it depends on the teacher. I think or a lot of people it's just part of – another aspect of the job. That teacher's gonna get all the paperwork turned in on time. That teacher is gonna make sure they get paid. That teacher is going to go to very single meeting. That teacher is going to answer every single question. But that teacher's not going to enhance the new teacher and bring them to a different level. I see it all the time. And it's unfortunate because you can see it in a new teacher. They don't want to be status quo – that's why they're a teacher. But if that person is put with a status quo teacher, they're gonna think, well am I just wrong? So I think it's very important who – the other aspect here is at least that teacher does have the opportunity to work with other people who hopefully have this mindset of let's elevate where we are.

Perhaps these mentors spoke about poor mentor teacher quality in this way because although an FYT is assigned a formal mentor, they are not strictly beholden to any one teacher as they are as student teachers, for FYTs are full-fledged colleagues and are not formally evaluated by their formal mentor. In other words, the student teacher mentors Beck and Kosnik (2000) and Sinclair et al. (2006) studied were motivated to take on a student teacher to directly stop the prospect of a student teacher being assigned to a poor mentor, while FYT mentors may see the role they play as an aide to a FYT's professional growth.

Related to the role participant experiences play are two studies which may help support the current study but also provide contrast. Allen et al.'s (1997) study of human resource professionals found that 68% of participants expressed that their own mentee experiences influenced their participation in serving as mentors. As Jeanine shared, there is a direct connection between experience and motivation:

So, after getting knocked from that my first year, then into my second year having a really good experience, I guess that would be something that has led me to want

to encourage other new people to do what they are capable of and what they want to do.

Likewise, Allen (2003) found that other-oriented empathy was linked to willingness to mentoring in her study of business professionals and engineers. As demonstrated by the current study, this empathy is rooted in the challenges these mentors faced as FYTs themselves. As Nate explained, “I want to make sure no one feels as uncomfortable as I did, that was horrible... I had no problem [with informally mentoring a FYT] – what was I going to do, let the kid drown? Absolutely not.”

The current study provided support for the way in which teacher mentors’ participant antecedents are deeply intertwined with nature of teachers’ work and the motivations to mentor in two key ways. First, mentor teachers’ professional dispositions are satisfied through the act of mentoring, and second, their own experiences as FYTs play an essential role in engaging in mentorship. However, this study also found there are also other factors that influence teacher mentor motives. One such factor can be attributed to program antecedents.

**Program antecedents.** Researchers studying program antecedents have frequently addressed how participant antecedents are addressed during the implementation of the formal mentoring program and subsequent outcomes. For example, some have investigated: the role of similarity in matching mentors and mentees (Hobson et al., 2009; Qian et al., 2013), the use of mentor selection criteria and mentor training (Feiman-Nemser & Parker, 1992), and mentor characteristics (Eby et al., 2004; Eby et al., 2000; Whitaker, 2000) on the outcomes of mentoring relationships. The current study’s participants were comprised of teacher mentors who were directly affected by the

program's antecedents as formal mentors and those who were indirectly affected because of the program's existence within the greater organizational context. However, as later discussed, lack of participation as a formal mentor does not preclude informal mentors from forming perceptions about the formal mentoring program.

Although Wanberg et al.'s (2003) framework proposed six program antecedents: (1) seeking participants; (2) matching; (3) orientation or training; (4) frequency of meeting guidelines; (5) goal setting; and (6) program objectives, formal mentor teachers in the current study appeared most affected by a specific program requirement. Some researchers, such as Evertson and Smithey (2000), studied how mentor training affects mentors as compared to those who mentor and are not trained. These researchers found that trained or prepared mentors' monthly-goal summaries contained slightly more elaboration than the untrained group. Meanwhile, Feiman-Nemser and Parker (1992) demonstrated that a program's conceptions of good mentoring and subsequent requirements (e.g. observations, consultation, conferencing procedures) have an effect on mentors' perceptions and practices. The four formal teacher mentors noted that completing the required logs documenting mentor-FYT interactions yielded frustration, but in and of themselves did not prevent them from mentoring FYTs. For these mentors, the element of time as documented by other researchers (Sinclair et al., 2006) played a role in completing this act, but that equally effective mentoring can occur without documentation. As Josh shared,

Andrew and I's [sic] best interactions were when I didn't have to pull a log out. And sometimes I feel like when I go to Jonathan, like today, and I say, "Hey – can we meet? I know I talk to you every day, but can we sit down together, and fill

out goals and how you feel about mentoring?” It’s a burden that you shouldn’t have to do, honestly.

Or when Elizabeth stated,

And I’ve told this to administration - me and pointless paperwork don’t really go well together. So the number of papers I’ve turned in for mentoring formally is miniscule. Now that doesn’t mean I’m not checking in with who I need to be checking in with. I just, I’ve got enough stuff to do. If it’s not for any purpose, then I don’t feel the desire to do it.

Additionally, participants, regardless of mentor formality, revealed perceptions of the program’s goals compared to those stated in the school district’s Mentor Program Handbook’s (MPH). One prevailing perception that aligned to the MPH was that the goal of mentoring was to help support the professional growth of FYTs, which also aligned to these mentors own professional dispositions. The question of the degree to or way in which program antecedents affect mentors is also highlighted by Evertson and Smithey (2000) who found no significant difference in mentors’ understanding of FYT needs when they compared pre- and post-test scores of teachers who received mentor training and those that did not. The current study’s mentors also perceived retention to be another goal of the program, one that the MPH only mentioned once. Perhaps the notion of retention was mentioned not only because of the pragmatism of helping a FYT keeps them in the profession, but that these mentors considered the investment they placed in FYTs is one that is highly personal in nature, for the relationships they developed with FYTs continued to be of great importance to them even after the completion of the mentee’s first year of teaching. The current study’s mentors were affected to some degree by the mentoring program, but what is more noteworthy were the similarities between these mentors’ perceptions regarding the program despite the difference in being trained

as mentors. This may speak to the role the greater organizational context has on affecting mentors' motivations.

**Organizational context.** Another contributing factor to mentors' motivations is that of the organizational context, for "formal mentoring relationships [are] embedded within a larger organizational context" (Wanberg et al., 2003, p. 108). That is, mentoring does not take place in isolation; for how and to what extent an organization communicates its values has an effect on its members (Wanberg et al., 2003). Furthermore, just as formal mentoring relationships are embedded in the larger organizational context, so, too, are informal relationships. As seen above regarding the current study's mentor teacher perceptions regarding the formal mentoring program, these teacher mentors also remained consistent in shared identification of supports for mentoring within Kennedy High School.

**Supports.** Recently, DeAngelo, Mason, and Winters (2016) concluded that an institution's organizational culture plays a critical role in supporting but also creating barriers to the act of faculty informally mentoring undergraduate students. Similarly, Piggot-Irvine et al. (2009) found in successful New Zealand schools, the organizational context as a whole contributes to a FYTs success. The current study also found that there were a number of structures within in Kennedy High School that supported mentoring. These supports ranged from affecting individual mentoring dyads (sharing the same course subject) and extended to small groups, PLCs and academic departments, and to school-wide leadership. As these mentors described their context, it was evident that they identified one of Johnson's (2004) three professional cultures, the integrated professional

culture, whereby professional exchanges occur between colleagues regardless of experience level and took place regardless of formality of the relationships.

*Shared course and PLCs.* Two structures that helped assist mentoring and whose functions were supported by Smith and Ingersoll's (2004) induction study were that of the dyad's similarity of teaching the same course subject and participating in PLCs. The current study found that both the mentor and the mentee teaching the same course not only facilitated the type of support given (because of an intimate and real-time understanding of content) but it often enabled the assignment to the same PLC, which provided regular and required meeting times for dyads and the collaboration with of other teachers also teaching the same course. Repeatedly, these mentors discussed the role PLCs played in supporting mentoring. As Josh described, "PLC programs create mentoring – almost group mentoring by design." And as Everett expressed, PLCs were "another opportunity for you guys to be together." Although other researchers have found that such collaborative opportunities were significant for (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004) and valued by (Sindberg, 2014) FYTs, participation in collaborative activities supported the professional dispositions by which these mentors were guided. The act of collaboration in PLCs fulfilled these professional dispositions for mentor teachers, while providing the opportunity and time to mentor. This may be one reason why mentors so frequently cited the PLCs as a supporting structure to the act of mentoring and as Aryee et al. (1996) found that opportunities to mentor also positively correlated to motivation to mentor.

**Leadership.** Another support that contributed to the organizational context is the organization's leadership, which DeAngelo et al. (2016) asserted is vital to an organization's mentoring culture. In investigating school leaders' perceptions of induction and mentoring, Langdon et al. (2014) found that these perceptions could affect the school leaders' actions in either supporting or remaining complacent about mentoring outcomes via their actions. Likewise, other researchers have found that mentors' perceptions of management's support of formal mentoring is positively related to mentors' experiences as being rewarding (Parise & Forret, 2008). Participants from the current study identified that Kennedy High School's administration had intentionally supported PLCs as Everett explained not only the commitment, but the consequences of supporting mentoring in this way,

I think our admin has probably done a real good job at just - number one, I know how hard it is to get common planning – that they set that up. Honestly, I don't know how you develop an informal relationship without common planning. Before when we had random off periods, yeah, you could be sitting there with an algebra teacher and geometry one teacher, and probably those people never taught that stuff before, but maybe they have taught – they're not teaching that stuff now. I think they do they go above and beyond, I think, giving us common planning.

Everett's comment illustrated these mentors' awareness for how leadership's actions were recognized and the precise way in which these actions influenced opportunities for mentoring.

**Academic department.** Finally, these mentors also identified their own academic departments as supporting the act of mentoring. As Aspors and Bondas (2103) shared, school communities shape FYTs experiences and as Qian et al. (2013) found, higher perceptions of collective responsibility were strongly associated to interactions with

mentees. It appeared at Kennedy High School that the academic departments not only supported and shaped FYTs, but they also helped to reassure mentor teachers; for their efforts were not individual in nature but rather part of a larger community of like-minded support. Similarly, DeAngelo et al., (2016) also found that a “shared culture...where faculty members as a group were committed to promoting graduate student study provided culture supports for faculty members to engage in extra-role mentorship behavior” (p. 326). The current study identified four supports that teacher mentors found assisted the act of mentoring at Kennedy High School. Through teaching the same course as their FYT, their involvement in PLCs, leadership’s commitment PLCs, and like-minded academic departments, the sustainment of both formal and informal mentoring relationships ensued.

**Obstacles to mentoring.** Just as this study identified key mentoring supports in the organizational context, so, too, were obstacles to mentoring revealed by participants. Obstacles related to teachers’ jobs, the structure of the school, and the formal mentoring program were identified, and included the specific impediments of time, teaching the same course, and the program itself. Additionally, these obstacles all posed particular implications regarding motivations to mentor and will be later addressed.

**Time.** Although PLCs carve out designated - even protected - time and space for teachers to collaborate and mentor, these mentors still frequently identified lack of time as a job-related obstacle to the act of mentoring. This obstacle was also identified by researchers studying the mentors of student teachers (Beck & Kosnick, 2000; Sinclair et al., 2006) and by mentors of PRTs (FYT) (Piggot-Irvine et al., 2009), faculty of

undergraduate students (Morales, Grineski, & Collins, 2016, O’Meara & Braskamp, 2005), and non-teacher participants (Allen et al., 1997). Because it is an inescapable characteristic of the profession, lack of time frequently thwarted the ability for the conversations needed to help support and/or observe FYTs and for formal mentors to complete required documentation.

As Henry recalled, “I was assigned a formal mentor, but the two of us didn’t teach the same subject, so most of our conversations were forced conversations. We had to find time to meet to talk...” Yet time, as Henry shared, remained just one half of the mentoring equation, for the issues surrounding shared subject returned. This is particularly noted by Josh who described,

Jonathan is my mentee this year. And we don’t have the same preps. So it’s created a very different – it took a while - we didn’t know how to approach that. ’Cause we did the same stuff at the beginning of the year, met a couple of times and discussed the same sort of things as Andrew. Like this is what you put in your syllabus. This is how you deal with this. This is how you set up your classroom - stuff like that. But then when Andrew and I then transitioned into planning, I couldn’t really do that with Jonathan because we don’t share the preps.

Not only did time present an obstacle, but the lack of shared subject stunted mentoring exchanges, as will be discussed in the Implications section below.

***Shared course.*** The obstacle of not having a shared subject became more impactful to Josh’s decisions throughout his interview. “Honestly, if they ask me to mentor somebody and we don’t share a prep after this year, I might actually say no.” The professional dispositions which guided these mentors and their *practice* could only be fulfilled if they had the opportunity and time to seek out the exchanges that could promote growth, exposure to new ideas, and time to reflect on their practice. As

researchers Desimone et al. (2014) and Ingersoll and Strong (2004) have indicated, shared course does affect mentoring outcomes for FYTs, but this study brings to light that it affects mentor teachers as well and raises implications to be discussed later in this chapter.

***Mentoring program.*** Two program-related obstacles appeared in the current study. First, not already having the district required training prevented informal mentors from mentoring FYTs. Furthermore, access to the required training can only be granted when a teacher is selected to be a formal mentor. A second obstacle were program demands, as noted by Everett, who was the only participant to outright discuss perceived costs to mentoring.

So that's my only part of it – look we're going to reward you...but they want you to document literally every minute you met to prove you earned those hours. Which was sort of, I don't know, became that in the end, you were putting time in, but you were using all your off time to help that person. You were using your planning period, you were using your PLC. So the time you were using, yeah, I understand there's a certain amount of time, [but] these hours were taking up my part of what I had to do, so I didn't have extra time, so it really did factor into – inconvenience isn't the right word, but it factors into the sacrifice you were making to mentor that person.

Just as Everett weighed his formal mentoring relationship, the weighing of costs and benefits was studied by Laschober et al. (2013) who found that mentees felt less supported when mentors reported greater costs, and more supported when mentors reported greater mentor benefits (counselor loyalty, improved job performance, and rewarding experience) from participating in the relationship.

The obstacles of time, shared course assignment, and the mentoring program itself all posed unique challenges to teacher mentors. Yet, none of these obstacles appeared to

halt the act of mentoring from taking place at Kennedy High School. The willingness to overcome these obstacles was demonstrated by the study's teacher mentors' current engagement in and future intentions to continue mentoring, but also underscored in their underlying motivations to mentor FYTs.

