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# Mentoring Functions and the Supervisory Relationship within Student Teaching

Je Yeong Yu

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MENTORING FUNCTIONS AND THE SUPERVISORY RELATIONSHIP  
WITHIN STUDENT TEACHING

by

Je Yeong Yu

Dissertation

Submitted to the Faculty of

Olivet Nazarene University

School of Graduate and Continuing Studies

in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for

the Degree of

Doctor of Education

in

Ethical Leadership

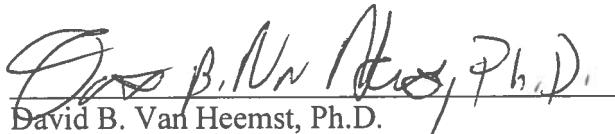
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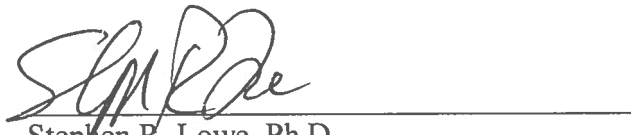
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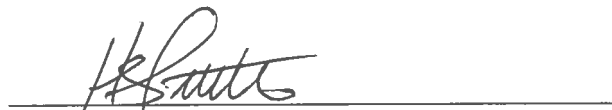
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## ABSTRACT

This study investigated the mentoring functions and the supervisory relationships of 20 preservice and cooperating teacher-dyads in student teaching. Utilizing three instruments, Mentoring Functions, Supervisory Relationship Measure (SRM), and Supervisory Relationship Questionnaire (SRQ), the compatibility of their mentoring perceptions, their level of satisfaction within their supervisory relationship, and the possible relatedness between the two were examined. The analyses of the results indicated that the mentoring perceptions of the dyads were highly compatible/congruent, with the highest degree of compatibility in the subscales of Advocacy and Role Modeling. Also, the dyads indicated that Coaching, Role Modeling, and Learning Facilitation were the three most important factors in mentoring. Additionally, it was determined that both groups had high degree of satisfaction in their supervisory relationship, more so for the cooperating teachers than for the preservice teachers. Finally, Mentoring Functions (mentoring perceptions) positively correlated to the SRQ (satisfaction) of the preservice teachers.

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## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION

Student teaching is the most important aspect of the teacher preparation process, yet an intentional method or model substantiating the match between the preservice and the cooperating teacher has not been developed or standardized. Kahan (2002) asserted that finding and identifying high-caliber cooperating teachers, training them to mentor, and improving placement practices be given high priority. Mott and Ellinger (2002) further emphasized that mentoring research has primarily focused on the protégés, which raises some concerns. After all, the mentoring relationship is dyadic by nature. Mott and Ellinger suggested research be directed towards gathering data from both the mentor and the protégé's perspective. Through this descriptive, non-experimental, correlational quantitative study, perceptions of mentoring were examined in conjunction with the preservice and the cooperating teacher's supervisory relationship.

Teacher education, and more specifically, student teaching as mentoring is considered and investigated. In this study, a brief overview of current teacher preparation standards as advocated by the newly formed Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation (CAEP) is reviewed. Also, the current practice of identifying and selecting cooperating teachers, as well as the matching practices of the preservice and cooperating teachers are explored. In addition, various mentoring and matching studies in both educational and workplace fields are addressed.

## Statement of the Problem

Preservice teachers are formally matched with cooperating teachers to fulfill the teaching requirements of a credentialed education program. Often, concrete determinants such as geographical location, grade level, and subject matter have been used to match preservice teachers to cooperating teachers (Kardos & Johnson, 2010; Owen & Solomon, 2006). Pairings through such determinants have been found to be problematic (LaBoskey & Richert, 2002). Preservice teachers learn from the cooperating teachers through their professional placements, and these pairings have been found to significantly affect, either positively or negatively, the preservice teachers' learning outcomes and experiences (Anderson, 2007; LaBoskey & Richert). It stands to reason, a more substantiated or standardized method or model of identifying exceptional cooperating teachers, or matching practices be developed in order to provide the best possible match and experience for both stakeholders.

In one study, Mott and Ellinger (2002) suggested directing mentorship research towards investigating motivations and perceptions of those involved in mentorship, and exploring possible benefits and drawbacks. The purpose of this study was to identify and analyze the compatibility of the preservice and the cooperating teacher's mentoring perceptions to the quality of their supervisory relationship. The researcher investigated the viability of using three instruments (Mentoring Functions, Supervisory Relationship Measure (SRM), and Supervisory Relationship Questionnaire (SRQ)) to identify and compare mentorship perceptions, and to measure the level of satisfaction with the supervisory relationship, as well as to determine if a relationship exists between these two factors.

## Background

According to Johnson (1968), the practice of student teaching originated from teachers serving as apprentices under a master teacher. This apprenticeship embodied learning by doing. Since the mid-1400's to the present, student teaching has progressed and adapted to different cultures, as well as religious to non-religious movements with various educational emphases, yet the means to train novice teachers has remained the same (Johnson). Historically, the student teacher learns through mentorship.

Student teaching was and is the culminating experience of teacher education programs (Koerner, Rust, & Baumgartner, 2002). In 1954, the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) formed the accrediting body that governed and established teacher preparation standards. According to the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (2008), student teaching is to emulate applications and reflections of the real world experience in educational settings. The candidates, through immersion in the educational community, are to develop and demonstrate competence in the professional roles for which they were preparing. They are to interact with various educational stakeholders, including colleagues, students, families, and communities (National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education). The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education also advocated for collaboration between collegial institutions and school partners. Candidates are encouraged to demonstrate proficiencies in the teaching profession with a professional disposition, including content, professional, and pedagogical knowledge (National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education).

In 2010, the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) and Teaching Education Accreditation Council (TEAC) joined forces to form the newly configured CAEP, who now governs the accreditation process (The Council for Accreditation of Educator Preparation, 2010). Similar to NCATE standards, CAEP prescribed preservice teachers to demonstrate knowledge, skills, and a professional disposition. Accordingly, demonstrating knowledge includes the subject matter, pedagogy, and technology to enhance learning, communication, and assessment (The Council for Accreditation of Educator Preparation). Demonstrating skills include effectively teaching, managing, and positively impacting student learning (The Council for Accreditation of Educator Preparation). In endorsing a professional disposition, preservice teachers are to foster a caring working relationship with the student body and the learning community, as well as continue their professional development (The Council for Accreditation of Educator Preparation).

In student teaching, preservice teachers are often matched with cooperating teachers through concrete determinants such as geographical location, grade level, or subject matter (Kardos & Johnson, 2010). Other than few studies addressing site placement considerations, very few researches have been found in this area. In one study, Owen and Solomon (2006) noted that concrete determinants such as licensing, grade, subject matter, and the types of student-makeups were utilized to match mentors to new schoolteachers.

#### Educational Studies

In the educational field, mentoring research within the student teaching context have been primarily focused around four areas. The areas include expertise, roles, and

responsibilities of the training personnel; functional and developmental stages of student teaching and the corresponding responses by the mentors; interpersonal stages and aspects of the mentoring relationship; and mentor's response and influence through their own perceptions, values, and assumptions (Hawkey, 1997). In this educational section, salient research framing the educational schema are be enumerated.

In one study conducted by Hudson and Hudson (2010), the researchers found that mentor educators were internally motivated with a desire to influence, develop, and support mentees in the mentoring process. In general, mentor educators identified good mentors as being willing to learn together and model effective teaching practices (Hudson & Hudson). In addition, mentor educators identified several benefits of mentoring, including extra support, increased enthusiasm for teaching, acknowledgement of expertise, engagement of best practice, and self-fulfillment (Hudson & Hudson). Drawbacks identified by the mentor educators included allocating time to facilitate mentoring, assessing mentees, and the limited knowledge of the mentee's level of development (Hudson & Hudson).

In Schwille's (2008) study, the data gathered from preservice, beginning, and mentor teachers identified 10 distinct forms of mentoring practices and conceptual framework. Schwille found that mentors who showed thoughtful and purposeful structured opportunities brought their novices further along in their learning than those who viewed themselves as advisers, emotional supporters, and technical pointers. Schwille also found that when both mentors and novices engaged in professional conversations they gained deeper insights into their own teaching. The most effective mentors were clear on the facts that they were engaged in a professional practice that was

directed towards the novices' learning (Schwille). In fact, the mentors saw the novices as learners, themselves as teachers, and *teaching* as the subject matter (Schwille). Effective mentors were found to coach and step in as needed. They collaborated, modeled, and had brief ongoing interactions, as well as formal debriefing session throughout the learning experience (Schwille). Schwille indicated that good teachers do not automatically become good mentors, and that mentoring practices have to be intentional, explicit, and learned.

In Glenn's (2006) research, functional and developmental stages of student teaching and corresponding responses were evidenced. Glenn conducted a qualitative study and explored what underlying traits, besides personalities and pedagogy, made cooperating teachers effective in meeting student teachers' needs. Glenn noted five emergent categories: effective mentors collaborated rather than dictated, relinquished an appropriated level of control, allowed for personal relationships, shared constructive feedback, and accepted differences. Glenn's research focused more on the approaches the cooperating teachers took to mentor the student teachers. She found that the cooperating teacher's approach positively affected the working mentor-mentee relationship, and increased the level of success and satisfaction of those involved (Glenn).

Furthermore, in Stanulis and Russell's (2000) qualitative study, an example of interpersonal stages and aspects of mentoring relationships were examined. Three themes emerged regarding mentoring and mentoring relationships in learning to teach: trust and communication in mentoring, *jumping in* as a tool for learning to teach, and conversations as a tool for learning about mentoring (Stanulis & Russell). Stanulis and Russell found that individuals brought their own values, beliefs, and educational stance

into the mentoring relationship. In order to create and foster effective mentoring relationships, the participants needed a degree of trust, willingness, communication, *jumping in* when necessitated, and taking on of different perspectives (Stanulis & Russell). Both the student and the mentor teacher learned and reconstructed their interpretation of what mentoring meant through each stage of learning (Stanulis & Russell). They further noted mutual mentoring and conscious collaboration furthered the mentoring process (Stanulis & Russell). Additionally, when participants felt encouraged, guided, supported, and challenged in a caring environment, they felt safe in revealing their vulnerabilities (Stanulis & Russell).

Moore (2003), as well as Owen and Solomon (2006), considered how the mentors responded and influenced the mentees through their own perceptions, values, and assumptions. Moore found that the preservice teachers rarely demonstrated strategies in practice, although learned in theory. Pedagogical decisions were overlooked in lieu of procedural concerns, time management, teaching expected content, and classroom management (Moore). Moore also found that preservice teachers often adopted the styles and methods expressed by the mentor teachers regardless of conflicting theory or practice previously learned. Moore's research revealed that when preservice teachers were in their field placements, learning processes and theories were bypassed for procedural concerns, and many adopted their mentors' practices.

In the educational field, mentor-mentee studies primarily focused on identifying roles and responsibilities of the participants; examining the stages in the student teaching development; analyzing interpersonal mentoring stages; and determining influential biases (Hawkey, 1997). The limited number and range of studies on mentor-mentee



matching led this researcher to expand the scope of this study to include a larger body of research found in the workplace fields. In the following section, the mentoring researches found in the workplace fields are explored, including examining the functions they provide, comparing types of mentoring, evaluating outcomes, and identifying problems.

### Workplace Fields

In the educational field, very few researches have been dedicated to studies prior to the actual placement or identifying/selecting quality cooperating teacher candidates. In examining the body of the mentoring research in the educational field, it seemed appropriate to defer to the workplace fields. Within the workplace fields, the sheer quantity, as well as the types of mentoring researches available, including their effectiveness, their characteristics, as well as possible matching considerations were deemed appropriate and beneficial to the educational schema. In the workplace field, several studies addressed and even overlapped themes found in mentoring, such as functions mentoring provide, types of mentoring, evaluating their outcomes, and identifying problems.

In a foundational study on mentoring, Kram (1985) described mentoring as an intense relationship involving a more experienced person providing two functions, a psychosocial function and a career developmental function. Kram described the career developmental function to include sponsorship, exposure-and-visibility, coaching, protection, and providing challenging work assignments. Kram also described the psychosocial function to include role modeling, acceptance-and-confirmation, counseling, and friendship.

In an equally important study, Ragins, Cotton, and Miller (2000) surveyed social workers, engineers, and journalists to examine whether formal, informal, and no-mentoring relationships affected work attitudes, their perceptions of the mentoring program effectiveness, and their satisfaction levels within the mentoring relationship. Ragins et al. found that protégés who had satisfying mentoring relationships had greater job satisfaction and greater positive job attitudes than those who were in marginal or dissatisfying mentoring relationships. In the study, job satisfaction included organizational commitment, satisfaction with opportunities for promotion, career commitment, organization-based self-esteem, and procedural justice (Ragins et al.). Ragins et al. found that a satisfactory mentoring relationship itself accounted for job and career attitudes more than the design feature, or simply the presence of having a mentor.

Additionally, Viator (1999) surveyed accounting firm workers, who investigated four areas of mentoring: structure and processes of formal mentoring, methods used to match mentors to mentees, benefits of formal mentorship experiences, and perceived barriers to obtaining a mentor. Viator discovered that mentoring types (formal vs. informal) differed by the employee's organizational level: the higher the level, less formalized mentoring; the lower the level, more formalized mentoring. Viator also concluded, those who regularly met with their mentors, setting goals and objectives, reported more satisfaction with their formal mentoring relationship.

In another workplace field research, Egan (2005) examined perceptions of mentoring from health care workers. Egan found protégés reported more role modeling and more positive career-related outcomes (managerial career aspirations, goal

commitments, and career satisfaction) when both mentors and protégés shared similar learning goal orientation.

Similarly, Allen, Eby, and Lentz (2006) conducted their quantitative research amongst health care, manufacturing, oil, and technology workers. Allen et al. found that the perceived input into the matching process reported greater satisfaction, facilitated greater investment, and motivated both mentors and protégés within the mentorship. Allen et al. also found greater feedback and interaction frequencies reported greater mentorship quality verses having proximal relationships. The researchers further noted greater mutual identification within closer ranks and similar departments. Allen et al. suggested that mutual liking, identification, and attraction were keys to interpersonal processes associated with the development and the sustenance of a mentoring relationship.

In the educational schema, mentoring is generally focused on evaluating the relationship once begun, but very few researches have been dedicated to identifying and appropriating a good-fit match between the preservice and the cooperating teacher. Again, this researcher had to defer to the workplace fields as more studies were conducted in developing and qualifying/quantifying mentor-mentee matches.

In the late 1970's to the present, numerous qualitative and quantitative mentoring studies have developed and expanded amongst various professions in the workplace fields, including business, social work, engineering, law, accounting, and medicine (Allen et al., 2006; Allen, Eby, O'Brien, & Lentz, 2008; Armstrong, Allinson, & Hayes, 2002; Egan, 2005; Ellinger, 2002; Kram, 1985; Ragins et al., 2000; Viator, 1999). According to Allen et al. (2008), much of the mentoring studies researched in the workplace fields

have primarily focused on the types of mentoring and their effectiveness (i.e. formal mentoring, informal mentoring, outcomes), as well as their mentoring functions (psychosocial and career) and their characteristics.

Mentors have traditionally been defined as individuals who possess advanced experience and knowledge and are committed to providing developmental assistance to their less experienced protégés (Kram, 1985). In both the educational field of student teaching and the workplace fields of mentor-mentee relationships, the more experienced person trains, interacts, develops, challenges, models, and equips the less experienced person in the skills he/she needs to attain competence and success in his/her profession. Student teaching requires mentoring. So how do preservice teachers and cooperating teachers perceive mentoring? And how do they view/evaluate each other in their supervisory relationship? These are two areas in which this study attempted to examine and analyze through the following research questions.

#### Research Questions

This study addressed the following questions, applying three workplace instruments to the educational field:

1. How compatible, if at all, are the preservice teachers to their cooperating teachers?
2. How satisfied, if at all, are the mentors with their mentees?
3. How satisfied, if at all, are the mentees with their mentors?
4. How does the degree of mentorship compatibility relate, or not relate, to the degree of satisfaction in the supervisory relationship?

## Description of Terms

The following terms and definitions are used in this dissertation. For the purpose of this study, several terms were drawn upon or inferred based on relatable contexts. Many of the terms were noted directly on the instruments, as referenced in appendixes A, B, and C.

