

**REPUBLIC OF TURKEY
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INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES
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**MAIN COMPONENTS OF ONLINE/BLENDED MENTORING
PROGRAMMES FOR LANGUAGE INSTRUCTORS TO TEACH
ONLINE: A CONTENT ANALYSIS**

SEDA KIZILDAĞ

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PROGRAMMES FOR LANGUAGE INSTRUCTORS TO TEACH ONLINE: A
CONTENT ANALYSIS

SEDA KIZILDAĞ

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Tez Danışmanı: Doç. Dr. Müge ADNAN

Jüri Üyesi: Prof. Dr. Şevki KÖMÜR

Jüri Üyesi: Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Yavuz SAMUR

Enstitü Müdürü: Prof. Dr. Ayşe Rezan ÇEÇEN EROĞUL

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MUĞLA


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Doç. Dr. Müge ADNAN
Tez Danışmanı


Prof. Dr. Şevki KÖMÜR
Üye


Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Yavuz SAMUR
Üye

ETİK BEYANI

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ABSTRACT

MAIN COMPONENTS OF ONLINE/BLENDED MENTORING PROGRAMMES FOR LANGUAGE INSTRUCTORS TO TEACH ONLINE: A CONTENT ANALYSIS

SEDA KIZILDAĞ

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The advances in technology have greatest effects on education, reshaping the learning environments, teaching tools and even teachers' pedagogies. After taking part in physical classrooms for a long time, technology has been offering a new learning medium which is online. Many universities all around the world have started to provide online or distance education to their students. This has caused the practitioners of online education to be equipped with new skills and roles and even pedagogies. Therefore, educators with pedagogies for traditional face-to-face education are expected to have online pedagogies. To this end, they need professional development to adopt these online pedagogies. Even though one-day events such as seminars or workshops are provided, it is not sufficient because they need an ongoing and more individualistic professional development tools.

Hence, some universities have started to design mentoring programmes to help their faculty to adapt to this change. In spite of its positive effects on both mentor and mentee as well as the adoption process, face-to-face mentoring can be replaced by blended or online mentoring programmes in that they offer the solution to time and place issues. Considering already existing workload and time spent on teaching, or course preparation, and being away from the campus for some reasons, blended or online mentoring programmes can be the best for the ones who have issues with time and place. However, for an efficient blended or online mentoring practice, main components of such a programme should be revealed and tailored in accordance with an organisation's aims and purposes of a mentoring programme.

In this context, this study aims to describe main components of an efficient blended or online mentoring programme for English language instructors to adopt online pedagogies and teach online more effectively. To this end, a content analysis of 71 studies on faculty mentoring indexed in ISI Web of Knowledge was performed in this study. These studies were also analysed based on theories for Knowles' adult learning theory, Rogers' Diffusion of Innovation and Technology Acceptance Model. Overall 39 codes were obtained, listed under two main themes which are individual and institutional

components. These codes which are roles, collaboration, attitude, closeness, seniority, beliefs and teaching areas, feedback, motivation and awareness of mentors, and roles, expectations, collaboration, socialisation, attitude, beliefs and teaching areas, motivation, feedback, awareness and readiness of mentees, technology infrastructure, learning communities, medium of delivery such as face-to-face, online and blended, authentic teaching context, individualisation, evaluation, culture, learning communities, technical and pedagogical support, voluntary participation, time and resources are considered as the main components of a blended/online mentoring programme. These components should be taken into consideration while planning a blended/online mentoring programme in order to facilitate language instructors' adoption of digital pedagogies and diffusion of innovation.

Keywords: Blended mentoring, distance learning, professional development, digital pedagogies, diffusion of innovation



ÖZET

MAIN COMPONENTS OF ONLINE/BLENDED MENTORING PROGRAMMES FOR LANGUAGE INSTRUCTORS TO TEACH ONLINE: A CONTENT ANALYSIS

SEDA KIZILDAĞ

Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Ana Bilim Dalı

Tez Danışmanı: Doç. Dr. Müge Adnan

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Teknolojideki gelişmelerin en büyük etkisi öğrenme ortamlarını, öğretim araçlarını ve hatta öğretmenlerin pedagojilerini yeniden şekillendirerek eğitim alanında görülmektedir. Uzun süre fiziksel sınıflarda yer alan teknoloji çevrimiçi olarak yeni bir öğrenim ortamı sunmaktadır. Dünyanın dört bir yanında pek çok üniversite öğrencilerine çevrimiçi ya da uzaktan eğitim sunmaya başlamıştır. Bu çevrimiçi eğitim uygulayıcılarının yeni beceriler, roller ve hatta pedagojiler yüklenmesine neden olmuştur.

Dolayısıyla, geleneksel yüz yüze eğitim bilimlerine alışkın olan eğitimcilerin çevrimiçi pedagojilere sahip olmaları beklenmektedir. Bu amaçla, bu çevrimiçi pedagojileri edilebilmeleri için mesleki gelişime ihtiyaçları vardır. Seminer ve atölye çalışmaları gibi bir günlük aktiviteler sunulmasına rağmen, bu uygulayıcıların devam eden ve daha bireysel bir mesleki gelişim aracına ihtiyaçları olduğundan bu tür aktiviteler yetersiz kalmaktadır. Bu sebepten bazı üniversiteler akademisyenlerinin bu değişime adapte olabilmeleri için mentörlük programları oluşturmaya başlamıştır. Hem mentor hem de mentörlük alan ve bu süreç üzerinde olumlu etkileri olmasına rağmen yüz yüze mentörlük sistemi, zaman ve yer problemlerine çözüm sağlayabileceğinden harmanlanmış ya da çevrimiçi mentörlük programları ile değiştirilebilir. Hali hazırda var olan iş yükü, ders anlatmaya veya ders hazırlığına ayrılan süre ve herhangi bir sebepten kampüs dışında bulunmak durumunda olma gibi nedenler göz önüne alındığında, harmanlanmış veya çevrimiçi mentörlük uygulamaları zaman ve mekân sıkıntısı olanlar için en iyi çözüm olabilir. Ancak, etkili bir harmanlanmış veya çevrimiçi mentörlük uygulaması için, bu tür bir programın ana bileşenleri ortaya çıkartılmalı ve kurumun mentörlük programına yönelik belirlediği amaç ve hedefler doğrultusunda düzenlenmelidir.

Bu bağlamda, bu çalışmanın amacı İngilizce dili okutmanlarının çevrimiçi pedagojileri edinmeleri ve çevrimiçi öğretimi daha etkili yapabilmeleri için harmanlanmış veya çevrimiçi mentörlük programının ana bileşenlerini tanımlamaktır. Bu amaçla, ISI Web of Knowledge veri tabanında indekslenen akademisyenlerin mentörlüğü üzerine yapılmış 71 çalışmaya ait bir içerik çalışması yapılmıştır. Bu çalışmalar Knowles'ın Yetişkin Eğitimi

(Androgoji), Rogers'ın Yenilik Yayılımı ve Teknoloji Kabul Modeli teorileri temel alınarak incelenmiştir. Bireysel ve kurumsal bileşenler olmak üzere iki tema altında listelenmiş toplam 39 kod elde edilmiştir. Bu kodlar, mentörlerin rolleri, işbirliği, tutumları, yakınlık, kıdem, inançları ve öğretim alanları, geri dönüt, motivasyon ve farkındalıkları, mentörlük alanların rolleri, beklentileri, işbirliği, sosyalleşme, tutumları, inanç ve öğretim alanları, motivasyon, geri dönüt, farkındalık ve hazır bulunuşlukları, teknoloji altyapısı, öğrenme toplulukları, yüz yüze, çevrimiçi ve harmanlanmış olarak mentörlüğün yapıldığı ortam, özgün öğretim içerikleri, bireysellik, değerlendirme, kurum kültürü, kurumdaki öğrenme ortamları, teknik ve pedagojik destek, gönüllü katılım, süre ve kaynaklar şeklindedir ve bunlar harmanlanmış veya online mentörlük programının ana bileşenleri olarak düşünülebilir. Harmanlanmış ya da çevrimiçi bir mentörlük programı planlanırken bu bileşenler, dil okutmanlarının dijital pedagojileri edinmelerini ve yeniliğin yayılmasını kolaylaştırmak için göz önünde bulundurulmalıdır.

Anahtar kelimeler: Harmanlanmış mentörlük, uzaktan öğretim, mesleki gelişim, dijital pedagoji, yeniliklerin yayılımı

PREFACE

This study aims to determine main components of a blended or online mentoring programme to help English language instructors to teach online.

First of all, I would like to give special thanks to my supervisor, who soon turned out to be a mentor, Müge ADNAN with all my heart since she has helped me decide on my study topic with her extensive perspective and has supported me with all stages of the study. She has always been very encouraging and supportive, and most importantly, motivating especially at the moments when I felt lost or in despair. I can honestly say that she has become the one who has broadened my horizon throughout my study. I feel so proud to have cooperated with her during this tough journey.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides the rationale and background of the study as well as its significance and purpose.

1.1. Rationale and Background of the Study

It is an undeniable fact that technology has recently been an inseparable part of education as well as other sectors such as industry, medicine, agriculture. The rise of technology has also reshaped educational tools and delivery of education, creating a new concept. Especially the way we deliver and use information has been influenced by the progress of technology. Harasim (1996) mentioned the influence of technological progress on education saying “educational applications of computer networking systems (electronic mail, bulletin boards, and computer conferencing systems), while a relatively recent phenomenon, are becoming a major area of growth, innovation and change affecting all levels and modes of education” (p.203). In 2015, Ng described these new technologies as “Internet-dependent technologies such as open source learning management systems (e.g. Moodle, Edmodo) , social networking sites and apps (e.g. MySpace, Facebook, Twitter and instant messengers IM), cloud storage (e.g. Dropbox, Google Drive), cloud-based creation service (e.g. Animoto, Prezi, GlosterEDU) and educational resource sites (e.g. Khan Academy, iTunes U)”(p.3).

Online learning is defined by Ally (2004) as “the use of the Internet to access learning materials; to interact with the content, instructor, and other learners; and to obtain support during the learning process, in order to acquire knowledge, to construct personal meaning, and to grow from the learning experience” (p.7). Online instruction is distinctive in two ways: firstly, it is mainly learner-centred, and is based on autonomous learning principles. Secondly, it is technology-based. Both encourage transformation of the role of the faculty in using and adopting instructional technologies as an important resource in distance education (Arah, 2012). This new concept requires introduction of “online instructional strategies that create an environment that supports and encourages inquiry, broaden the learner's experience of the subject matter, and elicit active and critical reflection by learners on their growing experience base” (Kim and Bonk, 2006). Therefore, as Çoklar and Odabaşı (2010) state, the biggest responsibility for the use of educational technologies falls on teachers, being the core of the educational process. Teachers, who have been traditionally trained for face-to-face education, are now required to adopt new roles and competencies for online teaching, which also results in a change in their titles, “online instructor”, or as Wozniak (2007, as cited in Arah, 2012) states, “a ghost in the wings”.

Teaching languages online necessitates skills that are not only different from those of traditional teaching but also different from other subjects (Hampel and Stickler, 2005). One part of the instructors' online responsibility is to come up with clearly stated learning goals and course objectives, and decide on the instructional methods with which to enable students achieve the desired ends (Arah, 2012). Only the competent and skilled online instructors who have the ability to adapt themselves to the new learning environments can facilitate this process. Hence, this preparation period for shifting from traditional face-to-face to online teaching is of great importance. First of all, all types of interactions in online teaching should be discussed. For Collins and Berge (1996), two kinds of interaction are essential for an effective and affective learning in distance education: the one related to student's interaction with content on an individual basis and the other related to student's interaction with others about the content. In the light of this, Collins and Berge (1996) emphasized four essential areas for a successful online instruction: pedagogical/intellectual, social, managerial/administrative/organisational/ procedural, and technical expertise. Without such competencies, the move from face-to-face towards online teaching would be only a dream or may end-up as a fiasco, due to lack of adequate

preparation (Arah, 2012). There is no doubt that the lack of adequate preparation will cause instructors, already having difficulty with adopting technology-integrated practices, to have more challenges. Baran (2015) sets forth that challenges explaining faculty members' slow adoption of technology integration practices have been frequently noted in the literature, such as lack of time, resources, technology infrastructure and support, as well as limited understanding about technology (see, for example Al-Senaidi et. al., 2009; Xu and Meyer, 2009, as cited in Baran, 2015).

According to Arah (2012), competence is about being knowledgeable about the subject matter, having all that it would take to organize, coordinate, and manage the virtual learning environment comfortably, and having the vision and inherent ability to direct and control the behaviour of students from different socio-economic backgrounds by helping them through constructive feedback. Therefore, an online instructor is expected to do a careful planning of the course considering students' needs and course objectives, and also hold the role of a facilitator through effective teaching strategies to give the students a chance to make the most of a learner-centered, autonomous and collaborative learning experience. That is possible when they have taken the time to understand this new challenging role, and be more willing to fulfil that role, have the right frame of mind and positive attitude toward distance/online learning, and believe strongly in its merits and advantages (Arah, 2012).

No matter how experienced in teaching in the traditional settings, instructors still need training to improve fundamental skills or competencies. In-service training programmes, certificate programmes or support programmes may help instructors deal with the challenges they may encounter. However, Baran (2015) claims that these are likely not to become as successful as expected to help convert faculty teaching since they do not go beyond teaching about technology instead of focusing on teaching with technology. For Baran (2015) faculty technology mentoring (FTM) seems the best option to meet the needs of teachers to integrate technology in their teaching compared to other forms of faculty support and training programmes. Beisser (2000) considers building mentoring relationships in higher education faculty to learn educational computing skills on a one-to-one basis is an "optimal match". Therefore, there are many educational institutions conducting "one-on-one technology mentoring programmes to better meet the specific needs of each faculty member" (Chuang, Thompson and Schmidt, 2003). For example, the Center for Technology in Learning and Teaching (CTLT) in Iowa University was

established in 1996 to support and disseminate the scholarship and professional practice of knowledge, especially in the area of technology and teacher education (Thompson, 2007). Their initial approach to help teachers adapt themselves to technology-driven teaching environments was to provide workshops and written materials. However, it soon became clear that it was not so easy to schedule workshops where all faculty members could participate, and that the faculty members needed distinctive needs. Thompson, (2007) stated that they “needed a more individualized approach for their very individualistic faculty” like a mentoring programme.

Chuang and Schmidt (2007) describe the characteristics of effective mentoring programmes as follows:

Characteristics of effective mentoring models include providing visions and setting goals, individualizing technology support, breaking down the hierarchical structure, establishing an open dialogue and collaborative relationships, and providing mutual benefits for mentors and mentees. In addition, successful programmes resulted in the creation of learning communities of mentors and mentees.

Technology is increasingly used in the mentoring process because of its widespread accessibility and potential to overcome the barriers of time and geographical location between mentors and mentees (Wong and Premkumar, 2007). This model is called online mentoring, virtual mentoring, telementoring, cybermentoring or e-mentoring. However, according to Colky and Young (2006, as cited in Rowland, 2012), mentoring in a virtual medium is based on mentoring structured in a traditional organisation. For example, University of Vienna in Austria conducted a blended peer-mentoring programme, called Cascaded Blended Mentoring, for psychology students in 2007/2008 winter term, which lasted for 3 months. There were online mentoring activities which were carried out in message boards in an online learning environment and five face-to-face meetings (Leidenfrost, Strassnig, Schütz, Carbon, and Schabmann, 2014). One of the major concerns reported on mentoring is that it was time consuming (Ehrich, Hansford, and Tennent, 2004; Long, 1997, as cited in Leidenfrost et. al, 2014). All peer mentors had to meet their mentees five times during the mentoring programme, whereas the online mentoring activities were dependent on their own time commitment (Leidenfrost et. al., 2014). Nonetheless, for Leidenfrost et. al. (2014), this was again time consuming. Online mentoring programmes might be complicated if they are not well-organized and monitored. However, in the study of Leidenfrost et. al. (2014), it should be taken into

consideration that because online mentoring activities and face-to-face mentoring activities were treated as a whole, mentees could not differ between online and face-to-face mentoring activities when they assessed their peer mentors. In the light of this case study above, online mentoring and face-to-face mentoring should be considered as two sides of the same coin.

In that sense online and/or blended mentoring may be considered as a useful supplement for structured faculty development programmes or workshops or seminars for teaching online so as to ensure motivation, encouragement, awareness and positive attitude of online instructors. In 2014, Baran conducted a faculty technology mentoring (FTM) programme with the faculty members and graduate students in METU and submitted a survey to the graduate students to seek their insights and suggestions about the programme. Baran (2016) discovered in her further study based on these survey results that the most important fields to disseminate technology knowledge within the mentoring community appear to be learning new technical skills, sharing pedagogical ideas, building the confidence to teach other, implementing pedagogical ideas and experiencing issues in the use of technology in teaching.

1.2. Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study is to analyse and determine the key elements of a blended mentoring programmes for language instructors to assist them in adapting themselves into online learning environments. To this end, efforts will be made to answer the following questions:

1. Can mentoring systems be considered as complementary to other professional development approaches?
2. Can mentoring programmes help teachers adapt themselves to online learning environments? If yes, how do they manage it?
3. What are the elements of an effective mentoring system to help language instructors manage online classes in Turkish content?

1.3. Significance of the Study

Online education or distance education has borne instructors new roles and competences. Although instructors are aware of these roles, it is not expected from them to adapt themselves into this environment easily just by recognizing their roles and competences as online instructors. There are many studies indicating instructors or teachers still fail to adopt online teaching environments even though they are provided with seminars, conferences, professional development trainings, tutorials etc.

Muğla Sıtkı Koçman University (MSKU) conducts online education programmes and courses since 2012. MSKU School of Foreign Languages has determined to adopt online technologies and included them in on-campus compulsory foreign language courses. To this end, instructors were provided with a structured online faculty development programme (E-tutor) on online teaching. It was aimed to equip all the participants with essential knowledge and skills required by future online instructors.

As soon as the programme was completed, the participants were asked to participate in a study, which showed that a significant number of the participants were still not motivated enough to conduct online teaching and were not sure about the role of an online instructor. E-tutor enabled to raise their awareness about how to be an online instructor and the effectiveness of online technologies, which also motivated them to use those. After completion of e-Tutor, participants were mostly satisfied with it; yet, underlined the importance of continuous support in the form of coaching or mentoring to clarify and adopt their changing roles and competencies in online learning environments (Adnan and Üstünel, 2015).

Engaging in effective professional development is critical to the process of improving one's teaching practice, whether one is a novice or veteran teacher (Darling-Hammond and Richardson, 2009; National Academy of Education, 2005; Stronge, 2007, as cited in Porter, 2011). Professional development can be both formal and informal. No matter what kind of professional development is provided, it is highly important that it results in in-depth understanding and improvement of practice (Broad and Evans, 2006). However, one-day events such as seminars are not effective enough in bringing change to the teaching practice (McConnell, 2013, as cited in Becuwe, Tondeur, Roblin, Thys, and Castelein, 2016); so teachers' professional learning arrangements are shifting towards

demand-driven models with teachers as active participants (Lim and Lee, 2014, as cited in Becuwe et. al., 2016).