**Mentors' motivations.** The findings indicated that these mentors' motivations were shaped by participant antecedents, program antecedents, and organizational contexts. Together these components fed the overarching motivations as to why these mentors engaged in relationships with FYTs. Similar to other studies on formal mentor motivations of FYTs (Iancu-Haddad & Oplatka, 2009; Maor & McConney, 2015) and mentors of student teachers (Sinclair et al., 2006) as well as informal mentors from other fields (Allen et al., 1997; Janssen et al., 2014), this study found that both formal and informal mentors were motivated by a range of intrinsic and extrinsic motives.

Although four types of motivations emerged in this study, two stood out as dominating these results: FYT-focused and mentor-focused, while limited attention was given to incentive- and student-focused motivations. First, limited attention to the incentive-focused motivations may be in part to the nominal incentives formal mentoring provided and the general lack of reward structure across the profession. Morales et al. (2016) found that higher education faculty members were significantly less likely to mentor undergraduates when they felt it would not help their promotion, annual review, or tenure prospects. Lack of attention to incentives may also be attributed to the important role mentoring served in fulfilling the mentor's professional dispositions (therefore overshadowing incentive-focused motivations) and stands at odd with the

general altruistic underpinnings of the profession. Likewise, student-focused motivations also received little attention, perhaps because the benefits students receive by having a mentored FYT were a bi-product of the act of mentoring, but the present study did not explore this particular question. The remaining two types of teacher mentor motivations were that of FYT- and mentor-focused motivations, which appeared as logical foci because they involved the two individuals in the mentoring relationship.

*FYT-focused.* In contrast to incentive- and student-focused motivations, mentors spent more time discussing FYT-focused motivations, which were frequently predicated on help-based desires, but stemmed from a number of participant experiences. Although these mentors saw mentoring as a path for supporting and assisting FYTs in becoming successful practitioners during their first year on the job and beyond, these mentors fully understood the challenges and difficulties of a FYT and wanted to mitigate them. As Henry shared,

And everything that I can do to make David's first year and Emma's first year as easy as possible, where they don't get hung up on so many of the things that we can get hung up, I can do whatever I can to make that process simpler and easier.

Similarly, other researchers have found a relationship between altruism and motivation to mentor (Aryee et al., 1996; Iancu-Haddad & Oplatka, 2009; Maor & McConney, 2015) and a general desire to help others (Allen et al., 1997). Together, such findings underscore the longstanding perception that teaching is a helping profession (Combs, 1969; Pereira, Lopes, & Marta, 2015). However, as demonstrated by mentor-focused motivations below, these mentors also benefited from the mentorship they provided to FYTs.

***Mentor-focused.*** Mentor-focused motivations were often supported by the large number of professional disposition-oriented benefits mentors received to include: infusing teaching practice with new ideas and perspectives, growth and change in practice, and opportunity to reflect on practice, all supported by the relationships these mentors developed with their FYTs. As Nate described,

But it faces you when you have a first-year teacher - why are we doing these? When are we doing this? And I'm like, here you go. And he's like, I don't understand what you're saying. And I'm like ahhh let's break this down together and then it makes me realize, well if he doesn't understand, do the kids? Well maybe that's why they didn't get it last year.

Similar professional benefits such as the opportunity to self-reflect (Iancu-Haddad & Oplatka, 2009; Maor & McConney, 2015) and exposure to new ideas, research, and practice have also been reported (Iancu-Haddad & Oplatka, 2009), as is the ability to engage with colleagues (Maor & McConney, 2015). Consequently, it may be suggested that growth and collegiality were not merely serendipitous outcomes for these mentors, but served to motivate them in their mentoring pursuits.

It can be concluded from the current study that mentor teachers' understandings of mentoring FYTs and the subsequent motivations to engage in these relationships were initially rooted in mentor teachers' own experiences. However, they were also intertwined with these mentor teachers' professional dispositions as committed educators, which were further supported by the organizational context in which they teach. Although some obstacles arose to the act of mentoring, the mentors at Kennedy High School remained committed to engaging with FYTs. However, given that these mentors perceived that the organizational context was noticeably supportive of the act of

mentoring, gives rise to a number of questions regarding the strength of a teacher mentor's professional disposition to persist in an organizational context that is not perceived to be supportive of mentorship.

### **Limitations**

Although the study's findings suggest that the act of mentoring satisfies teachers' professional dispositions as educators and that the organizational context can host a number of supports to help foster mentoring, the study has limitations worthy of additional consideration. First, because only one organizational context was investigated, and that context was seen unanimously as supportive, it is unknown how mentor teachers' professional dispositions weather an organizational context that does not provide structural supports to mentoring (e.g. a shared course, PLC, leadership commitment). This study did not include participants from another organization, and perhaps more importantly, a similar high school where the identification of mentoring supports was lacking. A comparison to another school environment that did not support common PLCs for mentors and FYTs would provide a highly useful contrast, as the current study's teacher mentors frequently commented on this support structure.

Another closely related limitation is that this study's participants were purposefully selected on the basis of providing mentorship to a FYT. As Pelto and Pelto (1975) discussed, issues with this manner of selecting participants yields key-informant bias, which they suggested decreases the likelihood of the researcher "of directly confronting or observing heterogeneity" particularly because qualitative researchers are frequently dependent upon a small sample of participants (p. 7). This limitation is not

necessarily blatant, for participants' data frequently appear inherently valid; however, how they view themselves may not be as typical as the researcher may conclude (Maxwell, 2013). As such, continued research of mentor motivations across a variety of schools will diversify the participant population and help to address just how typical the current study's mentors are.

Another limitation of the study that stems from issues of key informant bias and issues of typicality in the current study's participants is the lack of a comparison to non-mentoring teachers, or other teachers, who may mentor, but for various reasons either opted not to express interest in the study or were not identified by the department chair as a potential participant. It is unknown how or to what extent this potential participant population might provide diversity with regard to how they might respond to obstacles in the environment to mentoring or in what ways they may differ in participant antecedents from the mentor teachers represented in the current study.

An additional issue associated with the study's purposefully selected participants is that no other data served to provide confirmation of these mentors' experiences. For example, other potential participants such as FYTs and administrators were not included in the current study. Therefore, triangulation in order to corroborate the study's participants is lacking (Greene, 2007). Likewise, data collection, which mainly consisted of participant interviews, was only collected in one way (interviews) and at one time. The current study's mentors demonstrated future intent to mentor, but future intent and actual follow through cannot be determined. Furthermore, how the longevity of these mentors' intentions are affected over time is unknown. Although Iancu-Haddad and Oplatka

(2009) found that a teacher's career stage affected specific mentor motives, a longitudinal study may help to discern how obstacles or supports may affect mentors' sum motivations to mentor.

Finally, data analysis was conducted by one researcher. Although inter-coder reliability was established during the initial coding phase, ongoing comparisons between the researcher and researchers external to the study did not take place through the remaining stages of data analysis. Although the researcher employed measures to help counter researcher bias (such as the researcher identity memo I maintained and my researcher journal), the possibility of researcher bias remains. Although limiting inter-coder reliability to the initial coding phase may have helped decrease variability in the coding process, the researcher could have considered using a priori coding to help mitigate the variability in codes which were used in the initial coding phase.

Although limitations of the current study exist, nonetheless, the study still contributed to the body of mentoring literature. Most importantly, it investigated the perspective of the mentor, one which has been frequently missing from the mentoring research and provides implications for both research and practice in the field of teaching and teacher education.

### **Implications for Research**

A persisting critique of the current body of mentoring research is the missing perspective of the mentor (Allen et al, 1997; van Ginkel et al., 2015). This study investigated veteran teachers' motivations to mentor FYTs, with attention to how participant antecedents, program antecedents, and organizational context affected mentor

teachers' motivations. Furthermore, the alignment of this study to Wanberg et al.'s (2003) framework provides future researchers, regardless of field, a practical way to examine findings across disciplines.

**Personal antecedents.** To examine the phenomenon of mentors' motivations, this study used purposeful selection of participants. The study found that for mentor teachers, a participant antecedent not included in Wanberg et al.'s (2003) framework - that of professional dispositions - emerged. For teacher mentors, the professional disposition regarding their own continuous improvement, growth, and reflection in their teaching practice was fulfilled through the act of mentoring and played a key role in these mentor teachers' motivations to mentor FYTs. However, because of the small participant size and purposeful selection of participants, future researchers may wish to confirm the role of professional dispositions as a participant antecedent in mentor teachers. Likewise, the study also found that mentor teachers' own FYT experiences and beliefs on issues of teacher and mentor quality were also prevalent and served to motivate mentor teachers. Combined, participant antecedents invite further investigation as they were found in both formal and informal mentor teachers, and as such, may help to identify potential formal mentor teachers that are not already being identified in the current veteran teaching population.

**Program antecedents.** Because of the prevalence of induction programs and the assignment of formal mentors to FYTs, the influence of program antecedents on mentors' motivations also requires further investigation. This study found that formal mentors had no difference in motivations than informal mentors. These mentors demonstrated the

same commitment to the profession, regardless of whether they were asked by a department chair to mentor formally or an FYT approached them informally for support. Although formal mentors at Kennedy High School discussed frustration with documentation of meetings with FYTs in the form of required logs, this frustration did not deter them from the act of mentoring. Because this study was limited to one context, future researchers may wish to explore the effects of formal mentor programs on teachers' motivations in a variety of settings or schools. Such studies would also benefit from investigating non-mentors to help identify if indeed program obstacles are hindering the act of mentoring or if other organizational barriers are responsible. Likewise, the study also found that formal and informal mentors shared common perceptions of the mentor programs goals and outcomes for FYTs regardless of participation in the mentor training program. In particular, mentor teachers perceived that the district's goal for FYTs was to foster continuous improvement in growth, which was also an example of a key professional disposition of these mentors. More research is required to understand how formal program goal perception may influence both mentors and non-mentors' motivations.

**Organizational context.** This study also found mentor teachers' organizational context played a significant role in providing supports to the act of the mentoring, but also presented obstacles as well. The current study found that the four supports mentor teachers identified: (a) teaching the same course subject as the FYT; (b) PLCs; (c) the academic department; and (d) leadership were also dependent upon the mentor's immediate, organizational context. As such, work by future researchers should focus on

examining multiple contexts to identify if there are other identifiable organizational supports to the act of mentoring or if the supports these mentors identified are also present in other organizational contexts. Likewise, including additional participants such as FYTs and administrators may also help to confirm the support structures identified in this study or help to identify new ones.

This study also found that the role of teaching the same course not only supported and facilitated mentoring interactions, but that the subsequent assignment to PLCs provided a built-in opportunity and *time* for mentoring to continue. Additionally, just as teacher mentors identified the role of shared course as a support, it was also identified as an obstacle, along with the obstacles of time and formal mentor program selection within Kennedy High School. Although these obstacles did not fully prevent the act of mentoring, for it often prompted mentors to pursue informal mentoring, the way in which mentors make decisions based on supports and obstacles warrants future investigation. Examining how shared courses, PLCs, and time influence mentors' motivations, particularly in multiple settings, might reveal how mentors weigh supports and obstacles in their decisions to mentor FYTs. Likewise, these studies might also include the use of non-mentors, for it is not known how non-mentors concur with the current study's teacher mentors and/or what they may identify as obstacles in the organizational context that completely prevented their engagement in mentoring.

**Mentor motivations.** This study found that teacher mentors are motivated primarily by FYT- and mentor-focused motives, and to a lesser degree, by incentive- and student-focused motives. The identification of these motivations is important because

there may be actions which can be taken within an organization to promote or foster these motivations. Furthermore, it is still unknown how teacher mentors' motivations affect the type of support they provide to FYTs. Future research may help determine if these specific motivational foci in mentors yield different types of mentoring support as Allen (2003) and Janssen et al. (2014) found in non-teaching participants.

### **Implications for Practice**

Just as the current study yielded implications for future research, so does it provide a number of implications for practice in teaching and teacher education. Of particular import is that research regarding veteran teachers' motivations to mentor is very limited, despite the prevalence of induction programs providing a formal mentoring component to help bridge a continuum of support as preservice teachers become FYTs.

**Participant antecedents.** This study found salient participant antecedents which revealed how closely intertwined mentor teachers' profession is with the act of mentoring. First, mentor teachers' professional disposition to seek growth and change in their practice as well as opportunities to reflect on their practice is fulfilled by the act of mentoring. Second, mentors were fully aware that the same commitment to these professional dispositions does not extend across all of their colleagues and as such, believed that not all teachers should engage in mentoring FYTs. This poses an interesting contradiction, for even though mentor teachers understood how beneficial and necessary mentoring was for their own practice (and for FYTs), they believed that certain teachers should not engage in mentoring. Likewise, this contradiction raises important questions about teacher effectiveness and the impact it has on FYTs and veteran colleagues, alike.

For how less effective teachers affect mentors' work, may also have greater implications. A third prevalent participant antecedent was the continuing role mentors' own FYT experiences play years later into their own careers as a motivating factor to provide support to FYTs. The lasting memorability of mentors' own first year in the classroom highlights the challenges of a FYT, one which is seldom rivaled by other professions' entry year. Perhaps these participant antecedents may be useful tools to assess potential mentors. For although formal mentor programs, like the one at Kennedy High School, have requirements for formal mentors, the addition of these specific antecedents might serve as another way to screen potential mentors.

**Program antecedents.** Induction programs are implemented because FYTs require a continuum of support, and consistently these programs rely on veteran teachers to help serve as formal mentors (Goldrick et al., 2012; Schwille, 2008). Although MCS's mentoring program did not appear to be the impetus for mentoring in Kennedy High School, but rather a part of a greater organizational support for mentoring, these mentor teachers were affected by the program. One key finding was that teacher mentors held shared perceptions regarding the program's goals and outcomes, regardless of whether they served as formal mentor (and received the district's training) or as informal mentor. The first of these shared perceptions was that the district desired continuous growth and improvement in the FYTs' practice. Not only was this an accurate perception of the district's goals in the MPH, but it also matched to an essential professional disposition of these mentor teachers. The second of these shared perceptions was that the district was interested in mentoring as a retention tool, which was only mentioned once in the MPH.

Perhaps mentors identified retention as a goal because the relationships they developed with FYTs frequently transitioned into ongoing friendships. In other words, mentors saw the retention of FYTs as a successful outcome of the personal investment they made in FYTs. This prompts discussion as to what degree does district vision for FYTs play a role in a mentors' motivation to mentor but also how do organizational contexts serve to support formal mentoring program goals.