*Clinical Practice.* Student teaching or internships that provide candidates with an intensive and extensive culminating activity (The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, 2008)

*Cooperation teacher.* A classroom teacher who is responsible for mentoring daily the preservice teacher in a clinical placement site (Koerner et al., 2002)

*Mentoring.* The relationship between a senior and more junior member of an organization directed towards the advancement and support of the junior member (Fowler & O’Gorman, 2005).

*Preservice teacher.* A novice professional who works in the classroom with children in their clinical placement (Koerner et al., 2002)

*Student Teaching.* Preservice clinical practice in P–12 schools for candidates preparing to teach (The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, 2008).

*Supervision.* Formal provision by a senior/qualified practitioner for the purpose of education and training, or clinical work in which a trainee improves his/her practice through learning and developmental supports (Palomo, Beinart, & Cooper, 2010; Pearce, Beinart, Clohessy, & Cooper, 2012).

### Significance of the Study

This study is significant because no standardized measures have been applied to identify/evaluate cooperating teachers/mentors, or appropriate matches between preservice and cooperating teachers (Kahn, 2002). As noted by Darling-Hammond (2006), the experiential knowledge that the preservice teacher gains through student teaching is viewed significantly more important than theoretical course work. Reasonably, exercising quality control through standardizing criteria by which cooperating teachers are identified or evaluated should be prioritized. Similarly, it also stands to reason that certain criteria should be developed and utilized in order to appropriate matches, possibly minimizing conflicts and maximizing learning outcomes. Institutions, educational placement coordinators, and on-site placement coordinators may utilize the results of this study to better match preservice teachers with their cooperating teachers. Additionally, institutions may use the tools to evaluate the supervisory relationship during and after the student teaching experience.

### Process to Accomplish

The purpose of this study was to analyze the perceptions of mentoring and the quality of the supervisory relationship between the preservice and the cooperating teachers. Through this descriptive, non-experimental, correlational, quantitative study, the researcher investigated the viability of using three instruments to identify congruence/compatibility between the dyads' mentoring perceptions and to evaluate the supervisory relationships between the dyads. If there is a high degree of compatibility in both the preservice and cooperating teacher's perception of mentoring, then there may also be a high degree of satisfaction within the supervisory relationship. If there is a low

degree of compatibility, then there may also be a low degree of satisfaction. It is also possible there may be no relationship between mentorship perceptions and the supervisory relationship.

Student teaching is a relationship of mentoring, and requires the practice of mentoring. So how do preservice teachers and cooperating teachers perceive mentoring? And how do they view/evaluate each other in their supervisory relationship? These are two areas in which this study attempted to examine and analyze. Additionally, included in this section are the discussions of the study's population, measures, research questions, and procedures.

#### Population

In this study, two groups were obtained, preservice teachers and their cooperating teachers, both of whom were involved in student teaching at the time of the data collection. A nonprobability sampling of preservice and cooperating teachers were surveyed. All Midwestern institutions certified by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE), now the Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation (CAEP), were invited to participate in this study. This nonprobability sampling of preservice and cooperating teachers was considered purposive sampling, as the participants were predetermined beyond the researcher's control (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013). The results may apply to those in the educational field who are interested in placing preservice teachers, or evaluating matches between the preservice and the cooperating teachers.

## Measures

Three instruments were utilized in this study. The first instrument, Mentoring Functions, can be “used for assessing the congruence of expectations and perceptions between mentors and mentees in contracting and negotiating the terms of a relationship, as well as a diagnostic tool for reviewing and evaluating a relationship” (Fowler & O’Gorman, 2005, p.56). In this 7-point Likert scale instrument, Fowler and O’Gorman revealed eight distinct functions or subscales of mentoring through 39 questions: Personal and Emotional Guidance, 8-items, Coaching, 4-items, Advocacy, 4-items, Career Development Facilitation, 4-items, Role Modeling, 4-items, Strategies and Systems Advice, 4-items, Learning Facilitation, 6-items, and Friendship, 2-items (Fowler & O’Gorman).

The second instrument, SRM developed in the field of clinical psychology, measures for the supervisory relationship from the supervisor’s perspective (Pearce et al., 2012). Contained in this 7-point Likert scale instrument are 51 questions, categorized into five subscales, including Safe Base, 15-items, Supervisor Commitment, 9-items, Trainee Contribution, 13-items, External Influences, 8-items, and Supervisor Investment, 6-items (Pearce et al.). According to Pearce et al., SRM was found to have high internal reliability, good test-retest reliability, and good construct validity. The SRM subscales were found to be good statistical predictors of the trainee’s competence and the supervisor’s satisfaction with the supervision (Pearce et al.).

The third instrument, SRQ, utilized by clinical psychology trainees, measures the supervisory relationship from the supervisee’s perspective (Palomo et al., 2010). Contained in this 7-point Likert scale instrument are 67 questions with six subscale



components: Safe Base, 15-items, Structure, 8-items, Commitment, 10-items, Reflective Education, 11-items, Role Model, 12-items, and Formative Feedback, 11-items (Palomo et al). According to Palomo et al., SRQ was found to have high internal reliability, good test-retest reliability and good construct validity.

### Research Questions

In this study, the four questions were examined and analyzed in the context of student teaching. 1. How compatible, if at all, are the preservice teachers to their cooperating teachers? In the first research question, the data collected through the use of the Mentoring Functions instrument was analyzed for congruence/compatibility between the preservice and the cooperating teachers. The eight-component structure of Mentoring Functions was found to be a model of good-fit ( $CFI=0.977$ ) (Fowler & O’Gorman, 2005). The Mentoring Functions study conducted by Fowler and O’Gorman was noted to go beyond a singular organization or gender-limited samples. Mentoring Functions can be used to assess congruence or compatibility in expectations and perceptions (Fowler & O’Gorman). It can also be used as a diagnostic tool for reviewing and evaluating a mentoring relationship (Fowler & O’Gorman). The Mentoring Functions survey was administered to both the preservice and the cooperating teachers. Both the subscale scores and the total scores were considered in this study. A descriptive statistical analysis of the mean scores and the standard deviations of the item-subscale and total scores were considered. Additionally, an inferential statistical analysis of a repeated *t*-test, observing for differences, as well as correlations between the cooperating and preservice teachers, was utilized (Yockey, 2011).

2. How satisfied, if at all, are the mentors with their mentees? In the second research question, SRM was utilized to measure the supervisory relationship from the supervisor's perspective. The SRM may be useful as a statistical predictor of the trainee's competence (as perceived by the supervisor) and the supervisors' satisfaction with the supervision (Pearce et al., 2012). The subscale scores and the total scores were considered in this study. A descriptive statistical analysis of the mean scores and the standard deviations of the item-subscale and total scores were utilized to measure the supervisory relationship from the supervisor's perspective (Pearce et al.).

3. How satisfied, if at all, are the mentees with their mentors? In the third research questions, SRQ was utilized to measure the supervisory relationship from the supervisee's perspective. This tool was noted to provide a method of monitoring and providing feedback to supervisors on their supervisory relationship (Palomo et al., 2010). The various components of the measure reflected educational and evaluative uses (Palomo et al.). It also provided the individual supervisors with a useful and practical tool for inviting feedback, discussion, and a review of the supervisory relationship (Palomo et al.). The subscale scores and the total scores were considered in this study. A descriptive statistical analysis of the mean scores, the standard deviations of the item-subscale, and the total scores were utilized to measure the supervisory relationship from the supervisee's perspective (Palomo et al.).

4. How does the degree of mentorship compatibility relate, or not relate, to the degree of satisfaction in the supervisory relationship? In order to answer the fourth question, the following hypotheses were formulated: If there is a high degree of compatibility (close mean with smaller standard deviation) between the preservice and

the cooperating teacher's mentorship perceptions, then there may also be a high degree of satisfaction within the supervisory relationship. If there is a low degree of compatibility (disparity in the mean with a wide standard deviation) in the mentorship perceptions, then there may also be a low degree of satisfaction within the supervisory relationship. It is also possible there may be no relationship between the mentorship perceptions and the supervisory relationship.

If a significant positive relationship exists between the Mentoring Functions and the supervisory relationship of the cooperating teachers, or between the Mentoring Functions and the supervisory relationship of the preservice teachers, then these three instruments (Mentoring Functions, Supervisory Relationship Measure (SRM), and Supervisory Relationship Questionnaire (SRQ)) may be utilized to better match and place the preservice teachers, or to evaluate and predict the quality of the matches prior to, during, and after the student teaching placement. Utilizing a correlational design, the Pearson product moment correlation examined for relationships between Mentoring Functions and SRM and Mentoring Functions and SRQ.

#### Procedure

All Midwestern institutions certified by the former NCATE, and the current accrediting body CAEP, were invited to participate in this study. More specifically, educational department chairs, deans, and student teaching placement coordinators were contacted and invited to participate in this study. Emails, phone calls, and/or face-to-face conferences relayed the purpose of the study and addressed possible research development/advancement in student teaching, especially in the area of matching/evaluating cooperating and preservice teachers. Afterwards, follow-up emails

were sent to the educational department deans/chairs with attached documents of the IRB approval, the informed consent letter, and the three survey instruments. Later, this researcher addressed the student body of the preservice teachers enrolled in student teaching at each institution at the beginning of a traditional spring semester.

Once preliminary consent and email addresses were obtained, the preservice and the cooperating teacher-dyads were contacted in January 2014 and 2015 and were asked to officially participate in the study. Within the first email was an explanation of the study, the researcher's contact information for any further inquiries, a hyperlink to an informed consent form, a fill-in-the-blank demographic information form, and the Mentoring Functions survey itself. Both the preservice and cooperating teachers were administered the Mentoring Functions survey, which allowed both the preservice and the cooperating teachers to evaluate their perceptions of mentoring as either a mentee or as a mentor. Dyads of preservice and cooperating teachers, who had direct working relationships, were coded and matched according to the demographic information provided.

In addition, once the first survey of the Mentoring Functions instrument was obtained, a second email was sent to the preservice and the cooperating teachers. In the last week of March 2014 and 2015, and the first week of April 2014 and 2015, an email containing a hyperlink to either SRM or SRQ was sent. The cooperating teachers were asked to take the SRM to rate their preservice teacher's competence, and the preservice teachers were asked to take the SRQ to rate their cooperating teacher's supervision. These evaluations allowed each stakeholder to rate his or her counterpart's input into the

supervisory relationship. Again, the surveys were coded and matched according to direct working dyads.

Twenty dyads of preservice and cooperating teachers were obtained. Once the data was collected, the self-rated Mentoring Functions was examined for compatibility between the dyads utilizing descriptive statistics of the mean scores and the standard deviations, as well as inferential statistics of a repeated *t*-test. The SRM taken by the cooperating teachers and the SRQ taken by the preservice teachers rated the level of satisfaction within the supervisory relationship. A descriptive statistics of the subscale and the total scores were utilized. Additionally, to analyze for relationships, the Pearson product moment correlated Mentoring Functions to SRM and Mentoring Functions to SRQ.

### Summary

In the clinical placement of student teaching, the preservice teachers are matched with the cooperating teachers, who assist in developing professionals. The preservice teacher's development, experience, actions, motives, as well as beliefs are affected by the cooperating teacher's influence (Anderson, 2007). Reasonably, how and who the preservice teachers are matched with should be deliberated and substantiated. The purpose of this study was to examine the mentoring perceptions and the supervisory relationship of the preservice and the cooperating teacher-dyads in student teaching, possibly advancing the discussion of appropriating and developing a method of matching the mentors to mentees, or evaluating the matches themselves.

Through this study, and more specifically in Chapter II, the importance and the development of mentoring studies in the workplace and educational fields are further

explored and compared. This researcher hoped to widen the scope of mentoring in applying advancement practices found in the workplace fields to the educational field of student teaching in matching preservice and cooperating teachers. Chapter II also addressed the development of student teaching and reviews the current placement/matching practices, as well as various matching approaches investigated in both workplace and educational fields.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

#### Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine the perceptions of mentoring and the quality of the supervisory relationship between the preservice and the cooperating teachers. The growing body of research indicated that mentoring is a critical topic being developed and utilized in various professional fields. Throughout this chapter, a mentoring literature review in both the workplace and the educational fields are explored, and a compendium of student teaching advancements and practices are also discussed.

Mentoring denotes various understandings. The concept of mentoring or mentor was initially brought forth in the Homer's epic, the *Odyssey*. The wise, old, fatherly Mentor (Athena, goddess of wisdom in disguise) was entrusted to teach, encourage, care, and guide Telemachus, Odysseus's son, during the Trojan War (Armstrong et al., 2002; Cunningham & Eberle, 1993; Ehrich & Hansford, 1999). Generally, a mentor is understood to be a more experienced individual who sponsors, counsels, supports, guides, instructs, and provides developmental assistance to a younger or less experienced protégé in his/her professional and/or personal life (Ehrich & Hansford; Kram, 1985). Mentors are typically portrayed as individuals who influence and exhibit certain characteristics, behaviors, skills, and qualities. This includes interpersonal skills, organizational knowledge, and technical competence, as well as the willingness to develop someone, share credit, show patience, and take risks (Cunningham & Eberle).

Terms such as guide, coach, counselor, teacher, and advisor have frequently been used in conjunction with mentoring terms (Cunningham & Eberle). Often mentoring encompasses several elements, including emotional and psychological support, direct assistance with career development, role modeling, relationship reciprocity, direct personal interaction, and a certain level of experience, influence, and achievement compared to that of a protégé (Chao, Walz, & Gardner, 1992; Kram 1985; Ragin & Cotton, 1999).

### Workplace Mentoring Studies

Mentoring has been around for many years in multiple fields, but this researcher found that the workplace fields had larger bodies of mentor-mentee matching studies and advancement practices than in the educational field, especially within the last 40 years. Many of these studies were found to overlap, utilizing quantitative methodologies; where the collected data was fundamentally empirical with a narrow body of specific questions that could be measured and given statistical value. In a comprehensive literature review on mentoring, Ehrich, Hansford, and Tennent (2004) found mentoring programs across three disciplines: business, medical, and educational fields. Ehrich et. al concluded that general mentoring studies typically addressed the nature, the outcome, and the key issues facing mentorship. Specifically, in the workplace fields, mentoring studies have primarily focused on the nature of mentorship, including types, functions, and the outcomes in regards to organizational socialization, job satisfaction, salary, motivation, improved performance, and attitudes (Allen et al., 2006; Chao et al., 1992; Ragins et al., 2000). The following studies address researches in these areas.



First, in considering the nature of mentorship, types of mentorship are categorized into two distinctive groups based on the formation of the relationship, either formal or informal (Chao et al., 1992). Formal mentorship is endorsed and recognized by an organization; whereas informal mentorship is unstructured and without formal organizational involvement (Chao et al.; Ragin & Cotton, 1999). The second primary area of study on mentorship examines two distinct mentoring functions: psychosocial and career-related functions, derived from the initial works conducted by Kram (Armstrong et al., 2002; Kram, 1985). Career-related functions include activities directly related to protégé's career advancement, such as sponsorship, exposure, visibility, coaching, protection, and the provision of challenging assignments (Kram, 1985). Psychosocial functions include activities that influence self-image and competence, such as role modeling, acceptance, confirmation, counseling, and friendship (Kram).

In an integrated foundational study, Chao et al. (1992) linked the types of mentorship to mentor functions and mentorship outcomes. Chao et al. compared a cross-section of 576 participants (212 protégés in informal mentorships, 53 protégés in formal mentorship programs, and 284 individuals with no mentorship) from both large and small institutions across the graduating classes of 1956-1986 (Chao et al.). Those in informal and formal mentorships were then compared along psychosocial and career-related functions (Chao et al.). In addition, all groups were compared on three outcome measures, including organizational socialization, job satisfaction, and salary (Chao et al.).

The results revealed that the protégés in informal mentorship relationships reported significantly greater career-related support than those protégés in formal mentorship relationships ( $F(1244) = 7.36, p < .01$ ), but the mean scores in the

psychosocial functions were found to be identical (Chao et al., 1992). In examining the outcome measures, protégés in informal mentoring relationships reported slightly higher levels of organizational socialization, satisfaction, and salaries than those in formal mentoring relationships (Chao et al.). In addition, those informally mentored had significant differences on all subscales of the outcome measures compared to those non-mentored (Chao et al.). Chao et al. suggested organizations create formal mentoring programs imitating informal mentoring characteristics, with emphasis on involvement, motivations, interpersonal factors, and input in the matching/selection processes.