Considering the challenges instructors encounter while teaching online in MSKU and their requests regarding more professional support, mentoring might be a good approach in order to help their adoption with online teaching environments and effective continuity of them. This study is important in the sense that it aims to reveal the main components of an efficient online/blended mentoring programme for faculty development to teach online. Findings from this study will form the basis for the creation of an online/blended mentoring programme for language instructors to help them adopt online learning technologies in learning-teaching environments effectively.



CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter demonstrates a review of literature regarding online learning and instruction, online teaching pedagogies, mentoring and its types, theoretical basis for adoption of changing roles of teachers.

2.1. Online Learning and Instruction

Rapidly improving technology has dominated over human life in every aspect, the most significant one of which is education (Durak and Saritepeci, 2017). The journey which starts with one-way technological applications such as text, audio, television and computer shifted to two-way technological applications like audio conferences, video conferences and e-mails (White, 2003, p.201 cited in Güneş, 2017). In addition to its impact on traditional learning environments, technological advancements have changed the course of distance learning moving it from correspondence through the postal service to the concept of open and distance learning where affordances of technology were put into action for a more efficient interaction.

Even though distance learning, online learning and e-learning have long been discussed in terms of their confusing descriptors by the researchers, it would be true to describe online learning as a subset of distance learning (Moore, et.al., 2010) which is more accessible, connective, flexible and able to invoke varied interactions (Ally, 2004; Hiltz and Turoff, 2005; Oblinger and Oblinger, 2005, as cited in Moore, et.al., 2010). With the intent of gaining a comprehensive perspective on online learning that will enable establish connections with other researchers' works, gaining a deeper insight into researchers' actions and transferring the experience earned from one context to another new

experience and context, Anderson (2008) tried to focus on and develop more efficient theories of online learning even though the opponents of theory claimed strictly adherence to any theoretical viewpoint may blind researchers about their own understandings and reality.

According to Wilson (as cited in Anderson, 2008), a good educational theory has three functions: a helper to imagine how good education provide the best advantages, a need for educators to invest time and resources effectively and a facilitator to interpret and build the future of education which is unknown at present. In the light of a well-described theory, it is easier for us to establish effective online learning environments. Bransford, Brown and Cocking (as cited in Anderson, 2008) discussed attributes of effective learning as community-centred, knowledge-centred, learner-centred and assessment-centred.

While learner-centred learning requires teachers to seek into and understand students' necessary knowledge and any possible misconceptions they may have to build the new knowledge as well as cultural features they will need to use for knowledge construction (Bransford et. al.,1999, as cited in Anderson, 2008), in online learning, teachers face some challenges such as limited tools they may use to uncover students' bias and cultural points of views, and to recognize their body language and paralinguistic hints (Anderson, 2008). The lack of these opportunities is considered to influence the communication between the teachers and students (Short, Williams and Christie, 1976, as cited in Anderson, 2008). For that reason, experienced online learning teachers are needed to establish effective interactions, and these teachers need time to provide these environments to the students to help them share their understandings, and cultures. Surveys and questionnaires or virtual icebreakers (Dixon, 2007, as cited in Anderson, 2008) are advised for this end in formal ways. However, these teachers must be willing to gain experience to carry out online learning effectively and nominate themselves to be the learners of online learning in the first place. Also, an online teacher should search for learner comfort and proficiency with involving technology and increase his or her sense of Internet efficacy despite learner's competency in using the Internet (Anderson, 2008). Thus, this raises the issue of professional development programmes that will help teachers gain their own competence in providing these online environment tools, which will be mentioned in detail below.

Content knowledge is required in order to make learning effective and enhance the learners' automacy which is a beneficial and essential skills for their critical thinking.

Learners should be given chances to reflect upon their own thinking; otherwise, their capacity to convey their knowledge to unacquainted contexts will be highly limited, and new knowledge structures will not be built. Learners have huge capacity of resources that can be easily accessible on the Internet along with the opportunity to grow their knowledge and find their own way around any discipline owing to surplus of formats and contexts. However, it is overpowering to supply the resources and an experienced and skilful online teacher must provide the big picture about which students can build upon their own knowledge and make discipline-centred discoveries (Anderson, 2008). Theories of learning help us to understand that “learning is about making connections with ideas, facts, people and communities.” (Anderson, 2008). To this end, Internet helps users to find and make these connections. However, a teacher using all these resources should gain the skill to eliminate the necessary ones according to his or her teaching context and equip learners with such critical thinking skills.

Bransford et al. (1999) (as cited in Anderson, 2008) state that effective learning environments should be assessment-centred. Further, they emphasize the importance of formative evaluation and summative assessment which motivate, and give feedback to both learners and teachers. In this sense, online learning put forward numerous opportunities for assessment. Teachers, peers, external experts, machine algorithms are involved in these opportunities, all of which support learners to reflect upon and assess their own learning.

In certain circumstances, process evaluation opportunities may be decreased due to the reduction in chances for immediate interaction between learners and teachers. However, project and workplace-based assessment activities may be built in collaboration, owing to peer and expert reviews, since the communication capacity in online learning is enhanced. Another benefit is the opportunity for self-assessment. In spite of these advantages, a possible increase in the workload arises, which makes online teachers busier (Anderson, 2008). Here, Anderson (2008) presents a list of tools which provide such formative and summative assessment without increased teacher participation such as online computer-marked assessments, collaborative learning environments students can assess their own learning in online groups, online automated tutors, student agents, project-based and product-based assessment, software tools that can evaluate complicated tasks, and informal social networks. There is also a social element in online learning programmes, which arises the community-centred lens of online learning (Anderson,

2008). It has been discussed that members of an online learning community need to support and challenge each other in collaboration (Lipman, 1991; Vygotsky, 2000 and Wenger, 2002, as cited in Anderson, 2008) to create effective and relevant knowledge construction. Thus, members of online communities develop a sense of belonging, trust and expectation of learning and it is expected that they can participate in the community and make contributions (Wilson, 1997, as cited in Anderson, 2008). However, problems such as lack of attention and participation (Morris and Ogan, 1996, as cited in Anderson, 2008), financial limitations (Annand, 1999, as cited in Anderson, 2008) and resistance among the faculty and institutions to competition from online learning mediums (Cutler, 1995) must be noted. Therefore, it may not be easy to create and maintain such communities due to lack of synchronicity in time and place, lack of body language and social presence (Anderson, 2008).

2.1.1. The Place of Online Teaching at Universities

In spite of the increase in teaching online at universities, faculty may be hesitant to teach online (Allen and Seaman, 2003, as cited in Thompson, 2007) for such reasons as lack of self-confidence in owning technological skills, a shortage of fulfilment in comparison with traditional teaching (Lynch et. al. 1999, Taylor and White, 1991, as cited in Thompson, 2007), and their concern about not being able to maintain personal contact with students (Blanch, 1994). Mostly, a faculty member's first attempt to use the Internet to teach online is to set a website and share the syllabus or other course materials that soon became routine in traditional face-to-face classes (Allen and Seaman, 2003). As Palloff and Pratt (2001, as cited in Thompson, 2007) describes this type of site as "static", it does not supply real interactivity between the teacher and the student, which raises concerns about teaching online.

For such concerns, blended classes can be an option to provide online opportunities along with face-to-face interactions desired by the faculty (Blanch, 1994). Signer, Hall, and Upton, (2000) surveyed faculty using online tools to support their traditional face-to-face classes. It appeared that such features as uploading files to the online site, editing class files, and placing Web links are most often used (Thompson, 2007). Considering the aim of using online environments is to improve classroom lectures and opportunities, it is not

possible to say that this aim has been realized satisfactorily since the way online instructors use these changes is restricted.

In a blended medium, content is largely delivered online (Allen and Seaman, 2003). Since the faculty needs to prepare materials for face-to-face instruction and online environment, it can be a discouraging task for them (Dabbagh, 2000). As for online instruction, it may be much more challenging and discouraging for the faculty to design these tasks. In the first place, it needs extra work to develop such activities as online forums, materials presented in various forms which will be applicable to all types of learners, and to motivate students or take some precautions to help learners to participate in online discussion forums or online classes (Thompson, 2007).

Betts (1998, as cited in Thompson, 2007) searched the motivators and inhibitors that faculty and administrators perceived as factors affecting participation in distance learning. Betts found two major factors: intrinsic factors and extrinsic factors. Intrinsic factors were intellectual challenge, motivation to learn new technology and the chance to reach students not present on campus classes, which are all the greatest motivators to teach online classes. Betts' findings on motivating factors were supported by other further studies (Thompson, 2007). Especially personal motivation to use technology was found to be the strongest factor. However, extrinsic factors such as monetary support, tenure and promotion, and release time were not found to be influential in the study. They seemed to be effective mostly in decision-making process about teaching online (Thompson, 2007).

The most important inhibiting factor was found to be time to manage online classes (Bai and Lehman, 2003; Goodyear et al., 2001; McKenzie et al., 2000; O'Quinn and Corry, 2002; Passmore, 2000; Rockwell et al., 1999; Schifter, 2000; Su, 2004; Youngblood et al., 2001, as cited in Thompson, 2007). McKenzie et al. (2000) stated that most of the faculty teaching online believed they spent more time developing and delivering online courses than their face-to-face classes. This study result was corroborated by the National Education Association (NEA) (2000) as also pointed out by Thompson (2007).

Another inhibiting factor is tenure and promotion guidelines. The time faculty allocates for professional activities required for tenure and promotion is taken away by the time spent on developing and teaching online-based classes (Bower, 2001; Hackman, 2003 cited in Thompson, 2007). However, Betts (1998, as cited in Thompson, 2007) and Scanlan (2001, as cited in Thompson, 2007) both found that tenure and promotion were

not issues in the faculty's decision to teach online.

Another barrier to adopting technology is the need for technical support (Betts, 1998; Rockwell et al., 1999; Rogers, 2000; Schifter, 2000, as cited in Thompson, 2007). In Rogers' (2000) survey, respondents stated they need technical support staff that will be available all the time to the faculty.

In spite of these inhibiting factors, the number of faculty teaching online and the courses offered online has been increasing dramatically. In this sense, faculty development models that have already been offered should be examined and tailored in accordance with the institution's needs and culture.

The faculty also needs to acquire online pedagogies and be well experienced to design or carry out such online programmes. Unlike the traditional teaching, online teaching has a lot of elements to consider as mentioned above. In the literature, it is seen that it is not enough to attempt to furnish the faculty with some knowledge about how to design online classes or add features, instead, professional development tool such as mentoring may best facilitate these faculty's adoption of online teaching environments and tailoring themselves in accordance with them.

2.2. Changing Roles of Instructors

There are certain factors affecting a faculty member's decision to participate in online teaching. In this sense, Marsh, Price, and McFadden (2000) suggest faculty move through five phases of technology adoption, each of which takes the instructor closer to web-based learning. An instructor develops some fundamental technology skills as the first phase, followed by the second phase where the instructor uses these skills for personal reasons effectively. The third phase includes the time when the instructor starts to introduce technology to enhance his/her classroom for example by using a PowerPoint presentation (Star, 2001). The fourth phase is when the instructor uses e-mail to provide network with students and other instructors as well as using the Internet to make search. The instructor moves to the fifth phase when s/he adapts to a new purpose for a web-based course (Marsh, et. al, 2000). In conclusion, it is possible for a faculty member to proceed into web-based instruction after conducting and getting experienced at technology in traditional classroom (Thompson, 2007).

All these required skills and adoption process have sharply changed the role of the instructor. The online instructor must be skilled enough to unite the best practices of traditional teaching lacking the advantages of face-to-face interaction (Cohen, 2001). The instructor has become one of the many rather than being the only source in terms of knowledge (Beaudoin, 1990). Yang and Cornelious (2004, as cited in Thompson, 2007) state that online learning is more student-centred; therefore, it has become inevitable that already existing role of the instructor as a distributor of knowledge shifts to facilitator of learning (Norton, 2001).

In this sense, Thompson (2007) mentions about seven essential principles as integrated into online learning environments, which also furnish the online instructor with new pedagogies.

Table 1: Seven Principles of Online Learning Environment

Chickering and Gamson (1987)	Graham, Cagiltay, Lim, Craner and Duffy (2001)
Encourages interaction between student and faculty	Instructors should give clear guidelines to interact with students.
Encourages students to operate with each other	Well-designed discussion assignments ease meaningful cooperation among students.
Encourages learning actively	Students should present course projects.
Gives immediate feedback	Instructors must give two types of feedback: informational feedback and acknowledgement feedback.
Communicates high expectations	Challenging tasks, sample cases and praise for quality work communicate high expectations.
Respects different talents and ways of learning	Letting students choose project topics combines diverse views with online courses.

Two surveys were carried out in the USA about roles and competencies of an online instructor (Thompson, 2007). Four major roles among eleven specific ones were remarkable: instructor, technology expert, administrator and instructional designer. Hence, the faculty needs to be competent in terms of interpersonal communication, planning skills, collaboration, proficiency of English, writing skills, organisational skills, feedback skills, content knowledge of distance learning, basic technology knowledge and technology access knowledge (Thatch and Murphy, 1994). To categorize these

competencies into two main fields, it is possible to say “communication” and “technical” skills are highly important in online teaching environments.

After Thatch and Murphy, Berge (1995) conducts one of the foremost research on the roles of online instructors. According to his research, these roles are categorized under four major roles such as pedagogical, social, managerial and technical. The role of being a facilitator stands out.

There are several more studies on changing roles and competencies of online instructors. Among them, William’s (2003) research, which compared results with Thatch’s (1994) revealed 13 roles and 30 competencies for instructors. These roles are united under four main categories. The first is communication and interaction, which is almost the same as in Thatch’s study. The second role is learning and instruction, which require the competence of adult learning theory, feedback skills, discussion skills, presentation skills, evaluation and assessment skills. The third role is described as management and administration. This role necessitates the competence of organisational and planning skills, knowledge of support services, knowledge of intellectual property, consulting skills, project management skills, personal organisation skills. The fourth is the use of technology, which requires the competence of basic technology skills, technology access knowledge, software skills and multimedia knowledge (Williams, 2003).

In addition to these significant studies, there have been some other research on instructors’ changing roles and competencies in teaching online in the literature. It may be said that competencies vary in accordance with the discipline. In sense of online language instructors, White’s study (2003, cited in Güneş, 2017) provides a list of distance language instructors’ competencies. According to White (2003, cited in Güneş 2017), a distance language instructor should be able to

- adapt themselves to distance learning environments and help students to adjust as well
- diagnose students’ needs and characteristics at a distance
- help students be related to unfamiliar elements in online learning environments
- deal with various issues and emotional states
- provide motivation for students from distance
- be a part of a team such as technology experts or learning support staff
- embrace continuous innovation and change (p. 47)

Hampel and Stickler (2005, p. 317), on the other hand, illustrates a skills pyramid, which consists of lower level skills and higher level skills to be considered by teacher training programmes to be designed.

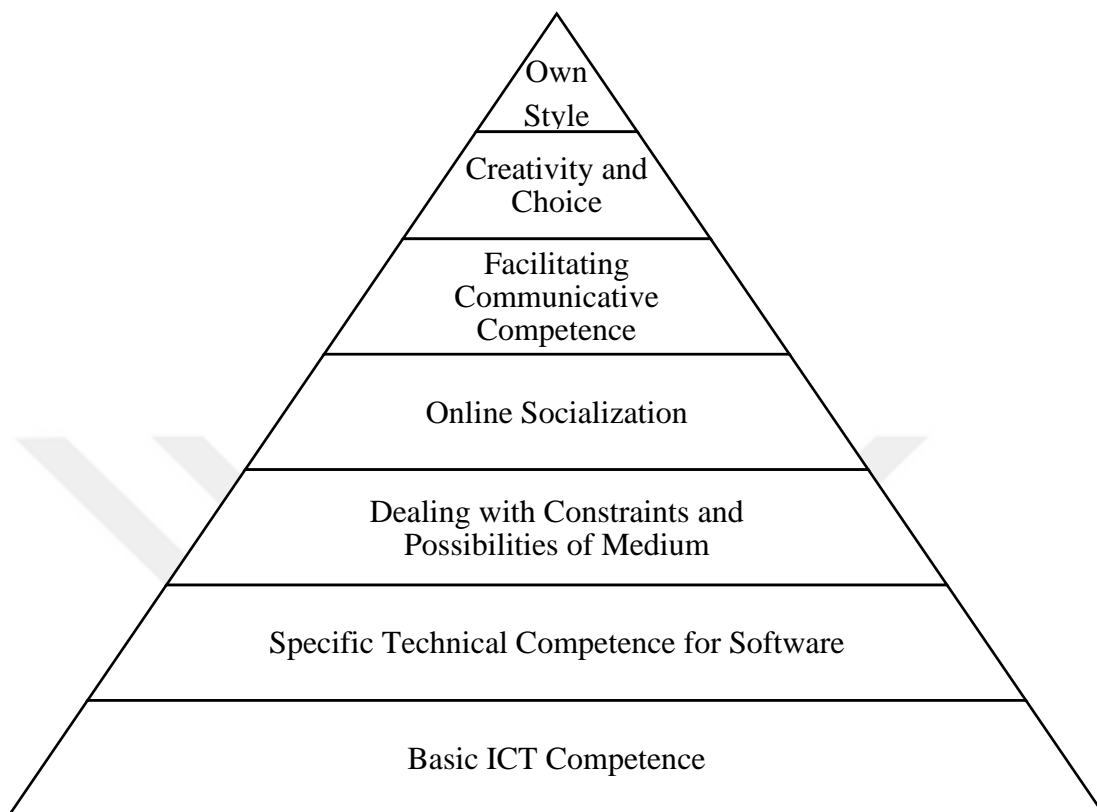


Figure 1: Skills pyramid of teacher training programmes

There are a few studies on online language instructors' competencies in the literature. One of those is Compton's (2009) study at which he opposes to the idea "high-level skills can be gained after low-level skills" (Hampel and Stickler, 2005). Compton (2009) claims that some skills such as online socialization and facilitating communicative competence can be acquired simultaneously or their order can be changed (Güneş, 2017). Compton (2009) proposes a new framework for online language teaching skills by categorizing teacher types as novice, proficient and expert under three main domains: technology in online language teaching, pedagogy of online language teaching and evaluation of online language teaching. For him, there is no order or time to gain these skills.

In spite of the increasing number of studies on online language instructors' competencies, the number of researches conducted in Turkey is limited. In an eminent study performed by Aydın (2005) seeking into perceptions of Turkish mentors about their roles and competencies in online learning mediums, the mentors were given eight roles to explain how required each role was and how often these roles were performed in online courses.

Roles adapted from Goodyear et al. (2001)'s study was used in adaptation of these roles; however, researcher role was omitted, and material producer role was added. The results showed that the most significant roles were (1) assessor, (2) process facilitator, (3) content expert, (4) instructional designer, (5) technologist, (6) adviser/counsellor, (7) material producer and (8) administrator. The most important relevant competencies were identified as basic computer skills, internet skills and acting like an expert. On the contrary, mentors exclaimed that they did not have enough skills to design an online learning medium (Güneş, 2017).