Another program antecedent finding was that mentor teachers found some of the program's requirements counterproductive, which leaves open the question of what is the optimal balance between top-down guidelines in support of organic teacher mentor-mentee dyads? As Desimone et al. (2014) concluded, formal and informal mentoring provide complementary support to FYTs, and the present study's findings underscore the role the organizational context plays in supporting both types of mentoring. Formal mentoring appears to be one route to mentoring and exists as part of, rather than the dominant pathway for mentoring at Kennedy High School. If, as these participants suggested, a supportive organization facilitates educative mentoring, then we need more research on the features of the organization. The need for this research is also emphasized by another key finding, for this study found that there appears to be no motivational difference in formal or informal veteran teachers to mentor, and that the formal mentor programs incentives are not the guiding force behind mentors' decisions.

**Organizational context.** Although a formal mentoring component of induction at Kennedy High School is healthy, "as researchers have warned, the best induction programs cannot compensate for difficult work circumstances such as unwelcoming

school cultures, unreasonable jobs, and insufficient resources” (Billingsley, 2010, p. 41). As such, it is important to look at the organizational context of these mentors. This study found that Kennedy High School plays a role in supporting and hindering both formal and informal mentoring. Mentor teachers consistently identified four key supports found at Kennedy: (a) teaching the same course subject as the FYT; (b) PLCs; (c) the academic department; and (d) leadership. What is noteworthy is that these supports independently exist from the formal mentoring program, they are valued by mentor teachers, and perhaps, more importantly, they signaled that mentor teachers *know* what supports will help foster mentoring relationships. Furthermore, these supports work well together, providing a nested approach to supporting mentoring. First, organizational support was identified in that of the administration, fundamentally in the dedication to supporting PLCs. Likewise, mentor teachers identified their departments as welcoming and supportive of FYTs. The ability for mentors to share a teaching course with the FYT provided authentic ways to foster mentoring, but perhaps most importantly was mentors’ identification of PLCs as a significant role for supporting both formal and informal mentoring exchanges. I suggest that because PLCs presented organic opportunities (because of shared content that both mentor and FYT were teaching) and they permitted the time to do so that consideration for ensuring other ways schools might provide opportunities and time for mentoring are warranted. Additionally, mentors are aware of administrators and their academic department’s role in supporting mentoring, which once again indicates the role context plays in affecting mentor teacher motivations. However, the extent to which these supports play a role is unknown.

Obstacles to the act of mentoring also existed at Kennedy High School. The first obstacle, not having a shared course with a FYT, hinders dyads from sharing the same content base or the subsequent assignment to a PLC. This knowledge is of particular importance to formal mentoring programs in the assignment phase of mentors and FYTs. Another obstacle, also related to the formal mentoring program, was mentor selection and the required training course needed to be a formal mentor. It appeared at Kennedy High School that if all teachers who expressed an interest in mentoring could take the course without actually be assigned to a FYT, then issues such as mentors sharing the same course could be mitigated at the potential formal mentoring pool would be broader. However, teachers at Kennedy overcame this obstacle as they simply opted to informally mentor FYTs. A final obstacle was that of time. Future consideration as to how time for mentoring can be built into teachers work days may yield a number of benefits for both mentors and FYTs.

**Mentors' Motivations.** As van Ginkel et al. (2016) shared, the role of a mentor is typically voluntary. It is seen as an extra-role (DeAngelo et al., 2016), chosen by some and not others, making the motivations to engage in mentoring not only a valuable influence (van Ginkel et al., 2016) but worthy of continued research. Though the notion of being a mentor as something that is simply borne of altruism (Iancu-Haddad & Oplatka, 2009; Maor & McConney, 2015) or acting in goodwill (Kardos & Johnson, 2000) comes as no surprise, it also perpetuates the status quo of teaching as a flat profession. Informal mentoring comes without a tangible, commensurate reward either in public recognition or financial incentive. However, as this study demonstrated, mentors

did receive benefits, despite the lack of visible recognition, for the act of mentoring not only fulfills professional dispositions and combats the persistent isolation of the profession, but allows for relationships to develop between veteran teachers and FYTs. The relationship aspect of mentoring was significant to these mentors, particularly in the way these mentors shared how mentoring relationships evolved into strong friendships. These relationships appear to satiate mentors' desire for interaction with others as it combats Lortie's (1975) and these mentors' description of teachers' work as isolating. Likewise, it may also indicate that mentor teachers consider their work more than "just a job" (Clark, 1997) as demonstrated in the time they commit to developing these relationships via the act of mentoring, but also the concurrent emotional investment they make. Again, such implications underscore the need for teachers to have the time and opportunity for mentoring relationships to develop and stress the importance of how schools may promote structures successful to the act of mentoring.

Regardless of formality, mentors serve not only as a cornerstone of support for FYTs, but the outcome of this support affects FYTs' practice, mentor teacher practice, and ultimately the students in these classrooms. This study provides insight into why veteran teachers mentor, but when should the idea of being a mentor be first introduced? I suggest we begin with preservice teacher preparation, for as Westheimer (2008) commented, "too few teachers are adequately prepared to learn *from one another*" (p. 756). The current study's teacher mentors not only exhibited this trait as FYTs, but they also appreciated FYTs who actively sought help and were open to feedback. Furthermore, their approach to mentoring was reciprocal in nature, one which embodied the

expectation of shared learning for both mentor and FYT to occur. Although participation in mentoring is recognized as a professional disposition (see CAEP, InTASC, NBPTS), the question of how educator preparation programs (EPPs) are modeling this essential and collaborative act for their preservice teachers must be considered; for these preservice teachers will play an important role in renewing the mentoring cycle of support as they may one day serve as future mentors.

### **Significance**

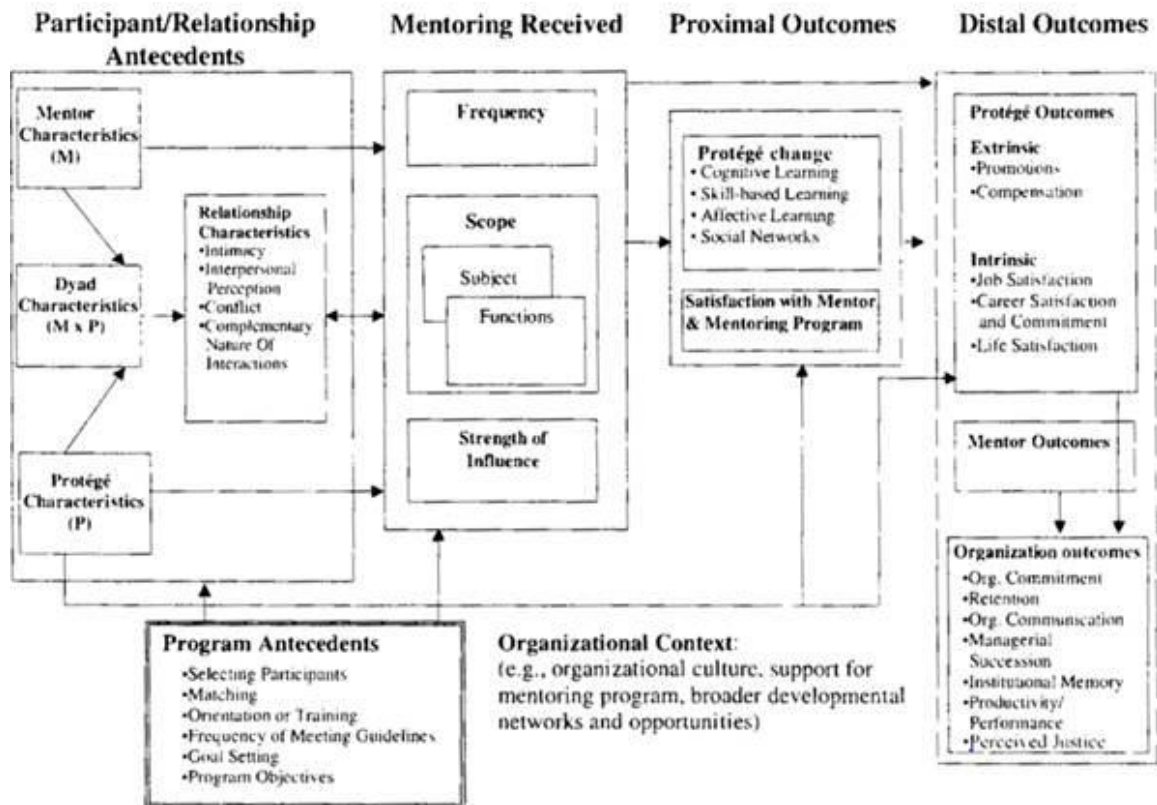
Because there is still relatively little known regarding teachers' motivations to mentor FYTs, this qualitative study helped capture details of these motivations to understand better the experiences, perceptions, and contexts that affect mentor teachers' engagement in these relationships. Specifically, this study provided additional information about mentors' motivation such as: focusing on the participant population of teachers; investigating the mechanism of these motivations qualitatively; and addressing a frequently missed perspective, that of the mentor.

Furthermore, learning about the motivations of those veteran teachers who serve the least experienced in the field is a crucial piece of understanding a critical support system the field has turned to for assisting FYTs. For as Newton et al. (1994) commented, "How we treat the least experienced among us is a reflection of how we feel about ourselves as a profession" (p. 815). Understanding more about the ways in which mentor teachers are motivated - or the ways in which their motivation may be influenced - is essential to developing an effective structure of support the field's least experienced.

Mentor teachers' motivations are not easily defined or unpacked. They are messy, complicated, highly individualized, context dependent, and call upon the recognition of the importance of teachers' voices and the weight of the professional knowledge they can share with FYTs. Despite this complexity, this study helps to highlight these mentor teachers' motivations in a way to assist in framing effective mentoring contexts, thereby providing education leaders with a greater understanding of mentor teachers in order to support, encourage, and create opportunities for such relationships to develop within schools. Because organizations play an essential role in providing supports or obstacles to the act of mentoring, such an understanding may foster authentic, collaborative environments for teachers to engage in mentoring.

## Appendix A

Wanberg et al., (2003) Mentoring Conceptual Framework



Wanberg, C., Welsh, E. T., & Hezlett, S. A. (2003). Mentoring research: A review and dynamic process model. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management*, 22, 39–124. Retrieved from <http://www.emeraldinsight.com/journals.htm?articleid=1758737&show=abstract>

## Appendix B

### Introductory Email to Principal

Dear Mr. MacArthur,

Good Morning! I hope you are having a terrific school year. As you may recall, last spring you were kind and generous enough to allow me to conduct a pilot study in your English department to investigate the motivations of teachers to engage in mentoring relationships with first-year teachers. I greatly appreciate your openness to my request and as a result of the approved pilot study, I have not only grown as a researcher but the experience informed numerous aspects of my work in preparation for my final dissertation study.

Today, I am contacting you to follow up on this original request for two reasons. First, I recently successfully defended my study's proposal to my committee and they suggested that I seek your approval to continue my study at your school, but this time with another department. I think that such a continuation of the pilot study would provide me with a deeper understanding of the phenomenon of veteran teachers' motivations to mentor because it would allow me the opportunity to study the same context. The pilot study provided me with evidence of how important organizational context is. In particular, how department and school leadership played a role in facilitating mentoring relationships within your school.

Second, I recently came to understand that publication and presentation are synonymous terms. In my original request to conduct the pilot study I had stated that I would not be publishing my results. However, I believe that what I learned regarding your teachers' experiences during the pilot study are incredibly important and that these findings would benefit other school leaders and teacher educators. I have since sought George Mason University's institutional review board approval, which is required for my presentation of the pilot, but I would like to ask permission to share my findings since that was not part of my original request. The anonymity of your school and teachers remains assured, but others should hear of the incredible lengths to which the Kennedy High School English teachers go in an effort to help their first-year peers.

I am more than happy to share my findings from the pilot study as well as any future studies that gain your approval. Should you have any further questions, please contact me

at (xxx) xxx-xxxx or my committee chair, Gary Galluzzo at (xxx) xxx-xxxx  
or [ggalluzz@gmu.edu](mailto:ggalluzz@gmu.edu).

I look forward to hearing back from you about my request to continue my inquiry at  
Kennedy High School.

Sincerely,  
Christine DeGregory  
Doctoral Candidate

## Appendix C

### Introductory Email to Department Chair

Dear Mr. Eisenhower,

My name is Christine DeGregory and I am a former English Language Arts teacher and doctoral candidate from George Mason University. I am currently working on my dissertation regarding teachers' understandings of mentoring first-year teachers. I have received district approval to complete my dissertation research at your school and was made aware of your department by your principal.

Your position as department chair allows you to identify the formal and informal mentors within your department along with a unique understanding of how mentoring takes place at your school. Because of this, I am writing to request a meeting with you to identify teachers in your department who formally and informally mentor first-year teachers along with the possibility of your interest in being interviewed so I may learn more about mentoring in your department and your own mentoring experiences.

I want to be clear that this is not an evaluation, but rather an exploration into how first-year teachers are inducted and supported.

I look forward to meeting you and learning more about your department. Please feel free to contact me via this email at [cdegredo@gmu.edu](mailto:cdegredo@gmu.edu) or at (xxx)-xxx-xxxx should you have any questions.

Christine DeGregory  
Doctoral Candidate  
College of Education and Human Development  
George Mason University

## **Appendix D**

### Recruitment Email for Mentor Teachers

Dear Mentor Teacher,

Good Morning! My name is Christine DeGregory and I am a doctoral candidate from George Mason University. I am currently working on my dissertation regarding teachers' understandings of mentoring first-year teachers. Your department chair, Ben, shared with me that you have formally or informally mentored a first-year teacher. I would be grateful to have the opportunity to interview you about your mentoring experiences. The interview will last approximately 45 minutes.

As a former English Language Arts teacher, I know how limited your free time is and I sincerely appreciate your help in sharing your experiences with me. If you decide to participate, please call or email me to schedule an interview. I will contact you a few days prior to the interview to confirm time and location and provide you with a consent form. In the meantime, below you'll find some key aspects of the consent form which may answer some common questions.

I look forward to meeting you and learning more about your mentoring experiences. Please feel free to contact me via email or at (xxx) xxx-xxxx if you have any questions.