Consistent with Chao et al. (1992), Ragin and Cotton (1999) also found informal mentoring more conducive to career development and psychosocial functions than formal mentoring. Ragin and Cotton examined the effects of the types of mentoring (formal or informal), with an added gender differentiation on mentoring functions and career outcomes. Ragin and Cotton surveyed 1162 respondents from three different occupational areas of engineering, social work, and journalism.

Utilizing the Mentor Role Instrument developed by Ragins and McFalin, descriptive statistic analysis, correlations of variables, as well as a hierarchical multiple regression analyses were utilized for relating and predicting career development, psychosocial functions, mentor satisfaction, and career outcomes (Ragin & Cotton, 1999). Protégés in informal mentoring relationships reported greater satisfaction and compensation than those in formal mentoring relationships (Ragin & Cotton). In addition, individuals in same-gender mentoring relationships reported more psychosocial functions and compensation than individuals in cross-gender relationships (Ragin & Cotton).

Multiple studies, including Chao et al. (1992) and Ragin and Cotton (1999), recognized the benefits of informal mentoring relationships compared to that of formal mentoring relationships. In order to reconcile the dichotomy found between informal and formal mentoring relationships, several studies suggested, researched, and called for careful selection and matching processes of mentors to their protégés (Armstrong et al., 2002; Chao et al.; Ragin & Cotton). Armstrong et al. speculated a need to match partners utilizing psychological factors in formal matching processes to closely model or resemble informal compatibility or matching practices. Reasonably, the dyadic nature of the mentorship relationship lends itself to this area of study.

Unlike several earlier studies on mentoring, Armstrong et al. (2002) conducted a dyadic study involving a data collection from a non-probability convenience sample drawn from those in law, health, and engineering professions. Within this study, 205 mentor-protégé dyads were surveyed with a return response rate of 26%. A total of 53 dyads were analyzed, of which 38 dyads were of the same gender. Armstrong et al. examined the effects of cognitive style matching in pairing mentors to protégés.

Armstrong et al.'s (2002) primary study explored the idea that congruence between cognitive styles would affect the career and psychosocial functions. As a secondary study, the authors also explored the effects of gender on mentorship. In order to assess cognitive style congruence, an analytic-intuitive instrument, Cognitive Style Index, developed by Allinson and Hayes was utilized (Armstrong et al.). In addition, items were drawn from studies which included items measuring the degrees to which the mentor served as a role model, provided counsel, friendship, acceptance and confirmation, as well as items including intelligence, personality, ambition, approach to

work, social attributes, and communication skills (Armstrong et al.). Descriptive statistical analysis, as well as inter-correlations of variables, and one-way analysis of variance was utilized to analyze the data. The findings indicated that the more ideas protégés perceived their mentors generating, the more they reported receiving career functions ( $r = .59, p \leq 0.01$ ) and psychosocial functions ( $r = 0.60, p \leq 0.01$ ) in their mentoring relationship (Armstrong et al.).

Essentially, Armstrong et al. (2002) found that dyads with similar cognitive matches resulted in an enhanced psychosocial and career mentoring functions. They also found that protégés received more career and psychosocial functions from mentors who generated more ideas (Armstrong et al.). Idea generation and perceived similarities positively affected partner liking of each other in the mentoring relationship, similar to those found in informal mentoring relationships. In addition, dyads consisting of different genders reported significantly less mutual liking (Armstrong et al.). In Armstrong et al.'s study, the researchers attempted to address how formal mentoring systems should closely emulate informal mentoring characteristics in order to overcome differences in interpersonal relationships, resulting in more career and psychosocial functions.

In the workplace fields, a large body of mentoring research exists and in quantitative methodological form. Workplace fields have explored, developed, expanded, adapted, and further streamlined mentorship studies and practices. In summary, multiple researchers have examined the types of mentorship (formal or informal), functions of mentorship (career-related or psychosocial), and the outcomes mentorship provides (satisfaction, salary, motivation, improved performance, and attitude). Although workplace fields have made great advancements in considering mentor-mentee matching

practices in some short four to five decades, the educational field has not yet made similar strides. In the following section, a review of the literature in the educational field is examined.

### Educational Mentoring Studies

In the educational field, mentorship is critical in bringing future teachers into the teaching practice. In fact, in student teaching (the practice of becoming a teacher) the preservice teacher learns under the tutelage of an experienced mentor/cooperating teacher. The practice of student teaching is considered the most important and is the most intensive exposure to the teaching experience by prospective teachers (Cohen, Hoz, & Kaplan, 2013; Koerner et al., 2002).

This researcher has found that mentoring studies in the educational field have focused primarily around four themes: the roles and responsibilities of the participants, the stages in student teaching development, the stages in the mentoring relationship/personal perspectives, and the values/assumptions of mentors (Hawkey, 1997). Also, many of these themes were found to overlap, and many were found to be qualitative in their research methodology, utilizing data collected in forms of interviews, discussions within focus groups, field observations, and reflective journals.

In one study conducted by Young, Bullough, Draper, Smith, and Erickson (2005), a theoretical framework on symbolic interactionism of mentoring noted various components of each of the four themes (roles/responsibilities, functions/development stages, interpersonal development/mentoring stages, and influential biases). In Young et al.'s study, the researchers, after recording their findings, wanted to understand why the individuals acted as they did. In order to gain access to the mentors' thinking, open-ended

prompts about their interactions and their relationships with their preservice teachers were investigated and analyzed. Due to the qualitative nature of the data set, the researchers interactively processed, searched, and identified patterns, similarities and differences. In addition, the researchers conducted constant comparative methodology through successive rounds of coding, reflecting, and consensus summarizing until salient examples of dominant themes emerged (Young et al.). Young et al. identified three general patterns within a continuum in which mentors interacted with their preservice teachers in one of three ways: responsive, interactive, and directive.

In the first interaction identified, the preservice teacher essentially guided and directed the responsive mentor/cooperating teacher (Young et al., 20005). The mentee set the action agenda, and the responsive mentor served in one of several ways: as an aide, as an advisor, as a cheerleader, as a resource, or as a guide (Young et al.). Somewhat similar to the responsive mentor, the interactive mentor sought relational equality and valued contributions from the mentee (Young et al.). Young et al. characterized the interactive mentor as either a friend, a colleague, or as a trusted advisor. Unlike the responsive or the interactive mentor, the directive mentor took charge (Young et al.). The directive mentor set the action agenda, had a clear expectation of the mentee's performance, and essentially guided or corrected his/her preservice teacher accordingly (Young et al.). Young et al. noted that the directive mentor assumed a role of a master teacher, a guide, and a coach who attempted to rectify the deficits within the mentee's skillset. Young et al. identified three types of interactions the cooperating teachers assumed.

Furthermore, Young et al. (2005) also identified eight dimension of mentoring, including the mentors' emotional availability, the levels of engagement/investment in the

relationship, and the critical nature of their mentoring. Analyses of the eight dimensions revealed some variations in how general mentoring patterns were enacted. To account for these differences, the eight dimensions of mentoring were constructed into four polarities and compared. The eight dimensions of mentoring (four polarities) were examined across the three general patterns of the mentors' interactions and across various times in the internship year (Young et al.). The dimensions or polarities ranged from being emotionally available to distant, engaged to dis-engaged, invested to un-invested, and critical to nonjudgmental (Young et al.). Young et al. suggested that attributes such as emotional availability or capacity to invest appropriately to novice teachers' growth and critical thinking processes be considered beyond the technical aspect of mentoring.

Aside from Young et al.'s (2005) study, which overlapped the various themes most educational studies encompassed, many other studies were examined. Again, four major themes were found across the educational field: roles/responsibilities, functions/development stages, interpersonal development/mentoring stages, and influential biases (Hawkey, 1997).

The first major theme on mentoring referenced the expertise and the distinctive roles and responsibilities of those directly or indirectly involved in training the preservice teachers (Hawkey, 1997; Hudson & Hudson, 2010; Hudson & Hudson, 2011; Schwille, 2008). The researchers Edwards and Protheroe (2004) found mentors were regularly absent from the classrooms, treated the preservice teachers as proxies, and did not focus on the preservice teachers as a learner. Many cooperating teachers saw themselves as advisors, and not as mentors responsible for the primary education of preservice teachers (Edwards & Protheroe). Edwards and Protheroe further concluded that very little

pedagogical acts of interpreting, recognizing, responding, and connecting the preservice teachers to the learners took place. The analyses of this study evidenced a weakness in the mentoring arrangement, where the cooperating teachers did not position themselves as the preservice teachers' partners in the preparation for their future service (Edward & Protheroe).

The second major theme in the educational literature examined the functional and the developmental stages of the preservice teacher and/or the cooperating teacher, as well as their mentorship relationship (Glenn, 2006; Hawkey, 1997; Stanulis & Russell, 2000). Meijer, de Graaf, and Meirink (2011) addressed the key experiences in the preservice teacher's development. In addition, the researchers addressed how the preservice teachers continued to stay in the teaching field even after their first challenging teaching experience. The preservice teachers evaluated their experience into several periods, including transformative moments, anticipation, survival, disillusionment, rejuvenation, reflection, and anticipation (Meijer et al.). Also, Meijer et al. addressed how preservice teachers moved onto dealing with negative experiences to resilience, while being committed to teaching and developing their identity.

The third major theme found in the educational field essentially explored the topology of mentoring, the interpersonal development/stages, and the various aspects of the mentoring relationship. For example, Ambrosetti (2010) examined two groups of preservice teachers (the first and final year preservice teachers) to compare their experiences and perceptions of their mentor-teacher, the perceptions of their own mentoring relationships, and their perceptions of the preservice teachers themselves. Like most educational studies, Ambrosetti conducted a qualitative research. The survey



conducted contained five specific mentoring questions around three themes: the mentoring relationship, the mentor teacher, and the preservice teacher. A survey was distributed online to 90 first year and 65 final year preservice teachers (Ambrosetti). The response rate was 49%, with 44 first year and 31 final year preservice teacher respondents (Ambrosetti). The responses were analyzed for key words and phrases, and three emergent themes or components were identified, namely relational, developmental, and contextual perceptions (Ambrosetti).

Ambrosetti (2010) began with the premise that holistic mentoring addressed relational, developmental, and contextual components that included understanding school policies, introduction to staff, building orientation, and school activities. When considering perceptions of the mentor teachers, the first year teachers regarded teaching practices, how to be a teacher, and how to have confidence as the most important factors (Ambrosetti). However, the final year teachers expressed perceptions of confidence, professional knowledge, and how to be a teacher as the most important factors (Ambrosetti). In regards to the mentoring relationship, the first year preservice teachers identified and ranked guidance, role modeling, and feedback as the most important aspects of mentoring (Ambrosetti). The final year preservice teachers ranked feedback, support, and guidance as the most important respectively (Ambrosetti). In regards to the perceptions of themselves, the preservice teachers' responses revealed an awareness of their role as being developmental (Ambrosetti). The preservice teachers were also aware that they themselves were responsible to their learning as active participants in accepting and applying feedback as they were given (Ambrosetti).

Ambrosetti (2010) evidenced the importance and expectations of a quality mentoring relationship. According to Ambrosetti, the preservice teachers' perceptions of equality and supportiveness were essential to attaining confidence in teaching. Furthermore, Ambrosetti found that the interactions between the mentors and mentees developed around communication endorsed feelings of nurture, assistance, and friendship.

The fourth and final theme that emerged in the educational literature on mentoring is how the mentors responded and influenced mentees through their own perceptions, values, and assumptions (Hawkey, 1997; Moore, 2003; Owen & Solomon, 2006). Essentially, this last theme explored the role of power and influence the cooperating teachers exert on their preservice teachers. In one study conducted by Anderson (2007), the researcher examined how cooperating teachers affected the student teachers' actions, intentions, and beliefs, as well as the sources of such influence.

Anderson (2007) utilized a mixed methods design of surveying 56 student teachers and 48 cooperating teachers with a pre and post-practicum questionnaire, and an added interview of 12 preservice and cooperating teacher dyads randomly selected based on grade level and placement length. Anderson used phenomenology and an applied psychological perspective to determine the following emergent power themes: evaluation as in fear of failing; reward as in glowing recommendation for job placement; distribution of knowledge as in experience and expertise; and vested authority as in position, status held, and directives given; as well as charisma.

Anderson (2007) found that cooperating teachers profoundly affected the preservice teachers' development and experience ( $M = 4.16$ ,  $SD = .757$ ). In fact,

preservice teachers noted cooperating teachers (59%) and the experience of practicing their craft (59%) as the most influential factors in their change. The preservice teachers' actions, motives, and beliefs were altered through the cooperating teachers' influence (Anderson). Anderson suggested that cooperating teachers be made aware of their strong influence and shape the student teachers through a combination of pressure and support (Anderson).

Throughout the educational literature, four major themes in student teaching as mentorship repeatedly surfaced: the participants' roles and responsibilities, the stages of preservice teachers' development, the stages in mentorship relationship/personal perspectives, as well as the influence/bias mentors exerted on their student teachers (Hawkey, 1997). It should be noted, numerous studies on mentoring in the educational field have been conducted, but very few have been quantitative in nature, and even fewer have been dyadic, involving both preservice and cooperating teachers (Tripp & Eick, 2008). It would stand to reason that the educational field could learn and consider mentoring research possibilities from the workplace fields. In order to understand the disparity found in the mentoring research within the educational field, a brief history of student teaching is contextualized, along with the current and ideal placement and matching considerations, as well as researches on available matching approaches.

### Student Teaching

Mentoring has historically played a significant role in training, inducting and developing new teaching professionals (Ehrich et al., 2004). According to Johnson (1968), student teaching developed from teachers serving as apprentices under a master teacher. This apprenticeship embodied learning by doing. During the mid-1400's to mid-

1500's, formal efforts were made to train teachers. Examples included Godshouse College in England, the Brothers of the Common Life Schools in Northern Europe, Sturm's Protestant Gymnasium of Strassburg, and the Society for Jesus by the Jesuit Order (Johnson). It was common practice to give students applications in teaching and demonstrating lessons to fellow students.

In 1534, Ignatius Loyola and the Jesuits focused primarily on secondary education (Johnson, 1968). Whereas in 1685, Jean Baptiste de la Salle, generally considered the father of student teaching focused on preparing elementary teachers (Johnson). As time passed, teaching colleges developed, evolved, and transplanted from various parts of Europe to the United States, primarily to prepare missionaries and clergymen (Johnson). In the early 1800's, increased educational activities and interests grew. By the early 1900's, models of normal schools, those created to train high school graduates to be teachers, in conjunction with practice teaching methods received recognition and prominence through several educators, including Horace Mann, Reverend Thomas H. Gallaudet, James G. Carter, and Henry Barnard (Johnson).

During this time, Dr. Edward A. Sheldon and Friedrich Herbart developed what is now referred to as Pestalozzian Method and Herbartian Method (Johnson, 1968). These formed the basis for training new teachers, emphasizing methods of instruction to develop skills in methods of teaching (Johnson). Later, through the work of Gordy Stanley Hall, teaching programs innovated to include observations of practices and end-of-term-reports, revealing information about the apprentice's experience (Johnson). By the late 1800's, the development and acceptance of educational psychology placed an emphasis upon the learner, the learning process, and the teaching methods. Practice

teaching was established as the most important phase of the teacher preparation (Johnson).

By the mid-1900's, normal schools became state teacher colleges, and as the general population grew, so did the enrollment of elementary schools, increasing the demand for prepared teachers (Johnson, 1968). By the 1930's, the first state certification law required practice teaching, and by 1959, the quantity of student teaching hours required for various state certifications was established (Johnson). In 1954, the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education was formed, setting standards for student teaching and influencing institutions in preparing preservice teachers (Johnson).

As the number of practice teachers grew, the use of public schools for practice teaching also grew. Advocates for public school experience felt campus laboratory schools did not provide typical conditions under which the practice teachers would eventually work (Johnson, 1968). As early as 1935, many states passed laws making it possible for teacher training institutions to enter into agreements with public school systems (Johnson). By the 1950's, student teaching programs favored off-campus practice teaching experiences (Johnson).

According to Johnson (1968), student teaching was essentially defined as practical teaching experience under the close supervision of an experienced teacher. Just as normal schools outgrew size, scope, and function, so did state teacher colleges. State teacher colleges became state colleges to include teacher education, liberal arts, and graduate programs (Johnson). Eventually, institutions diversified programs to meet the educational demands. By the 1960's, trends grew toward universal acceptance of student teaching as the core of professional education (Johnson). Student teaching required more

off-campus full-time experience, more credit hours, longer assignments, higher standards, provision of more and higher quality supervision, and research activities (Johnson).