Even though the roles and competencies are well-defined, the problem emerges at the point where these language instructors transform into online language instructor with these expected skills. The language instructors who are accustomed to traditional face-to-face teaching may still have difficulty in equipping themselves with these competencies. Hence, they need professional development tools to fulfil their tasks in these online learning environments, which will be explained in detail below.

2.3. The Effect of Professional Development Tools to Help Language Instructors to Adopt Competencies to Teach Online

Traditional faculty development generally involves “one-shot” training designed for the faculty providing information, handouts, some interactive activities, mostly no or just little follow-up (Crawford, 2003). Unfortunately, these activities may not consider the role of instructor to teach online, and rather they focus on the technology aspect of online learning (Dillon and Walsh, 1992). Beaudoin (1990) notes that effective programmes need to centre on how to teach online rather than how to handle the technology.

In this sense, a key role is given to instructional support to function a distance education programme. A conceptual framework for a faculty support system to increase participation in online learning was developed by Olcott and Wright (1995, as cited in Thompson, 2007). Faculty is at the centre of this framework and training, compensation, release time and promotion and tenure issues are the most important motivational factors (Olcott and Wright, 1995, as cited in Thompson, 2007).

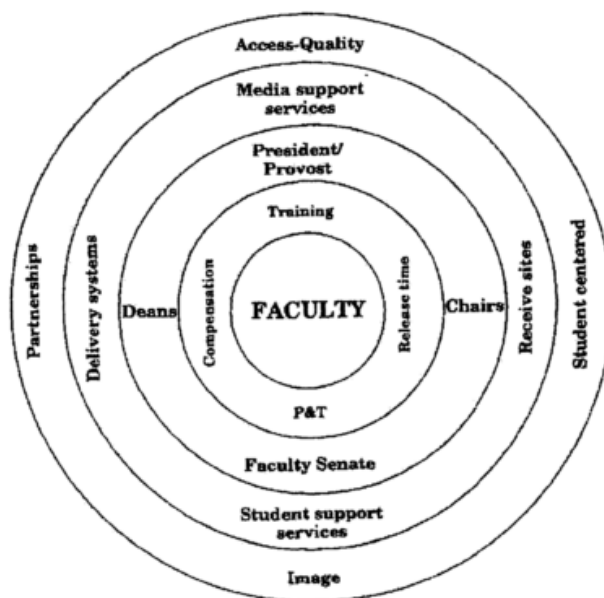


Figure 2: Institutional faculty support framework

Lee (2001) also mentioned that the faculty having good support from their institution became more motivated and committed, and concluded that there was a correlation between support received from an institution and the faculty's perception on motivation, commitment and satisfaction with online learning. To this end, many institutions provide training for their faculty to help them adopt themselves to teach online. These trainings are mostly on how to use technology required for distance education and online pedagogies. For Schauer et al. (2005), what is most essential in this sense is to provide technology and technical support the faculty needed as well as relevant training.

The in-house online professional development programme carried out in Turkey by Mugla Sitki Kocman University was designed to help the faculty with “pedagogical and technological knowledge and skills for effective online tutoring” (Adnan et al., 2017). It was revealed that initially the participants of the programme were not aware of their changing roles in online learning environments, yet they emphasised the need of continual support to adapt their roles and competencies to teach online (Adnan 2015). In this regard, Arinto (2013) also notes that professional development in open and distance online learning is a “complex process that requires continuous engagement..., critical reflection, and membership in a community of practice” (as cited in Adnan et.al., 2017).

In addition, many other institutions adopted a team approach to support faculty to teach online (Fink, 2002; Nicoll and Davis, 2003, as cited in Thompson, 2007). Care and

Scanlan's Interdisciplinary Team Model (2001) allowed for development of an online class by the instructor with a team of professionals including course content faculty, technical personnel, and a project coordinator. Team members learned from each other thanks to this approach and a sense of appreciation in the strengths of team members was developed. Team-building capacity emerged as one of the strengths of this model and the team continued to come together to deal with any issues during the course after the course was designed. Bates (2000) also emphasized the importance of this team approach suggesting "faculty development activities should be embedded in a broad range strategies that support technology-based teaching and learning and should be provided on a just-in-time basis".

Thompson (2007) claims that "traditional, structured training may not be the only way that faculty are learning to how to navigate the online environment". *and cites*. It is highly possible faculty will need help with certain issues or have questions about teaching online, and in such case, they may prefer consulting with the more experienced in teaching online classes. Like several others, McKenzie, Ozkan and Layton (2006, cited in Thompson, 2007) suggests mentoring as an add-on to traditional faculty development and note that it is one way to help faculty to understand how to teach online classes.

2.4. Mentoring

The term mentor dates back to Greek mythology. Athena becomes a guardian and teacher to Odysseus's son, Telemachus (Ferronato, 2005, as cited in Thompson, 2007), and named as "mentor" when Odysseus goes to fight in the Trojan War. Bell (2000) simply defines mentor as "someone who helps someone else learn something that he or she would have learned less well, more slowly or not at all if left alone" (p.54 cited in Thompson, 2007). One of the earliest definitions of mentor comes from Anderson and Shannon, 1988 where they define mentoring as "a nurturing process in which a more skilled or experienced person, serving as a role model, teaches, sponsors, encourages, counsels and befriends a less skilled or less experienced person for the purpose of promoting the latter's professional and/or personal development" (Anderson and Shannon, 1988).

Mullen (1994) suggests the following definition of the process of mentoring:

A mentoring relationship is a one-to-one relationship between a more experienced member (mentor) and a less experienced member (protégé) of the

organisation or profession. The relationship is developed to promote the professional and personal growth of the protégé through coaching, support, and guidance. Through individualized attention, the mentor transfers needed information, feedback, and encouragement to the protégé as well as providing emotional support and putting in a good word when possible (p. 259, as cited in Thompson, 2007).

The significant elements of mentoring relationships were discussed by Gehrke (1988) where both mentor and mentee should choose each other to work with. Since building a relationship is important, they should spend some time to know each other. Both parties should decide upon what to learn and teach. The first aim of the mentors is to get the mentees to an independence point; that's why, mentors should take the mentees' strengths, needs and learning styles into consideration. (Gehrke, 1988).

In terms of developing relationship between mentor and mentee, Kram (1983) described the mentoring process with its four distinct phases: initiation phase, cultivation phase, separation phase and redefinition phase. Initiation phase is when the mentor coaches the mentee and the mentee shows his/her will to be coached. In cultivation phase, both parties start to get benefits from the relationship between them and interactions become meaningful, frequent and important. In the separation phase, the mentee does not feel the need for being guided and begins to work without any dependence on the mentor, which causes the interaction to decrease. Lastly, in redefinition phase, the relationship turns into a friendship or peer relationship (Kram, 1983).

2.4.1. The Formality of Mentoring

There are two types of mentoring: formal and informal (Thompson, 2007). Formal mentoring is structured by an organisation or institution that matches the individuals based on certain criteria to help them build relationships (Bell, 2000; Ferronato, 2005; Roberts, 2000, as cited in Thompson, 2007). The organisation or institution may monitor the performance of the mentor (Chao et al., 1992; Mullen, 1994; Singh et al., 2002; Thompson, 2007). In the mentoring process, the mentor is often provided with some training (Mullen, 1994). Singh et al (2002) emphasized that these individuals in the mentoring programme are mostly assigned to cooperate and no interpersonal relationship is allowed to develop before the process starts. Formal mentoring has been used as a strategic method to enable new employees to be adapted to the culture of an organisation

in addition to its use as a support for new learning (Caldwell and Carter, 1993; Janas, 1996; Kariuki, Franklin, and Duran, 2001; as cited in Thompson, 2007) .

On the other hand, informal mentoring occurs naturally between the mentor and mentee. No other institution takes place in this relationship (Allen et al., 2005; Allen et al., 1999; Chao et al., 1992; Thompson, 2007). Mostly, the mentor is willing to help the mentee while the mentee is willing to get guidance and assistance from the mentor (Chao et al., 1992; Thompson, 2007). The mentor does not have any formal requirements while the mentee does not have any evaluations (Thompson, 2007).

The mentor is often considered as a role model by the mentee (Ferronato, 2005; Ragins and Cotton, 1999; Roberts, 2000; Thompson, 2007); still, this mentoring yields co-learning due to its informality, therefore, both mentor and mentee can share and exchange knowledge (Singh et al. 2002, as cited in Thompson, 2007). Mullen (1994) suggests the freedom of mentors and mentees to choose their partners. Yang and Cornelious (2004) advise that each department or college should assign a mentor to help inexperienced faculty in case they have questions about online teaching.

Wong and Premkumar (2007) state that mentors play a vital role in the development of individuals in education and business institutions. Similarly, Caffarella (1992, as cited in Wong and Premkumar, 2007) defines mentoring as an intense caring relationship where the more experienced cooperates with the less experienced to improve him/her both professionally and personally. Daloz (1986, as cited in Wong and Premkumar, 2007) makes a more expressive description of mentors as guides who “lead us along the journey of our lives ... they cast light on the way ahead, interpret arcane signs, warn us of lurking dangers, and point out unexpected delights along the way” (p. 17, as cited in Wong and Premkumar, 2007).

Mentee is mostly referred as the beneficiary (Wong and Premkumar, 2007); however, mentoring relationship have been pointed out by many writers to be an opportunity to develop for both mentors and mentees (Daloz, 1996, 1999; Albom, 1997; Hansman, 2002, as cited in Wong and Premkumar, 2007). As well as career-based benefits, mentoring relationships are likely to facilitate psychosocial development of both mentors and mentees. Mentees may raise their self-confidence, self-efficacy, and self-assurance while mentors' self-confidence of their capacity for reflective thinking and communication can be enhanced and also they may feel more satisfied with contributing to the field and the

next generation (Wong and Premkumar, 2007).

2.4.2. Blended Mentoring

The use of technology in mentoring process is increasing since it is available widely and mentors and mentees can meet each other whenever the time is or wherever they are. Although there are numerous benefits of technology-mediated mentoring especially in terms of time and location, there are also some certain challenges to be considered (Wong and Premkumar, 2007).

Murphy (2011) describes e-mentoring as a tool to give protégés, also called mentees in the literature, the chance of developing relationships with mentors who are geographically away and enabling both parties to decide when to interact. Electronic communication is already taking a big part in our lives in terms of maintaining relationships with more than 500 million users of Facebook (Fletcher and Ford, 2010) and other social networking sites like Twitter, Linked-In, and MySpace (Romans, 2009, as cited in Murphy, 2011).

In an experimental study on the effectivity of blended mentoring for 21st century students, Murphy (2011) noted that it was more and more important for the students to learn how to develop professional relationships via electronic environments because the use of online tools such as Linked-in, Twitter and Facebook was increasing by individuals and employers (Zeidler, 2009, cited in Murphy, 2011). Murphy (2011) considered e-mentoring as a tool to raise students' awareness of the significance of mentoring relationships and to help them start to improve their skills to sustain developmental networks. Mesch and Talmud (2006) also stated that individuals created and maintained online social relationships where they can exchange information and support each other socially even though these relationships are unlikely to be as close as face-to-face relationships. Hence, blended communication, or blended mentoring in this study's context, combining e-mail or social networking with phone conversations and face-to-face meetings could be an effective way for those individuals to maintain developmental networks in the 21st-century world.

2.5. Theoretical Basis

2.5.1. Adult Learning or Andragogy

Knowles (1979) introduced the term andragogy about facilitation of learning among adults. Knowles (1979) explained the adult learning theory with the principles below:

1. Adults are motivated to learn as they experience needs and interests that learning will satisfy; therefore, these are the appropriate starting points for organizing adult learning activities.
2. Adults' orientation to learning is life-centred; therefore, the appropriate units for organizing adult learning are life situations, not subjects.
3. Experience is the richest resource for adults' learning; therefore, the core methodology of adult education is the analysis of experience.
4. Adults have a deep need to be self-directing; therefore, the role of the teacher is to engage in a process of mutual inquiry with them rather than to transmit his or her knowledge to them and then evaluate their conformity to it.
5. Individual differences among people increase with age; therefore, adult education must make optimal provision for differences in style, time, place, and pace of learning (p.40).

Wong and Premkumar (2007) states that mentoring is consistent with the principles of adult learning since it is a process-oriented relationship and knowledge acquisition and reflective practice are involved in it. They also make three assumptions about the nature of mentoring in the light of these principles as follows:

1. Mentoring provides both mentors and mentees a powerful growth experience.
2. Mentoring is mostly successful when it is done in collaboration.
3. Mentoring is a reflective process during which preparation and dedication are required.

2.5.2. Diffusion of Innovations

Rogers (2003) defines adoption as “full use of innovation as the best course of action available” (Rogers, 2003, p.177) and diffusion as “the process in which an innovation is communicated through certain channels over time among the members of a social system” (Rogers, 2003, p.5.).

Rogers' Diffusion of Innovations is one of the most popular adoption models (Sherry and Gibson, 2002). Hence, it is also considered important in faculty mentoring such as the Faculty Mentoring programme at Iowa University in order to help faculty with adoption and diffusion of technology (Şahin, 2007). Şahin (2007) states that Rogers' theory is the main theoretical basis considered to explain the components of a faculty mentoring programme.

There are four major elements of diffusion of innovations: innovation, communication channels, time and social system. Rogers (2003) defined innovation as "an idea, practice or project that is perceived as new by an individual or other unit of adoption". An innovation can be successfully achieved if the uncertainty about an innovation's results can be removed; otherwise, it can be a great barrier to adoption. Individuals should know about the advantages and consequences of innovation (Rogers, 2003 cited in Sahin, 2007).

The other element, communication channels, includes two types of communication: mass media and interpersonal communication. TV, radio and newspaper are tools of mass media and they are powerful in spreading knowledge of innovations to a greater audience (Orr, 2003). However, interpersonal communication channels are more effective in forming and changing strong attitudes of individuals. Especially if these channels are local, which includes members of a social system, they much more effective during decision process (Orr, 2003).

Sahin (2007) emphasizes that time dimension of diffusion of innovations is important since adoption is enabled over a period of time. Similarly, he focuses on the element of social system stating "adoption occurs within a social system".

Orr (2003) notes that each member of a social system goes through 5-step-process while making his/her own innovation decision no matter if the decision is taken by authorities or collectively:

- 1) Knowledge – a person has got awareness of an innovation and has some idea about its function,
- 2) Persuasion – a person develops a positive or negative attitude toward the innovation,
- 3) Decision – a person engages in activities leading to a choice to adopt or reject the innovation,
- 4) Implementation – a person puts an innovation into practice,
- 5) Confirmation – a person makes evaluation about the results of an innovation decision already made (Orr, 2003).

Rogers (1995) suggested five attributes of innovations to enable it to be described and displayed that the rate of adoption can be predicted based on individuals' perceptions of these characteristics. The first of these attributes is relative advantage. Rogers (1995) defines it as “the degree to which an innovation is perceived as better than the idea it supersedes” (p.15). In his study, he illustrates the positive relationship between the relative advantage of an innovation and rate of adoption. He defines compatibility as “the degree to which an innovation is perceived as consistent with the existing values, past experiences, and needs of potential adopters” (Rogers, 1995, p.15). Similarly, there seems a positive relationship between the compatibility of an innovation and rate of adoption. He defines complexity as “the degree to which an innovation is perceived as relatively difficult to understand and to use” (Rogers, 1995, p.15). He finds out a negative relationship between the complexity of an innovation and rate of adoption. He defines trialability as “the degree to which an innovation may be experimented with on a limited basis” (Rogers, 1995, p.15). There is a positive relationship between the trialability of an innovation and rate of adoption. Lastly, he defines observability as “the degree to which the results of an innovation are visible to others” (Rogers, 1995, p.16).

According to Rogers (1995), there are five types of adopters. Innovators are venturesome, who are really eager to try new things. They are highly important in the diffusion process since they can be importers of the innovation from outside of a system's boundaries when the new idea is launched. Therefore, they have a “gatekeeping role” in penetrating new ideas into a new system (Rogers, 1995, p. 248).

The second type is early adopters who are the localities of a system unlike the innovators who are seen as cosmopolites. Since they are the opinion leadership in many social systems, they are respectable. The individuals who are potential to adopt an innovation always consult early adopters for advice and information about the innovation. They become the role models in a social system. Their role in a social system is to decrease uncertainty about the innovation by adopting at the earliest stage and to distribute a subjective evaluation of the new idea through interpersonal networks (Rogers, 1995, p. 248-249).

The third type is early majority who “adopt new ideas before the average member of a social system” (Rogers, 1995, p.249). Even though they do not have leadership status, they often interact with their peers. Their role is to become a bridge between the very early and the relatively late to adopt, which gives them a vital role in the diffusion process.

They may “deliberate” for a bit longer time period before they adopt the innovation idea thoroughly (Rogers, 1995, p.249).

The fourth type is late majority who “adopt new ideas just after the average member of a social system” (Rogers, 1995, p.249). They approach innovations being skeptical and adopt them after many other have done it. They are the group who is persuaded of its utility; however, they feel peer pressure to adopt the new ideas, which also motivates them to adopt (Rogers, 1995, p.249-250).

The last type is laggards who are traditional. Rogers (1995) describe them as “the most localite in their outlook of all adopter categories; many are near isolates in social networks” (p.250). They depend on the past for reference. They make their decisions by taking what the previous individuals or generations have done into consideration. By the time they adopt an innovation, probably many innovators have already been using the more recent idea. They resist to innovations, which they find this action rational because they need to be sure if the new idea will fail or succeed. Even though the name “laggard” has a bad connotation, it is not fair to say they are faulty to be so late to adopt. This situation shows individual-blame (Rogers, 1995, p.50-51).

2.5.3. Technology Acceptance Model

Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) introduced by Davis (1989) has been the most applied model of user acceptance to a wide extent among several theoretical models used to search user acceptance and behaviour of information Technologies (Venkatesh, 2000). It was an adaptation of the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) (Ajzen and Fishbein 1980). Two major beliefs suggested by TAM are perceived ease of use and perceived usefulness. An individual’s intention to use technology is linked to his or her subsequent behaviour (Taylor and Todd, 1995). The research of Davis et al. (1989) found a strong direct link between perceived usefulness and intention. In other words, people intend to use a technology due to its usefulness, although they do not have a positive attitude towards using it. According to TAM, perceived ease of use affects perceived usefulness since it is easier to use a technology as long as it is useful (Venkatesh, 2000).

Davis et al. (1989) defined perceived usefulness (U) “as the prospective user’s subjective probability that using a specific application system will increase his or her job

performance within an organisational context” (p.985). They also defined perceived ease of use (EOU) as “the degree to which the prospective user expects the target system to be free of effort” (p.985). In their study, it was found that EOU affects attitudes and behaviour which are self-efficacy and instrumentality. Davis et al. (1989) emphasize that if the system is easier to interact with, then the user’s sense of efficacy (Bandura, 1982 cited in Davis et al. (1989)) and personal control (Lepper, 1985, cited in Davis et al. (1989)) in accordance with one’s capability to conduct the sequences of behaviour which is required for operation of the system. Efficacy is considered one of the main factors underlying intrinsic motivation (Bandura, 1982, Lepper 1985 cited in Davis et al. (1989). Bandura (1982, as cited in Davis et al., 1989) and Deci (1975, as cited in Davis et al., 1989) notes that efficacy influences effort, persistence and motivation because of human’s inborn drives for competence and self-determination.