Christine DeGregory  
Doctoral Candidate  
College of Education and Human Development  
George Mason University

#### **RESEARCH PROCEDURES**

This research is being conducted to learn more about the motivations of teachers who mentor first-year teachers. If you agree to participate, you will be asked to take part in an audio recorded interview lasting approximately 45 minutes in length. In accordance with George Mason University's Institutional Review Board policies, the audio recording will remain on a password protected computer and deleted five years after the study's completion.

#### **RISKS**

There are no foreseeable risks for participating in this research.

**BENEFITS**

There are no benefits to you as a participant other than to further research in the area of teacher motivations and perceptions regarding mentoring.

**CONFIDENTIALITY**

The data in this study will be confidential. All audio recordings and transcripts will be maintained on a password protected computer. Any possible identifying information from interviews will remain confidential. Any names referenced in interviews will be given a pseudonym.

**PARTICIPATION**

Your participation is voluntary, and you may withdraw from the study at any time and for any reason. If you decide not to participate or if you withdraw from the study, there is no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. There are no costs to you or any other party.

## **Appendix E**

### **Participant Consent Form**

#### **TEACHERS' UNDERSTANDINGS OF MENTORING FIRST-YEAR TEACHERS**

#### **INFORMED CONSENT FORM**

##### **RESEARCH PROCEDURES**

This research is being conducted to learn more about teachers' understandings of mentoring first-year teachers. If you agree to participate, you will be asked to take part in an audio recorded interview lasting approximately 45 minutes in length. In accordance with George Mason University's Institutional Review Board policies, the audio recording will remain on a password protected computer and deleted five years after the study's completion.

##### **RISKS**

There are no foreseeable risks for participating in this research.

##### **BENEFITS**

There are no benefits to you as a participant other than to further research in the area of teachers' understandings regarding mentoring of first-year teachers.

##### **CONFIDENTIALITY**

The data in this study will be confidential. All audio recordings and transcripts will be maintained on a password protected computer. Any possible identifying information will remain confidential. Any names referenced in interviews along with the school's name will be given a pseudonym. As part of a requirement of PWCS approved research the researcher is required to provide the district with a report of the study's findings. Additionally, the researcher will provide the building principal with a report of findings. The researcher will maintain participant anonymity and ensure that findings cannot be linked back to an individual participant.

##### **PARTICIPATION**

Your participation is voluntary, and you may withdraw from the study at any time and for any reason. If you decide not to participate or if you withdraw from the study, there is no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. There are no costs to you or any other party.

##### **CONTACT**

This research is being conducted by Christine DeGregory, a doctoral candidate at George Mason University. She may be reached at xxx.xxx.xxxx for questions or to report a research-related problem. You may also contact her faculty advisor Gary Galluzzo at xxx.xxx.xxxx. You may contact the George Mason University Office of Research Integrity & Assurance at 703-993-4121

if you have questions or comments regarding your rights as a participant in the research.

This research has been reviewed according to George Mason University procedures governing your participation in this research.

**CONSENT**

I have read this form, all of my questions have been answered by the research staff, and I agree to participate in this study.

---

Name

---

Date of Signature

## Appendix F

### Mentor Teacher Interview Protocol

FM=Formal Mentor  
 IM=Informal Mentor  
 PD=Professional Development  
 FYT=First-Year Teacher  
 PST=Preservice Teacher

<b>Mentoring Process Model Component</b>	<b>Key Concepts</b>	<b>Questions</b>
Participant Antecedents	Teaching Story	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Can you tell me a little bit about yourself - your teaching story?</li> <li>• What activities are you involved in at the school?</li> </ul>
Participant Antecedents	Mentoring Experiences	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Can you tell me about your first-year teaching? Did you have a mentor that first year?</li> <li>• During your first year, were there other teachers that you reached out to or did they reach out to you?</li> <li>• Can you tell me a little bit about the types of mentoring that you engage in?</li> <li>• Is there a defining experience that led you to mentor?</li> <li>• Do you see your role as a FM any differently from that of being an IM?</li> <li>• Have you ever had a negative mentoring experience?</li> </ul>
Program Antecedents	Role of Context	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Can you tell me a little bit about mentor selection/matching at your school?</li> </ul>
Organizational Antecedents		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <i>For department chair only:</i> What is your role in mentor selection/matching in the department?</li> <li>• Are there institutional incentives to mentor formally or informally?</li> </ul>

Participant Antecedents	PST Awareness for Mentoring	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What kind of mentoring PD have you experienced?</li> <li>• What are the requirements of a formal mentor? E.g., meeting times per week, documentation</li> <li>• How is the structure of school set up to embrace or unintentionally hinder formal and informal mentoring relationships?</li> <li>• How do you respond to/interact with the FYTs your department hires?</li> <li>• What do you think is the district's induction program's goal?</li> <li>• What was your concept of mentoring as a PST?</li> <li>• How was mentoring addressed during your preparation?</li> <li>• How should the field go about helping PSTs to understand mentoring relationships during their first year of teaching?</li> </ul>
Participant Antecedents	Professional Practice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• How do you see mentoring playing a role in your professional practice?</li> <li>• How has mentoring affected your own teaching practice?</li> </ul>
Participant Antecedents	Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Should mentoring be part of teachers' work?</li> <li>• What benefits do you receive from mentoring?</li> <li>• What benefits does your FYT receive from mentoring?</li> </ul>
Participant Antecedents	Personal Motivation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Why do you engage in mentoring?</li> <li>• What goals (or outcomes) do you have for your FYT?</li> </ul>
Organizational Antecedents		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Is there anything that might influence you to mentor more?</li> <li>• Is there anything that might get in the way of you mentoring a FYT?</li> </ul>
Organizational Antecedents	Motivations of Fellow Teachers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Do you think some teachers prefer FM to IM/IM to FM?</li> <li>• Why do you believe other teachers in your school engage in FM or IM FYTs?</li> </ul>
	Closing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Is there anything else that you want to tell me about mentoring that I may not have covered in my questions?</li> </ul>

## Appendix G

### Patton's (2015) Ten Interview Principles and Skills

1. Ask open-ended questions
2. Be clear
3. Listen
4. Probe as appropriate
5. Observe
6. Be both empathetic and neutral
7. Make transitions
8. Distinguish types of questions
9. Be prepared for the unexpected
10. Be present throughout (p. 428)

As suggested by Patton in:

Patton, M. (2015). *Qualitative research & evaluation methods* (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage

## Appendix H

### Member Check Sample

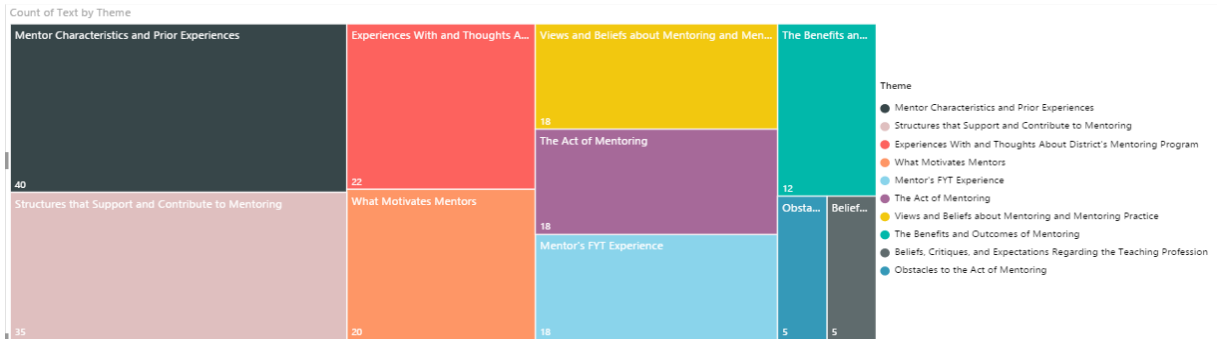
Dear Henry,

Below you'll find a graphic sharing ten key themes which emerged. I'd like to spend a quick moment sharing the five which you spoke about most.

The theme which emerged with the most attention is that of *mentor characteristics and prior experiences*. In this theme you shared about your positive preparation program experience. You also expressed that a key component of your teaching practice was that of seeking growth, reflection, and improvement. You also shared how you valued the FYT voice, their input, and perspective. In *structures that support and contribute to mentoring* you spoke most frequently about the role of the department and the way in which it supports collaboration but also supports and welcomes FYTs. Another contributing component to this theme was that of the role of the PLC serving not only as an opportunity to mentor, but a very organic way in which to do so.

The next theme, *experiences with and thoughts about the district's mentoring program* you spoke about the importance of shared PLC time and seeking feedback from dyad members in the formal mentoring pairing which takes place. Likewise, you shared areas of concerns and suggestions to the program such as providing open access to mentor training. In the theme *what motivates mentors*, you shared that your primary motivation to mentor is to help and support FYTs. You also shared that your perception of colleagues' motives to mentor FYTs is of the same vein, to help and support FYTs.

Finally, there are three themes which you spent equal time on: *Views and beliefs about mentoring and mentoring practice, the act of mentoring, and mentor's FYT experiences*. In *views and beliefs about mentoring and mentoring practice* you shared a desire to mentor again in the future, discussed issues of mentor quality and the importance of the mentoring relationship itself. In *the act of mentoring* you shared the importance of a FYT being open to the assistance a mentor can provide as well as the support you provide FYTs to be centered on conversation and discussion and focusing mostly on planning, instruction and assessment. Finally, you describe your own first year of teaching to be one where you received support from your department, mentor, and PLC and that you yourself exhibited help-seeking behaviors during that first year.

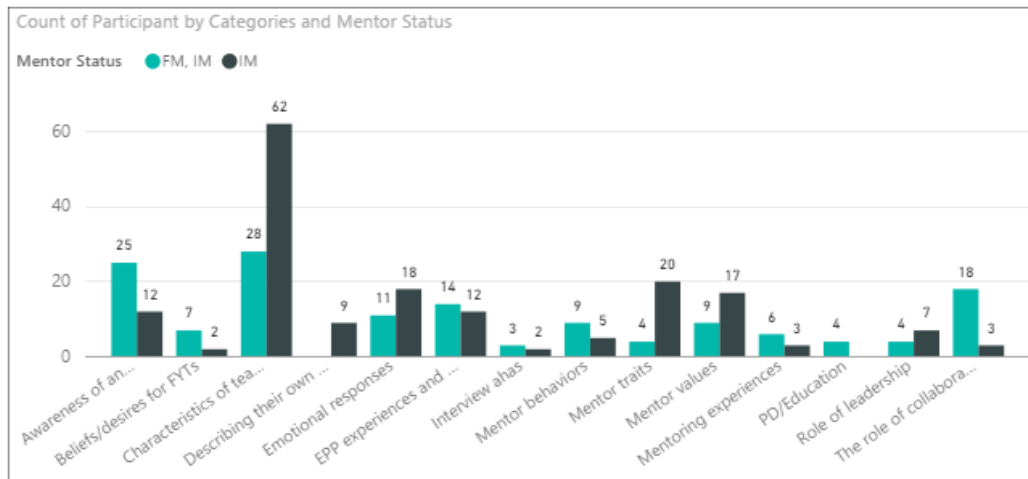
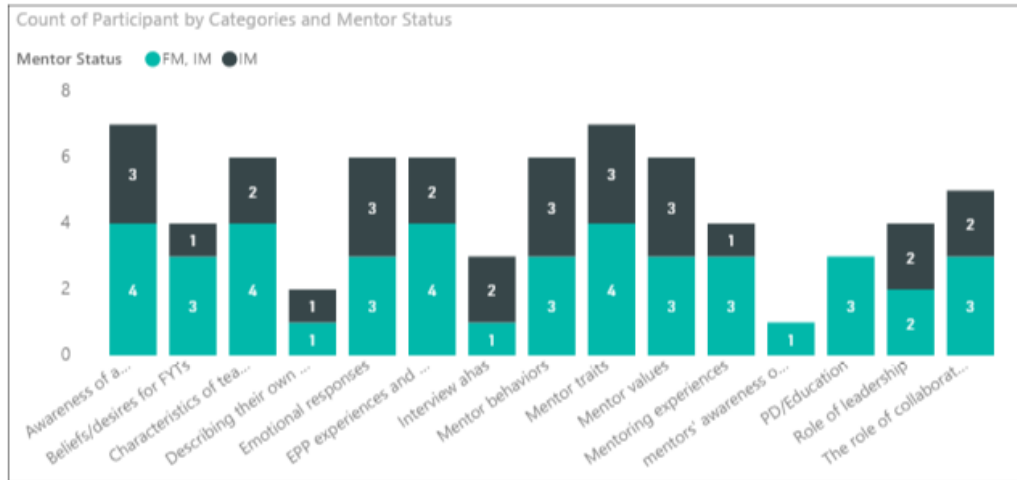


## Appendix I

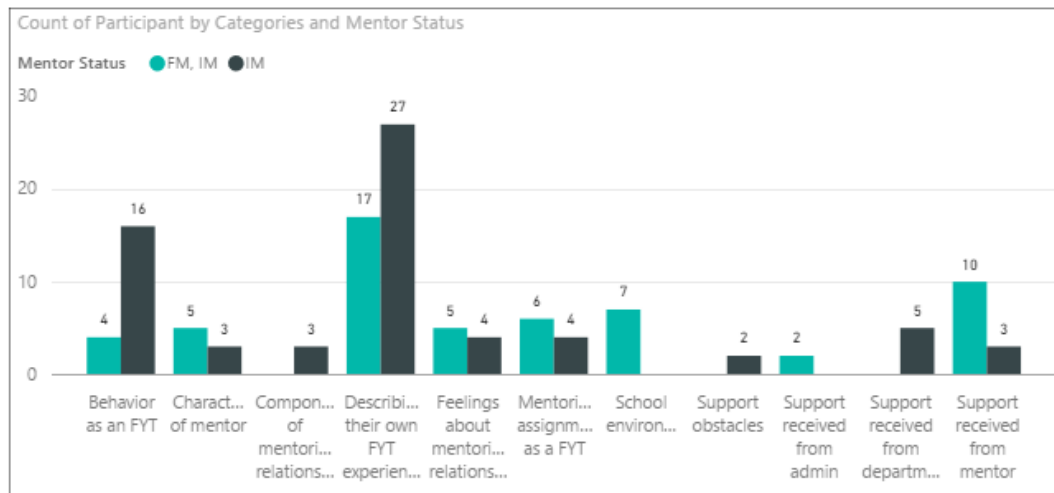
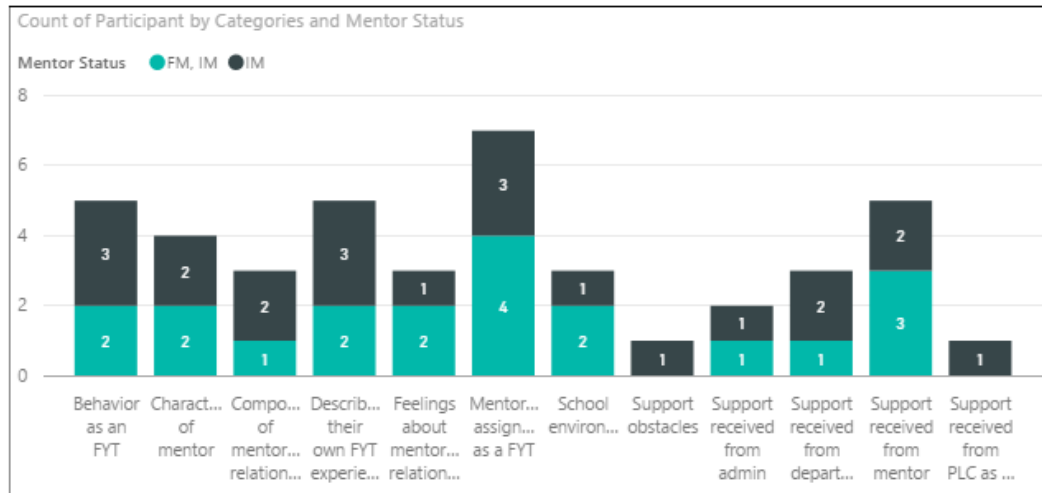
### Formal and Informal Mentor Distinct and Total Counts Per Category by Theme

For each theme, there are two graphs. The first demonstrates comparison by distinct count per category comparing formal and informal mentors, and the second total count by category comparing formal and informal mentors.