#### Selection, Placement, and Matching Considerations

As noted earlier, student teaching is the longest and the most intensive exposure to teaching by prospective teachers (Cohen et al., 2013). An in-depth survey of the literature revealed that the cooperating teacher is the single most important and influential factor in the practical experience, yet concerns about identifying desirable cooperating teachers persist (Coleman & Mitchell, 2001; Darling-Hammond, 2006; LaBoskey & Richert, 2002). In fact, the researchers disclosed three prominent concerns in student teaching: identifying desirable candidates, creating an appropriate training program, and monitoring the performance of the cooperating teachers to ensure program congruence (Coleman & Mitchell). In this section, selection, placement, and matching considerations currently employed and ideally sought after are explored.

According to Anderson (2007), Blocker and Swetnam (1995), Leslie, (1971), and Morrish (2008), the current cooperating teacher selection and placement practice of many institutions are guided and limited by the principal's recommendation, evaluation from previous student teacher, three years experience in teaching, and the willingness to take a preservice teacher. Kitchel and Torres (2007), as well as Potthoff and Alley (1996), added to the list of placement considerations from various institutions to include proximity to the university, proximity to a region, previous relationship with the cooperating teacher, and personalities, as well as the success of the program. In the various studies referenced, no standardized method or substantiated qualifiers were given

to identify/select high caliber cooperating teachers, or substantiate/maximize a good-fit quality match/placement of the preservice teachers.

In a study conducted by Bozella (2008), the researcher attempted to widen the scope of possible placement considerations. Bozella explored a more holistic approach of a site placement, examining themes such as the cooperating teacher, collaboration, placement accessibility, school site, diversity, coherence, cohorts, location, certification requirements, and student requests.

Bozella (2008) contacted 93 teacher education programs to procure participants for an online survey. Out of the 81 placement coordinators invited, 46 responded, obtaining a response rate of 56% (Bozella). The online Likert-scale survey also included four open-ended items. In addition, volunteers were interviewed with six more follow-up questions. Bozella analyzed the quantitative data utilizing descriptive statistic analysis and the qualitative data for emergent themes.

In Bozella's study (2008), amongst the placement coordinators, the top three most important factors in placing student teachers were cooperating teachers, collaboration, and accessibility. Above all, the cooperating teacher was the most important consideration to the placement; however, accessibility precluded the ideal consideration (Bozella). In the ideal model, as reported by the respondents, student teaching coordinators wanted the opportunity to match the student teachers to the cooperating teachers based on matching personalities (Bozella).

Along similar placement research, Beck and Kosnik's (2002) revealed several components of a good practicum placement as perceived by student teachers. Beck and Kosnik conducted a qualitative study that examined a small sample of 11 interviewees.

The open-ended interviews were examined and coded according to emergent themes. They included relational factors such as emotional support, peer relationship, collaboration, flexibility in teaching content and method, constructive collegial feedback/dialogue, and sound approach to teaching/learning, as well as a heavy but not excessive workload (Beck & Kosnik).

Based on various studies, this researcher has concluded, aside from certain determinants (i.e. location, accessibility, or even willingness), matching and placing preservice teachers demands a more substantiated basis, possibly something along a relational or a psychosocial function. Again, no national standardized screening instrument currently exists in identifying or selecting cooperating teachers. Additionally, no national standardized process or method exists in matching or placing preservice teachers. Few attempts have been made and examined by various researchers, and these studies are addressed accordingly.

Kahan (2002) developed a 35-item screening instrument. The instrument measured physical education teachers' attitudes toward systematic supervisory behaviors, including perceptions of variables that impact supervision, beliefs about supervisory preferences, and style (Kahan). After piloting an instrument, 76 physical education cooperating teachers were surveyed. After employing MANOVA, followed by ANOVA, differences between groups of cooperating teachers were noted (Kahan). Kahan found that amongst the three subscales, only teaching level, coaching status, and educational level behaviors differentiated amongst cooperating teachers. More specifically, the elementary and middle school cooperating teachers scored higher on the subscales than the high school teachers, the non-coaching cooperating teachers scored higher than the



coaching cooperating teachers, and the cooperating teachers with graduate coursework scored higher than those without (Kahan). Essentially, responses collected from the 35-item instrument distinguished cooperating teachers on the basis of attitudes toward various issues in supervision as a possible method of selecting and perhaps matching preservice teachers to cooperating teachers, but Kahan suggested further research.

While several studies have called for careful screening, selection, and matching practices of mentors to mentees, very few have indicated as to how this could actually be achieved (Kahan, 2002). LaBoskey and Richert (2002) implied effective matching is desirable, and even crucial to the success of a student teaching program, as well as the individuals involved. As expressed by Kitchel and Torres (2007), if the cooperating teacher is indeed important to the student teaching experience, then it stands to reason that the interaction or the relationship between the two should be regarded.

In Kardos and Johnson's (2010) study, the researchers advocated matching and sustaining a good mentorship interaction in order to develop and retain teachers. Beyond the scope of student teaching, Kardos and Johnson conducted a quantitative research of 374 out of 564 first and second year full time K-12 public school teachers. Working from a list of schools from the U.S. Department of Education's Common Core of Data, Kardos and Johnson determined that three different states had experienced some degree of teacher shortages. The researchers directed their attention towards new teachers' experiences of mentorship. Kardos and Johnson derived at three inquiry focuses, including presence of mentoring, characteristics of mentor match, and the nature of the interactions between the mentor and the new teacher.

Kardos and Johnson (2010) found that a high proportion of new teachers had an official and an experienced mentor, but large proportion of the new teachers had less than ideal matches. Kardos and Johnson also found that large proportion of the new teachers were never observed by mentors (59%), or had less than three conversations about classroom management (42%), lesson planning (42%), and classroom instruction (44%). Furthermore, the researchers also found low-income schools had less than ideal matches, less discussion, and less desirable matches in the areas of math, science, and technology than from those in higher-income schools (Kardos & Johnson). Kardos and Johnson also found that even though the presence of official mentoring was high, many new teachers had less than ideal matches and interactions. In addition, close proximity allowed for accessibility, but did not facilitate increased interactions (Kardos & Johnson).

After examining researches beyond the scope of student teaching to induction mentoring programs, this researcher advocates for a substantiated model/matching practice in the educational field. In a study conducted by Blocker and Swetnam (1995), the researchers reported that the status of identifying, selecting, and evaluating cooperating teachers had changed very little over the past several decades. In fact, data confirmed that teacher education programs continued to heavily rely on the principal's recommendation of cooperating teachers above all other factors (Blocker & Swetnam). Additionally, Blocker and Swetnam disclosed that the three most important criteria utilized for placing preservice teachers were the cooperating teacher's classroom teaching experience, interpersonal skills, and volunteerism. The limited advancements made in identifying, selecting, matching, and even evaluating cooperating teachers, need to be addressed for optimal learning, retention, and maximal outcomes.

## Matching Approaches

In both the workplace and educational fields several mentorship-matching studies have emerged. However, very few have been quantitative and even fewer have been dyadic in their approach. The few pertinent studies in both workplace and educational fields relevant to this specific study are considered here. In the workplace fields, three studies emerged, including matching through goal orientation, cognitive style, and mutual-choice placements. In the educational field, matching through personality, learning perceptions, and interpersonal similarities/comfort emerged and are addressed.

In a workplace dyadic quantitative study, Egan (2005) examined how having a similar learning goal orientation (LGO) impacted the protégé-mentor relationship. Egan proposed that when protégés and mentors share similar LGO, the protégés would report more role modeling and more positive career-related outcomes, such as managerial career aspirations, goal commitment, and career satisfaction.

Egan (2005) surveyed 143 protégé-mentor pairs out of 198 employees and managers invited, a response rate of 72%, from a large nonprofit healthcare organization with a formal mentoring program. Although Egan was studying formal mentoring dyads, an informal mentoring instrument was utilized to measure LGO, career satisfaction, role modeling, and goal commitment. Mentoring dyads were grouped into one of four categories based on the LGO. The differences between the protégé and the mentor's LGO ratings were computed. The difference scores of each dyad were compared to the mean difference scores. Standard deviation categorized dyads into low-congruent or high-congruent LGO dyads, and then a Multivariate Analysis of Covariance (MANCOVA) compared the category means of the dependent variables (Egan).

Egan's (2005) study supported and advocated a similarity-attraction perspective of mentoring in formal mentoring programs. Furthermore, Egan found that high levels of LGO produced similar mentoring influences and protégé career-related outcomes, similar to those found in informal mentoring relationships. Egan also determined, the more homogeneous the protégé-mentor dyad, the greater mentor support and protégé outcomes. Additionally, having similar LGO resulted in higher managerial aspirations, career satisfaction, motivation, mastery-oriented response patterns, and behaviors (Egan).

Egan's (2005) study confirmed that formal mentoring relationships do and can work much like informal mentoring relationships when a higher level of attraction exists between the mentors and the protégés through similar goal orientation. In a similar dyadic matching study, Armstrong et al. (2002) explored how congruence/incongruence between the cognitive styles affected career and psychosocial functions associated with mentoring relationships. In addition, as a secondary study, Armstrong et al. also examined the effects of gender on mentoring relationships.

In this research, Armstrong et al. (2002) surveyed 205 mentor-protégé dyads from three sectors: law, health, and engineering. With a response rate of 26%, 53 dyads were determined. Thirty-eight of the dyads were found to be of the same gender while the remaining 15 were not (Armstrong et al.). Cognitive style was assessed on the basis of analytic-intuitive dimensions utilizing the Cognitive Style Index (CSI) developed by Allinson and Hayes (Armstrong et al.). Descriptive statistics summarized the mentor and protégé characteristics, and congruence was determined by calculating the difference between the CSI scores of the dyad partners. Cognitive style index was then correlated to relationship outcomes (Armstrong et al.).

Armstrong et al. (2002) found that the more ideas protégés perceived their mentors generating, reported more career and psychosocial functions. They also found a direct relationship between cognitive style and similarities (Armstrong et al.). Both mentors and protégés reported greater mentor-protégé similarities provided greater career and psychosocial functions (Armstrong et al.). Additionally, idea generation and perceived similarities were both significantly affected by cognitive style and had a positive influence on mutual liking (Armstrong et al.). It was also determined that *liking* enhanced the quality of the mentorship. However, dyads consisting of different genders reported significantly less mutual liking (Armstrong et al.).

Through their findings, Armstrong et al. encouraged creating a formal matching program closely simulating an informal matching process based on similarities, *liking*, and cognitive congruence, either being more intuitive or being more analytical in thinking. Similarly, Allen et al. (2006) also considered perceptions of formal mentoring programs and outcomes. The participants were asked about mentoring behaviors, mentorship quality, program characteristics, interaction frequency, and potential controls (Allen et al.).

Allen et al. (2006) essentially examined the relationship between participant-reported formal mentoring program characteristics and mentoring relationship outcomes. The outcomes examined mentoring behaviors of career, psychosocial, and role modeling, in addition to mentorship quality. Four workplaces with formal mentoring program were included in the study: healthcare, manufacturing, oil, and technology companies (Allen et al.). Of the 681 invited, 175 protégés and 110 mentors responded, a response rate of 42% (Allen et al.). The participants were surveyed using Allen and Eby's instrument,

Scandura's measure, indicating the extent mentoring was provided. In Addition, questions were asked about program characteristics and interaction frequency. The dyads were matched through a coding process, and the data analyzed along means, standard deviations, and correlational analyses (Allen et al.).

Allen et al. (2006) reported that volunteering made little difference in the mentoring outcomes. However, perceived input into the matching process was important to both the mentors and the protégés (Allen et al.). Additionally, more input or voice given to the matching process reported greater satisfaction, and facilitated greater investment and motivation in maximizing the relationship (Allen et al.). Furthermore, greater feedback from both the mentors and the protégés resulted in greater mentorship quality perceptions (Allen et al.). Allen et al. also determined proximity had little bearing compared to the interaction frequency, and noted greater career and psychosocial function between both mentors and protégés within the same department, and greater mutual identification within closer ranks.

Allen et al. (2006) challenged the existing formal and informal mentoring constructs, and suggested focusing on creating a voice for both the mentors and protégés in the matching process. Allen et al. encouraged mutual-choice placement through mutual identification, interpersonal comfort, and liking.

In summary, the workplace fields considered and advocated matching through goal orientation, cognitive style, and mutual-choice placements through quantitative dyadic studies. However, very few mentor-mentee matching studies in the educational schema have been quantitative in nature and even fewer have been dyadic. Both qualitative and quantitative studies relevant to this specific study are addressed here,

including personality matching, matching through learning perceptions, and interpersonal similarities/comfort. For the most part, the few matching studies conducted in the educational field have drawn inconclusive results, or has revealed very minimal determinants in matching mentors to mentees. The salient studies are addressed.

In an educational study on personality matching of mentors to mentees, Tripp and Eick (2008) examined mentorship of cooperating and preservice teachers. Tripp and Eick's qualitative study of four dyads examined the working relationships of the preservice and the cooperating teachers through a four-quadrant personality assessment. The interview data generated from each of the four cases were analyzed descriptively, and the field data was triangulated according to the preservice teachers' practice, and the cooperating teachers' views (Tripp & Eick). Later, theme statements were categorized. The co-researchers sought agreement, compared results to the inventory results, and examined anecdotal narratives for emergent themes specific to color constructs associated with statement from the data analysis (Tripp & Eick). Tripp and Eick used the primary and secondary temperament similarities and anecdotal evidence to pair preservice teachers to their cooperating teachers. The goal of the placement was to meet the preservice teachers' mentoring needs and their preferred styles of teaching (Tripp & Eick).

Tripp and Eick (2008) found mixed results. Although the temperament framework was informative, it was not definitive in properly matching student teachers to the cooperating teachers. The four-quadrant temperament framework utilized the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator®: Gold was described as a more traditional, organized, structured, and duty-driven personality (Tripp & Eick). Blue was described as a more supportive,

communicative, relational, and encouraging personality (Tripp & Eick). Green was described as a more autonomous, logical, curiosity-driven, and intellectual personality (Tripp & Eick). Lastly, orange was described as more spontaneous, experiential, expressive, and change-driven personality (Tripp & Eick). Tripp and Eick found that the blue color trait was necessary for the cooperating teacher. The blue trait provided moral support, active coaching, and daily supportive feedback (Tripp & Eick). Without a strong blue temperament, the cooperating teachers were found to be aloof (Tripp & Eick). Tripp and Eick also found that the gold trait was the most critical for the preservice teachers as it cultivated a respectful relationship, with a ready and willing spirit to learn.

In another personality matching study, Morrison (2009) met similar findings. Morrison investigated whether personality between formally matched mentor and protégé pairs interacted to predict the quality of mentoring, and how that quality influenced the protégé's work attitude. Utilizing the Big Five personality traits of conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, emotional stability, and openness, Morrison surveyed a cross-section of 481 matched counselor-clinical supervisor dyads. Mean, standard deviation, and zero-order correlations for each of the variables were calculated. Then each personality interaction variables were tested using residual centered moderator regression with the inclusion of polynomial terms (Morrison).

Morrison found that protégés who were lower in neuroticism and higher on conscientiousness reported a higher quality mentoring relationship. The protégés also reported a higher quality mentoring relationship when paired with moderately extraverted mentors (Morrison). Additionally, the relationship quality was strongly correlated to the outcomes of the protégé's job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover



intensions, as well as functioned as a mediator between the mentor-protégé's personalities (Morrison).

In a more comprehensive educational study, Rajuan, Beijaard, and Verloop (2010) conducted a qualitative study of 20 dyads of Israeli preservice and cooperating teachers to determine if matched or mismatched expectations of the cooperating teacher's role affected opportunities in learning to teach.

In this study, 20 student teachers were randomly matched and placed in schools according to various geographical locations (Rajuan et al., 2010). The cooperating and the student teachers' expectations of the cooperating teacher's role was examined and categorized according to teaching orientations (Rajuan et al.). Orientations included various knowledge and skills necessary for learning to teach: academic, technical, practical, personal or critical nature (Rajuan et al.). In addition, student teachers' pedagogical journals were examined for perceived learning and also categorized for orientations. Patterns of match or mismatch perceptions between the dyads were determined (Rajuan et al.). Dominant orientations were compared and then analyzed horizontally and cross-case, resulting in three patterns: high support, matched orientations; high challenge, mismatched orientations; and balanced support or challenge, mixed orientation (Rajuan et al.).