Davis et al. (1989) note that determinants of perceived usefulness must be well understood in addition to the change of their effect by gaining more experience with the usage of the system over time because perceived usefulness is an elementary driver of usage intentions.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the research design and procedures used in this study under five sections: research design, sampling procedure, data collection, data analysis and limitations of the study.

3.1. Research Design

This study aims to examine the articles published in journals indexed in ISI Web of Knowledge in order to discover the main components of online / blended mentoring programmes for language instructors to teach online. To achieve this aim and to gain a deeper insight of the written texts, qualitative content analysis was considered appropriate for this study.

Content analysis includes both qualitative and quantitative approaches to analyse written, verbal or visual communication messages (Elo and Kyngäs, 2008). Mayring (2014) describes qualitative content analysis as “a mixed methods approach: assignment of categories to text as qualitative step, working through many text passages and analysis of frequencies of categories as quantitative step”. Defined by Hsieh and Shannon (2005) as one of several research methods used to analyse text data, content analysis was also described by Weber (1990) as a research method that uses a set of procedures to make valid inferences from text. Bryman (2012) also describes content analysis as a method where the researcher analyses documents on the basis of predetermined categories in a systematic way. With content analysis, it is possible to analyse the messages in various resources about a topic by organizing the comprehensive materials and to make conclusions by comparing the topic analysed through appropriate categories,

classifications or implications (Büyüköztürk et al., 2008 cited in Usluel and Mazman, 2010).

Articles that established the sample of this study were collected through document analysis. Rapley (2007) and Bowen (2009) describe document analysis as a systematic method to review or examine electronic or printed materials. Similarly, Bowen (2009) describes document analysis to “elicit meaning, gain understanding and develop empirical knowledge” (Bowen, 2009, p.27). More detailed information on the selection procedure is given in the following section.

3.2. Sampling and Data Collection

The population of this study consists of the research articles on mentoring, blended mentoring and online mentoring published from 2006 to 2016 in journals indexed in ISI Web of Knowledge, which is a systematic and objective database to reach a wide array of the world’s leading research journals ranging from science and technology to social sciences. As the initial step, the following keywords were used to search in ISI Web of Knowledge: online learning, e-learning, faculty mentoring, online mentoring, blended mentoring, technology integration, technology acceptance, professional development, and faculty development. Data collection was completed in 2017, and total 163 documents were reached consisting of 5 reviews, 26 proceeding papers, 125 research papers, 4 editorial materials, 1 reprint and 2 book reviews published in 113 journals from 2006 to 2016. Only three documents were published in 2006, while 46 documents were published in 2016, which may indicate an increased popularity of mentoring.

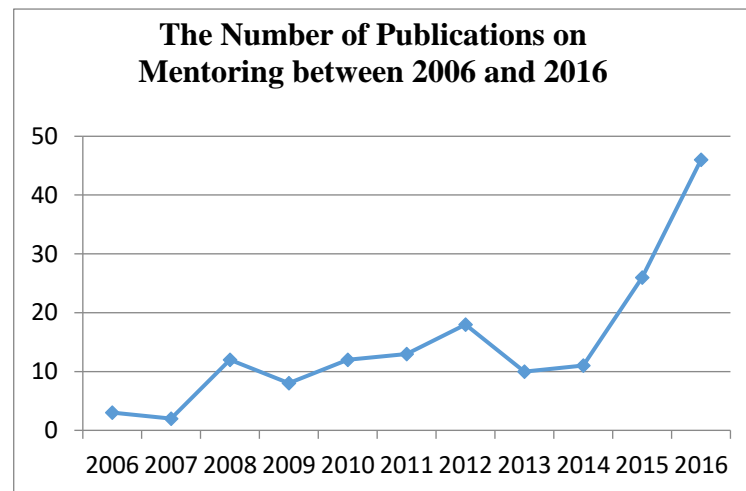


Figure 3: Distribution of publications on mentoring between 2006 and 2016

Muschallik and Pull (2015) state that definition of mentoring varies according to the context, although there is a main concept behind mentor-mentee relationship. Similarly, Dawson (2014) also discusses that elements of a mentorship practice differ in accordance with its context. For example, framework of a school-based mentorship practice may not be implemented beyond the school context. Considering the focus of this study, which is determination of major components of a mentorship programme for language instructors to teach online, it has included journal articles on mentoring in a higher education context. Another criterion has been adult learning and adoption of technology; hence the study concentrated on three relevant theoretical frameworks in this regard. As a result, among 163 documents, all articles in compliance with the following inclusion criteria were selected for this study:

1. Journal article written on a subject as to mentoring in higher education
2. Based on one of the following theoretical frameworks: a) Theories for Online Learning, b) Adult Learning Theory (Knowles, 1968), c) Diffusion of Innovation Theory (Rogers, 2003), d) Technology Acceptance Model (Davis, 1989)
3. Published in peer-reviewed journals indexed in ISI Web of Knowledge
4. Published from 2006 to 2016

Total 125 research articles were screened in accordance with the above-mentioned criteria, and 71 studies were found eligible in accordance with the criterion above and included in the current study (Appendix 1). Figure 2 below depicts the selection process in the form of a flowchart.

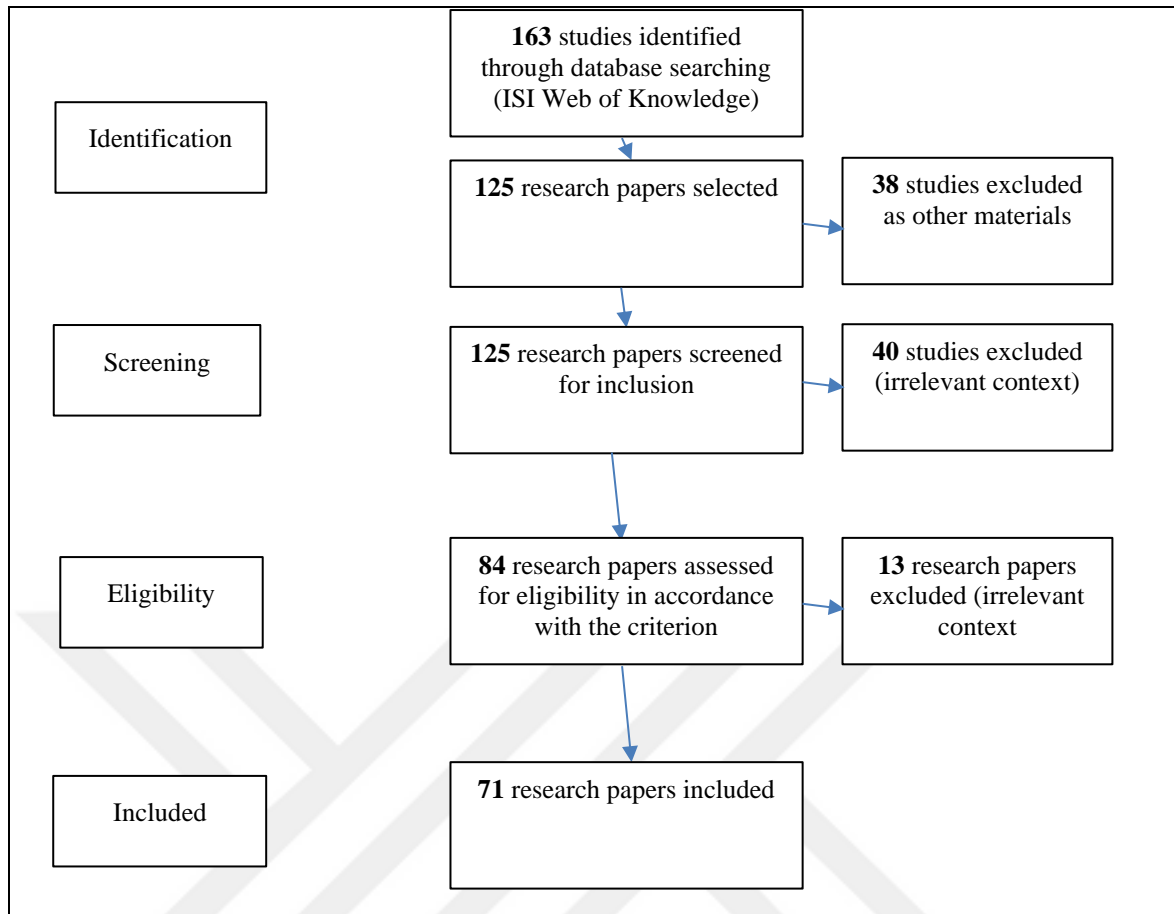


Figure 4: Flowchart of study selection process

3.3. Instrumentation

Instrumentation procedures in this study consist of three phases. Initially, the researcher created a coding instrument based on the literature to examine the sample. As a second step, the instrument was sent to two subject matter experts, and it was reorganized upon the expert advice and contribution and then finalized with a pilot study. These phases are explained in the following section in detail.

3.3.1. Coding the Data

The success of a content analysis starts with a well-structured and planned coding process (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005). This process allows in-depth analysis of the data to clarify the topic and describe the components. Yıldırım and Şimşek (2008) suggest the following four-step path for content analysis:

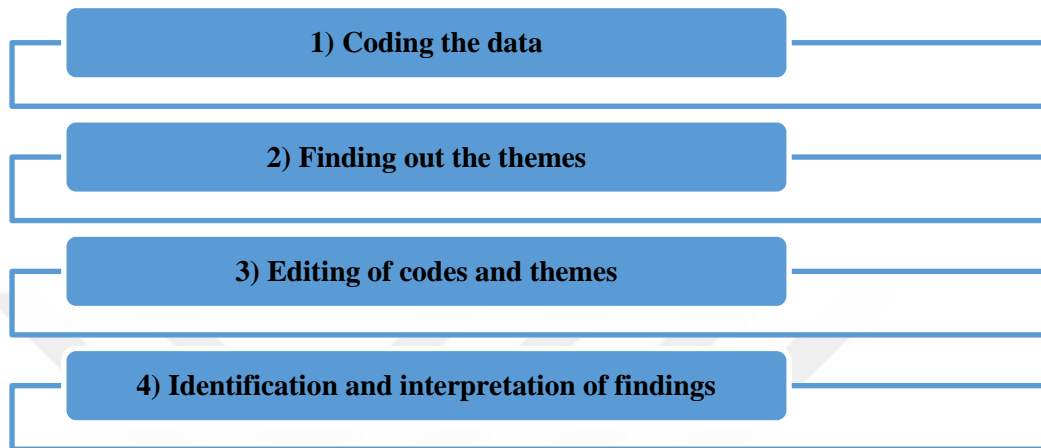


Figure 5: Four-step path of content analysis

Weber (1990) states that the basic coding process in content analysis is to organize large quantities of text into fewer content categories. Fraenkel, Wallen and Hyun (2012) mentions two strategies to create categories in a content analysis. The first strategy 1 is to decide on the categories before initiation of data analysis. Neundorf (2012) also underlines the significance of categorization before data analysis starts. According to this strategy, the definition of the categories is based on theory, previous experience and knowledge. The second strategy involves determination of categories during the analysis process. This strategy allows the researcher to get acquainted with descriptive characteristics of the data. Also, the category formation continues as the analysis procedure does. The codes were predefined in this study in parallel with these strategies. In other words, data analysis started after the predefinition of the codes in the current study. The codes were determined in accordance with the literature review, research questions and an examination of a subsample from the main sample articles.

After the codes were determined, the code chart was sent to two experts and necessary modifications was performed afterwards. Following the modification, it was sent back to the experts for a recheck.

In this study, the following codes were used as a starting point, determined on the basis of the literature review, research questions and an examination of a subsample from the

main group articles:

- mentors' and mentees' roles
- mentees' expectations
- mentors' and mentees' collaboration
- socialization
- mentors' and mentees' attitude
- closeness
- seniority
- mentors' and mentees' beliefs and teaching areas
- feedback
- motivation
- awareness
- readiness
- technology infrastructure
- learning communities
- mediums of mentoring; face-to-face, online, blended
- authentic teaching content
- individualization
- evaluation
- organisation's / institution's culture
- technical and pedagogical support
- voluntary participation
- time
- resources

3.3.2. Themes and Categorization

After the coding process, sub-themes and themes were determined and codes were placed under the sub-themes. Two main themes were identified: individual components and organisational components. Five sub-themes were determined: mentor-oriented components, mentee-oriented components, delivery-related components, content-related components, and organisation-related components.

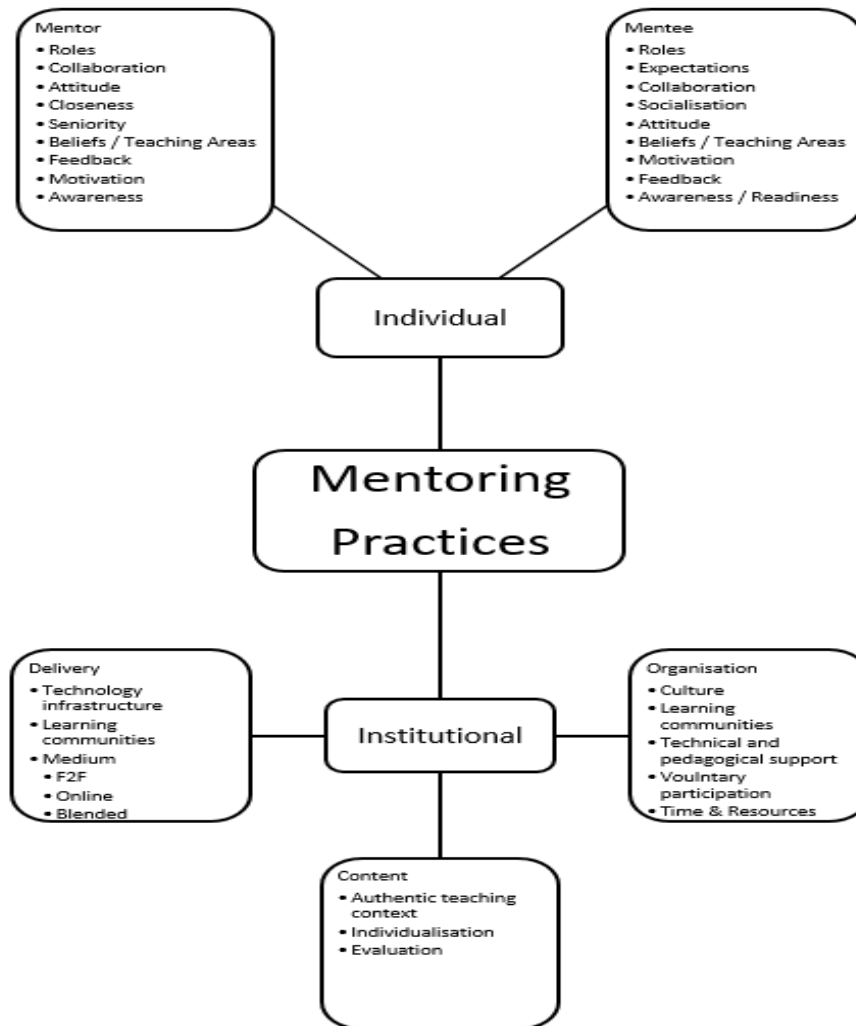


Figure 6: Codes and themes

3.4. Data Analysis

Lac (2016) states that a researcher can generate and refine the variable definitions of the codes throughout the coding process. As the analysis process continued, new codes were added in the coding list. The final coding list is illustrated in Figure 6. MAXQDA Analytics PRO 2018 was used for data analysis.

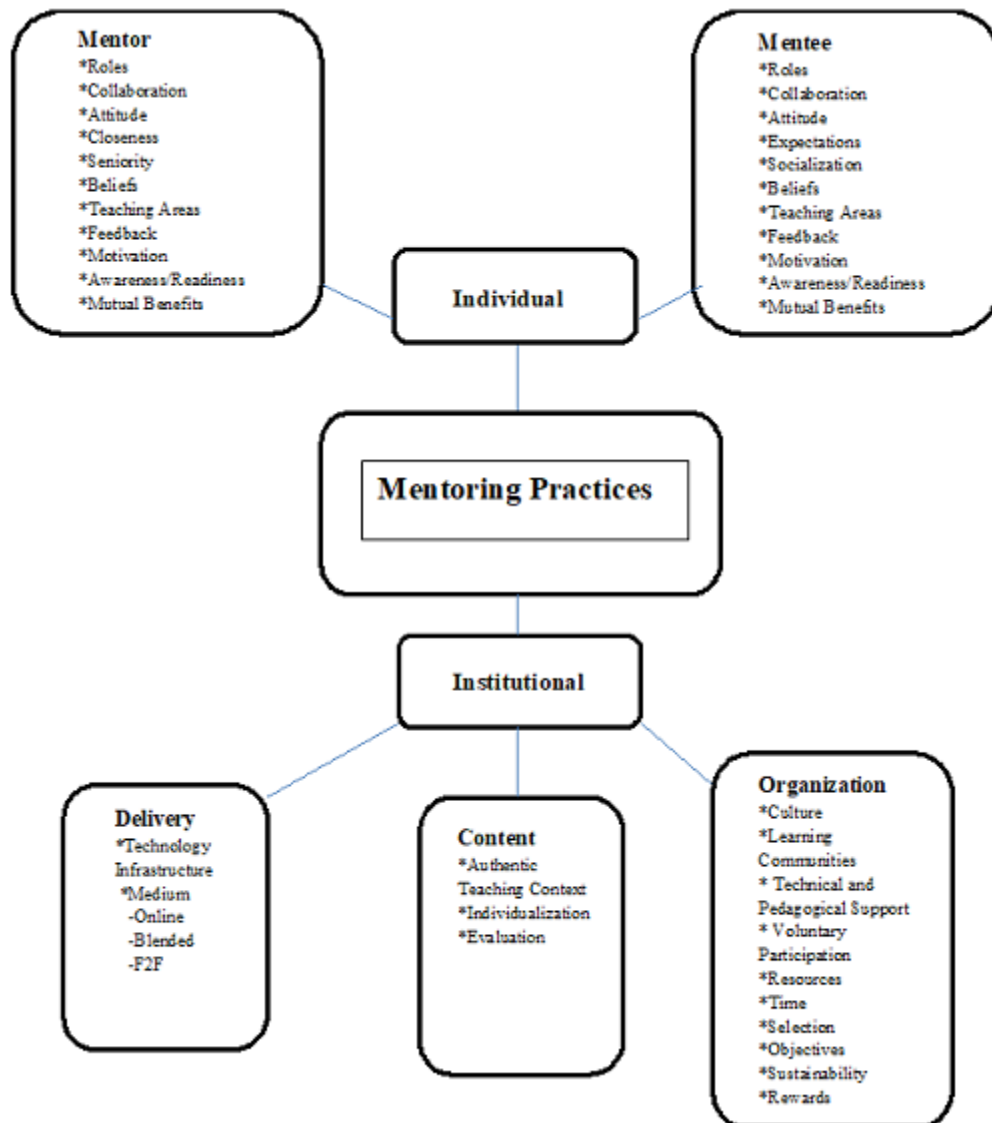


Figure 7: Revised codes and themes

3.5. Validity and Reliability

Şimşek and Yıldırım (2008) state that validity is related to generalization, cogency and accuracy of a research while reliability is related to consistency and repeatability of a research. In this study, precautions such as expert review, peer evaluation, repeatability, in-depth data collection, the researcher's role during the process, explaining data collection/analysis process in details and precisely in order to enable validity and reliability (Bailey, 2008; Büyüköztürk vd., 2011; Ekiz, 2009; Karasar, 2004; Yıldırım ve Şimşek, 2006, as cited in Gündüz, 2015). All stages during the research were consulted

to two experts, and necessary adjustments were performed in accordance with the experts' opinions. The documents obtained were analysed in depth in accordance with content analysis procedures. Themes were constructed explicitly and impartially after coding process in order to enable validity and reliability during content analysis process. To this end, evaluations were made with two subject matter experts, codes and themes were reviewed and modified when required. Data collection and analysis process were clearly and explicitly described in detail.