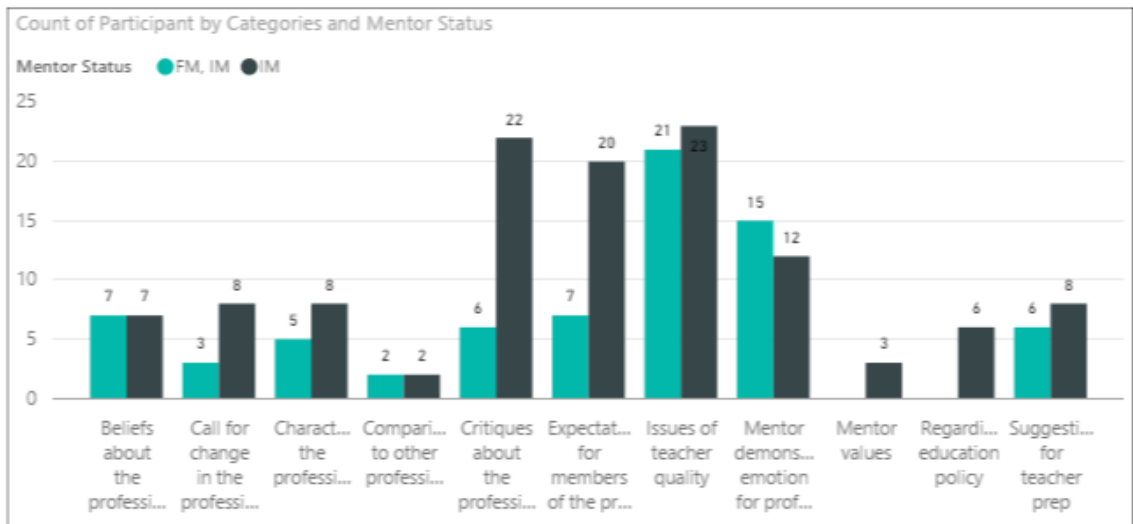
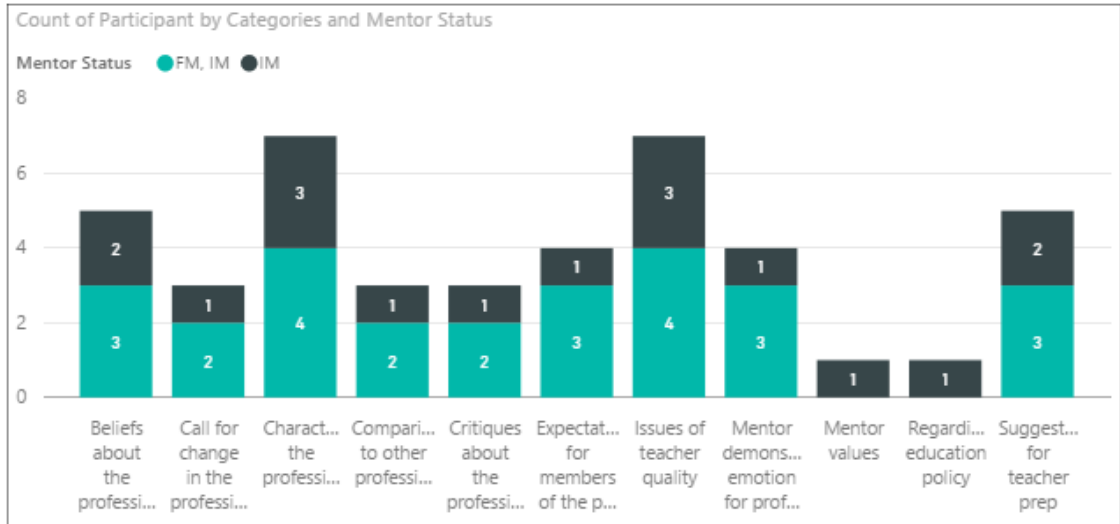
#### Mentor Characteristics and Prior Experiences



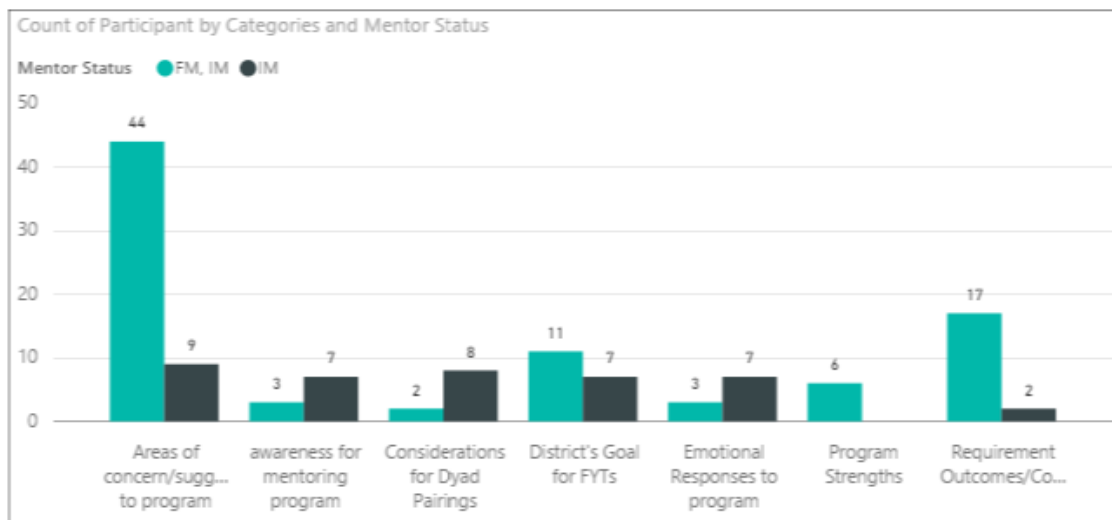
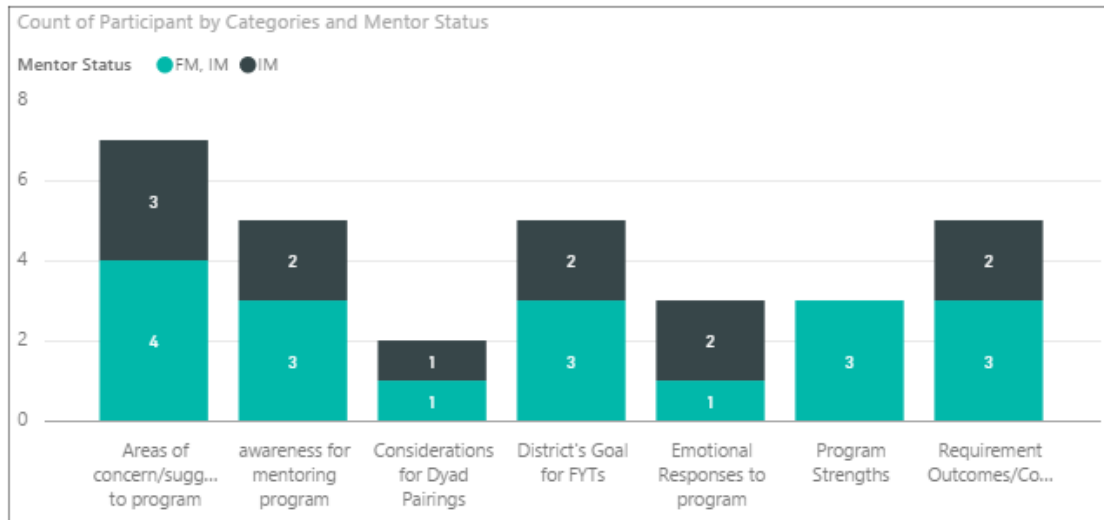
## Mentors' FYT Experience



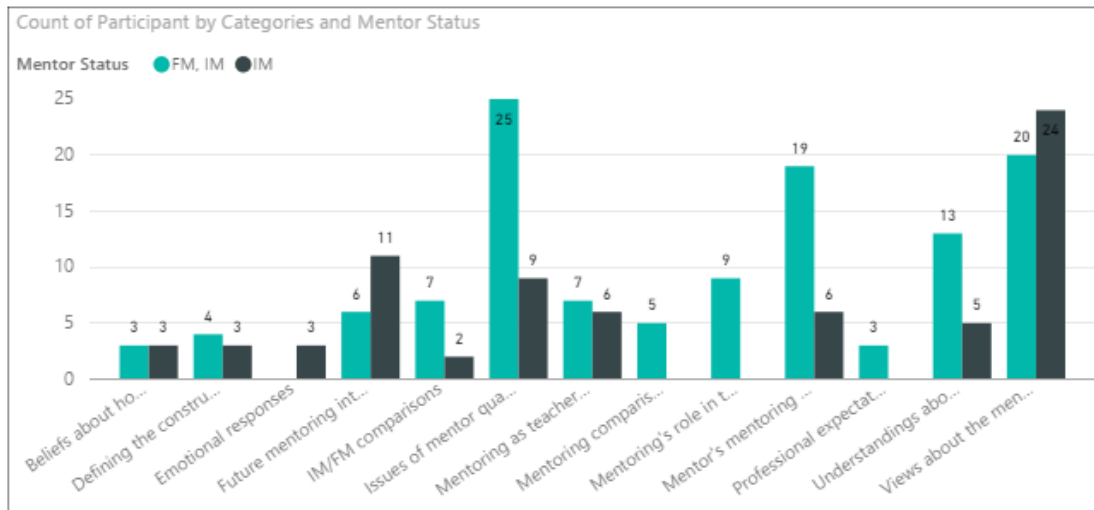
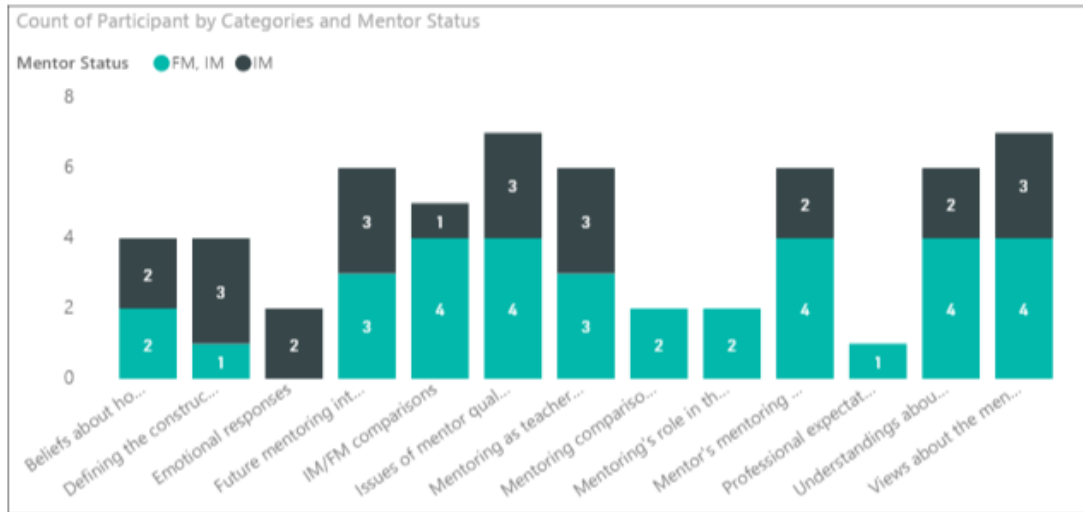
## Beliefs, Critiques, and Expectations Regarding the Teaching Profession