Utilizing learning perceptions in academic/cognitive, technical/mechanical, practical/experiential, personal/affective, and critical/social orientations for compatibility, Rajuan et al. (2010) found that extreme match and mismatch in expectations concerning the role of the cooperating teacher contributed to limited opportunities in learning to teach. Some level of matched expectations fostered a high degree of support (Rajuan et

al.). Conversely, mismatched expectations increased the level of difficulty (Rajuan et al.). In addition, a mixed match teaching orientation provided an optimal learning opportunity (Rajuan et al.).

In a study beyond student teaching, Owen and Solomon (2006) examined mentoring induction programs of new teachers. Owen and Solomon surveyed two sets of interns from 1999-2000 and again in 2001-2002. The researchers randomly sampled 1500 interns from the first year and 1600 interns from the second year. Owen and Solomon sampled every school district, as well as every grade level from the New York City (NYC) Public School system. From the formal mentoring program of NYC public schools, interns were matched based on concrete determinants such as licensing, grade, subject, and the types of students (Owen & Solomon).

Owen and Solomon (2006) sought to determine if the presence of interpersonal similarities in the mentoring relationships affected greater overall satisfaction with the mentoring program and the retention of teachers. Owen and Solomon comparatively analyzed the function of mentor-intern similarity through simultaneous regression analysis of interpersonal variables, predicting interns' mean satisfaction with the mentor-program, and the mentor-program's effectiveness rating.

The researchers found that interpersonal similarities such as outside interests, teaching styles, personality types, and similar values had a positive effect on the first and second year interns' overall satisfaction, and their perceptions of the mentoring program's effectiveness, as well as the attrition of teachers in the NYC public schools (Owen & Solomon, 2006). Owen and Solomon also noted that the matches in the more personal areas were coincidental but notably effective in promoting positive responses to

the mentorship program. The researchers recommended that the protégés be matched with mentors with whom they perceived similarities in personality and values, where positive feelings, cooperation, influence, and mutual attraction could be fostered (Owen & Solomon). In accordance with Armstrong et al. (2002) and Allen et al. (2006), interpersonal comfort can be a criterion for affirming effective mentorship.

Although the body of mentoring research has grown both in workplace and educational fields, gaps still remain, such as the ones Allen et al. (2006) cited: analyzing formal program characteristics, examining relationships in mentorship outcomes and relational qualities, identifying and analyzing the mentor's perspective, and comparing crossover relationships. Ellinger (2002) also observed gaps within the educational field, including longitudinal studies on individuals and institutions, impact of technology on mentoring, as well as gender, ethnic, and cultural differences within mentorship relationships. Ellinger additionally recommended examining the perspectives of mentors and protégés, exploring characteristics that affect the relationship, as well as analyzing mentor quality and mentoring dyads.

Matching mentees to mentors is more complex than simply putting two people together. However, matching through personality traits yielded mixed results. In the educational field, researchers have advocated avoiding extreme matching or even mismatching, but allowing for some congruence in order to optimize learning. Several workplace studies have encouraged matching through psychological elements, such as interpersonal, cognitive, and goal orientations. Still others admittedly supported perceived input or voice into the matching process in order to increase perceived

satisfaction. Whether in the educational or the workplace fields, the dyadic nature of mentoring requires studies of both mentors and mentees together.

### Conclusion

In traditional mentoring relationships, mentors use their knowledge, skills, and position to develop and assist their protégés in their profession (Ehrich & Hansford, 1999). Similarly, in student teaching, cooperating teachers mentor or assist the development of their preservice teachers. The review of the literature on mentoring encompassed studies in both workplace and educational fields. Additionally, the formation and development of student teaching, the current and ideal identification/selection, placement, and matching considerations were addressed. Furthermore, various dyadic matching and placement studies in both workplace and educational fields were explored.

### Summary

Chapter II provided background research on mentoring through the lens of both workplace and educational fields. In the review of the literature, the workplace fields surfaced mentoring studies that were predominantly utilizing quantitative methodology, clustered around four areas: comparing types of mentoring, such as informal, formal, or having no mentoring relationships; examining the functions they provide, such as career related or psychosocial functions; evaluating outcomes such as job satisfaction, improved skills, and collegiality; as well as identifying problems, such as incompatibility, lack of training, and attitudes (Allen et al., 2006; Ehrich et al., 2004). In the educational field, mentoring studies, predominantly utilizing qualitative methodology, were developed around four other areas: identifying roles and responsibilities of the participants,

examining the stages in the student teaching development, analyzing interpersonal mentoring stages, and determining influential biases (Hawkey, 1997; Young et al., 2005). For the most part, the educational mentoring studies were developed around observations made during the mentoring, but very few researches addressed how the mentorship matches could be facilitated or evaluated. The few found were noted in Chapter II. Additionally, Chapter II reviewed developments in student teaching, as well as the current and ideal identification/selection, and matching/placement considerations. Moreover, matching approaches in the workplace and educational fields surfaced possible matching considerations through goal orientation, cognitive style, mutual-choice placement, personality, learning perceptions, and interpersonal similarities/comfort.

The researchers, Rajuan et al. (2010), recommended mentoring research around matching practices of preservice and cooperating teachers. Ellinger (2002) also recommended examining the perceptions of mentors and protégés, as well as the mentorship quality within the dyads. As suggested, this researcher investigated mentoring within a dyadic relationship, examining the cooperating and preservice teachers' perceptions of mentoring, compatibility/congruence thereof, and their level of satisfaction within their supervisory relationship, as well as the possible relatedness between these two factors. Chapter III lays out the methodology utilized in this study to answer four specific questions around these topics.

## CHAPTER III

### METHODOLOGY

#### Introduction

The purpose of this study was to analyze the perceptions of mentoring and the quality of the supervisory relationship between the preservice and the cooperating teachers. Through this descriptive, non-experimental, correlational, quantitative study, the researcher investigated the viability of using three instruments to identify, as well as to determine if a correlation exists between mentorship perceptions and the supervisory relationship of the preservice and cooperating teacher-dyads.

Through the careful examination of the literature, Chapter II consolidated the concepts and studies explored on mentorship in various fields, including workplace and educational arenas. Chapter III examines the research methodology. The methodology includes the explanation of the research design, population sample, data collection processes, analytical methodology, as well as the limitations of this study. In order to focus the methodology, the following four research questions were considered:

1. How compatible, if at all, are the preservice teachers to their cooperating teachers?
2. How satisfied, if at all, are the mentors with their mentees?
3. How satisfied, if at all, are the mentees with their mentors?
4. How does the degree of mentorship compatibility relate, or not relate, to the degree of satisfaction in the supervisory relationship?

## Research Design

This research study examined the compatibility/congruence of mentorship perceptions to how satisfied or not satisfied the cooperating and the preservice teachers were within their supervisory relationships. In order to address the research questions, a quantitative methodology was utilized. This research design is quantitative as it investigated observable phenomena via statistical and computational techniques (Salkind, 2011; Yockey 2011). This study allowed for observations of the teachers' perceptions utilizing surveys to measure central tendencies and the congruence thereof (Salkind, 2012). In addition, the study was non-experimental with purposive sampling of the participants (Salkind, 2011). The participants were pre-assigned to groups (nonrandom assignments) based on predetermined characteristic of being a preservice or a cooperating teacher (Salkind, 2011). Furthermore, a correlational design determined whether perceptions related to satisfaction; whether an increase or decrease in compatibility/congruence of mentorship-perceptions corresponded to an increase or decrease in the supervisory-satisfaction (Salkind, 2011).

Measuring for both compatibility and satisfaction levels of the preservice and the cooperating teachers, descriptive statistics of the means and standard deviations were utilized for research questions 1, 2, and 3 respectively (Salkind, 2011; Yockey, 2011). Additionally, in question 1, inferential statistics of the repeated *t*-test was also utilized to determine compatibility/congruence, as well as the degree of relatedness between the cooperating and preservice teachers (Salkind; Yockey). Also, in order to answer question 4, the Pearson product moment correlation checked for relationships between the variables, as well as how well one might predict a specific outcome based on one or more

variables (Salkind; Yockey). For example, if there is a high degree of compatibility in both the preservice and the cooperating teacher's mentoring perceptions, then there may also be a high degree of satisfaction within the supervisory relationship. If there is a low degree of compatibility, then there may also be a low degree of satisfaction. It is also possible there may be no relationship between mentorship perceptions and the level of satisfaction within the supervisory relationship. To analyze these hypotheses, inferential statistics and more specifically, Pearson product moment correlation was chosen (Yockey).

### Population

In this study, the preservice teachers and their cooperating teachers were examined. These teachers all had to be in a direct working relationship in a student teaching placement at the time of the data collection, which was a traditional academic spring semester in both 2014 and 2015. This was a nonprobability purposive sampling of both the preservice and the cooperating teachers (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013). It was the goal of the researcher to obtain as many dyads of preservice and cooperating teachers within a traditional semester time frame, between January and June, for student teaching. Due to the collection time frame and the small quantity of responses from January to June of 2014, the study was extended from January to June of 2015.

All Midwestern institutions within the state, 23 institutions at the time of the study, certified NCATE, now CAEP, were invited to participate in the study. The participants were predetermined beyond the researcher's control. For the Mentoring Functions survey, 71 preservice teachers completed the survey out of 98 respondents (72%), and 49 cooperating teachers completed the survey out 57 respondents (86%). For



the second survey given to the preservice teachers, 54 completed the SRQ out of the initial 71 who completed the Mentoring Functions (76%). For the second survey given to cooperating teachers, 38 cooperating teachers completed the Supervisory Relationship Measure (SRM) out of the initial 49 who completed the Mentoring Functions (87%). After aligning all four surveys, 20 dyads were determined. Both the preservice and the cooperating teachers took part in two surveys, either Mentoring Functions and SRQ or Mentoring Functions and SRM respectively. Out of the 20 cooperating teacher participants, 3 or 15% were male and 17 or 85% were female. Out of the 20 preservice teacher participants, 2 or 10% were male and 18 or 90% were female. Within the dyad, 3 or 15% were in 8-week placements, 13 or 65% were in 16-week placements, and 4 or 20% were in yearlong placements. The dyad information collected yielded a diverse sampling.

#### Data Collection

Twenty-three Midwestern institutions certified by former NCATE, and the current accrediting body, CAEP, was invited to participate in this study. More specifically, educational department chairs/deans were contacted and invited to participate in the study via emails, phone calls, and/or face-to-face meetings. Follow up emails were sent to the educational department personnel including the informed consent letter, the IRB approval letter from the researcher's institution, and a copy of the three instruments utilized for this study. Follow up meetings were then held addressing specific questions and conditions particular to each institution. This included amending the IRB specific to each institution, as well as addressing the student body at the beginning of the student teaching semester.

Within the 23 institutions contacted, three agreed to participate in the research study, one large state institution and two smaller private institutions. In January 2014 and 2015, at the beginning of the academic semester, the researcher spoke to the student body enrolled in student teaching, explaining the study and asking for volunteers. Once an initial written consent was obtained with names and contact information, the researcher contacted the student teachers via email. Within the first email was an explanation of the study, the researcher's contact information for any further inquiries, and a hyperlink leading to an electronic informed consent form. Once agreed, the link led to a demographic information form, and then to a terminology page, and lastly to the Mentoring Functions survey. Once the preservice teachers responded to the first survey, Mentoring Functions, the cooperating teachers' email addresses were collected. They then were sent similar emails as that of the preservice teachers. Both the preservice and the cooperating teachers were administered Mentoring Functions, which allowed both preservice and cooperating teachers to evaluate their own perceptions of mentoring as either a mentee or as a mentor. Dyads of preservice and cooperating teachers were then coded and matched according to the demographic information supplied by the respondents.

In addition, once the researcher received the Mentoring Functions survey from both the cooperating and the preservice teachers, a second email was sent with a hyperlink either to the SRM or to the SRQ respectively. The SRM measured for the cooperating teacher's perception and satisfaction of the supervisory relationship. The SRQ measured for the preservice teacher's perception and satisfaction of the supervisory relationship. The cooperating teachers were sent the SRM survey, and the preservice

teachers were sent the SRQ survey. This allowed each stakeholder to rate his or her counterpart's role in the supervisory relationship. Surveys were coded and matched according to direct working dyads. Once the data was collected, SRM and SRQ of the dyads were analyzed for the quality or satisfaction of the supervisory relationship using the subscale and the total scores. Also, the self-rated Mentoring Functions scores were examined for compatibility/congruence between the dyads using the subscale and the total scores both descriptively and inferentially.

Three instruments, Mentoring Functions, SRM, and SRQ were utilized in this study. The first instrument, Mentoring Functions, can be “used for assessing the congruence of expectations and perceptions between mentors and mentees in contracting and negotiating the terms of a relationship, and as a diagnostic tool for reviewing and evaluating a relationship” (Fowler & O’Gorman, 2005, p.56). In this 7-point Likert scale instrument, Fowler and O’Gorman revealed eight distinct functions or subscales of mentoring through 39 questions: Personal and Emotional Guidance, 8-items, Coaching, 4-items, Advocacy, 4-items, Career Development Facilitation, 4-items, Role Modeling, 4-items, Strategies and Systems Advice, 4-items, Learning Facilitation, 6-items, and Friendship, 2-items.

The second instrument, SRM assessed the supervisory relationship from the supervisor's perspective (Pearce et al., 2013). Contained in this 7-point Likert scale instrument are 51 questions, categorized into five subscales, including Safe Base, 15-items, Supervisor Commitment, 9-items, Trainee Contribution, 13-items, External Influences, 8-items, and Supervisor Investment, 6-items (Pearce et al.). According to Pearce et al., SRM was found to have high internal reliability, good test-retest reliability,

and good construct validity. The SRM subscales were found to be good statistical predictors of the trainee's competence and the supervisor's satisfaction with the supervision in clinical practice (Pearce et al.).

The third instrument, SRQ, utilized by clinical psychology trainees, measured the supervisory relationship from the supervisee's perspective (Palomo et al., 2010).

Contained within this 7-point Likert scale instrument were 67 questions with six subscale components: Safe Base, 15-items, Structure, 8-items, Commitment, 10-items, Reflective Education, 11-items, Role Model, 12-items, and Formative Feedback, 11-items (Palomo et al.). According to Palomo et al., SRQ was found to have high internal reliability, good test-retest reliability and good construct validity. At the discretion of this researcher, one Reflective Education question was eliminated from the survey and analysis, as the question did not apply to the student teaching practice.

#### Analytical Methods

The analytical methodology utilized in this study was quantitative, through surveys, utilizing descriptive and inferential statistical analyses. First, the process involved identifying the problems, including *no* substantiated or standardized method of identifying/selecting high caliber cooperating teachers, and no substantiated or standardized method of matching mentors to mentees. Second, based on the literature review, workplace assessment tools were examined and deemed appropriate in determining compatibility/congruence of mentorship perceptions, as well as determining the level of satisfaction within the supervisory relationship. Thereby examining the possible relationship between the two areas, and substantiating a possible preservice-cooperating teacher match in the educational field, rather than piloting new instruments.

Various research questions were developed and hypotheses given. The authors of the instruments of Mentoring Functions, SRM, and SRQ were contacted to acquire permission for use and electronic dissemination. All 23 NCATE certified institutions at the time of the study were contacted. Three institutions participated in the study. This researcher spoke to the student-teaching body of each institution asking for volunteers. Every preservice teacher in the student teaching body was asked to fill out an exit slip with the following questions: his/her name, his/her email address, his/her cooperating teacher's name, his/her cooperating teacher's email address, their interest in participating in the study, the length of their student teaching experience, and what program he/she was enrolled, including special education, secondary education, elementary education, and early childhood. Since many preservice teachers did not know their cooperating teacher's information, the responses to the Mentoring Functions survey was necessary to obtain contact information on the cooperating teachers.

In January of 2014 and 2015, an email was sent to every preservice teacher interested in participating in the study. Within the first email was information about the study, contact information for further inquiries, and an electronic survey linked to SurveyMonkey®. The first SurveyMonkey® page led to a consent form. Once consent was obtained, the next page led to a terminology section. The words, *mentor*, *mentee*, and *mentoring relationship* were operationally defined, specific to the Mentoring Functions survey (see Appendix A). The next page led into the Mentoring Functions survey itself. Data was collected from the preservice teachers, including the cooperating teachers' email addresses. The cooperating teachers were sent the same email as that of the

preservice teachers in January. Data was collected on the Mentoring Functions from both the preservice and the cooperating teachers from January to March of 2014 and 2015.