3.6. Limitations of the Study

The data used in this research are limited to the research articles on mentoring in higher education, which are published in peer-reviewed journals indexed in ISI Web of Knowledge between 2006 – 2016. In analysis of the collected data, it was assumed that authors of the selected articles defined their methodologies correctly.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

This chapter explains findings from 71 articles included in the study through figures and tables based on evaluation categories.

4.1. Evaluation Categories

Studies eligible for inclusion in this study were selected in accordance with the following criteria: journal articles published in peer-reviewed journals indexed in ISI Web of Knowledge between 2006-2016, written on mentoring in higher education context, and based on one of the following theoretical frameworks: Adult Learning Theory, Diffusion of Innovations Theory and Technology Acceptance Model. In total, 71 articles were found eligible for inclusion in the study. The selected articles were then evaluated in accordance with publication year, theoretical basis, research type, mentoring model, and mentoring relationship. The findings regarding this evaluation process are explained and illustrated in tables or charts below.

4.1.1. Publication Year

One inclusion criteria for the selection of articles was the publication year. Data collection for this study was started and completed in 2017; hence, the sample included research articles published in peer-reviewed journals published in the last 10 years from data collection between 2006 and 2016. Figure 8 provides a general outlook of the distribution of articles according to year of publication. Only two articles were published in 2006, while 2016 was the year with the highest number of articles published (n=15). This may have resulted from the increasing popularity of mentoring in recent years.

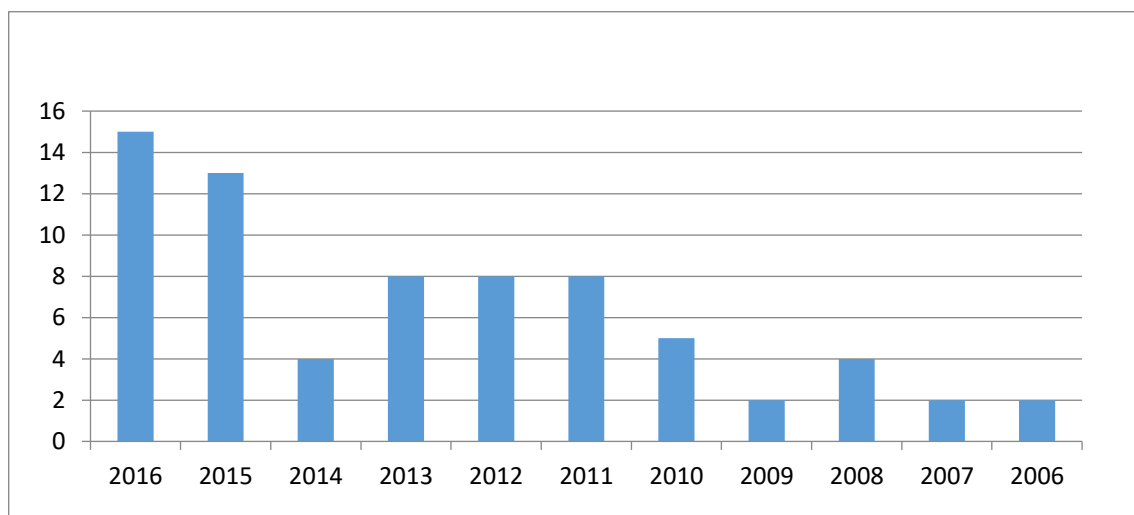


Figure 8. Distribution of the articles selected by years (2006-2016)

4.1.2. Theoretical Basis

Theoretical frameworks on which the research studies are based was another criterion for inclusion. Mainly three main theoretical frameworks were discussed in the selected articles (Figure 9). Technology Acceptance Model was the least referred theory in the selected articles, whereas andragogy was the most referred one. Since the majority of the sample studies were about implementation of mentoring in a higher educational context, this theory of adult education might have become prominent. More than one theory was underpinned in only one study. Moreover, some studies also included such theories as Kram's mentoring theory and the Social Cognitive Theory. Table 2 shows dissemination of the selected articles based on underlying theories.

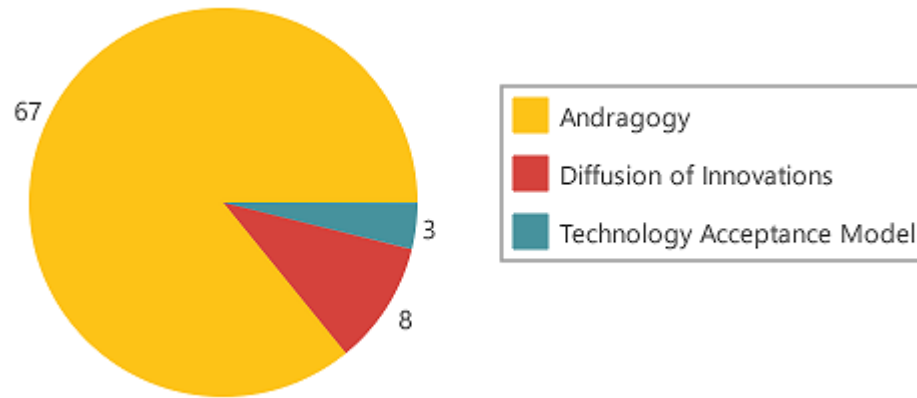


Figure 9: Distribution of selected articles as of theoretical basis

Table 2: Theories Underlying in the Articles

Name of the Theory	Name of the Author
Andragogy	Solem & Foote (2006); Ramani et. al. (2006); Hansen et. al. (2007); Wasserstein, Quistberg & Shea (2007); Kopcha (2008); Zellers, Howard & Barcic (2008); Cornu & Ewing (2008); Tillema (2009); Darwin & Palmer (2009); Feldman et. al. (2009); Ogunyemi et. al. (2010); Brooks (2010); Voyles et. al. (2011); Lynch & Sears (2011); Carrillo & Baguley (2011); Bell & Treleaven (2011); Huybrecht et. al. (2011); Bagramian et. al. (2011); Obura et. al. (2011); Barnard et. al. (2011); Slimmer (2012); Tang & Lam (2012); Steinert, Naismith & Mann (2012); Noy & Ray (2012); Altuntas (2012); Falzarano & Zipp (2012); Ismail, Ali & Arokiasamy (2012); Tsen et. al. (2012); Fleming et. al. (2013); Mackenzie et. al. (2013); Long et. al. (2013); Palmer & Schueths (2013); Gregory & Salmon (2013); Evans, Homer & Rayner (2013); Whetstone et. al. (2013); Salminen et. al. (2013); Lechuga (2014); Dawson (2014); Haines & Popovich (2014); Ussher & Carss (2014); White, Dickerson & Weston (2015); Zambrana et. al. (2015); Ferguson & Wheat (2015); Thomas, Lunsford & Rodrigues (2015); Pololi & Evans (2015); Obers (2015); Carmel & Paul (2015); Muschallik & Pull (2015); Grimes & White (2015); Smith (2015) ; Paulsen, Dafonte & Barton-Arwood (2015); Drouin, Stewart & Gorder (2015); Bruner et. al. (2016); Schmidt & Faber (2016); Pope & Edwards (2016); Mylona et. al. (2016); Franko (2016); Baran (2015) ; Corbett (2016); Curtin, Malley & Stewart (2016); Leggatt (2016); Garza & Harter (2016); Udegbe (2016); Wyre, Gaudet & Mcneese (2016); Block & Tietjen-Smith (2016); Ambler, Harvey & Cahir (2016); Turner et. al. (2016)
Diffusion of Innovations	Kopcha (2008) ; Dunham-Taylor et. al. (2008); Clarysse, Mosey & Lambrecht (2010); Colvin & Ashman (2010); Tsen et. al. (2012); Gregory & Salmon (2013); Northcote et. al. (2015); Baran (2015)
Technology Acceptance Model	Kopcha (2008) ; Smith (2015) ; Baran (2015)

*Bold names indicate that the authors referred to more than one theory in their papers.

4.1.3. Research Methodologies

All selected articles are research papers published in peer-reviewed journals. A systematic way to gain and assess knowledge, methodology is a vital component underpinning the research. Hence, in addition to examining models of mentoring in each paper, research methodologies of the selected articles were also examined (Figure 10). Majority of the selected articles embraced a qualitative approach (n=27), followed by quantitative methodology and mixed-methods. Nine articles were conceptual papers.

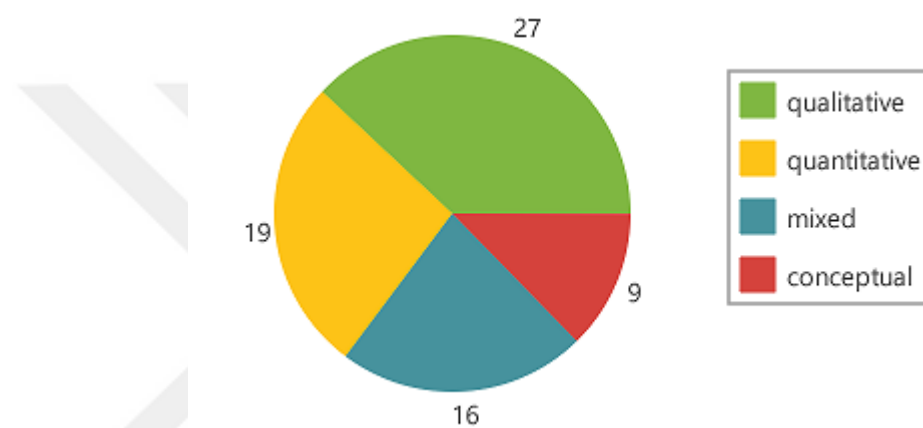


Figure 10. Research types of the studies selected

4.1.4. Mentoring Model

Regarding the mentoring model embraced in the selected studies, it was seen that formal faculty mentoring was preferred in 47.6% of the studies. Faculty peer group mentoring, formal group mentoring, and informal mentoring were the least-implemented models (2.4%) (Figure 11). In one study, more than one mentoring model was mentioned and implemented.

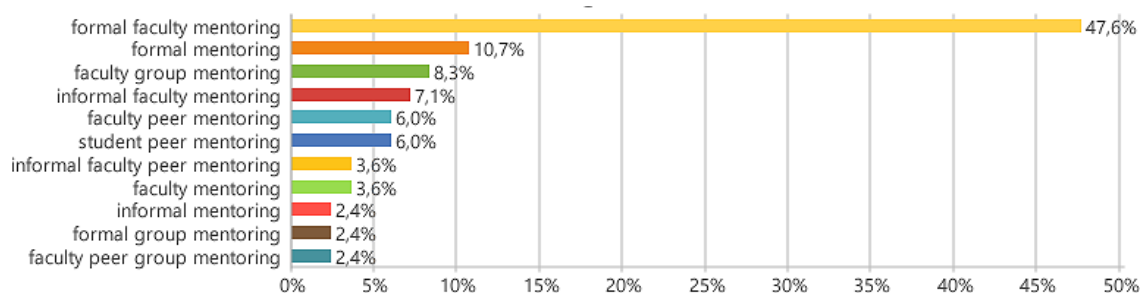


Figure 11: Mentoring models mentioned in the studies selected

4.1.5. Mentoring Relationship in the Studies

Table 3 shows the frequency of mentoring relationships among the participants in the studies selected. As seen in Table 3, senior faculty members were selected as mentors in 32 studies with junior faculty members as mentees in 31 studies. Graduates, junior faculty and in-service teachers as mentors or K-12 teachers or faculty and in-service teachers as mentees were preferred least. Some studies had more than one mentoring implementation, and some had group mentoring models.

Table 3. Mentoring Relationships According to Studies

	Frequency	Percent
Senior faculty as mentors	32	19,88
Junior faculty as mentees	31	19,25
Faculty members as mentors	30	18,63
Undergraduates as mentees	17	10,56
Faculty members as mentees	16	9,94
Graduates as mentees	8	4,97
School based teacher as mentor	5	3,11
Field based experienced as mentor	5	3,11
Post-graduates as mentees	4	2,48
Nurses working in hospitals as mentors	2	1,24
Post-graduates as mentors	2	1,24
Residents as mentees	2	1,24
Undergraduates as mentors	2	1,24
In-service teachers as mentees	1	0,62
In-service teacher as mentor	1	0,62
K12 teachers or faculty as mentees	1	0,62
Junior faculty as mentors	1	0,62

Graduates as mentors	1	0,62
TOTAL	161	100,00

4.2. Main Components of Mentoring Practices

Two main themes were identified in the studies: individual components and institutional components. Detailed distribution of sub-themes organised under the main themes are illustrated below.

4.2.1. Individual Components

Individual components were categorized into two sub-themes: Components regarding mentor and mentee.

4.2.1.1. Mentor

Figure 10 illustrates the distribution of 12 codes regarding *mentor* in the mentoring practices. Mentor's roles have, by far, the highest percentage (38.2%). In this study, mentor's roles refer to roles of an advisor, a coach, a sponsor, a role model or a teacher for the mentee and for an effective mentoring programme in various contexts. Roles are followed by *collaboration* (10.%) and *seniority* (9.9%). Collaboration refers to the chance of working together with colleagues or other professionals for a mentor in an effective mentoring programme provides. Seniority refers to being superior to the mentee or a group of mentees in terms of experience, knowledge or in traditional definition of mentoring "rank". Mutual benefits, which means benefits of a mentoring programme provides to a mentor, were mentioned in 8.0% in the selected studies. *Feedback* follows mutual benefits with the percentage of 7.7%. Feedback refers to a mentor's way of giving feedback to a mentee. While *readiness* (a mentor's skills and abilities to carry out mentor role) was referred to in 6.4 % of the studies, *closeness* (a mentor's approachability and friendliness by a mentee) was mentioned in 5.9%. A mentor's *motivation* to participate in a mentoring programme and carry out his/her mentor roles appears to have been mentioned in 4.6% of the selected studies. A mentor's *awareness* about his/her roles and the mentoring process had 3.0% while *teaching areas* and *beliefs* have lower percentages (2.4% and 2.1% respectively). Teaching areas refer to the similarity between a mentor's and mentee's teaching areas in a mentoring programme. Beliefs refer to a mentor's belief about the mentoring process and also a mentee. *Attitude* appears to occupy the last place (1.6%) in the selected studies. It refers to a mentor's attitude towards a mentee or a group

of mentees.

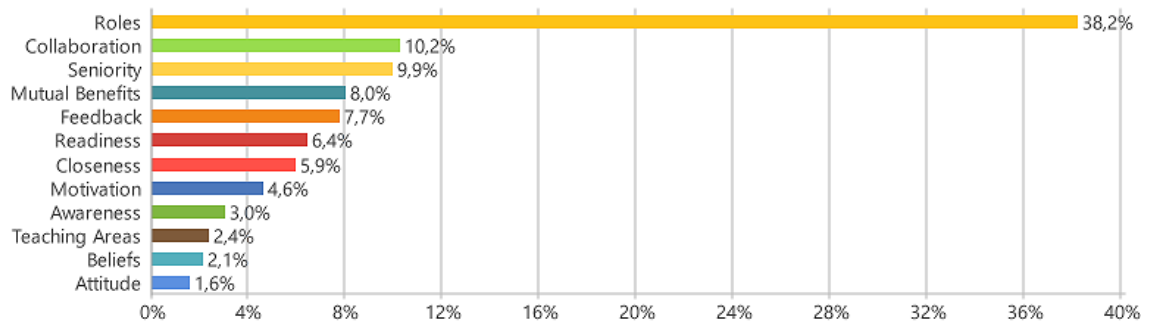


Figure 12. Distribution of codes regarding the sub-theme mentor

4.2.1.2. Mentee

Figure 13 indicates distribution of 13 codes regarding mentees in mentoring practices. *Mutual benefits* seem to occupy the first place (21.4%) under this component, followed by *collaboration* (14.5%) and *socialisation* (10.9%). The gap between mutual benefits and the subsequent codes is not as wide as that of the mentor component. In this context, mutual benefits refer to the benefits a mentee will get from the mentoring process. Collaboration refers to the chance of cooperating with mentors, other professionals or colleagues whereas socialisation indicates the chance of getting into interaction with a mentor or a professional network that an effective mentoring programme provides. Socialisation refers to the chances a mentoring programme provides to a mentee in terms of socializing with their colleagues or other professionals. Feedback (8.4%) refers to a mentee's feedback about his/her mentor and the mentoring programme. With a slight difference (8.0%), *beliefs* refer to a mentee's belief in the mentoring process and its possible benefits for him/her. *Roles* are followed by *closeness* (6.5% and 6.1% respectively). While roles refer to a mentee's roles in a mentoring programme, closeness is referred as a mentee's closeness in a mentoring programme so that a partnership can be established between a mentor and a mentee. As can be seen in the findings regarding mentors, percentages of a mentor and a mentee's closeness are similar (5.9% and 6.1% respectively). *Expectations* of a mentee from the mentoring process, and a mentor's and mentee's *motivation* to participate in a mentoring programme were mentioned equally (5.9%). A mentee's *readiness* to participate in a mentoring programme in terms of communication skills and confidence has 4.2% while a mentee's *awareness* about the mentoring process and his/her roles has 4.0%. *Teaching areas* refer to similarity between a mentor and a mentee's teaching areas (2.7%), and lastly, *attitude* once again has the last

place (1.7%) under this component. The meaning of attitude here may mean attitude “towards a mentor or a group of mentors” or attitude “towards mentoring process which is more related with motivation to participate in a mentoring programme” according to the context.