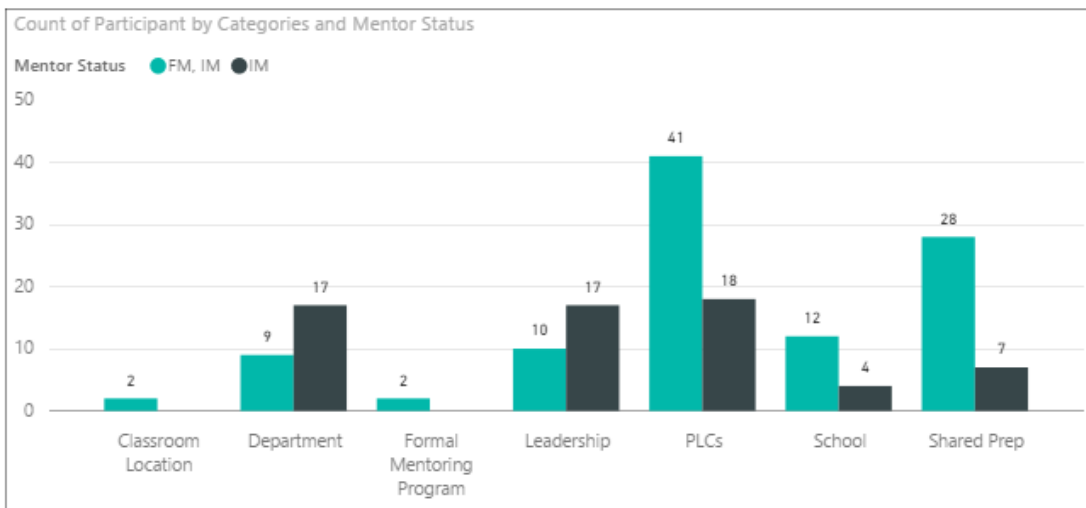
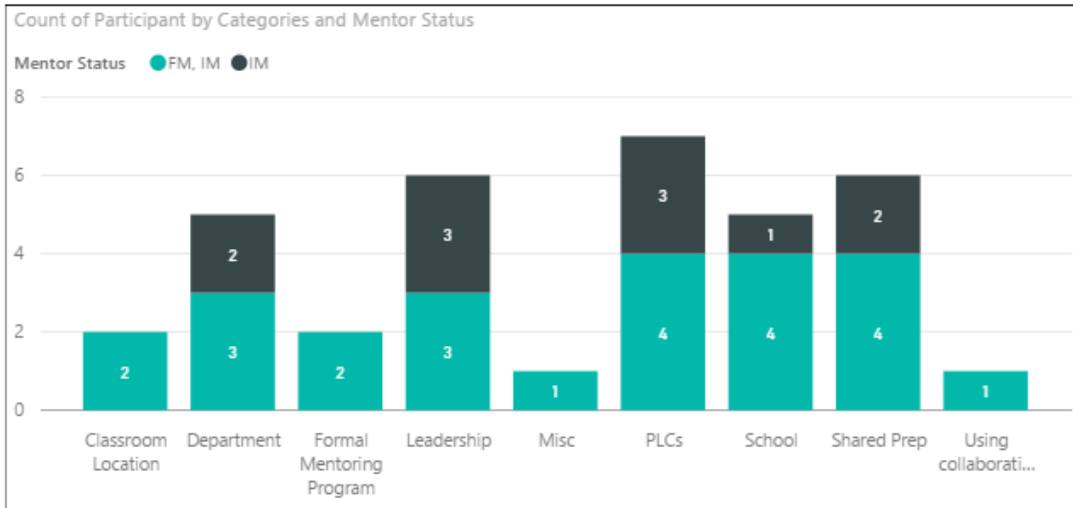
## Experiences with and Thoughts about District's Mentoring Program



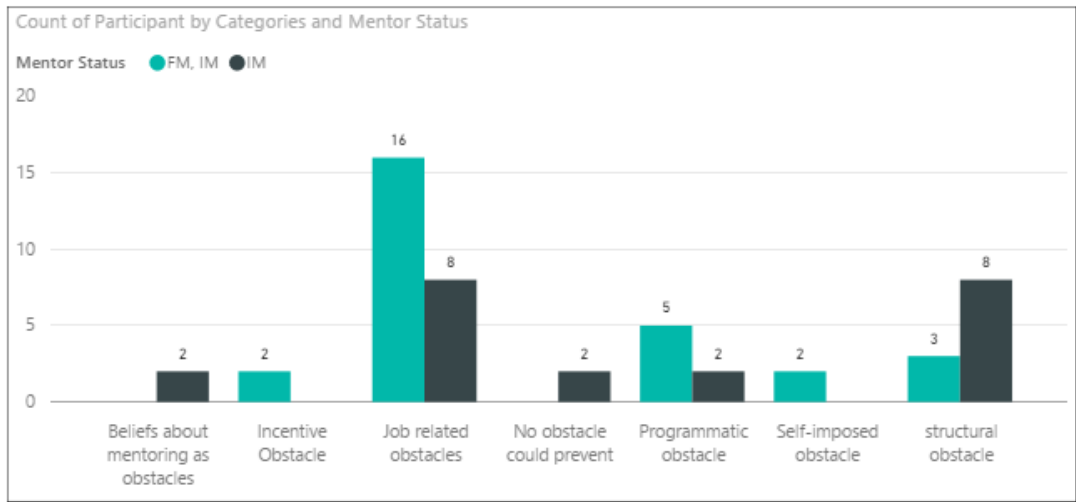
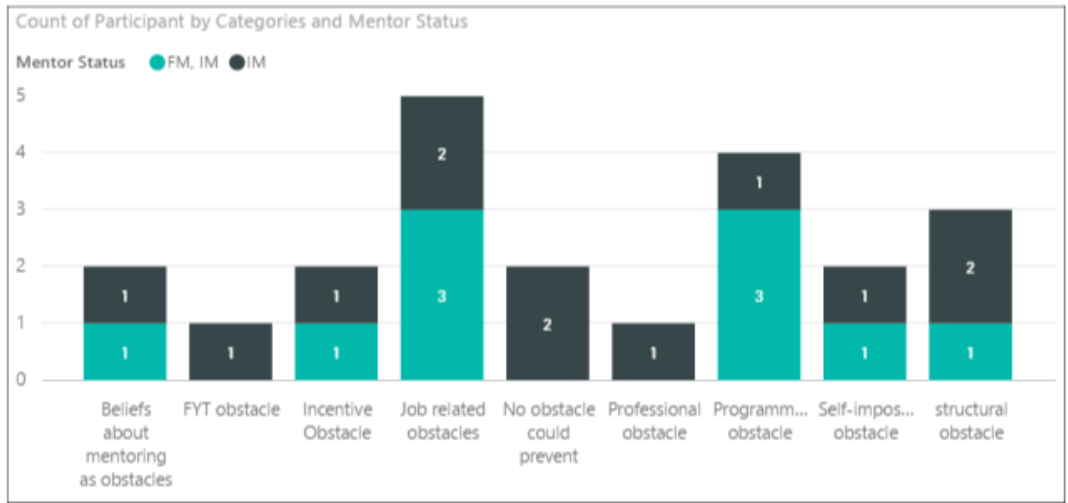
## Views and Beliefs about Mentoring and Mentoring Practice



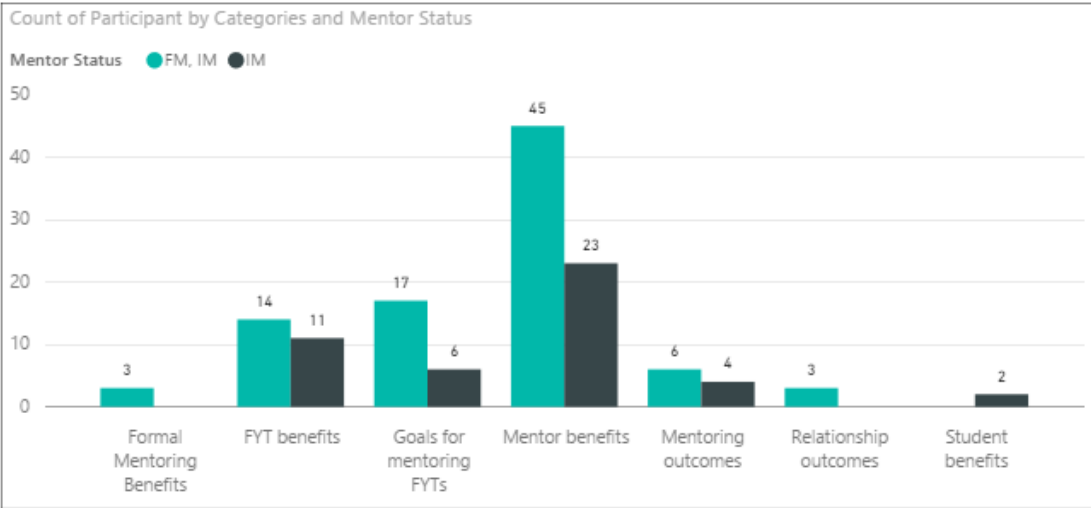
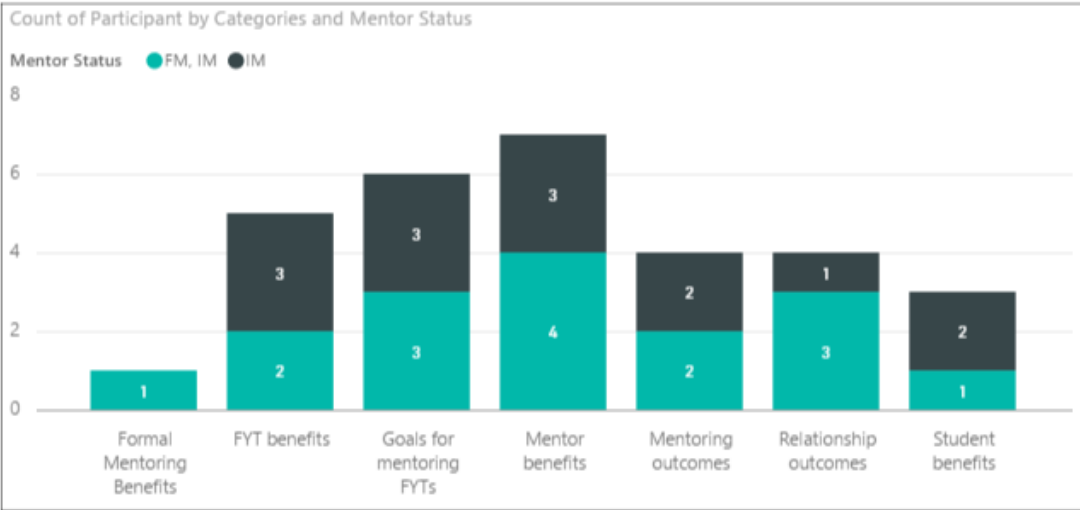
## Structures that Support and Contribute to Mentoring



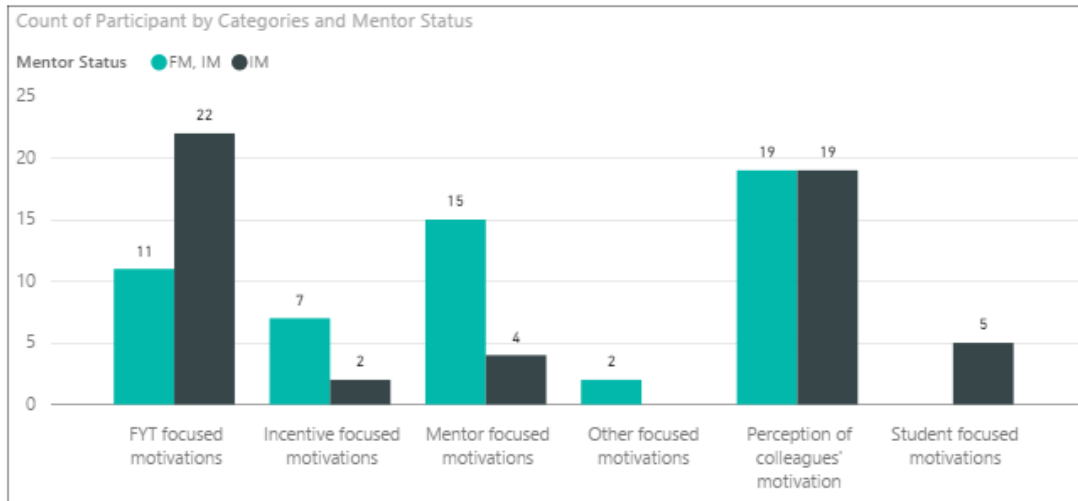
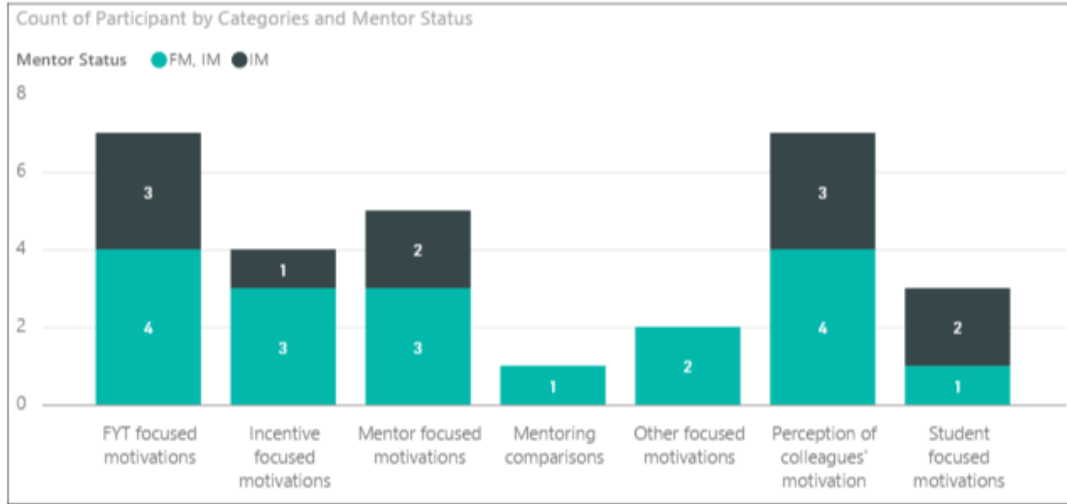
## Obstacles to the Act of Mentoring