At the end of March/beginning of April, the cooperating teachers were sent an email with a link to the SRM, and the preservice teachers were sent an email with a link to the SRQ. Within the email were information on the study, contact information for further inquiries, and a SurveyMonkey® link to either SRM or SRQ. The SurveyMonkey® SRM link lead to a consent form. Once consent was obtained, the link led to a terminology section, defining *trainee*, *supervision*, *caseload*, *team*, and *placement* (see Appendix B), then to the SRM itself. The preservice teachers were sent the same email with a link to the SRQ. The SurveyMonkey® link opened to a consent form. Once consent was obtained, the link led to a terminology section, defining *supervisor*, *supervisee*, *supervision*, *supervising session*, *clinician*, and *clients* (see Appendix C), then to the SRQ survey itself. Data from both the cooperating and preservice teachers were collected from April to June.

All data were coded and matched to their counterpart. After analysis, only 20 dyads were identified. All data from Mentoring Functions from both the cooperating and the preservice teachers, the SRM from the cooperating teachers, and the SRQ from preservice teachers were exported from SurveyMonkey® to SPSS. All information was directly entered, coded, and matched to their counterpart into SPSS. All the items that needed to be reverse coded were addressed accordingly, and all subscales were clustered according to the original research design. Analyses of the various measures were examined using descriptive and inferential statistics.

Within the Mentoring Functions survey, descriptive statistics of the means and the standard deviations, as well as the inferential statistics of a repeated *t*-test were utilized (Salkind, 2012; Yockey, 2011). The repeated *t*-test allowed for observations of differences, as well as correlations between preservice and cooperating teachers' responses. In other words, compatibility within the Mentoring Functions was determined based on how closely the means and the standard deviations were between the preservice and the cooperating teachers' total scores and subscale scores (Yockey).

In both SRM and SRQ, descriptive statistics of the means and the standard deviations were utilized to measure the level of satisfaction within the supervisory relationship (Yockey, 2011). It was determined, the higher the means and the smaller the standard deviations, the more satisfied the teachers were in their supervisory relationship; the lower the means, and the wider the standard deviations, the more variability or less satisfaction the teachers were within the supervisory relationship (Yockey).

Later, Pearson product moment correlated Mentoring Functions to the SRM (Yockey, 2011). Similarly, Mentoring Functions was correlated to the SRQ. Prior to examining the correlations, the mean scores of both preservice and cooperating teachers were combined within the Mentoring Functions data sets. Later, both the combined and separated Mentoring Functions scores were examined against SRM and SRQ.

Three instruments compared four surveys: Mentoring Function taken by both preservice and cooperating teachers, SRM taken by cooperating teachers, and SRQ taken by the preservice teachers (Yockey, 2011). Mentoring Functions essentially examined the means, the standard deviations, and the difference-scores to determine compatibility/congruence within the cooperating and preservice teachers' mentoring

perceptions. The SRM and SRQ examined the means and the total scores to measure the level of satisfaction within the supervisory relationship (Yockey). Additionally, mentoring perceptions and satisfaction scores were correlated to measure for any relatedness between the two factors.

### Limitations

Several limitations were noted in this study, not only in the process of obtaining the data, but also in the designs of the instruments themselves. Working within a short time frame of a traditional academic semester, finding willing participants, as well as working through multiple tiers of communication from the researcher to the participants, constrained the research process and study. In addition, the newness of the instruments and the direct transference from clinical psychology to an educational setting was questionable.

This study required both the preservice and the cooperating teachers to take two surveys. It was difficult attaining enough participants within one traditional academic semester, leading to an additional year of data collection during the same time frame.

Disseminating the surveys to the cooperating teachers was also challenging; it was dependent on the preservice teacher's participation, and the expediency in which they responded to the first survey, Mentoring Functions. The cooperating teacher's contact information was not accessible through the institutions. The information was garnered through the initial Mentoring Functions survey taken by the preservice teachers. In fact, one institution did not have a consolidated database of the cooperating teacher's contact information. They were disseminated to various coordinators under different educational classifications, such as special education, early childhood, elementary, etc.



Therefore, waiting on willing preservice teacher participants affected the timeliness in which this study was conducted. The communication flow went from the education department chairs/deans to the field supervisors/coordinators, to the preservice teachers, and eventually to the cooperating teachers.

Furthermore, as a quantitative study, the sample size was pertinent. At the conclusion of the data collection, 20 dyads completed four surveys, using three instruments between January to June of 2014 and January to June of 2015. All the respondents were directly involved in student teaching at the time of the study. Obtaining the 20 dyads was quite difficult, especially from the cooperating teachers.

Another limitation in this research study was that all three instruments were fairly new at the time of the study. In fact, this research study may be utilized as a validation study for all three instruments, especially outside of clinical psychology. Since all three designs were uncharted by repeated testing, data analysis gave rise to numerous questions to the studies, including scoring, calculating the range in which compatibility was determined, and how to compare various instruments.

Furthermore, since Mentoring Functions, SRM, and SRQ were not instruments created for educators, but mentors to mentees, drawing conclusions were carefully evaluated. The results may not be directly transferrable to the educational field, although the questions on the various surveys seem comparable to most educational experiences.

Additionally, the surveys used British English and clinical terms. The terms that were factored into the study included: *mentor*, *mentee*, *mentoring relationship*, *supervisor*, *supervisee*, *supervision*, *supervising session*, *clinician*, *clients*, *trainee*, *case load*, *team*, and *on-placement*. All these terms were considered and participants were

advised prior to beginning their surveys. With each survey, a terminology section was created. It was required reading prior to taking the surveys. Due to the specific field of clinical psychology in which the surveys were designed and the terminologies used, direct transference to the educational field must be judiciously assessed.

Multiple limitations were noted, including obtaining dyad participants, time frame in which the surveys were administered and collected, and the communication flow in which to reach the participants. In addition, the plausibility of using the three instruments of Mentoring Functions, SRM, and SRQ in the educational field, and the newness of the instruments themselves, as well as the terminologies used throughout the instruments fostered numerous limitations. Considering these limitations were essential to determine the procedural methods, as well as evaluating the validity of the instruments and the data collected.

### Summary

In summary, the research design went from asking 23 certified Midwestern institutions to three institutions willing to participate in the study. From there, the many communication channels from the deans to the preservice teacher, and then to the cooperating teachers within the student teaching programs proved challenging. Later, 20 dyads were obtained through two years of data collection processes where three instruments; Mentoring Functions, SRM, and SRQ were used to answer four research questions. The four research questions essentially examined the compatibility of the preservice and the cooperating teacher's mentoring perceptions, the level of satisfaction within their supervisory relationship, and the possible corresponding relationship between the two.

Four surveys were administered: Mentoring Functions to both the preservice and the cooperating teachers, SRM to the cooperating teachers, and SRQ to the preservice teachers. Once collected, all three instruments required the use of descriptive statistics of the means and the standard deviations. Mentoring Functions also required the use of the repeated *t*-test to compare the differences, or the compatibility/congruence of the mentoring perceptions, which was later compared through correlational analysis of Mentoring Functions to SRM, and Mentoring Functions to SRQ (Yockey, 2011). Limitations were noted not only in obtaining participants, but more specifically obtaining matching dyads willing to take two surveys each, either Mentoring Functions and SRQ, or Mentoring Functions and SRM. However, after some analyses, various limitations of the instruments themselves to affect the educational field were noted.

Chapter III addressed the data collection process and the methodology, including various challenges and limitations. Chapter IV reports and examines the findings and conclusions discovered through various analyses. Chapter IV also discusses the developments, implications of the study, and suggestions for further research.

## CHAPTER IV

### FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

#### Introduction

The purpose of this study was to analyze the perceptions of mentoring and the quality of the supervisory relationship between the cooperating and the preservice teachers. Chapter I explored the importance of mentoring in the workplace and educational fields, and set the research design framework, as well as laid out the process-to-accomplish. Chapter I also briefly addressed the developments in student teaching, and mentoring studies conducted in both the educational and the workplace fields, which Chapter II expounded upon. Chapter II began with a wider scope of the mentoring research, moving from the workplace to the educational arena, then narrowing specifically to student teaching and matching studies conducted in the various fields. Chapter III addressed the research methodology utilized, including the research design, population sample, data collection, and the analytical methodology, as well as the limitations of the study. The following questions guided the research process:

1. How compatible, if at all, are the preservice teachers to their cooperating teachers?
2. How satisfied, if at all, are the mentors with their mentees?
3. How satisfied, if at all, are the mentees with their mentors?
4. How does the degree of mentorship compatibility relate, or not relate, to the degree of satisfaction in the supervisory relationship?

Through the four research questions proposed, the cooperating and the preservice teachers' mentoring perceptions were measured for compatibility/congruence, the supervisory relationships were measured for satisfaction with their counterpart, and mentorship perceptions and satisfaction were examined for possible relatedness. Chapter IV discusses the findings, conclusions, implications, and the recommendations for further research.

### Findings

In this section, an overview of the demographic information is reviewed, along with the reliability results of the three instruments utilized in this study. Afterwards, each research question is addressed with specific findings, observations, analyses, and the discussion of the results.

The demographic information collected on the cooperating and preservice teacher-dyads yielded the following: out of the 20 cooperating teacher participants, 3 or 15% were male and 17 or 85% were female. In addition, 1 or 5% held their bachelors, 18 or 90% held their masters, and 1 or 5% held their doctorate. Out of the 20 preservice teacher participants, 2 or 10% were male and 18 or 90% were female. In addition, all 20 or 100% of the preservice teacher participants were in undergrad student teaching programs.

Furthermore, the preservice/cooperating teacher-dyads were in three different types/lengths of placements: 3 or 15% were in 8-week placements, 13 or 65% were in 16-week placements, and 4 or 20% were in yearlong placements. In addition, the dyads were spread over various grade levels: 1 or 5% were in Preschool-Kindergarten, 9 or 45% were in Grades K-2, 4 or 20% were in Grades 3-5, 2 or 10% were in Grades 6-8, and 4 or 20%

were in Grades 9-12. The data collected on the cooperating and preservice teacher-dyads yielded a diverse sampling of cooperating teachers holding different degree, preservice teachers in various types/lengths of placements, as well as dyads across multiple grade-levels.

The three instruments, Mentoring Functions, SRM, and SRQ, were measured for reliability and internal consistency. Utilizing Cronbach's coefficient alphas, the Mentoring Functions instrument computed to be ( $\alpha = 0.97$ ,  $N = 39$ ) for the 20 cooperating teachers, and ( $\alpha = 0.98$ ,  $N = 39$ ) for the 20 preservice teachers. In additions, the Cronbach's coefficient alpha score for SRM was ( $\alpha = 0.96$ ,  $N = 51$ ) for the 20 cooperating teachers, and for SRQ was ( $\alpha = 0.99$ ,  $N = 66$ ) for the 20 preservice teachers. It should be noted that one item from the SRQ was eliminated from the survey prior to the survey distribution as the item only related to the medical field. The Cronbach's coefficient alphas indicated good reliability and internal consistency of all three instruments for both sets of participants with alpha scores above 0.9.

#### Question 1

Question 1 asked: How compatible, if at all, are the preservice teachers to their cooperating teachers? In order to address this first question, Mentoring Functions was selected and utilized. Mentoring Functions, according to Fowler and O'Gorman (2005), assesses for congruence of expectations and perceptions between mentors and mentees. Essentially, Mentoring Functions can determine compatibility/congruence of mentoring perceptions between the cooperating and the preservice teachers. In addition, Mentoring Functions can also be used as a diagnostic tool for reviewing and evaluating the mentorship relationship (Fowler & O'Gorman).

Table 1

*Paired Sample Differences in Mentoring Functions Total and Subscales Scores*

	Paired Differences					Correlations		
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
MF Total Scores	10.50	48.62	0.97	19	0.35	20	0.16	0.50
PEG	3.10	10.30	1.35	19	0.19	20	0.35	0.13
COA	1.55	5.36	1.29	19	0.21	20	-0.04	0.86
ADV	0.05	6.06	0.04	19	0.97	20	0.35	0.13
CDF	1.10	6.39	0.77	19	0.45	20	0.14	0.55
RM	0.20	5.87	0.15	19	0.88	20	-0.18	0.45
SSA	1.55	6.82	1.02	19	0.32	20	-0.05	0.85
LFAC	2.95	7.51	1.76	19	0.10	20	-0.15	0.53
FRD	-1.00	2.94	-1.52	19	0.14	20	0.57	0.01

*Note.* MF = Mentoring Functions; PEG = Personal Emotional Guidance; COA = Coaching; ADV = Advocacy; CDF = Career Development Facilitation; RM = Role Modeling; SSA = Strategies and Systems Advice; LFAC = Learning Facilitation; FRD = Friendship

In this study, the preservice and the cooperating teacher's responses were collected, analyzed, and compared. The descriptive statistics of the means and the

standard deviations assessed for compatibility/congruence, and the inferential statistics of a repeated *t*-test allowed for observations of differences, as well as correlations between the cooperating and the preservice teachers' responses (Salkind, 2012; Yockey, 2011). In other words, compatibility of the Mentoring Functions or perceptions were based on how closely the means and the standard deviations were between the preservice and the cooperating teachers' total scores and the subscale scores (Yockey, 2011). Each of the 39 items from the Mentoring Functions instrument was rated on a seven point Likert scale ranging from Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree. Additionally, each of the subscale scores from both groups were ranked in order to determine how each group perceived their own perceptions of mentoring.

In Table 1, the paired differences of the means and the standard deviations can be observed. In rank order, the most compatible responses to the least compatible responses from both groups were as follows: Advocacy (ADV), Role Modeling (RM), Development Facilitation (CDF), Coaching (COA), Strategies and Systems Advice (SSA), Learning Facilitation (LFAC), and Personal and Emotional Guidance (PEG). Friendship (FRD) was not included in the ranking because of the negative difference.

Overall, in answering question 1, the cooperating and preservice teachers were highly compatible in choosing COA, RM and LFAC as the most important aspect of mentoring. However, comparing the mean differences, ADV and RM were considered most similar or least different in their responses.

In addition, Mentoring Functions from both the cooperating and the preservice teachers indicated no correlation between the two groups  $r(20) = .16, p > .05$ , except in the FRD subscale. Again, FRD was not included in the ranking because of the negative



difference score. However, the FRD subscale was significantly correlated at  $r(20) = .57$ ;  $p < .05$ . Essentially, the difference in the means indicated a very compatible perception of friendship, but the low mean scores indicated that they both perceived friendship as of no importance to mentoring. In examining Mentoring Functions, a Type II error was noted due to a small sample size. The mean difference between the Mentoring Functions of the preservice and cooperating teacher's total scores ( $M = 48.62$ ,  $SD = 48.62$ ),  $t(19) = 0.97$ ,  $p > .05$ ,  $d = 0.09$  indicated a small effect size based on Cohen's guideline (Yockey, 2011).

Table 2

*Mentoring Functions Descriptive Statistics*

	Cooperating Teachers			Preservice Teachers		
	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Mentoring Subscales						
Personal Emotional Guidance (PEG)	20	5.78	1.05	20	5.39	1.20
Coaching (COA)	20	6.38	0.63	20	5.99	1.16
Advocacy (ADV)	20	5.35	1.41	20	5.34	1.24
Career Developing Facilitation (CDF)	20	5.56	1.36	20	5.56	1.36
Role Modeling (RM)	20	6.34	0.65	20	6.29	1.20
Strategies Systems Advise (SSA)	20	5.73	0.99	20	5.34	1.35
Learning Facilitation (LFAC)	20	6.00	1.06	20	6.00	1.06
Friendship (FRD)	20	4.20	1.58	20	4.70	1.58

In conclusion, although both groups ranked COA, RM, and LFAC in their top three mentoring perceptions, the difference in the means and the standard deviations indicated that the cooperating and preservice teachers were most compatible in their perception of RM, ADV, and FRD.

#### Question 2:

Question 2 asked: How satisfied, if at all, are the mentors with their mentees? In order to answer this second question, the SRM instrument was utilized. According to Pearce et al. (2010), the SRM can be used to assess the supervisory relationship from the supervisor's perspective, and the subscales were found to be a good statistical predictor of the trainee's competence and the supervisor's satisfaction with the supervision in clinical practice.

The descriptive statistics of the means and the standard deviations measured the level of satisfaction the cooperating teachers had of the preservice teachers in the supervisory relationship (Yockey, 2011). It was determined, the higher the means and the smaller the standard deviations, the more satisfied the cooperating teachers were in their supervisory relationship; the lower the means and the wider the standard deviations, the less satisfied the cooperating teachers were within their supervisory relationship (Yockey).