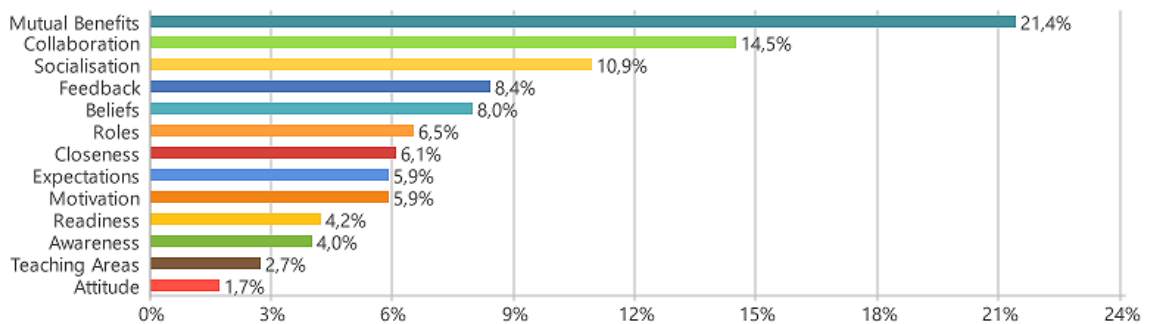


Figure 13. Distribution of codes regarding the sub-theme mentee

4.2.2. Institutional Components

Institutional components were categorized under three sub-themes: organisation, content and delivery.

4.2.2.1. Organisation

There are ten codes under *organisation* (Figure 12). The highest percentage belongs to *resources* (such as workshops, trainings for mentors and mentees about their roles, or introduction of a mentoring programme, even sometimes an external mentor or coordinator to support the participants and process) (18.7%), followed by *objectives* of a mentoring programme (16.9%). In the third place, there is *selection* (13.8%), which refers to how mentors and mentees are selected and also mentees’ choice of their mentors in especially informal mentoring programmes). *Learning communities* refer to interactions with wider networks a mentoring programme provides (9.1%). *Technical and pedagogical support* is expected to be provided by the institution aiming for implementation of a mentoring programme (8.8%). *Sustainability* of a mentoring programme and *culture* of an institution (referring if an institution is valuing mentoring programmes) have the same percentages (7.6%). *Rewards* (such as funding for incentives, or monetary support for the mentors and even self-reflection chances for the participants) were also discussed in the selected studies (6.4%). *Time* is the second component with the lowest percentage (6.0%). Time does not have a positive meaning, consisting of

especially mentors' complaints about extra time they must spend in a mentoring programme. *Voluntary participation* has the lowest percentage (4.8%).

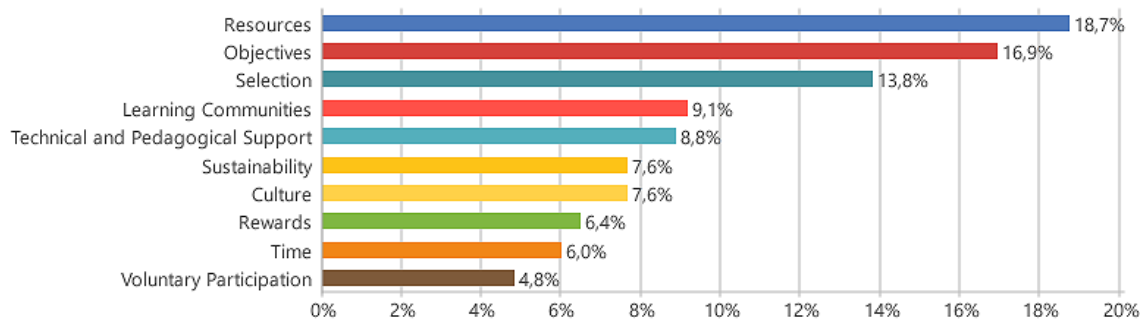


Figure 14: Distribution of codes regarding organisation

4.2.2.2. Content

Figure 15 shows three codes revealed under content. As seen from Figure 15, *evaluation* of a mentoring programme was mentioned most (49.2%) in the studies, followed by *individualisation* (31.1%) and *authentic teaching context* (19.7%). No matter what kind of mentoring programme is implemented (one-to-one or group, formal or informal), participants of each mentoring programme vary. In this sense, individualisation of a mentoring programme is highlighted in the studies selected. The importance of authentic teaching context is mentioned in the mentoring programmes aiming integration of learning into practice.

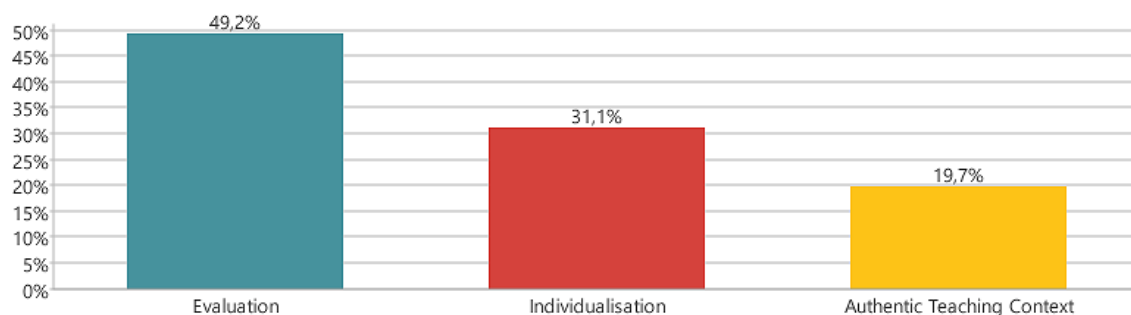


Figure 15: Distribution of codes regarding content

4.2.2.3. Delivery

As seen in Figure 16, there are two codes regarding delivery: *medium* (85.5%) and *technology infrastructure* (14.5%). While medium of the mentoring programme (face-to-face, online or blended) was mentioned in 85.5% of the studies selected, in some studies medium was not mentioned at all. In such studies, mentoring is mentioned as a recommendation to support professional development of the participants. Technology

infrastructure has the lowest percentage (14.5%) possibly because of the fact that not all mentoring programmes mentioned or implemented in the selected studies focus on technology integration or practice.

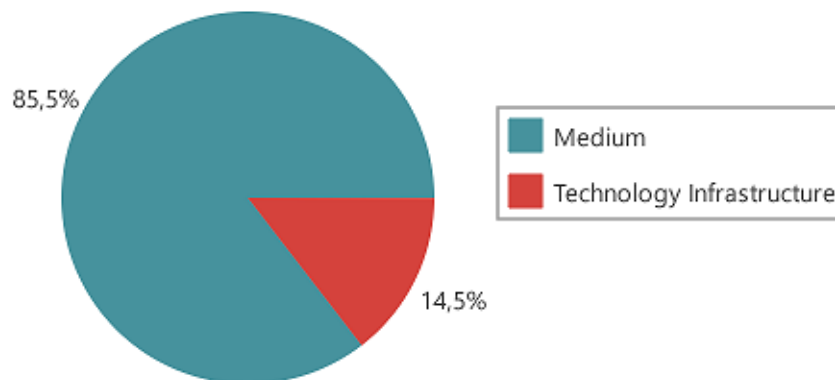


Figure 16: Distribution of codes regarding delivery

4.2.2.3.1. Medium

Medium of a mentoring programme was categorized under three sub-codes: *face-to-face*, *online* and *blended*. As seen in Figure 17, face-to-face has the highest percentage (37.0%), followed by online (32.6%) and blended (30.4%). In face-to-face mentoring programmes, mentors and mentees meet face-to-face, while in blended mentoring programmes, they interact with each other by meeting or through emails or phone calls. In online mentoring programmes, participants communicate with each other via emails, or video-conferencing.

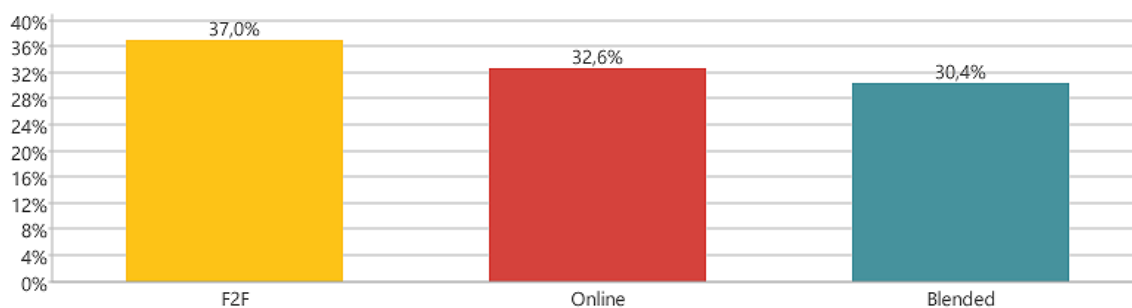


Figure 17: Distribution of sub-codes regarding medium

4.3. Summary of the Findings

Total 71 articles on mentoring at higher education were included in this study, and examined on the basis of year of publication, theoretical basis, research type, mentoring model, and mentoring relationship. An analysis of the year of publication indicates a

gradual increase in the number of studies on mentoring from 2006 to 2016. Despite the fluctuation between 2006 and 2009, the number of articles published has been greater in recent years. This increase in recent years may have stemmed from the popularity of mentoring in educational context.

Among the selected articles, 67 studies are based on adult learning theory. This is an expected outcome in that the context of this study has focused on adults and adult learning. According to the adult learning theory, adults are motivated to learn through their experiences, and when their needs are fulfilled. In this sense, it may be said that a mentoring process corresponds with this principle since it is reflective and experience-based. Eight studies took Roger's Diffusion of Innovations theory as basis, whereas only three articles were based on Technology Acceptance Model. This may be due to the fact that a large number of studies have been on mentoring for the purposes of academic success, retention or promotion. Mentoring has been implemented as a professional development programme for the integration and acceptance of technology in an educational setting in only a few studies. Few studies have used more than one theory as basis. Kopcha's (2008) and Baran's (2015) studies have been the only articles adopted all three theories whereas Smith's (2015) study has adopted both Adult Learning Theory and Technology Acceptance Model.

Less than half of the selected articles has adopted qualitative research methodology (40%). Interviews, observations and document analyses were used for data collection in these articles. Qualitative methods have also been actively used in 16 mixed-methods studies. Quantitative research methodology has been used in 19 studies, and nine have been conceptual papers. Conceptual papers have been in the form of reviews of literature or examination of mentoring programmes in different institutions or settings.

With regard to the mentoring models examined in the selected studies, formal faculty mentoring model appeared to be the most preferred mentoring model (47.6%), followed by formal mentoring (no explicit information about if it was faculty-oriented) (10.7%). Faculty group mentoring and informal faculty mentoring were also used in the selected studies (each 7.1%). Faculty peer group mentoring, formal group mentoring and informal mentoring models were preferred only in one study each (2.4%).

This study also examined the selected papers in terms of mentoring relationship. This examination did not involve interaction types, but a proof of participants with mentor or

mentee roles in all studies selected. For instance, a senior faculty might have been assigned as a mentor in a faculty mentoring programme with undergraduates as mentees or junior faculty as mentees. It is not possible to interpret interaction patterns according to this analysis. However, it is likely to have an overview about the participants and their mentoring roles in the selected studies. Also, two different mentoring models were compared to each other (e.g. informal vs. formal) in some studies or some conceptual papers examined specific mentoring models. Hence, total 161 mentoring relationships was determined in 71 studies. Of these 161 relationships, senior faculty was assigned as mentors in 32 of the studies and junior faculty took place in 31 studies as mentees. There was only one study where graduates were assigned as mentors and junior faculty took the role of mentor, where K12 teachers or faculty participated in a mentoring relationship as mentees, where in-service teacher was the mentor, and lastly where in-service teachers were the mentees.

Mentoring components in the selected studies were examined in the second step of the analysis process. The findings were categorised under two main themes: individual and institutional. Individual components were further categorised under two sub-themes as mentor and mentee, whereas institutional component has three sub-themes: organisation, content, and delivery.

There were 12 *mentor* components under the first main theme (*individual*), namely roles, collaboration, seniority, mutual benefits, feedback, readiness, closeness, motivation, awareness, teaching areas, beliefs, and attitude. A mentor's potential role of an advisor, a coach, a sponsor, a role model or a teacher for the mentee was the most discussed component in the selected articles by far (38.2%). Attitude, on the other hand, was the lowest discussed component (1.6%). This may be related to the fact that mentors play the most significant role in effective implementation of a mentoring programme. On that account, researchers emphasized mentor roles in their studies.

There were 13 *mentee* components under the first main theme (*individual*), namely mutual benefits, collaboration, socialisation, feedback, beliefs, roles, closeness, expectations, motivation, readiness, awareness, teaching areas and attitude. (21.4%, 14.5%, 10.9%, 8.4%, 8.0%, 6.5%, 6.1%, 5.9%, 5.9%, 4.2%, 4.0%, 2.7%, and 1.7%, respectively.) Mutual benefits referring to the benefits that a mentee would get from the mentoring process was the most discussed component (21.4%), whereas once again, the attitude was the least discussed (1.7%).

The second main theme (*institutional*) was categorized under three sub-themes: organisation, content, and delivery. The *organisation* included 10 components namely resources, objectives, selection, learning communities, technical and pedagogical support, sustainability, culture, rewards, time and voluntary participation. Their frequency percentages were 18.7%, 16.9%, 13.8%, 9.1%, 8.8%, 7.6%, 7.6%, 6.4%, 6.0%, 4.8%, respectively. In this regard, resources (18.7%) and objectives (16.9%) were the most discussed components within the organisational framework whereas the voluntary participation was the least discussed among all (4.8%). The *content* included three components. The most discussed component under the *content* was evaluation (49.2%) followed by individualisation (31.1%) and authentic teaching context (19.7%). There were two components under the *delivery*: medium and technology infrastructure. Medium was, by far, the most discussed in the selected studies (85.5%) compared to technology infrastructure (14.5%). Last sub-theme under the *institutional* was *delivery*, which included three components: face-to-face, online and blended. All three components were discussed almost equally in the selected studies, yet face-to-face was the most discussed (37.0%) among all.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

This chapter presents a discussion of findings in relation to relevant research along with implications for practice and suggestions for further research.

5.1. Discussion on Evaluation Categories

The aim of this study was to identify the main components of an online/blended mentoring programme for language instructors to teach online. To this end, 125 studies eligible for inclusion in this study were screened and then selected according to the following criteria: journal articles published in peer-reviewed journals indexed in ISI Web of Knowledge between 2006-2016, written on mentoring in higher education context, and taken one of the following theoretical frameworks as a basis: Adult Learning Theory, Diffusion of Innovations Theory and Technology Acceptance Model. Following the selection process, 71 articles were included in this study and they were evaluated according to publication year, theoretical basis, research type, mentoring model and mentoring relationship. This evaluation helped the researcher to have an overview of the selected studies, and facilitated the content analysis process in terms of determination of codes and sub-themes.

One of the inclusion criteria to select the articles was the publication year. Since the data collection was completed in 2017, the sample consisted of research articles in peer-reviewed journals published in the last 10-year-period starting from 2006. Gradual increase in the number of articles on mentoring through the years gave the highest number in 2016. Hence, the appearance of mentoring, particularly in the context of medicine, social work, nursing, education and academia has increased recently (Smith, 2015), so

has its popularity (Wyre, Gaudet and McNeese, 2016).

Another inclusion criteria was related to the theoretical frameworks of the selected studies. Since this study focused on technology use, the Diffusion of Innovation Theory (Rogers, 1962) was assumed to be taken as basis in the selected articles as one of the most popular adoption models (Sherry and Gibson, 2002). Mentoring is also consistent with the principles of adult learning since it is a process-oriented relationship with knowledge acquisition and reflective practice involved (Wong and Premkumar, 2007). On that ground, andragogy or adult learning theory was chosen as another theoretical framework in the examination of the selected articles. In addition, as the most applied model of user acceptance to a wide extent, as Venkatesh (2000) states, the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) (Davis, 1989) was also included in the study. The findings indicated that among these theories, andragogy or adult learning theory was found to be the most preferred theoretical framework in the selected articles. This was probably due to the fact that target group of all articles were adults in a higher education setting and mentoring helped adults to establish process-oriented relationships. There were also some articles which adopted more than one theory such as Kopcha's (2008) and Baran's (2015) and Smith's (2015) studies.

A mentoring model is a set of choices for a mentoring relationship, and it harbours design elements made up in scope of a framework. In this sense, examination of mentoring models of the selected articles allowed the researcher to infer the possible components and relationship patterns inside a mentoring programme. It is likely to infer relationship patterns between a mentor and mentee, the setting, and the formality of mentoring programme. For example, when identifying a formal faculty mentoring model, it is possible to say that the setting is higher education, it is a structured mentoring programme, meaning there are some objectives determined, and the relationship pattern may be between a senior and junior faculty or a graduate student and a faculty. Upon the analysis, it was seen that formal faculty mentoring was most preferred model among the studies while faculty peer group mentoring, formal group mentoring, and informal mentoring were the least preferred models. In one study, a conceptual paper, more than one mentoring model was applied (Zellers, Howard and Barcic, 2008) where the authors examined and compared three different mentoring models.

Even though the setting of the selected articles is higher education, some studies examined cannot be called formal faculty mentoring programme such as Kopcha's (2008)

study on a formal group mentoring and an informal mentoring model between a K-12 teacher or a faculty as mentees and someone experienced in the use of technology. In such cases, since the mentee can be either a faculty or a teacher, this mentoring model cannot be categorised under the formal faculty group mentoring. Formal mentoring, where no explicit information given whether it was faculty-oriented, was the second most preferred model. There were fewer studies on faculty peer group mentoring, formal group mentoring, informal mentoring models.

Mentoring relationships among the participants allows for seeing the interaction patterns within a mentoring model. Almost half of the selected articles involved senior faculty members as mentors and junior faculty members as mentees. Graduate students, junior faculty members and in-service teachers were rarely considered as mentors. Some studies had more than one mentoring implementation and some had group mentoring models. For example, in Carrillo and Baguley's (2011) study, faculty members were assigned as mentors and graduates and undergraduates were assigned as mentees.

5.2. Main Components of Mentoring Practices

Main components of mentoring practices were identified under two categories: individual components and institutional components.

Individual components consisted of two sub-categories: mentor and mentee. Mentors are of great importance for an effective mentoring implementation. One of the earliest definitions of mentor comes from Anderson and Shannon (1988), who define mentor as a more skilled or experienced person serving as a role model, teaches, sponsors, encourages, counsels and befriends a less skilled or less experienced person for the purpose of promoting the latter's professional and/or personal development. However, this definition is traditional and recent definitions of mentoring focus on a more reciprocal relationship. Schmidt and Faber (2016) reported that the relationship between a mentee and a mentor was reciprocal, in which the mentor benefited too in terms of professional development, institutional recognition, and personal satisfaction. The selected studies also emphasized the changing roles of a mentor in accordance with a context. To exemplify, in a teacher training programme, a mentor was supposed to observe the student teacher's lesson and give feedback. On the other hand, a mentor was supposed to help a

mentee junior faculty to socialize in the professional networks, even in some studies expected to organize professional development programmes such as seminars or workshops. The notion of “nurturing” as Anderson and Shannon (1988) stated refers to helping a mentee with both professional and affective support.