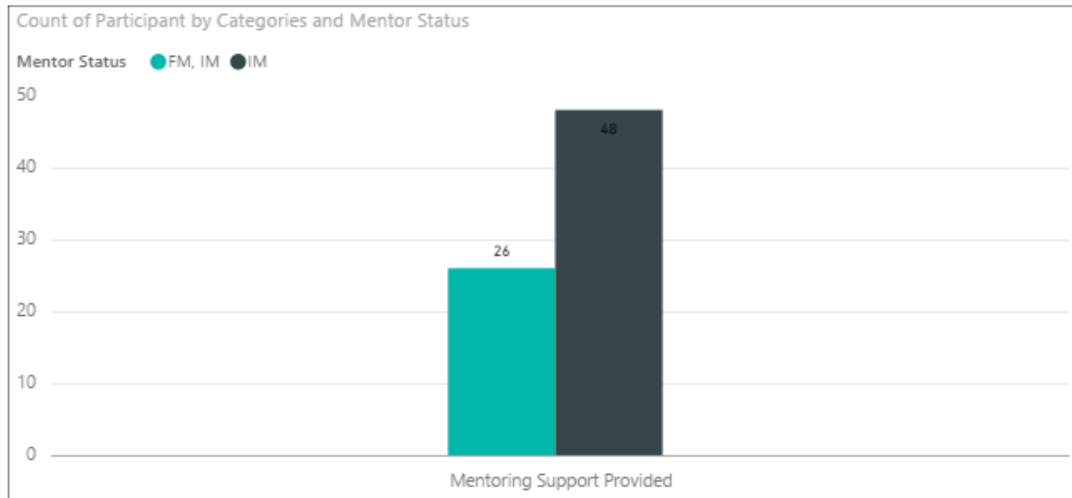
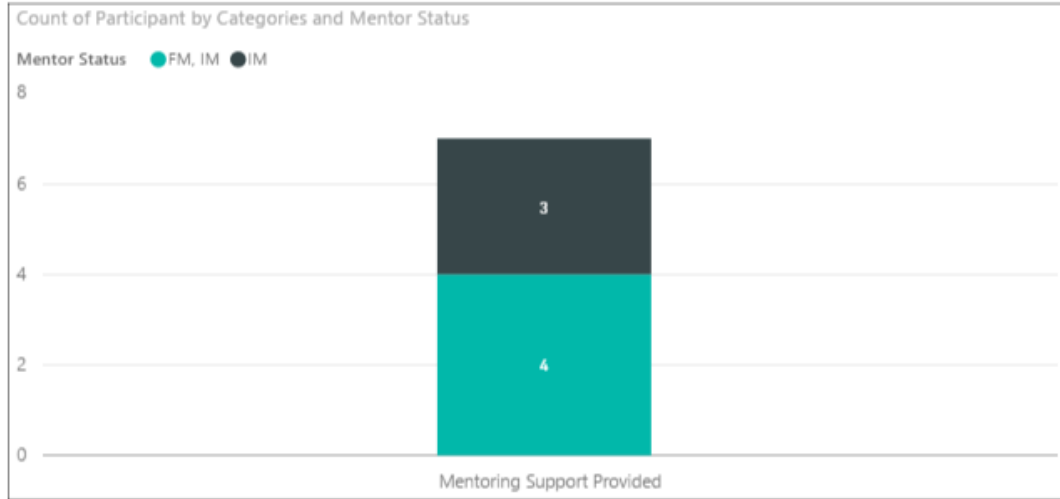
# The Benefits and Outcomes of Mentoring



## What Motivates Mentors



## The Act of Mentoring



## References

- Achinstein, B. (2006). New teacher and mentor political literacy: Reading, navigating and transforming induction contexts. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice*, 12, 123–138. <http://doi.org/10.1080/13450600500467290>
- Allen, T. D. (2003). Mentoring others: A dispositional and motivational approach. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 62(1), 134–154. doi:10.1016/S0001-8791(02)00046-5
- Allen, T. D., & Eby, L. T. (2007). Overview and introduction. In T. D. Allen and L. T. Eby (Eds.), *The Blackwell handbook of mentoring: A multiple perspectives approach* (pp. 3-6). Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing.
- Allen, T. D., Poteet, M. L., & Burroughs, S. M. (1997). The mentor's perspective: A qualitative inquiry and future research agenda. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 51(1), 70–89. doi:10.1006/jvbe.1997.1596
- American Federation of Teachers. (2001, September). *Beginning teacher induction: The essential bridge*. (Policy Brief No. 13). Washington, DC: Author.
- Anthony, G., Haigh, M., & Kane, R. (2011). The power of the “object” to influence teacher induction outcomes. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 27, 861–870. doi:10.1016/j.tate.2011.01.010
- Aryee, S., Chay, Y. W., & Chew, J. (1996). The motivation to mentor among managerial employees: An interactionist approach. *Group & Organization Management*, 21, 261–277. doi:10.1177/1059601196213002
- Aspfors, J., & Bondas, T. (2013). Caring about caring: Newly qualified teachers' experiences of their relationships within the school community. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice*, 19, 243–259. doi:10.1080/13540602.2012.754158
- Aspfors, J., & Fransson, G. (2015). Research on mentor education for mentors of newly qualified teachers: A qualitative meta-synthesis. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 48, 75–86. doi:10.1016/j.tate.2015.02.004

- Baker-Doyle, K. J. (2012). First-year teachers' support networks: Intentional professional networks and diverse professional allies. *The New Educator*, 8(1), 65–85. doi:10.1080/1547688X.2012.641870
- Bear, S. E., & Hwang, A. (2014). Who mentors? Contextual prosocial motivation and willingness to be a mentor. *Human Resource Development International*, 18(1), 58–75. doi:10.1080/13678868.2014.979005
- Beck, J. S. (2016). The complexities of a third-space partnership in an Urban Teacher Residency. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 43(1), 51–70. Retrieved from <http://web.a.ebscohost.com.mutex.gmu.edu/>
- Beck, C., & Kosnik, C. (2000). Associate teachers in pre-service education: Clarifying and enhancing their role. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 26, 207–224. doi:10.1080/713676888
- Bickmore, D. L., & Bickmore, S. T. (2010). A multifaceted approach to teacher induction. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 26, 1006–1014. doi:10.1016/j.tate.2009.10.043
- Billingsley, B. S. (2010). Work contexts matter: Practical considerations for improving new special educators' experiences in schools. *Journal of Special Education Leadership*, 23, 41–49.
- Blee, K. M., & Taylor, V. (2002). Semi-structured interviewing in social movements research. In B. Klanderman & S. Staggenborg (Eds.), *Methods of social movement research* (pp. 92–117). Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota Press.
- Bleeker, M., Dolfin, S., Johnson, A., Glazerman, S., Isenberg, E., & Grider, M. (2012). The state of teacher induction in urban America. *National Society for the Study of Education*, 111, 443–465.
- Bowen, G. (2009). Document analysis as a qualitative research method. *Qualitative Research Journal*, 9, 27–40. doi:10.3316/QRJ0902027
- Carver, C. L., & Feiman-Nemser, S. (2009). Critical elements and missing pieces. *Educational Policy*, 23, 295–328. doi:10.1177/0895904807310036
- Chao, G. T., Walz, P. M., & Gardner, P. D. (1992). Formal and informal mentorships: A comparison on mentoring functions and contrast with nonmentored counterparts. *Personnel Psychology*, 45, 619–635. doi:10.1111/j.1744-6570.1992.tb00863.x
- Charmaz, K. (2008). Grounded theory. In J. A. Smith (ed.) *Qualitative Psychology: A practical guide to research methods* (pp. 81-110). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- Clark, B. R. (2016). Small worlds, different worlds: The uniquenesses and troubles of American academic professions. *Daedalus*, *126*(4), 21–42. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/20027457>
- Clinard, L. M., & Ariav, T. (1998). What mentoring does for mentors: A cross-cultural perspective. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, *21*, 91–108. doi:10.1080/0261976980210109
- Combs, A. W. (1969). *Florida studies in the helping professions*. [HathiTrust version]. Retrieved from [http://hdl.handle.net/2027/uf12.uf00100915\\_00001](http://hdl.handle.net/2027/uf12.uf00100915_00001)
- Corbin, J. M., & Strauss, A. (1990). Grounded theory research: Procedures, canons, and evaluative criteria. *Qualitative Sociology*, *13*(1), 3–21. doi:10.1007/BF00988593
- D'Abate, C. P., Eddy, E. R., & Tannenbaum, S. I. (2003). What's in a name? A literature-based approach to understanding mentoring, coaching, and other constructs that describe developmental interactions. *Human Resource Development Review*, *2*, 360–384. doi:10.1177/1534484303255033
- Darling-Hammond, L. (2010). Teacher education and the American future. *Journal of Teacher Education*, *61*, 35–47. doi:10.1177/0022487109348024
- Dawson, P. (2014). Beyond a definition: Toward a framework for designing and specifying mentoring models. *Educational Researcher*, *43*, 137–145. doi:10.3102/0013189X14528751
- DeAngelo, L., Mason, J., & Winters, D. (2015). Faculty engagement in mentoring undergraduate students: How institutional environments regulate and promote extra-role behavior. *Innovative Higher Education*, *41*, 317–332. doi:10.1007/s10755-015-9350-7
- Desimone, L. M., Hochberg, E. D., Porter, A. C., Polikoff, M. S., Schwartz, R., & Johnson, L. J. (2014). Formal and informal mentoring: Complementary, compensatory, or consistent? *Journal of Teacher Education*, *65*, 88–110. doi:10.1177/0022487113511643
- Eby, L. T., Allen, T. D., Hoffman, B. J., Baranik, L. E., Sauer, J. B., Baldwin, S.,...Evans, S. (2013). An interdisciplinary meta-analysis of the potential antecedents, correlates, and consequences of protégé perceptions of mentoring. *Psychological Bulletin*, *139*, 441–476. doi:10.1037/a0029279
- Eby, L., Butts, M., Lockwood, A., & Simons, S. A. (2004). Protégés' negative mentoring experiences: Construct development and nomological validation. *Personnel*

- Psychology*, 57, 411–447. Retrieved from:  
<http://search.proquest.com.mutex.gmu.edu/docview/220140023?accountid=14541>
- Eby, L. T., Durley, J. R., Evans, S. C., & Ragins, B. R. (2006). The relationship between short-term mentoring benefits and long-term mentor outcomes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 69, 424–444. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2006.05.003
- Eby, L. T., Lockwood, A. L., & Butts, M. (2006). Perceived support for mentoring: A multiple perspectives approach. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 68, 267–291. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2005.07.003
- Eby, L. T., McManus, S. E., Simon, S. A., & Russell, J. E. (2000). The protégé's perspective regarding negative mentoring experiences: The development of a taxonomy. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 57(1), 1–21. doi:10.1006/jvbe.1999.1726
- Eby, L. T., Rhodes, J. E., & Allen, T. D. (2007). Definition and evolution of mentoring. In T. D. Allen and L. T. Eby (Eds.), *The Blackwell handbook of mentoring: A multiple perspectives approach* (pp. 7-20). Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing.
- Evertson, C. M., & Smithey, M. W. (2002). Mentoring effects on protégés' classroom practice. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 93, 294–304. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/27542279>
- Feiman-Nemser, S. (1996). Teacher mentoring: A critical review. *ERIC Digest*. ERIC Document Reproduction Service ED 397 060. Retrieved from: <http://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED397060>
- Feiman-Nemser, S. (1998). Teachers as teacher educators. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 21(1), 63–74. doi:10.1080/0261976980210107
- Feiman-Nemser, S. (2001). From preparation to practice: Designing a continuum to strengthen and sustain teaching. *Teachers College Record*, 103, 1013–1055. doi:10.1111/0161-4681.00141
- Feiman-Nemser, S., & Parker, M. B. (1992). *Mentoring in context: A comparison of two U.S. programs for beginning teachers*. Retrieved from <http://ncrtl.msu.edu/http/sreports/spring92.pdf>
- Feiman-Nemser, S., Schwille, S., Carver, C., & Yusko, B. (1999). *A conceptual review of literature on new teacher induction*. Washington, D.C: National Partnership for Excellence and Accountability in Teaching. Retrieved from: <http://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED449147>

- Fielding, N., & Fielding, J. (1986). *Linking data*. Retrieved from: <http://gml-primo.hosted.exlibrisgroup.com/>
- Fletcher, J. K., & Ragins, B. R. (2007). Stone center relational cultural theory: A window on relational mentoring. In B. R. Ragins & K. E. Kram (Eds.), *The handbook of mentoring at work* (pp. 373-399). Los Angeles, CA: Sage.
- Fletcher, S., Strong, M., & Villar, A. (2008). An investigation of the effects of variations in mentor-based induction on the performance of students in California. *Teachers College Record*, *110*, 2271–2289. doi:10.1098/rspa.1926.0099
- Fresko, B., & Nasser-Abu Alhija, F. (2009). When intentions and reality clash: Inherent implementation difficulties of an induction program for new teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *25*, 278–284. doi:10.1016/j.tate.2008.12.001
- Ghosh, R. (2014). Antecedents of mentoring support: A meta-analysis of individual, relational, and structural or organizational factors. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *84*, 367–384. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2014.02.009
- Gibb, S. (1999). The usefulness of theory: A case study in evaluating formal mentoring schemes. *Human Relations*, *52*, 1055–1075. doi:10.1177/001872679905200804
- Glazerman, S., Isenberg, E., Dolfen, S., Bleeker, M., Johnson, A., Grider, M., & Jacobus, M. (2008). *Impacts of comprehensive teacher induction: Results from the first year of a randomized controlled study*. (NCEE 2009-4035). Retrieved from Institute of Education Sciences website: <http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/pdf/20094035.pdf>
- Goldrick, L., Osta, D., Barlin, D., & Burn, J. (2012). *Review of state policies on teacher induction policy*. Santa Cruz, CA: New Teacher Center.
- Green, J. (2007). *Mixed methods in social inquiry*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Gut, D. M., Beam, P. C., Henning, J. E., Cochran, D. C., & Knight, R. T. (2014). Teachers' perceptions of their mentoring role in three different clinical settings: Student teaching, early field experiences, and entry year teaching. *Mentoring & Tutoring: Partnership in Learning*, *22*, 240–263. doi:10.1080/13611267.2014.926664
- Haggard, D. L., Dougherty, T. W., Turban, D. B., & Wilbanks, J. E. (2011). Who is a mentor? A review of evolving definitions and implications for research. *Journal of Management*, *37*, 280–304. doi:10.1177/0149206310386227

- He, Y. (2009). Strength-based mentoring in pre-service teacher education: A literature review. *Mentoring & Tutoring: Partnership in Learning*, *17*, 263–275. doi:10.1080/13611260903050205
- Hezlett, S. A. (2005). Protégés' learning in mentoring relationships: A review of the literature and an exploratory case study. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, *7*, 505–526. doi:10.1177/1523422305279686
- Hobson, A. J., Ashby, P., Malderez, A., & Tomlinson, P. D. (2009). Mentoring beginning teachers: What we know and what we don't. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *25*, 207–216. doi:10.1016/j.tate.2008.09.001
- Howey, K. R., & Zimpher, N. L. (1999). Pervasive problems and issues in teacher education. In G. A. Griffin (Ed.), *The education of teachers: Ninety-eighth yearbook of National Society for the Study of Education* (pp. 279–305). Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Hsieh, H. F., & Shannon, S. E. (2005). Three approaches to qualitative content analysis. *Qualitative Health Research*, *15*, 1277–1288. doi:10.1177/1049732305276687
- Hunt, D. M., & Michael, C. (1983). Mentorship: A career training and development tool. *Academy of Management Review*, *8*, 475–485. doi:10.2307/257836
- Iancu-Haddad, D., & Oplatka, I. (2009). Mentoring novice teachers: Motives, process, and outcomes from the mentor's point of view. *The New Educator*, *5*, 45–65. doi:10.1080/1547688X.2009.10399563
- Ingersoll, R. M., & Kralik, J. M. (2004). *The impact of mentoring on teacher retention: What the research says*. (Document Number 5036). Retrieved from Education Commission of the States website: <http://www.ecs.org/clearinghouse/50/36/5036.htm>
- Ingersoll, R., & Smith, T. (2003). The wrong solution to the teacher shortage. *Educational Leadership*, *60*(8), 30–33.
- Ingersoll, R., & Strong, M. (2011). The impact of induction and mentoring programs for beginning teachers: A critical review of the research. *Review of Educational Research*, *81*, 201–233. doi:10.3102/0034654311403323
- Jacobi, M. (1991). Mentoring and undergraduate academic success: A literature review. *Review of Educational Research*, *61*, 505–532. doi:10.3102/00346543061004505