The SRM instrument utilized a seven point Likert scale survey ranging from Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree for the 51 items presented (Pearce et al., 2012). Using the descriptive statistics of the means and the standard deviations, the cooperating teachers reported the following results, ranking from the most satisfied to least satisfied respectively: Supervisor Commitment ( $M = 6.57$ ;  $SD = 0.53$ ;  $N = 20$ ), Supervisor

Investment ( $M = 6.45$ ;  $SD = 0.55$ ;  $N = 20$ ), Safe Base ( $M = 6.32$ ;  $SD = 1.08$ ;  $N = 20$ ), Trainee Contribution ( $M = 6.10$ ;  $SD = 1.24$ ;  $N = 20$ ), and External Influences ( $M = 5.82$ ;  $SD = 1.37$ ;  $N = 20$ ). In addition, Pearce et al. (2012) provided an interpretation of each subscale in the SRM.

1. Safe Base consisted of items reflecting the core relationship or emotional bond between the trainee and supervisor (Pearce et al.).
2. Supervisor Commitment consisted of items reflecting the supervisor's professional commitment to supervising the trainee (e.g., planning and sensitivity to the trainee's needs) (Pearce et al.).
3. Trainee Contribution consisted of items reflecting the trainee's contribution, productivity, and investment while on placement (Pearce et al.)
4. External Influences consisted of items reflecting a number of external factors, which may influence the Supervisory Relationship (Pearce et al.).
5. Lastly, supervisor investment consisted of items reflecting the supervisor's emotional investment in the Supervisory Relationship (Pearce et al.).

Overall, the SRM scores ( $M = 6.25$ ,  $SD = 0.77$ ,  $N = 20$ ) indicated that the cooperating teachers were highly satisfied with their preservice teachers. However, in examining the rank order of the subscales, the cooperating teachers were more satisfied with the areas they more directly contributed, including Supervisor Commitment, Supervisor Investment, and Safe Base than with the areas the preservice teachers more directly contributed, including Trainee Contribution and External Influences.

### Question 3

Question 3 asked: How satisfied, if at all, are the mentees with their mentors? In order to answer this third question, the SRQ instrument was utilized. According to Palomo et al. (2010), the SRQ can be used to assess the supervisory relationship from the supervisee's perspective. The descriptive statistics of the means and the standard deviations measured the level of satisfaction the preservice teachers experienced with the cooperating teachers in the supervisory relationship (Yockey, 2011). It was determined, the higher the means and the smaller the standard deviations, the more satisfied the preservice teachers were in their supervisory relationship; the lower the means and the wider the standard deviations, the less satisfied the preservice teachers were within their supervisory relationship (Yockey).

The SRQ instrument rated 67 items on a seven point Likert scale ranging from Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree (Palomo et al., 2010). Using the descriptive statistics of the means and the standard deviations, the following results were noted: Safe Base ( $M = 6.03$ ;  $SD = 1.02$ ;  $N = 20$ ); Structure ( $M = 5.74$ ;  $SD = 1.08$ ;  $N = 20$ ); Commitment ( $M = 6.16$ ;  $SD = 1.24$ ;  $N = 20$ ); Reflective Educational ( $M = 5.76$ ;  $SD = 1.35$ ;  $N = 20$ ); Role Model ( $M = 6.41$ ;  $SD = 1.03$ ,  $N = 20$ ); and Formative Feedback ( $M = 5.91$ ;  $SD = 1.14$ ;  $N = 20$ ).

According to Palomo et al. (2010), the SRQ could provide a method of monitoring, as well as feedback to the supervisor on their supervisory relationship. The various subscales provided and reflected educational and evaluative uses for the supervisors, possibly inviting feedback discussions, and reviewing their supervisory relationship (Palomo et al.)

Overall, the SRQ mean score ( $M = 6.02$ ;  $SD = 1.01$ ;  $N = 20$ ) indicated that the preservice teachers were very satisfied with their cooperating teachers, especially in the areas of Role Model, Commitment, and Safe Base subscales, but slightly less satisfied in the areas of Formative Feedback, Reflective Educational, and Structure Subscales respectively.

#### Question 4

Question 4 asked: How does the degree of mentorship compatibility relate, or not relate, to the degree of satisfaction in the supervisory relationship? In order to answer this question, Pearson product moment correlation was utilized to examine the relatedness of the various instruments. The cooperating teacher's Mentoring Functions was correlated to the SRM. In addition, the preservice teacher's Mentoring Functions was correlated to the SRQ. Additionally, the combined mean scores of both the cooperating and the preservice teachers' Mentoring Functions was correlated to SRM, and the combined mean scores of both the cooperating and the preservice teachers' Mentoring Functions was correlated to SRQ.

Again, no correlation was found between the Mentoring Functions of the cooperating teachers and the SRM  $r(20) = .17, p > .05$ , essentially between compatibility and satisfaction. In addition, there was no correlation between the combined mean scores of both the cooperating and the preservice teachers' Mentoring Functions and the SRM  $r(20) = .20, p > .05$ . However, there was a positive correlation between the preservice teachers' Mentoring Functions and the SRQ  $r(20) = .86, p < .05$ ; as well as a positive correlation between the combined mean scores of both the cooperating and the preservice teachers' Mentoring Functions and the SRQ  $r(20) = .69, p < .05$ .

Table 3

*Mentoring Functions and SRQ (Paired Samples Correlations)*

Paired Samples Correlations	<i>N</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Combined PEG Score to SRQ	20	.65	.00
Combined COA Score to SRQ	20	.71	.00
Combined ADV Score to SRQ	20	.51	.02
Combined CDF Score to SRQ	20	.55	.01
Combined RM Score to SRQ	20	.71	.00
Combined SSA Score to SRQ	20	.53	.02
Combined LFAC Score to SRQ	20	.75	.00
Combined FRD Score to SRQ	20	.28	.23
Combined MF Total Score to SRQ Total Score	20	.69	.00

*Note.* PEG = Personal Emotional Guidance; COA = Coaching; ADV = Advocacy; CDF = Career Development Facilitation; RM = Role Modeling; SSA = Strategies and Systems Advice; LFAC = Learning Facilitation; FRD = Friendship; MF = Mentoring Functions; SRQ = Supervisory Relationship Questionnaire

Essentially, the cooperating and preservice teachers' compatibility within Mentoring Functions correlated to the SRQ of the preservice teachers' satisfaction of their supervisory relationship. Due to no significant correlations found between the combined or separated Mentoring Functions and the SRM, no table is presented, but Table 3 reveals the results of the Pearson product moment correlation between the

combined Mentoring Functions and the SRQ. The SRQ correlated to the Mentoring Functions, but the SRM was not correlated to the Mentoring Functions. Table 3 revealed that each combined Mentoring Functions subscale scores were positively correlated to the SRQ and determined significant by  $p < .05$ , with the exception of the subscale FRD with  $r(20) = .28, p = .23$ .

It should be noted that the combined Mentoring Functions of the preservice and the cooperating teacher's total score to the SRM indicated a large effect size ( $M = -92.45, SD = 43.47, t(19) = -9.51, p < .05, d = 0.79$ , based on Cohen's guideline (Yockey, 2011). In additions, the combined Mentoring Functions of the preservice and the cooperating teachers' total score to the SRQ also indicated a large effect size ( $M = -171.35, SD = 51.72, t(19) = -14.82, p < .05, d = 0.86$ , based on Cohen's guideline (Yockey).

In review, the findings revealed that the sample population of the cooperating and the preservice teachers were highly compatible in their perceptions of mentoring. The analysis of the Mentoring Functions answered question 1: How compatible, if at all, are the preservice teachers to their cooperating teachers? Yet a type II error must be considered in evaluating question 1. Also, the cooperating teachers were highly satisfied with their preservice teachers. The analysis of the SRM answered question 2: How satisfied, if at all, are the mentors with their mentees? Yet the cooperating teachers indicated they were slightly more satisfied with their own role in the supervisory relationship than with their preservice teachers. Furthermore, the analysis of the SRQ answered question 3: How satisfied, if at all, are the mentees with their mentors? Analysis indicated that the preservice teachers were highly satisfied with their cooperating teachers. Lastly, in correlating the Mentoring Functions to the SRM and to

the SRQ revealed that compatibility in the mentoring perceptions was positively correlated to the satisfaction of the preservice teachers' supervisory relationship, but not to the cooperating teachers'. Essentially, correlational analyses answered question 4: How does the degree of mentorships compatibility relate, or not relate, to the degree of satisfaction in the supervisory relationship?

### Conclusions

The first research question asked, "How compatible, if at all, are the preservice teachers to their cooperating teachers?" The analyses of results indicated that the Mentoring Functions is a reliable instrument in measuring the teachers' own perceptions of mentoring. However, the results also indicated that the cooperating and the preservice teachers' results were not correlated. It should be noted, a Type II error arose in surveying a small sample of 20 dyads (Yockey, 2011). Admittedly, there was a high level of compatibility/congruence on the subscale scores, especially in ADV and RM. Additionally, the cooperating teachers ranked COA, RM, and LFAC as the top three Mentoring Functions. Similarly, the preservice teachers also chose the same three, but ranked RM, LFAC, and COA respectively. The negative outcome of the subscale FRD indicated both cooperating and the preservice teachers were in agreement or compatible in their perceptions of friendship, as both deemed it unimportant to mentorship.

Research question 2 asked, "How satisfied, if at all, are the mentors to the mentees?" The analyses of the results indicated that the SRM is a reliable instrument in measuring the trainee's competence and the supervisor's satisfaction with the supervisory relationship. Also, the results indicated that the cooperating teachers highly rated their role and responsibility as supervisors, but rated slightly lower, yet very satisfactorily, the



contributions of the preservice teachers. In fact, Supervisor Commitment, Supervisor Investment, Safe Base, and Trainee Contributions were respectively ranked with high mean scores and small margins of variance. The analyses further revealed that the cooperating and the preservice teachers felt safe enough to be open and honest with each other in their supervisory relationship.

Research question 3 asked, “How satisfied, if at all, are the mentees with their mentors?” The analyses of the results indicated that the SRQ is a reliable instrument in measuring the trainee’s satisfaction with the supervisory relationship. Moreover, the preservice teachers were satisfied with their cooperating teacher in their supervisory relationship, especially in the areas of Role Modeling, Commitment, and Safe Base respectively. Additionally, analyses revealed that the preservice teachers were slightly less satisfied in the subscales of Formative feedback, Reflective Educational, and Structure respectively.

Finally, a two-part answer addressed the fourth research question, “How does the degree of mentorship compatibility relate, or not relate, to the degree of satisfaction in the supervisory relationship?” First, no correlation was found between the Mentoring Functions and the SRM of the cooperating teachers. Although the SRM instrument was useful in making some observations, especially how cooperating teachers rated their role and their level of satisfaction with the preservice teachers, no correlation was found. Secondly, a positive correlation was found between the Mentoring Functions and the SRQ of the preservice teachers. In other words, the cooperating and the preservice teacher’s mentoring perceptions or Mentoring Functions were correlated to the preservice teacher’s satisfaction in the SRQ. The preservice teacher’s Mentoring Functions

correlated to SRQ accordingly,  $r(20) = 0.86, p < .05$ . In addition, the combined results of the cooperating and preservice teacher's Mentoring Functions also correlated to SRQ accordingly,  $r(20) = 0.69, p < .05$ . Either independently or combined, Mentoring Functions correlated to SRQ. Furthermore, it should be noted, both SRM and SRQ had a large effect size. In fact, the combined Mentoring Functions and SRM effect size was  $d = .78$ , and the combined Mentoring Functions and SRQ effect size was  $d = .86$  (Yockey, 2011).

In the final analysis, the findings indicated that the cooperating teachers and the preservice teachers were overall compatible in their perception of mentoring, especially in their perceptions of RM and ADV. Additionally, the cooperating teachers were overall slightly more satisfied with their preservice teachers ( $M = 6.25; SD = .77$ ) than the preservice teachers were with their cooperating teachers ( $M = 6.02; SD = 1.01$ ). Furthermore, there was no correlation between the Mentoring Functions of the cooperating teachers and the Mentoring Functions of the preservice teachers, except in the case of FRD. In addition, there was no correlation between the cooperating teachers' satisfaction in the SRM and the Mentoring Functions. However, there was a correlation between the preservice teacher's satisfaction in the SRQ and the Mentoring Functions in every area, except in the subscale of FRD. Overall, the Mentoring Functions correlated to the SRQ.

### Implications and Recommendations

In this section, several implications, questions, and advice on how to address the limitations are presented. In addition, few recommendations for further research are

given. In alignment with the conclusions brought forth, the implications are addressed accordingly.

In this study, the findings indicated that workplace instruments could be utilized in the educational field. First, in the analysis and the conclusion it was noted a Type II error occurred in surveying a small sample of 20 dyads, particularly in utilizing the Mentoring Functions instrument. One implication for this study is that even if a small sample size was utilized, it is possible for a placement coordinator or a field supervisor to assess a particular dyad of cooperating and preservice teachers for compatibility in their mentoring perceptions. Mentoring Functions can be utilized to measure for observable deviations in their mentoring perceptions. For example, if a preservice teacher rated LFAC as being the greatest importance and the cooperating teacher rated it the lowest, then the field supervisor can address this difference with both the mentor and the mentee, closing the gap between the mentoring perceptions through discussions and training.

Similarly, the SRM can also be utilized to measure the trainee's competence and the supervisor's satisfaction with the supervisory relationship. The cooperating teachers can self-rate their role and responsibility, as well as rate the contributions of the preservice teachers. However, the SRM can only be used as a stand-alone instrument. In this case, the SRM can be used to facilitate conversations, revealing perceptions of safety within the supervisory relationship between the dyad. Additionally, SRM may prompt or encourage the cooperating teacher's reflective practice of the supervision.

One of the most critical implications is that the SRQ can be used to measure satisfaction in the supervisory relationship from the preservice teacher's perspective. Because Mentoring Functions was significantly correlated to the SRQ, the instruments

can be utilized as a predictive tool to determine how satisfied or not satisfied the preservice teachers may or may not be with their cooperating teachers. If they are more compatible, then they may also be more satisfied. If they are less compatible, then they may also be less satisfied. Furthermore, the SRQ may also be used as an evaluative tool to measure the preservice teacher's experience with the cooperating teacher.

Additionally, the SRQ can possibly provide methods of monitoring the supervision, and provide reflective feedback to the preservice teacher as well as to his/her institution.

In the course of this study, several questions arose. The results from the Mentoring Functions reflected positive compatibility across the board. Could those who completed both surveys reflect more earnestness as practitioners? Since a Type II error was noted, could the responses from the practitioners reflect those who were more invested or intentional about mentoring preservice teachers? Does the cooperating teacher's level of education reflect educational inclination to mentor as noted by Kahan (2002) in his research study? What evaluative tools are institutions using besides the preservice teacher's feedback or exit interviews? Do the institutions invite the cooperating teachers to mentor again? Could a longitudinal case study be conducted on those who have mentored multiple times? If conducted, would each preservice teacher have similar feedback? What would such feedback or measures include? Also, in considering the Mentoring Functions' results, the FRD subscale score was so low, yet it was the only score significantly correlated. Does FRD reflect a missing relational component in student teaching mentoring? Because the SRM was not correlated to mentoring perceptions, was it the use of the instrument in the educational field or was

there a deeper issue involved? Additionally, do cooperating and the preservice teachers share similar outcome expectations, and what would those be?

If a researcher was to repeat this investigation again, a couple changes are advised. First, find direct access to schools. It is advisable to access the dyads through the public/private schools or district offices instead of going through the higher educational institutions. Having direct access to both the cooperating and the preservice teachers is ideal. Waiting on institutions, and then waiting on the preservice teachers' responses to contact the cooperating teachers resulted in unforeseen delays. Second, if at all possible, survey the dyads together, perhaps using hard copies of the instruments. This way, the researcher can obtain a larger quantity of viable surveys with their matching counterparts.

In conclusion, this researcher, in considering the implications, advocates the use of the various workplace tools/instruments utilized in this study, including Mentoring Functions, SRM, and SRQ to advance matching studies and practices in the educational schema. This study is important because no substantiated or standardized method of identifying/selecting cooperating teachers or facilitating an optimal match has been developed in the educational field. Therefore, if tools/instruments developed in the workplace fields can be adopted or adapted for the educational field, then a model or a method of qualifying or quantifying a good-fit match between the cooperating and preservice teachers can be substantiated and solidified.