Despite the common setting of the studies selected and examined, the context of mentoring varied so did a mentor’s role. A mentor has the utmost importance in implementation of an effective mentoring programme. Paulsen, DaFonte and Barton-Arwood (2015) state that mentors are required to understand what and how they should say, when they should intervene and how they should provide constructive feedback for the success of a mentorship. Mentor roles were the most discussed component in the studies selected, where it was defined as a guide, advisor, trainer and counsellor (Bruner et. al., 2016). Within the scope of a faculty mentoring programme, these roles were defined as link connector, peer leader, learning coach, student advocate, and trusted friend (Colvin and Ashman, 2010) in a peer-mentoring context. In a study with pre-service teachers, a good mentor’s characteristics are listed as being sensitive to the needs of a novice teacher, capable of transferring effective teaching strategies, good listener and communicator, having no judgment about their mentees, and being a good model (Garza and Harter, 2016). In this sense, it is likely to say that mentor roles have a common point which is nurturing a mentee; however, the definition can vary depending on the mentoring model and programme.

Collaboration was frequently mentioned in the sample studies, referring to the chance of working together with colleagues or other professionals for a mentor an effective mentoring programme provides. Collaboration is also referred in the studies selected as collegiality and shared learning a mentoring programme provides. Obura et. al (2011) stated that collegial learning help residents achieve to a higher extent and improve their problem-solving abilities as opposed to individual and competitive learning media, and emphasised the importance of collaborative learning in terms of creating bonds among the participants. In addition, Ambler, Harvey and Cahir (2016) reported that participants learning together with a colleague in scope of a mentoring relationship was a benefit for the mentor. It is possible to say that shared learning will help both parties to benefit from a mentoring process and eliminate their concerns and insecurities. However, another study reported that mentoring circles and group mentoring yielded positive results for the people who felt comfortable working in a collaborative group medium while it did not

work for the ones who felt uncomfortable working in collaboration with their colleagues with various personalities and values (Darwin and Palmer, 2009). Regarding this negative feedback, characteristics of the participants can be predetermined before a mentoring implementation.

In the studies, it was found that seniority was traditionally related to a more and older (even sometimes senior in terms of rank) mentor's helping a less experienced and younger mentee's career development (Ramani, Gruppen, and Kachur, 2006). However, the recent definition of seniority differs from the traditional one, even though the mentality "transferring a more experienced one's knowledge or skills with a less experienced one" does not change. It is just not transferring but a sharing process for both parts (Falzarano and Zipp, 2012). In the studies examined, it was found that seniority of a mentor is of much importance in terms of being more experienced than the mentee. On the other hand, there are studies emphasising negative aspects of seniority as regards lack of time or busy schedule by senior mentors (e.g. Evans, Homer and Rayner, 2013). This may be related to the benefits a mentor can get from a mentoring process. In the studies examined, it was found that a mentor's self-reflection (Ambler, Harvey and Cahir, 2016), sharing with others (Bagramian et. al., 2011), networking chances (Bell and Treleaven, 2011), just enjoying helping others (Turner et. al., 2016), developing friendships with their colleagues (Colvin and Ashman, 2010), or rewards in terms of promotion or rise in incomes were related to a mentor's benefits from a mentoring process.

Feedback refers to a mentor's way of giving feedback to a mentee. In the reviewed articles, it was found that giving constructive feedback to the mentee was considered a mentor's primary role. Garza and Harter (2016) state that adult learners seek assistance as well as the need for constructive feedback for improvement of teaching. In this sense, constructive feedback from a mentor affects a mentee's motivation and even productivity in terms of academic work. Especially, the novice faculty can feel secure by getting constructive feedback from a senior mentor in terms of what to do in a new environment for them (e.g. Paulsen, DaFonte and Barton-Arwood, 2015; Turner et al., 2016).

In order to establish a healthy relationship with mentees, mentors should be ready to mentor in terms of required skills for mentoring, knowledge and time. In Baran's (2015) study, it is clearly stated that both mentors and mentees should be ready in terms of time and energy to participate in a mentoring programme. Whetstone et. al. (2012) emphasizes the importance of a mentor, called a resource teacher in their study, who has sufficient

knowledge to support an intern (a mentee) in order that a mentorship can be effective. In this sense, importance of a mentor's readiness in terms of knowledge is pointed out for an effective mentoring programme. In Ramani, Gruppen, and Kachur's (2006) study, it is mentioned how an untrained mentor faces challenges in carrying out his/her roles. Therefore, mentors can be helped to be ready for their roles by providing training. Zachary (2011) provides a readiness checklist for mentors. According to this checklist, mentors are expected to be ready in terms of motivation to help mentees, awareness of their roles such as coaching, and guiding, committing adequate time to mentees, and mediating relationships.

Closeness of a mentor towards a mentee is also related to his/her approachability and being able to build good rapport with his/her mentee. The significance of friendship in adult learning is also emphasized in the literature (Farrell 2001; Handel 1999; Schuck and Russell 2005 as cited in Ambler, Harvey and Cahir, 2016). Marx (2009 as cited in Ambler, Harvey and Cahir, 2016) finds friendship, openness and trust as significant factors in mentoring relationship since one-on-one learning occurs best thanks to existence of a true friendship. In order to create this friendship, a mentor is expected to be approachable towards a mentee, who is seeking security and trust (Solem and Foote, 2006). Closeness of a mentor is vital in building rapport with a mentee, which positively affects mentorship programmes (Fleming et al., 2013; Ogunyemi et al., 2010). Mentor's motivation to do so contribute to the realization of the aims of a mentoring programme, and helps participants to eliminate their concerns (Baran, 2015). Ismail, Ali and Arokiasamy (2012) defines mentor as someone who is willing to search and support a mentee's capabilities and help him or her with his/her own knowledge and skills along with sharing experience, which can be considered as an indicator of the importance of a mentor's willingness in effective mentorship. A mentor is also expected to be aware of his/her roles and the mentoring process, and there are studies that emphasise the importance of a mentor's awareness and indicate its positive effect on a mentor's willingness (e.g. Block and Tietjen-smith, 2016; Blood et al., 2012). Colvin and Ashman (2010) also point out that a mentor's unawareness of his/her roles may result in a mentee's resistance of tutors undertaking the role of mentoring.

Teaching areas, beliefs and attitudes are the least discussed components in the sample studies Teaching areas were only discussed with regard to formal faculty mentoring programmes. While some studies focused on interdisciplinary mentoring practices

(Baran, 2015; Tsen et. al., 2012), there are also some studies matching/grouping mentors and mentees in accordance with their own teaching contexts (Tang and Lam, 2014). However, it is not possible to generalize similarity of teaching contexts or interdisciplinary practices matter in terms of the effectiveness of a mentoring programme. In addition, Curtin, Malley and Stewart (2016) aimed to find out if there are any differences in mentoring practices in accordance with the disciplines as there is less attention on academic discipline in mentoring practices. Their study indicated mentoring practices differ by disciplines (social sciences, STEM etc).

Turner et al. (2016) discussed that mentors' belief towards the mentoring process as it is unidirectional and additional role to be taken along with their busy workloads affected the quality of mentoring. Another study emphasized that negative mindset of the academics about the mentoring process may yield negative outcomes (Thomas, Lunsford and Rodrigues, 2015). Even though few studies discuss the effects of mentor's belief towards a mentoring process, negative beliefs or perspectives influence any practices adversely including but not limited to mentorship programmes.

Mutual benefits refer to the benefits a mentee gets from the mentoring process seem to be the most discussed component. Most reported benefits included socialization and collaboration as well as an enhanced sense of confidence, as underlined by other researchers (Ramani, Gruppen and Kachur, 2006; Falzarano and Zipp, 2012; Lechuga, 2014; Carmel and Paul, 2015; Schmidt and Faber, 2016; Voyles et. al., 2011; Ogunyemi et. al., 2010; Ismail, Ali and Arokiasamy, 2012; Barnard et. al., 2011; Grimes and White, 2015), whether if the mentoring relationship was dyadic, triadic or reciprocal. In most mentoring programmes where senior faculty was assigned as mentors for junior faculty, it was realized that another benefit for mentees was support for tenure and promotion, which was the focus of these mentoring practices (Falzarano and Zipp, 2012; Thomas, Lunsford and Rodrigues, 2015; Lechuga, 2014). Besides, guidance, advice, coaching, career planning, career development, and personal development are also mentioned as benefits for mentees in a mentoring programme (Schmidt and Faber, 2016).

In other studies, particularly those including faculty-to-faculty, faculty-to-graduates or postgraduates or faculty-to-preservice teachers mentoring, development of research and teaching skills were also emphasized as a benefit for a mentee (Solem and Foote, 2006; Garza and Harter, 2016; Falzarano and Zipp, 2012; Barnard et. al., 2011). Since the nature of mentoring practices focus on the development of a mentee in terms of professional

skills and personally, a mentee is highly expected to benefit from the targeted outcomes of a mentorship.

In this regard, cooperating with mentors, other professionals or colleagues comes to the fore as an important issue. Dunham-Taylor, et al. (2008) lists collaboration as an element of effective mentoring programmes while feedback from participants (Ambler, Harvey and Cahir, 2016; Garza and Harter, 2016; Falzarano and Zipp, 2012) emphasizes collegiality and the importance of learning with a colleague. A collegial relationship between a mentor and a mentee also contributes to personal and professional development of a mentee as well as a mentor (Falzarano and Zipp, 2012). Significant outcomes of a collaborative mentorship model are listed as faculty humanity, compassion, vitality, development of deeply understood values, professionalism, relationships, appreciation of diversity, and creativity by Pololi and Evans (2015). Collaboration also creates bonds between the participants in a community of practice (e.g. Obura et al., 2011; Palmer and Schueths, 2013). Ambler, Harvey and Cahir (2016) considered professional relationships as an essential influencer on learning via mentorship; given that, socialisation can be seen as an inseparable element of mentoring (Drouin, Stewart and Gorder, 2015; Falzarano and Zipp, 2012; Solem and Foote, 2006; Taylor et al., 2008; Turner et al., 2016).

A mentee's feedback about his/her mentor and the mentoring programme is particularly important in a reciprocal mentoring relationship (Baran, 2015). Significance of shared feedback is focused on in peer mentoring programmes as well, which are also reciprocal (e.g. Barnard et al., 2011). However, in most of the studies, feedback was mostly related to mentees' feedback about their mentors and mentoring process. It was found that mentees who were pleased with their mentors professionally and personally saw the mentoring process as beneficial and contributory for themselves (e.g. Drouin, Stewart and Gorder, 2015). Some studies (Garza and Harter, 2016; Ogunyemi et. al., 2010) applied surveys to get mentees' feedback about their mentors to see at least one positive feedback taken from the mentees about their mentors. It was also found that negative feedback about the mentors was related to poor mentoring (Evans, Homer and Rayner, 2013; Udegbe, 2016). Hence, a mentee's feedback about his/her mentor may well be related to effective implementation of a mentoring programme while a mentee's feedback towards a mentor is of importance in a reciprocal mentoring programme. For effective mentoring, a mentee may be expected to be intrinsically motivated to participate in the mentoring process and have positive beliefs about the benefits of a mentoring programme (Drouin,

Stewart and Gorder, 2015; Obers, 2015; Zellers, Howard and Barcic, 2008). Similarly, Solem and Foote (2006) discovered in their study the faculty participants perceived graduate training and mentoring as valuable and important in terms of enhancing self-confidence in teaching. On the other hand, Lechuga (2014) underlines mentees' concerns about autonomy and independence.

A mentee actively shapes his/her development through the guidance of a mentor, and may be called as an apprentice, student, pupil, understudy or partner (Ceylan, 2004; Çınar, 2007; Eliasson et al., 2000; Vatan, 2009, as cited in Altuntaş, 2012). Bagramian et al. (2011) suggested that mentees should explicitly express their career needs for development, engage their mentors to search for advice on teaching, research, promotion, tenure and institutional culture, be ready to network with other professionals and to be introduced to important individuals by their mentors. Carmel and Paul (2015) also suggested that a mentee must take responsibility of executing the authentic plans and have clear expectations from mentorship.

Some studies state that selecting a mentor is considered as a mentee's role (Bagramian et al., 2011; Carmel and Paul, 2015; Huybrecht et al., 2010) and mentees are expected to have willingness and proactiveness to make professional and personal development. This self-selecting initiation process as an element of a successful mentoring relationship as well as closeness in a mentoring programme so as to establish an effective partnership. This closeness can enhance the sense of community for the mentee (Baran, 2015; Darwin and Palmer, 2009); Dawson, 2014; Dunham-Taylor et al., 2008); Ramani, Gruppen and Kachur, 2006; Ussher and Carss, 2014; Tang and Lam, 2014). Lechuga (2014) has also stated that such close relationship development between a mentee and a mentor can increase intrinsic motivation.

Expectation is also considered as one of the essential components of an effective mentoring (Bagramian et al., 2011; Dunham-Taylor et al., 2008; Falzarano and Zipp, 2012), and mentees mostly expect their mentors to be role models, provide constructive criticism, and promote professional visibility (Bagramian et al., 2011) as well as integrity, relationship and guidance (Noy and Ray, 2012) in addition to confidentiality, trust, understanding, and positive expectations (Franko, 2016). Similarly, a mentee's awareness about the mentoring process and his/her roles is important (Ambler, Harvey and Cahir, 2016; Turner et al., 2016); yet many times participants may not have prior knowledge about the concept of mentoring (Baran, 2015). Falzarano and Zipp (2012) also indicates

that mentored faculty should understand the expectations of teaching, research and achieving tenure or re-appointment so that a faculty member's self-confidence and skill development can be enhanced (Williams and Blackburn, 1988; Vasantachart and Rice, 1997; Palepu et al., 1998; Paul et al., 2002, as cited in Falzarano and Zipp, 2012).

From an institutional perspective, resources are considered as a key element of mentoring programmes (Dawson, 2014) including but not limited to the technological infrastructure provided by the institution (Baran, 2015), training events on mentoring process (Drouin, Stewart and Gorder, 2015; Paulsen, DaFonte and Barton-Arwood, 2015; Tsen et al, 2012) or consultancy services to coordinate the mentoring process (Drouin, Stewart and Gorder, 2015; Haines and Popovich, 2014). An organisation's objectives to establish and implement a mentoring programme is also crucial in terms of responding to institutional needs and deciding on the right mentoring model (Baran, 2015; Barnard et al., 2011; Ogunyemi et al., 2010; Wyre, Gaudet and McNeese, 2016).

Upon determination of the mentoring model, matching process of the mentor and mentee should be seen as a key for successful mentorship (Ambler, Harvey and Cahir, 2016; Baran, 2015). In most formal mentoring programmes, mentors and mentees are matched by a third party such as a coordinator or facilitator, considering the interests or needs of the mentees and expertise of the mentors (Bell and Treleaven, 2011) or through motivation letters and interviews with mentees (Schmidt and Faber, 2016) considering their interests in specific partnership, and mentors' knowledge, experience, race and gender (e.g. Ramani, Gruppen and Kachur, 2006). However, self-selected mentoring arrangements may be used in informal mentoring programmes (Carmel and Paul, 2015) and although rarely in formal mentoring programmes (Bell and Treleaven, 2011).

Technical and pedagogical support provided by the institution aiming for implementation of a mentoring programme is another issue since mentoring practices with a strong pedagogical support by the institution has a good influence on mentees and mentors before engaging in a mentoring relationship (e.g. Colvin and Ashman, 2010; Paulsen, DaFonte and Barton-Arwood, 2015). Technical support is also crucial particularly for mentoring practices on technology use as stated by Baran (2015), Dunham-Taylor et al. (2008), Kopcha (2008), Leggatt (2018), and Barnard et al. (2011).

Sustainability of a mentoring programme is vital in terms of applicability of a mentorship programme with strong impact on the success of mentoring practice (Dunham-Taylor et

al., 2008). Depending on the complexity of the mentoring scheme, programmes may last for less than one year (Baran, 2015; Carmel and Paul, 2015), less than five years (Falzarano and Zipp, 2012; Franko, 2016; Slimmer, 2012; Turner et al., 2016; Ussher and Carss, 2014; Voyles, et. al., 2011) or even more than five years (Bagramian et al., 2011).

Culture of an institution is another concept in mentoring programmes from an institutional perspective. While some studies clearly stated their institutions valued mentoring programmes (Slimmer, 2012), some others mentioned the importance of a supportive culture of an institution regarding mentoring (Ramani, Gruppen and Kachur, 2006). It was seen that an institution valuing mentoring provided necessary resources for the participants (Slimmer, 2012), or established a policy of mentoring (Baran, 2015) or guidelines (Voyles et. al. 2011) to facilitate the process and guide the mentors and mentees. Culture seemed to be an important component especially regarding the underrepresented minority (in terms of gender and race). Among the sample articles, Darwin and Palmer's (2009) study and Carmel and Paul's (2015) study focused on females' feelings of marginalization due to political culture of an institution. Obers (2015) argued in his study that mentoring could help a change in the culture of an institution in terms of promotion of success of the female and minority faculty. In Falzarano and Zipp's (2012) study, a positive relationship between organisational culture and collegial support was found to be correlated to expectations of an institution.

Evaluation of a mentoring programme is important in terms of providing implications for future activities. Selected studies mention questionnaires, surveys, interviews, reflective writing, logs, blogs and observations employed for evaluation (Baran, 2015; Bell and Treleaven, 2011; Darwin and Palmer, 2009; Drouin, Stewart and Gorder, 2015; Obura et. al., 2011; Ussher and Carss, 2014; Zellers, Howard and Barcic, 2008), and in most of those studies evaluation is made after the programme or semestre ended (Baran, 2015; Bell and Treleaven, 2011; Fleming et al., 2013; Obura et al., 2011; Pololi, Arthur and Evans, 2015; Slimmer, 2012).

Individual needs of mentors and mentees are discussed to a great extent in the studies. The difference in individual goals and the context has an impact on process of developing mentoring relationships and strategies (Bruner et. al., 2016). Baran (2015) emphasized that technology mentoring programmes offer unique solutions to faculty members unlike one-size-fits-all solutions. Dunham-Taylor et. al. (2008) recommended that individual needs of the new faculty must be taken into consideration by each institution which aims

to develop a mentoring programme. While the mentee in Haines and Popovich's (2014) study found one-to-one interaction most beneficial, Wyre, Gaudet and McNeese (2016) reported the mentor's offering individualized advice to the mentee as a mentor competency. Hence, it is likely to consider individualization as an important component of mentoring since no matter what kind of mentoring programme is implemented (one-to-one or group, formal or informal), participants of each mentoring programme and their needs vary.

5.3. Implications

The main purpose of this study was to analyse and determine the key elements of blended mentoring programmes for language instructors to assist them in adapting themselves into online learning environments. It was found that 71 studies examined either recommended mentoring programmes as a professional development tool for the novice faculty or undergraduates/graduates or shared the results of a mentorship implementation. Since the importance of resources such as trainings, workshops, a facilitator or coordinator is highlighted in many studies, it is best to consider mentorship as complementary to other professional development approaches. In nearly all studies including a mentoring programme, it was realized that the results were satisfactory for both mentor, mentee and institutions even though at some point especially mentors complained about the time constraints and mentees shared negative feedback about their mentors in some studies. In this sense, it would be right to say that institutions have roles in a mentorship such as supporting the process and participants, allocating extra time for mentoring and reducing workload to ease the process, providing resources that will help the participants and last but not least evaluating the programme. Despite the surplus of post-evaluation, it is clear that it would be more effective to evaluate the programme throughout the process.