- Janssen, S., van Vuuren, M., & de Jong, M. D. T. (2013). Identifying support functions in developmental relationships: A self-determination perspective. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 82(1), 20–29. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2012.09.005
- Johnson, S. M., and The Project on the Next Generation of Teachers (2004). *Finders and keepers: Helping new teachers survive and thrive in our schools*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Kardos, S. M., & Johnson, S. M. (2010). New teachers' experiences of mentoring: The good, the bad, and the inequity. *Journal of Educational Change*, 11, 23–44. doi:10.1007/s10833-008-9096-4
- Karkoulian, S., Halawi, L. A., & McCarthy, R. V. (2008). Knowledge management formal and informal mentoring: An empirical investigation in Lebanese banks. *The Learning Organization*, 15, 409–420. doi:10.1108/09696470810898384
- Katz, L., & Raths, J. (1985). Dispositions as educational goals for teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 1, 301–307. [http://doi.org/10.1016/0742-051X\(85\)90018-6](http://doi.org/10.1016/0742-051X(85)90018-6)
- Kay, F. M., & Wallace, J. E. (2009). Mentors as social capital: Gender, mentors, and career rewards in law practice. *Sociological Inquiry*, 79, 418–452. doi:10.1111/j.1475-682X.2009.00301.x
- Kelley, L. M. (2004). Why induction matters. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 55, 438–448. doi:10.1177/0022487104269653
- Khamis, M. (2000). The beginning teacher. In S. Dinham & C. Scott (Eds.), *Teaching in context* (pp. 1–17). Camberwell, Australia: ACER Press.
- Klug, B. J., & Salzman, S. A. (1991). Formal induction vs. informal mentoring: Comparative effects and outcomes. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 7, 241–251. doi:10.1016/0742-051X(91)90031-J
- Kram, K. E. (1983). Phases of the mentor relationship. *Academy of Management Journal*, 26, 608–625. Retrieved from: <http://www.jstor.org/stable/255910>
- Kram, K. E. (1988). *Mentoring at work: Developmental relationships in organizational life*. Lanham, MD: University Press of America.
- Kram, K. E., & Hall, D. T. (1989). Mentoring as an antidote to stress during corporate trauma. *Human Resource Management*, 28, 493–510. doi:10.1002/hrm.3930280405

- Langdon, F. J., Alexander, P. A., Ryde, A., & Baggetta, P. (2014). A national survey of induction and mentoring: How it is perceived within communities of practice. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 44*, 92–105. doi:10.1016/j.tate.2014.08.004
- Laschober, T. C., Eby, L. T., & Kinkade, K. (2013). Mentoring support from clinical supervisors: Mentor motives and associations with counselor work-to-nonwork conflict. *Journal of Substance Abuse Treatment, 44*, 186–92. doi:10.1016/j.jsat.2012.05.001
- Lee, D. Y., & Jeong, B. J. C. (2013). An examination of behavioral antecedents to individuals' participation in a social mentoring network from a protégé's perspective. *Cyberpsychology, Behavior and Social Networking, 16*(1), 37–44. doi:10.1089/cyber.2012.0035
- Levinson, D. J. (1978). *The seasons of a man's life*. New York, NY: Random House.
- Little, J. W. (1990). The mentor phenomenon and the social organization of teaching. *Review of Research in Education, 16*, 297-351. Retrieved from: <http://www.jstor.org/stable/1167355>
- Lortie, D. C. (1975). *Schoolteacher* (2nd. ed.). Chicago, IL: The University of Chicago Press.
- Maor, D., & McConney, A. (2015). Wisdom of the elders: mentors' perspectives on mentoring learning environments for beginning science and mathematics teachers. *Learning Environments Research, 18*, 335–347. doi:10.1007/s10984-015-9187-0
- Mathews, A. L. (2002). *Mentoring's mosaic: The theories, practices, conditions, and characteristics and traits of formal and informal mentoring relationships* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from <http://search.proquest.com/mutex.gmu.edu/docview/305585275/382936E5BB1D40F4PQ/1?accountid=14541>
- Mawhinney, L. (2008). Laugh so you don't cry: Teachers combating isolation in schools through humour and social support. *Ethnography and Education, 3*, 195-209. doi:10.1080/17457820802062466
- Maxwell, J. A. (2013). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Prince William County Schools (2014). *Mentor program handbook* (2014). Manassas, VA: Author.
- Mentor Teacher Programs, Code of Virginia, § 22.1-305.1

- Mitchell, M. E., Eby, L. T., & Ragins, B. R. (2015). My mentor, my self: Antecedents and outcomes of perceived similarity in mentoring relationships. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 89*, 1–9. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2015.04.008
- Morales, D. X., Grineski, S. E., & Collins, T. W. (2016). Faculty motivation to mentor students through undergraduate research programs: A study of enabling and constraining factors. *Research in Higher Education*. Advance online publication. doi:10.1007/s11162-016-9435-x
- Newton, A., Bergstrom, K., Brennan, N., Dunne, K., Gilbert, C., Ibarguen, N.,... Thomas, E. (1994). *Mentoring: A resource and training guide for educators*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education.
- Northfield, J. R., & Gunstone, R. F. (1997). Teacher education as a process of developing teacher knowledge. In J. Loughran & T. Russell (Eds.), *Teaching about teaching: Purpose, passion and pedagogy in teacher education* (pp. 48-56). London, England: Falmer Press.
- O'Brien, K. E., Rodopman, O. B., & Allen, T. D. (2007). Reflections on best practices for formal mentoring programs. In T. D. Allen and L. T. Eby (Eds.), *The Blackwell handbook of mentoring: A multiple perspectives approach* (pp. 369-372). Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing.
- O'Meara, K., & Braskamp, L. (2005). Aligning faculty reward systems and development to promote faculty and student growth. *NASPA Journal, 42*, 223–241. doi:10.2202/1949-6605.1474
- Ortiz-Walters, R., & Fullick, J. M. (2015). Mentoring protégés of color: Experiences of primary and informal mentors. *International Journal of Management Education, 13*, 141–153. doi:10.1016/j.ijme.2015.02.001
- Parise, M. R., & Forret, M. L. (2008). Formal mentoring programs: The relationship of program design and support to mentors' perceptions of benefits and costs. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 72*, 225–240. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2007.10.011
- Patton, M. (2015). *Qualitative research & evaluation methods* (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Pelto, P. J., & Pelto, G. H. (2016). Intra-cultural diversity: Some theoretical issues. *American Ethnologist, 2*(1), 1–18. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/643533>

- Pereira, F., Lopes, A., & Marta, M. (2015). Being a teacher educator: Professional identities and conceptions of professional education. *Educational Research, 57*, 451–469. doi: /10.1080/00131881.2015.1078142
- Piggot-Irvine, E., Aitken, H., Ritchie, J., Ferguson, P. B., & McGrath, F. (2009). Induction of newly qualified teachers in New Zealand. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education, 37*, 175–198. doi:10.1080/13598660902804030
- Pogodzinski, B. (2013). Collegial support and novice teachers' perceptions of working conditions. *Journal of Educational Change, 15*, 467–489. doi:10.1007/s10833-013-9221-x
- Qian, H., Youngs, P., & Frank, K. (2013). Collective responsibility for learning: Effects on interactions between novice teachers and colleagues. *Journal of Educational Change, 14*, 445–464. doi:10.1007/s10833-013-9210-0
- Ragins, B. R., & Cotton, J. L. (1999). Mentor functions and outcomes: A comparison of men and women in formal and informal mentoring relationships. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 84*, 529–550. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.84.4.529
- Ragins, B. R., & Kram, K. E. (2007). The roots and meaning of mentoring. In B.R. Ragins & K. E. Kram (Eds.), *The handbook of mentoring at work* (pp. 3-15). Los Angeles, CA: Sage.
- Rock, A. D., & Galvan, N. (2006). Reconceptualizing developmental relationships. *Human Resource Development Review, 5*, 330–354. doi:10.1177/1534484306290227
- Ronfeldt, M., Loeb, S., & Wyckoff, J. (2013). How teacher turnover harms student achievement. *American Educational Research Journal, 50*, 4–36. doi:10.3102/0002831212463813
- Russell, M. L., & Russell, J. A. (2011). Mentoring relationships: Cooperating teachers' perspectives on mentoring student interns. *The Professional Educator, 35*(2), 16–35. Retrieved from: <http://search.proquest.com.mutex.gmu.edu/docview/896481527?accountid=14541>
- Saldaña, J. (2013). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Scandura, T. A. & Pellegrini, E. K. (2007). Workplace mentoring: Theoretical approaches and methodological issues. In T. D. Allen, & L. T. Eby (Eds.), *Handbook of mentoring: A multiple perspective approach*. Malden, MA: Blackwell.

- Scandura, T. A., Tejada, M. J., Werther, W. B., & Lankau, M. J. (1996). Perspectives on mentoring. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 17(3), 50–56. doi:10.1108/01437739610117019
- Schaefer, L., Long, J. S., & Clandinin, D. J. (2012). Questioning the research on early career teacher attrition and retention. *Alberta Journal of Educational Research*, 58(1), 106–121.
- Schön, D. (1987). *Educating the reflective practitioner: Toward a new design for teaching and learning in the professions*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Schwille, S. A. (2008). The professional practice of mentoring. *American Journal of Education*, 115(1), 139–167. doi:10.1086/590678
- Shoffner, M., Sedberry, T., Alsup, J., & Johnson, T. S. (2014). The difficulty of teacher dispositions: Considering professional dispositions for preservice English teachers. *Teacher Educator*, 49, 175–192. doi: 10.1080/08878730.2014.917528
- Sinclair, C., Dowson, M., & Thistleton-Martin, J. (2006). Motivations and profiles of cooperating teachers: Who volunteers and why? *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 22, 263–279. doi:10.1016/j.tate.2005.11.008
- Sindberg, L. K. (2014). Perceptions and perspectives of music teachers in urban settings: Isolation, conversation and collaboration. *Music Education Research*, 16, 387–403. doi:10.1080/14613808.2013.848849
- Smith, T., & Ingersoll, R. (2004). What are the effects of induction and mentoring on beginning teacher turnover? *American Educational Research Journal*, 41, 681–714. Retrieved from: <http://www.jstor.org/stable/3699442>
- Troen, V., & Boles, K. C. (2009). Teacher learning: A commentary by reform-minded teaching colleagues. In M. Cochran-Smith, S. Feiman-Nemser, J. McIntyre & K. E. Demers (Eds.), *Handbook of research in teacher education* (pp. 842-846). New York, NY: Routledge.
- U. S. Department of Education (2014). *Teacher attrition and mobility: Results from the 2012-2013 teacher survey* (NCES Publication No. 2014-077) Retrieved from: <http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2014/2014077.pdf>
- van Emmerick, I. J. (2004). The more you can get the better: Mentoring constellations and intrinsic career success. *Career Development International*, 9, 578–594. doi:10.1108/13620430410559160

- van Emmerick, I., Baugh, S. G., & Euwema, M. C. (2005). Who wants to be a mentor? An examination of attitudinal, instrumental, and social motivational components. *Career Development International*, *10*, 310–324. doi:10.1108/13620430510609145
- van Ginkel, G., Verloop, N., & Denessen, E. (2015). Why mentor? Linking mentor teachers' motivations to their mentoring conceptions. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice*, *22*, 101–116. doi:10.1080/13540602.2015.1023031
- Wanberg, C. R., Kammeyer-Mueller, J., & Marchese, M. (2006). Mentor and protégé predictors and outcomes of mentoring in a formal mentoring program. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *69*, 410–423. doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2006.05.010
- Wanberg, C., Welsh, E. T., & Hezlett, S. A. (2003). Mentoring research: A review and dynamic process model. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management*, *22*, 39–124. Retrieved from <http://www.emeraldinsight.com/journals.htm?articleid=1758737&show=abstract>
- Wang, J., & Odell, S. J. (2002). Mentored learning to teach according to standards-based reform: A critical review. *Review of Educational Research*, *72*, 481–546. doi:10.3102/00346543072003481
- Wechsler, M. E., Caspary, K., Humphrey, D. C., & Matsko, K. K. (2010). *Examining the effects of new teacher induction*. Menlo Park, CA: SRI International.
- Westheimer, J. (2008) Learning among colleagues: Teacher community and the shared enterprise of education. In M. Cochran-Smith, S. Feiman-Nemser, D.J. McIntyre, and K. E. Demmers (Eds.), *Handbook of research on teacher education* (pp. 756-783). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Whitaker, S. D. (2000). Mentoring beginning special education teachers and the relationship to attrition. *Exceptional Children*, *66*, 546–566. doi: 10.1177/001440290006600407
- Wong, H. K. (2004). Induction programs that keep new teachers teaching and improving. *NASSP Bulletin*, *88*(638), 41–58. doi:10.1177/019263650408863804
- Yardley, L. (2008). Demonstrating validity in qualitative psychology. In J. A. Smith (ed.) *Qualitative Psychology: A practical guide to research methods* (pp. 235-251). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Yin, R. K. (2011). *Qualitative research from start to finish*. New York, NY: The Guilford Press.

## **Biography**

Christine A. DeGregory graduated from Monticello High School, Monticello, New York, in 1993. She received her Bachelor of Arts from the State University of New York at Geneseo in 1997. While employed as a teacher for the Department of Defense Dependents' Schools in Germany, she received her Master of Arts in Education from National-Louis University in 2001.