For further studies, this researcher recommends examining the cooperating teacher's perceptions more deeply. Either an instrument measuring mentoring readiness can be piloted/developed or the SRM can be reworked to have a more educational emphasis.

A second recommendation is that research be developed or conducted around the dyad's outcome perceptions or outcome expectations within the supervisory relationship. Extrapolating from Rajuan et al. (2010) research, if there is some level of matched expectations, then the dyads may perceive a higher degree of support and learning opportunities.

Another recommendation is that an instrument be developed much like the Mentoring Functions but focused more narrowly on perhaps four subscales of RM, ADV, COA, and LFAC. Under these four subscales, a more sensitive instrument or measurement may yield finer/gradient results. Additionally, perhaps developing a clearer guideline or operational definition to determine what *compatibility* is. For example, having a paired difference score of less than one, and a standard deviation of less than six. The Mentoring Functions instrument was new and no clear-cut compatibility guidelines were given, therefore making it difficult to answer the first question of this study.

This researcher also recommends further studies into mutual choice placement. In multiple studies found in the workplace fields, informal matching has had higher satisfaction level than formal matching practices. In addition, having a voice and input into the matching process has also had higher satisfaction level than having no voice or input. Perhaps investigating and giving voice to both the preservice and the cooperating teachers in a mutual choice placement through various factors found in the Mentoring Functions or other measures of mentoring can benefit and perhaps positively affect the matching process.

The final recommendation is that mentoring research from the workplace fields be utilized to broaden the scope of educational studies on mentoring. Researches conducted during mentoring are useful but seem somewhat latent. If matching studies, as precursory to mentoring, can be advanced in the educational field, it would do much to change the schema of the educational practice in affecting/preparing future teachers. This researcher would recommend continued research into developing matching practices or models by which the preservice teachers are paired with the cooperating teachers, as well as developing tools for identifying or evaluating the cooperating teacher's mentoring readiness.

In conclusion, the implications for this study, the questions derived during the study, advisement for avoiding certain limitations, as well as recommendations for future studies were discussed. Primarily, the three instruments of Mentoring Functions, SRM, and SRQ can be utilized in the educational field to quantify a match between the cooperating and preservice teachers. Secondarily, studies in facilitating better matching practices are endorsed.

In the overall consideration of preparing future teachers, the role of the cooperating teachers significantly impacts the preservice teacher. It stands to reason, the identification and selection of quality cooperating teachers take precedence, as well as matching and placing the preservice teachers. Preservice teachers learn from their cooperating teachers through their professional placements, and these pairings significantly affect the preservice teachers' learning outcomes and experiences (Anderson, 2007; LaBoskey & Richert, 2002). Therefore, an intentional and substantiated

model or method of pairing preservice teachers to cooperating teachers should be seriously deliberated.

In this study, the researcher hypothesized the following: If there is a high degree of compatibility/congruence within the mentoring perceptions, then there may also be a high degree of satisfaction within the supervisory relationship. If there is a low degree of compatibility/congruence within the mentoring perceptions, then there may also be a low degree of satisfaction within the supervisory relationship. Moreover, it was hypothesized that there may be no relationship between mentoring perceptions and the supervisory relationship. Findings indicated that the cooperating and the preservice teachers' mentoring perceptions were highly compatibility/congruent, with the highest degree of compatibility (or the least compared differences) in the subscales of ADV and RM. It was also determined that both the cooperating and preservice teachers had high degree of satisfaction in their supervisory relationship, and more so for the cooperating teachers than for the preservice teachers. Additionally, there was no correlation between the SRM of the cooperating teachers to the Mentoring Functions; however, there was a positive correlation between SRQ of the preservice teachers to the Mentoring Functions.

Reasonably, borrowing instruments already developed in the non-educational or workplace fields seem most appropriate to springboard advancements in the educational field of mentorship matching practices. The many educational studies surrounding mentoring have primarily examined roles and responsibilities of the participants, stages of development, interpersonal mentoring stages, and influential biases of the mentors (Hawkey, 1997; Young et al., 2005). However, very few educational studies have been conducted around predicting what factors affect mentorship effectiveness, evaluating the



matches in advance, examining possible functions mentorship may provide, and avoiding precursory problems. This study attempted to address the perceptions of mentoring and the quality of the supervisory relationship between the cooperating and the preservice teachers, adding to the discussion of possibly quantifying the mentorship-match and addressing a long-standing problem of optimizing a good-fit match.

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Appendix A

Mentoring Functions

Please note as you take this assessment, for all intent and purpose, a **mentor** is equivalent to a cooperating teacher, and a **mentee** is equivalent to a preservice teacher. Also, **mentoring relationship** refers to the relationship between a preservice teacher and cooperating teacher within the student teaching context.

### Mentoring Functions

In this part of the questionnaire we ask you to consider a range of possible <b>functions</b> provided by mentors in a mentoring relationship. We ask you to rate <b>the extent</b> to which these functions are provided by your mentor or, if you are the mentor, the extent to which you provide the functions. Please remember to keep in mind the <b>particular mentoring relationship</b> you have identified for the purpose of this questionnaire. Also, you will notice that different prompts have been provided depending on whether you are responding as a <b>mentor or a mentee</b> .		If you are the <b>Mentor</b> : to what extent do you see yourself as... or If you are the <b>Mentee</b> : to what extent do you see your mentor as...						
		Not at all		Moderately			Very much	
1.	Someone who is an effective role model	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	Someone whose approaches, attitudes and values the mentee admires and would like to develop	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	Someone who displays skills and behaviors that the mentee would like to learn	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	Someone the mentee wants to emulate – in terms of what they know and who they are	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	Someone who introduces the mentee to networks of people who can assist with her/his career	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	Someone who provides the mentee with developmental opportunities to participate in new and/or different tasks	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	Someone who makes the mentee aware of, and encourages the mentee to take advantage of, opportunities or promotions that are available	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	Someone with whom the mentee gets together socially outside the work setting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	Someone who is mutual confidant for the mentee to share personal values and beliefs, views and interests	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	Someone with whom the mentee has a friendship	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	Someone who offers or appoints the mentee to a job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	Someone who promotes, recommends and advocates the mentee to “people that count”	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.	Someone who “goes into bat” for the mentee and/or uses their power or influence on the mentee’s behalf	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.	Someone whose reputations reflects positively on the mentee	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.	Someone who supports and helps guide the mentee’s personal development	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.	Someone who supports and helps guide the mentee’s professional development	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17.	Someone who encourages the mentee to discuss personal issues, insecurities and aspirations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18.	Someone who discusses and helps with decisions, rebalancing professional and personal issues and commitments	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.	Someone who shows understanding of the mentee’s feelings and emotions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20.	Someone who actively listens to, and acts as a sounding board for the mentee	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21.	Someone who advises and guides the mentee generally with regard to his/her career	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

22.	Someone who provides specific practical assistance to advance the mentee's career (e.g. give feedback on curriculum vitae, discussion of selection processes)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23.	Someone who discusses and/or provides advice on how to handle internal politics	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24.	Someone who provides knowledge about the system or strategies for working with the system	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25.	Someone who shares "inside knowledge" or passes information down from higher levels	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26.	Someone who provides strategic advice for handling certain situations and/or people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27.	Someone who provides feedback and /or alternative perspectives on the mentee's ideas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28.	Someone who shares the wealth of their experience to enhance the mentee's understanding or learning	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29.	Someone who shares information and knowledge	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30.	Someone who makes the mentee feel important and/or a priority	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31.	Someone who provides affirmation of the mentee's behavior and/or self	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32.	Someone who provides emotional support and encouragement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33.	Someone who facilitates the mentee in thinking things through for him/herself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34.	Someone who provides support, assistance or guidance for undertaking tasks or projects	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35.	Someone with whom the mentee reflects on a particular work situation or incident and provides feedback on it for future improvement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36.	Someone who shares an experience to help illustrate a particular point for learning	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37.	Someone who provides professional or technical advice	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38.	Someone who provides assistance in developing job related skills and knowledge	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39.	Someone who provides performance feedback on work tasks or projects	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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## Appendix B

### The Supervisory Relationship Measure (SRM)

Please note the following terminologies to reflect student teaching.

- **Trainee**, for all intent and purpose of this study, is the preservice teacher.
- **Supervision**, for all intent and purpose of this study, is the clinical work in which a trainee improves his/her practice through learning and developmental supports (Pearce, Beinart, Clohessy, & Cooper, 2012).
- **Case load**, for all intent and purpose of this study, is the amount of responsibilities and/or subject matter load.
- **Team**, for all intent and purpose of this study, is a collaboration team or a grade level team.
- **On placement**, for all intent and purpose of this study, is the preservice teacher placement with you in student teaching.

### The Supervisory Relationship Measure (SRM)

The following statements describe some of the ways you may feel about your trainee and aspects of your supervisory relationship with them.		Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
To what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements about your relationship with your trainee.								
Please tick the column which matches your opinion most closely.								
Safe Base Subscale								
1.	My trainee is open about any difficulties they are experiencing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	My trainee is reflective in supervision	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	There is a good emotional atmosphere in supervision with my trainee	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	My trainee is open and honest in supervision	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	My trainee is willing to learn new things	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	My trainee is enthusiastic about being on placement with me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	I like my trainee	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	My trainee is open to new experiences on placement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	My trainee appears able to give me honest and open feedback	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	My trainee seems to like me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	My trainee and I have a good professional relationship	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	Supervision provides a safe space for my trainee to learn	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.	My trainee is open minded and curious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.	My trainee's style and my own style interact well	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.	My trainee values my experiences and skills	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Supervisor Commitment Subscale								
16.	I try to pitch things at the right level for my trainee	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17.	I keep my trainee's needs in mind	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18.	I try to ensure my trainee has adequate space and resources	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.	I prepared for my trainee prior to their placement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20.	I am available and accessible to my trainee	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21.	I look out for clinical work and other opportunities for my trainee	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22.	I attempt to facilitate reflection in supervision with my trainee	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

23.	I set up regular supervision for my trainee	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24.	I give clear and honest feedback to my trainee	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Trainee Contribution Subscale								
25.	My trainee is able to hold an appropriate case load	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26.	My trainee appears to be doing the minimum required	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
27.	My trainee works hard on placement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28.	My trainee copes well with multiple demands	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29.	My trainee is considerate towards others in the service (e.g. secretaries)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30.	My trainee shows good organizational skills	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31.	My trainee shows poor professional values	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
32.	My trainee takes appropriate responsibility for their work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33.	My trainee behaves appropriately in the team	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34.	My trainee produces good quality work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35.	My trainee integrates well with others in the team	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36.	I am disappointed by my trainee's level of skill	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
37.	I value having my trainee on placement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
External Influences Subscale								
38.	My trainee tries to use supervision as therapy	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
39.	My trainee's past experiences of supervision interfere with our relationship	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
40.	My trainee has other life stressors which distract them from their work	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
41.	Things to do with the trainee's course interfere with placement	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
42.	I have stressors in my life which make it difficult for me to focus on supervision	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
43.	I sense that my trainee worries because I am evaluating them	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
44.	Evaluation has a negative impact on our relationship	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
45.	My trainee is too anxious to engage in supervision	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
Supervisor Investment Subscale								
46.	I am aware of what interests my trainee	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
47.	I am open in my supervision with my trainee	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48.	I try to get to know my trainee	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
49.	I am able to share my strengths and my weaknesses with my trainee	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
50.	Supervision is a safe place for me to give negative feedback	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
51.	I have a good idea about what my trainee wants to gain from this placement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Pearce, N., Beinart, H., Clohessy, S., & Cooper, M. (2012). Development and validation of the supervisory relationship measure: A self-report questionnaire for use with supervisors. Advance online publication. doi:10.1111/bjc.12012

## Appendix C

### The Supervisory Relationship Questionnaire (SRQ)

Please note the following terminologies to reflect student teaching.

- **Supervisor**, for all intent and purpose of this study, is the cooperating teacher.
- **Supervisee**, for all intent and purpose of this study, is the preservice teacher
- **Supervision**, for all intent and purpose of this study, is the clinical work in which a trainee improves his/her practice through learning and developmental supports (Pearce, Beinart, Clohessy, & Cooper, 2012).
- **Supervising session**, for all intent and purpose of this study, is a formal opportunity for observation and discussion.
- **Clinician**, for all intent and purpose of this study, is a practitioner.
- **Clients**, for all intent and purpose of this study, are students.

### The Supervisory Relationship Questionnaire (SRQ)

The following statements describe some of the ways a person may feel about his/her supervisor.		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
To what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements about your relationship with your supervisor?								
Please tick the column which matches your opinion most closely.								
Safe Base Subscale								
1.	My supervisor was respectful of my view and ideas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	My supervisor and I were equal partners in supervision	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	My supervisor had a collaborative approach in supervision	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	I felt safe in my supervision sessions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	My supervisor was non-judgmental in supervision	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	My supervisor treated me with respect	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	My supervisor was open-minded in supervision	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	Feedback on my performance from my supervisor felt like criticism	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
9.	The advice I received from my supervisor was prescriptive rather than collaborative	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
10.	I felt able to discuss my concerns with my supervisor openly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	Supervision felt like an exchange of ideas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	My supervisor gave feedback in a way that felt safe	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.	My supervisor treated me like an adult	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.	I was able to be open with my supervisor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.	I felt if I discussed my feelings openly with my supervisor, I would be negatively evaluated	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
Structure Subscale								
16.	My supervision sessions took place regularly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17.	Supervision sessions were structured	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18.	My supervisor made sure that our supervision session were kept free from interruptions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.	Supervision sessions were regularly cut short by my supervisor	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
20.	Supervision session were focused	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21.	My supervision sessions were disorganized	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
22.	My supervision sessions were arranged in advance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7



23.	My supervisor and I both drew up an agenda for supervision together	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Commitment Subscale								
24.	My supervisor was enthusiastic about supervising me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25.	My supervisor appeared interested in supervising me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26.	My supervisor appeared uninterested in me	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
27.	My supervisor appeared interested in me as a person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28.	My supervisor appeared to like supervising	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29.	I felt like a burden to my supervisor	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
30.	My supervisor was approachable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31.	My supervisor was available to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32.	My supervisor paid attention to my spoken feelings and anxieties	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33.	My supervisor appeared interested in my development as a professional	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Reflective Educational Subscale								
34.	My supervisor drew from a number of theoretical models	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35.	My supervisor drew from a number of theoretical models flexibly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36.	My supervisor gave me the opportunity to learn about a range of models	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37.	My supervisor encouraged me to reflect on my practice	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38.	My supervisor linked theory and clinical practice well	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39.	My supervisor paid close attention to the process of supervision	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40.	My supervisor acknowledged the power differential between supervisor and supervisee	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41.								
42.	My supervisor paid attention to my unspoken feelings and anxieties	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43.	My supervisor facilitated interesting and informative discussions in supervision	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44.	I learnt a great deal from observing my supervisor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Role Model Subscale								
45.	My supervisor was knowledgeable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
46.	My supervisor was an experienced clinician	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
47.	I respected my supervisor's skills	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48.	My supervisor was knowledgeable about the organizational system in which they worked	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
49.	Colleagues appeared to respect my supervisor's views	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
50.	I respected my supervisor as a professional	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
51.	My supervisor gave me practical support	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
52.	I respected my supervisor as a clinician	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
53.	My supervisor was respectful of clients	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
54.	I respected my supervisor as a person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
55.	My supervisor appeared uninterested in his/her clients	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
56.	My supervisor treated his/her colleagues with respect	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Formative Feedback Subscale								
57.	My supervisor gave me helpful negative feedback on my performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
58.	My supervisor was able to balance negative feedback on my performance with praise	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
59.	My supervisor gave me positive feedback on my performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

60.	My supervisor's feedback on my performance was constructive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
61.	My supervisor paid attention to my level of competence	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
62.	My supervisor helped me to identify my own learning needs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
63.	My supervisor did not consider the impact of my previous skills and experience on my learning needs	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
64.	My supervisor thought about my training needs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
65.	My supervisor gave me regular feedback on my performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
66.	As my skills and confidence grew, my supervisor adapted supervision to take this into account	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
67.	My supervisor tailored supervision to my level of competence	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Palomo, M., Beinart, H., & Cooper, M. J. (2010). Development and validation of the Supervisory Relationship Questionnaire (SRQ) in UK trainee clinical psychologists. *British Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 49(2), 131-149. doi:10.1348/014466509X441033