In the studies selected, it was realized that many researchers were mostly about mentor's roles. Therefore, among all components, mentor stands out. It is likely to interpret that the effectiveness of mentorship depends on many factors; however, the greatest responsibility belongs to mentors. Being aware of this fact, the mentoring programmes especially focusing on enhancing awareness of mentors or discussing about their roles, mostly aimed at mentors' engagement in mentorship effectively. All the mentors included

in the sample studies were somehow seniors. Either in terms of rank or experience. This may have resulted from the “nurturing” perspective of mentoring. However, recent studies highlight the importance of reciprocal mentorship instead of traditional unidirectional relationships. Even though it seemed mentees have the greatest benefit from mentorship, it is possible to assume mentors benefit from a mentoring programme at least effectively. Sharing one’s experience and knowledge created a sense of self-satisfaction.

Mentors’ and mentees’ needs along with institutional needs are highlighted and seem to shape mentoring programmes. Objectives and policies are designed in accordance with this in all studies. For that reason, a needs analysis is recommended to be implemented with all participants including the institutions. In this way, more effective programmes can be developed before the process starts and more satisfactory results can be yielded. However, for the dissemination of the adoption of such new programmes, it is definitely recommended that Roger’s Diffusion of Innovations should be considered since it is highly possible that not many people will volunteer to participate in this programme. It is for sure trainings and workshops may help to raise awareness about the process and participants’ roles. Still, it cannot be expected every trained person will be easily persuaded to engage in a “new” implementation for many reasons such as their characteristics, feeling insecure, concerns etc.

The finding results of this content analysis which was performed with 71 articles on mentoring in higher education context may be helpful for any higher education institution to consider before they put a mentorship programme into practice. Even though some of these components obtained from the analysis of content on mentoring may be underpinned in all mentoring practices, the function of them may change in accordance with the context in which they will be implemented. For example, determination of objectives is vital for any mentoring programme because it will help the practitioners to set a framework of their mentoring practice; however, objectives may differ from context to context. Another example is mentor or mentee roles. In each context their roles change even though the general idea which is “helping or guiding a less experienced by a more experienced one” does not change. In this sense, these components determined at the end of the analysis can be tailored. Even their significance may change based on the context of a mentorship programme. Therefore, any institution which would like to employ any components mentioned above should first decide upon their needs regarding both mentor’s

and mentee'. To exemplify, an institution which desires a mentorship programme for student retention may not need to focus on technology infrastructure. Instead, selecting the right mentor for that student is the most important component. As for the selection period, among the studies selected there is one pilot study in which a mentor is selected by the mentee in a formal mentoring model. Basically, in a formal mentoring model, selection of mentor is mostly performed by a facilitator or coordinator appointed by the institution or Head of the Department of the relevant faculty. In this study a component of an informal mentoring which is mentee's selecting mentor was combined with a formal mentoring model. Unfortunately, contrary to what was expected, mentees were not satisfied with this free selection process. Therefore, any institution which wishes to take these findings in the establishment of their own mentoring programme should also consider the characteristics of the potential mentors and mentees. In addition, the sample studies consisted of face-to-face mentoring practices more than the others. Therefore, it is possible to transfer these components into a blended/online-oriented mentoring programme. However, it may be revised during the process to see if there are any other components coming up. Regarding the findings, the sustainability of a mentoring programme lies in the evaluation. Since evaluation requires the participants' feedback considering their needs, any pitfalls unexpectedly appear during the practice may be determined and open to be revised.

5.4. Suggestions

It is suggested to establish a blended or online university-wide mentoring programme in accordance with the components mentioned in this study. Before the implementation, it is strongly recommended that a needs analysis should be developed to determine mentors' and mentees' needs along with institutional needs. After objectives are determined, the process can be evaluated at certain intervals. Referring to all these components mentioned above, a university-wide mentorship can be implemented and the effect of differences in disciplines on mentoring can be searched. After the implementation, a more in-depth research can be performed through interviews / meetings / surveys and questionnaires with the participants and determine the effectiveness of the mentorship in terms of their needs. Furthermore, another experimental research can be conducted at another university and the results of two mentoring practice designed in accordance with the components

mentioned in this study can be compared in order to find out what other elements affect the success of a mentoring practice.



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APPENDIX

Appendix 1.1. List of Studies Analysed

No.	Year Published	Title	Author's Name	Journal's Name
1	2006	Concerns, Attitudes, and Abilities of Early-Career Geography Faculty	Michael N. Solem & Kenneth E. Foote	Journal of Geography in Higher Education
2	2006	Twelve Tips for Developing Effective Mentors	Subha Ramani, Larry Gruppen & Elizabeth Krajic Kachur	Medical Teacher
3	2007	Evaluation of an Evidence-Based Peer Teaching Assessment Program	Laura B. Hansen, Marianne Mccollum, Susan M. Paulsen, Thomas Cyr, Catherine L. Jarvis, Glenda Tate & Ralph J. Altieri	American Journal Of Pharmaceutical Education
4	2007	Mentoring at the University of Pennsylvania: Results of a Faculty Survey	Alan G. Wasserstein, D. Alex Quistberg & Judy A. Shea	JGIM
5	2008	A Systems-Based Approach to Technology Integration Using Mentoring and Communities of Practice	Theodore J. Kopcha	Education Tech Research Dev
6	2008	Faculty Mentoring Programs: Reenvisioning Rather Than Reinventing The Wheel	Darlene F. Zellers, Valerie M. Howard, Maureen A. Barcic	Review Of Educational Research
7	2008	Reconceptualising Professional Experiences in Pre-Service Teacher Education: reconstructing The Past to Embrace the Future	Rosie Le Cornu, Robyn Ewing	Teaching and Teacher Education
8	2008	What Goes Around Comes Around: Improving Faculty Retention Through More Effective Mentoring	Janne Dunham-Taylor, Cynthia W. Lynn, Patricia Moore, Staci Mcdaniel, Jane K. Walker	Journal of Professional Nursing
9	2009	Assessment for Learning to Teach Appraisal of Practice Teaching Lessons by Mentors, Supervisors, and Student Teachers	Harm H. Tillema	Journal of Teacher Education
10	2009	Mentoring Circles in Higher	Ann Darwin & Edward	Higher Education Research &

		Education	Palmer	Development
11	2010	Does Mentoring Matter: Results From a Survey of Faculty Mentees at a Large Health Sciences University	Mitchell D. Feldman, Patricia A. Arean, Sally J. Marshall, Mark Lovett & Patricia O'Sullivan	Medical Education Online
12	2010	New Trends in Technology Management Education: A View From Europe	Bart Clarysse, Simon Mosey, Inge Lambrecht	Academy of Management Learning and Education
13	2010	Promoting Residents' Professional Development and Academic Productivity Using a Structured Faculty Mentoring Program	Dotun Ogunyemi , M. Jonathon Solnik , Carolyn Alexander , Alex Fong & Ricardo Azziz	Teaching and Learning in Medicine
14	2010	Roles, Risks, and Benefits of Peer Mentoring Relationships in Higher Education	Janet W. Colvin & Marinda Ashman	Mentoring & Tutoring: Partnership in Learning
15	2010	Toward 'Hybridised' Faculty Development for the Twenty-First Century: Blending Online Communities of Practice and Face-To-Face Meetings in Instructional and Professional Support Programmes	Catherine F. Brooks	Innovations in Education and Teaching International
16	2011	Residential Peer Mentoring Benefits Mentees: What About Mentors?	Elora Candace Voyles, Rhonda K Kowalchuk, John W. Nicklow, Robert Ricks	American Society for Engineering Education
17	2011	Impact of Professional Development Activities in Preparing Scholars to Become Future Faculty	Cyndi Lynch, Dr. Kathy Garza Sears	American Society for Engineering Education
18	2011	From School Teacher to University Lecturer: Illuminating the Journey from the Classroom to the University for Two Arts Educators	Carmen Carrillo, Margaret Baguley	Teaching and Teacher Education
19	2011	Looking for Professor Right: Mentee Selection of Mentors in a Formal Mentoring Program	Amani Bell, Lesley Treleaven	High Educ
20	2011	Mentoring in Nursing Education: Perceived Characteristics of Mentors and the	Sabine Huybrecht, Wim Loeckx, Yvo Quaeys, Danielle De Tobel, Wilhelm	Nurse Education Today

		Consequences of Mentorship	Mistiaen	
21	2011	Mentoring of Dental and Dental Hygiene Faculty: A Case Study	Robert A. Bagramian, Russell S. Taichman, Laurie Mccauley, Thomas G. Green, Marita Rohr Inglehart	Faculty Development
22	2011	Participating in a Community Of Learners Enhances Resident Perceptions of Learning in an E-Mentoring Program: Proof of Concept	Timona Obura, William E Brant, Fiona Miller, I John Parboosingh	BMC Medical Education
23	2011	Peer Partnership to Enhance Scholarship of Teaching: A Case Study	Alan Barnard , Waveney Croft , Rosemary Irons , Natalie Cuffe , Wasana Bandara & Pamela Rowntree	Higher Education Research & Development
24	2012	A Teaching Mentorship Program to Facilitate Excellence in Teaching and Learning	Lynda Slimmer	Journal of Professional Nursing
25	2012	Building an Effective Online Learning Community (OLC) In Blog-Based Teaching Portfolios	Eunice Tang, Cherlotte Lam	Internet and Higher Education
26	2012	Faculty Development Initiatives Designed to Promote Leadership In Medical Education. A BEME Systematic Review: BEME Guide No. 19	Yvonne Steinert, Laura Naismith & Karen Mann	Medical Teacher
27	2012	Graduate Students' Perceptions of Their Advisors: Is There Systematic Disadvantage in Mentorship?	Shiri Noy Rashawn Ray	The Journal of Higher Education
28	2012	Mentorship Relations Among Academician Nurses in Turkey: An Assessment from The Viewpoints of Mentors and Mentees	Serap Altuntas	Nurse Education Today
29	2012	Perceptions of Mentoring of Full-Time Occupational Therapy Faculty in The United States	Mary Falzarano & Genevieve Pinto Zipp	Occup. Ther. Int
30	2012	Career Advancement of Academics at Public and Private Universities in Malaysia: Implications for Human Resource Development	Maimunah Ismail, Azlini Ali, Lawrence Arokiasamy	The Asia-Pacific Education Researcher

31	2012	The Development, Implementation, and Assessment of an Innovative Faculty Mentoring Leadership Program	Dr. Lawrence C. Tsen, Dr. Jonathan F. Borus, Dr. Carol C. Nadelson, Dr. Ellen W. Seely, Ms. Audrey Haas, Dr. Anne L. Fuhlbrigge	Acad. Med.
32	2013	Building Learning Communities: Evolution of the Colleges at Vanderbilt University School of Medicine	Amy Fleming, William Cutrer, Sandi Moutsios, Benjamin Heavrin, Michael Pilla, Quentin Eichbaum, Scott Rodgers	Acad. Med.
33	2013	“Dear Diary” Revisited: Reflecting on Collaborative Journaling	Catrina A. Mackenzie, Britta Ricker, Julia Christensen, Elizabeth Heller, Emily Kagan, Philip M. Osano, Lindsay Long & Sarah Turner	Journal of Geography in Higher Education
34	2013	Exploring Women Engineering Faculty’s Mentoring Networks	Ziyu Long, Prof. Patrice Marie Buzzanell, Prof. Klod Kokini, Robyn F Wilson, Jennifer C Batra, Lindsey B. Anderson,	American Society for Engineering Education
35	2013	Online Teaching Communities Within Sociology: A Counter Trend to the Marketization of Higher Education	Nathan Palmer & April M. Schueths	Teaching in Higher Education
36	2013	Professional Development for Online University Teaching	Janet Gregory & Gilly Salmon	Distance Education
37	2013	Professors as Academic Leaders: The Perspectives of ‘The Led’	Linda Evans, Matthew Homer, Stephen Rayner	Educational Management Administration & Leadership
38	2013	Teacher Preparation in Moderate and Severe Disabilities: A State Tool For Intern Support	Patti Whetstone, Michael Abell, Belva C. Collins, & Harold L. Kleinert	Teacher Education and Special Education
39	2013	The Competence and the Cooperation of Nurse Educators	Leena Salminen, Stolt Minna, Koskinen Sanna, Katajisto Jouko, Leino-Kilpi Helena	Nurse Education Today
40	2014	A Motivation Perspective on Faculty Mentoring: The Notion of “Non-Intrusive” Mentoring Practices in Science and Engineering	Vicente M. Lechuga	High Educ
41	2014	Beyond A Definition: Toward a Framework for Designing and Specifying Mentoring Models	Phillip Dawson	Educational Researcher
42	2014	FACULTY DEVELOPMENT Engaging External Senior Faculty Members as Faculty	Seena L. Haines & Nicholas G. Popovich	American Journal Of Pharmaceutical Education

		Mentors		
43	2014	Strengthening Practicum Conversations: Enhancing Professional Learning and Development Through Returning Lecturer Supervisions	Bill Ussher, Wendy Carss	Australian Journal of Education
44	2015	Developing an Appreciation Of What it Means to be A School-Based Teacher Educator	Elizabeth White, Claire Dickerson & Kathryn Weston	European Journal of Teacher Education
45	2015	“Don’t Leave Us Behind”: The Importance of Mentoring for Underrepresented Minority Faculty	Ruth Enid Zambrana, Rashawn Ray, Michelle M. Espino, Corinne Castro, Beth Douthirt Cohen, Jennifer Eliason	American Educational Research Journal
46	2015	Early Career Academic Mentoring Using Twitter: The Case of #Ecrchat	Hazel Ferguson & Katherine L. Wheat	Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management
47	2015	Early Career Academic Staff Support: Evaluating Mentoring Networks	J. Denard Thomas, Laura Gail Lunsford & Helena A. Rodrigues	Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management
48	2015	Group Peer Mentoring: An Answer to the Faculty Mentoring Problem? A Successful Program at a Large Academic Department of Medicine	Linda H. Pololi, Arthur T. Evans	Journal of Continuing Education in the Health Professions
49	2015	Influential Structures: Understanding the Role of the Head of Department in Relation to Women Academics’ Research Careers	Noëlle Obers	Higher Education Research & Development
50	2015	Mentoring and Coaching in Academia: Reflections on a Mentoring/Coaching Relationship	Roofe G. Carmel, Miller W. Paul	Policy Futures in Education
51	2015	Mentoring in Higher Education: Does it Enhance Mentees’ Research Productivity?	Julia Muschallik & Kerstin Pull	Education Economics
52	2015	Navigating Learning Journeys of Online Teachers: Threshold Concepts and Self-Efficacy	Maria Northcote, Kevin P. Gosselin, Daniel Reynaud, Peter Kilgour & Malcolm Anderson	Issues in Educational Research

53	2015	Passing the Baton: Mentoring for Adoption of Active-Learning Pedagogies by Research-Active Junior Faculty	Catherine Leimkuhler Grimes, Harold B. White	Biochemistry and Molecular Biology Education
54	2015	Relational Dimensions of Virtual Social Work Education: Mentoring Faculty in a Web-Based Learning Environment	Wendy B. Smith	Clinical Social Work Journal
55	2015	The Role of Mentors in Developing and Implementing High-Quality Field-Based Placements	Kim Paulsen, Alexandra Dafonte & Sally Barton-Arwood	Intervention in School And Clinic
56	2015	Using Methodological Triangulation to Examine the Effectiveness of a Mentoring Program for Online Instructors	Michelle Drouin, Jennifer Stewart & Karen Van Gorder	Distance Education
57	2016	Benchmarking and Gap Analysis of Faculty Mentorship Priorities and How Well They are Met	Deborah Watkins Bruner, Sandra Dunbar, Melinda Higgins, Kristy Martyn,	Nursing Outlook
58	2016	Benefits of Peer Mentoring to Mentors, Female Mentees and Higher Education Institutions	Evanthia Kalpazidou Schmidt & Stine Thidemann Faber	Mentoring & Tutoring: Partnership in Learning
59	2016	Curriculum Homeplacing as Complicated Conversation: (Re)Narrating the Mentoring of Black Women Doctoral Students	Ebony C. Pope & Kirsten T. Edwards	Gender and Education
60	2016	Does Formal Mentoring for Faculty Members Matter? A Survey of Clinical Faculty Members	Elza Mylona, Linda Brubaker, Valerie N Williams, Karen D Novielli, Jeffrey M Lyness, Susan M Pollart, Valerie Dandar & Sarah A Bunton	Medical Education
61	2016	From Nothing to Something: The Nuts and Bolts of Building a Mentoring Program in a Health Sciences College	Debra L. Franko	Mentoring & Tutoring: Partnership in Learning
62	2016	Investigating Faculty Technology Mentoring as a University-Wide Professional Development Model	Evrin Baran	J Comput High Educ

63	2016	Mentoring the Next Generation of Higher Education Professionals	Doris R. Corbett	Quest
64	2016	Mentoring The Next Generation of Faculty: Supporting Academic Career Aspirations Among Doctoral Students	Nicola Curtin, Janet Malley, Abigail J. Stewart	Res High Educ
65	2016	Overcoming the Barriers of Distance: Using Mobile Technology to Facilitate Moderation and Best Practice in Initial Teacher Training	Simon Leggatt	Journal of Further and Higher Education
66	2016	Perspectives From Pre-Service Mathematics and Science Teachers in an Urban Residency Program: Characteristics of Effective Mentors	Rubén Garza & Rod A. Harter	Education and Urban Society
67	2016	Preparedness to Teach: Experiences of the University of Ibadan Early Career Academics	I. Bola Udegbe	Studies in Higher Education
68	2016	So You Want to be a Mentor? An Analysis of Mentor Competencies	Dwuena C. Wyre, Cyndi H. Gaudet & Mary Nell Mcneese	Mentoring & Tutoring: Partnership in Learning
69	2016	The Case for Women Mentoring Women	Betty Ann Block & Tara Tietjen-Smith	Quest
70	2016	University Academics' Experiences of Learning Through Mentoring	Trudy Ambler, Marina Harvey, Jayde Cahir	Aust. Educ. Res.
71	2016	What Role do Teaching Mentors Play in Supporting New University Lecturers to Develop Their Teaching Practices?	Rebecca Turner, Rong Huang, Oxana Poverjuc & Lynne Wyness	Professional Development in Education

PERSONAL INFORMATION

PERSONAL INFORMATION

Surname, Name: KIZILDAĞ, Seda

Place and Date of Birth: Yatağan / 17-08-1987

Email: sedatercume@gmail.com

Phone: 05418717516

EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND

BA, English Language and Literature Ankara University 2009

WORK EXPERIENCE

English Instructor	Izmir University of Economics	2019-still
English (CLIL) Teacher	Bilfen Güzelbahçe Primary School	2018-2019
English Tutor	Birebir English Language School	2017-2018
English Teacher	Izmir Private Tefvik Fikret High School	2014-2017
English Instructor	Ankara University	2010-2011
English Teacher	English Time Language Schools	2009-2010

PUBLICATIONS

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