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Mentoring, Role Modeling, and Acculturation: Exploring International Teacher Narratives to Inform Supervisory Practices

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Abstract

As teacher shortages continue in countries worldwide, international teachers may be recruited from other countries to help fill critical teacher vacancies, particularly in high-need subject areas such as mathematics and science. International teachers are a unique group who have specific needs, which could be addressed through school administrators' supervisory practices. To understand international teacher needs, a review of the literature from 2009 to 2019 was completed to examine the extent to which dimensions of mentoring, role modeling, and acculturation were represented in international teacher narratives in peer-reviewed journals. In the course of the review, a fourth dimension of principals and ITs was found in the literature and explored. Findings from the literature review pointed to four themes related to the three identified dimensions: (a) a need for induction, (b) role modeling as collegial support, (c) international teacher acculturation issues, and (d) principal perspectives of ITs. The international teacher themes discovered through this review of the literature may help to inform the supervisory practices of school administrators as they strive to ensure positive outcomes for international teachers.

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Introduction

Teacher shortages in school districts across the United States have been an ongoing concern for educational leaders since the early 2000s (Malkus, Hoyer, & Sparks, 2015; National Association of Secondary School Principals, n.d.). In response to the teacher supply shortfalls, school districts hired foreign teachers (i.e., teachers hired from a foreign country to work in a host country) to fill teacher vacancies (Hutchison & Jazzar, 2007). Although the teacher shortage situation has improved since 1999 (Malkus et al., 2015), shortfalls persist within specific subject areas (e.g., mathematics, science, and special education) and school contexts that are "urban, rural, high-poverty, high-minority, and low-achieving" (Aragon, 2016, p. 5). In 2019, the U.S. Department of State (n.d.) issued 3,252 J-1 visas to foreign teachers. The J-1 classification visa is given to foreigners who are in an approved exchange program in the United States for the purposes of teaching or conducting research, among other objectives (U.S. Citizenship and Immigration Service, n.d.). The majority of J-1 visas issued to foreign teachers were concentrated in North Carolina (n = 522), South Carolina (n = 350), New Mexico (n = 270), Texas (n = 262), California (n = 258), and Florida (n = 211).

The United States is not alone in this practice as other countries like Australia and the United Kingdom also have hired foreign teachers in response to critical shortages (Hutchison & Jazzar, 2007; Datta Roy & Lavery, 2017; Miller, 2018). Foreign teachers are referred

to in a variety of ways in the host countries where they work, including overseas-trained teachers in United Kingdom (Department for Education, 2014), internationally-educated teachers in Canada (Province of Nova Scotia, n.d.), and international educators (Cultural Vistas, n.d.) or international teachers in the United States. In this paper, the term *international teacher* is used to refer to foreign teachers. International teachers (ITs) face unique challenges that are compounded by the requisite cultural adjustment to a different educational system with its own culture and practices (Cross, Hong, & Williams-Johnson, 2011; Dunn, 2011). Research on international teacher experiences underscored needs related to gaining an understanding of the K-12 culture in which they were immersed (e.g., student behavior, pedagogy, school structure), a need for orientation prior to arriving in the host country, and the need for positive peer interactions (Cross et al., 2011; Dunn, 2011; Miller, 2018; Datta Roy & Lavery, 2017). School administrators went further, explaining the necessity for continued IT professional learning to address instructional and cultural needs (Dunn, 2011).

Challenges faced by ITs echo those of teachers working in international school settings. In international schools, however, the focus has been on reducing teacher turnover through comprehensive induction practices oriented to the international school's context to help teachers manage cultural adjustment (Hayden, 2006). Furthermore, in international school settings, principals who were perceived as supportive of teachers and willing to engage teachers in shared leadership contributed to reduced teacher turnover (Mancuso, Roberts, & White, 2010; Odland & Ruzicka, 2009). Given the similarities between ITs and teachers in international schools, practices related to new teacher induction and effective teacher development present an avenue to bridge ITs' transition to a new

academic environment. Specifically, the practices of mentoring and role modeling, which have been linked to improved instructional practices and student achievement (Darling-Hammond, Wei, Andree, Richardson, & Orphanos, 2009; Ingersoll & Strong, 2011; Krasnoff, 2014; New Teacher Center, 2015). Additionally, practices that support acculturation (Berry, Kim, Power, Young, & Bujaki, 1989; Berry 2005) may provide additional support for ITs. Principals and other school administrators play a critical role in IT development, since they create the conditions for effective teacher development, effective teacher collaboration, and quality induction and mentoring (New Teacher Center, 2015). However, school administrators must first gain an understanding of IT needs through the experiences of ITs found in the literature. Therefore, this review of the literature focused on one research question: To what extent does international teacher literature focused on IT narratives reflect mentoring, role modeling, and acculturation needs? To position this study within the literature, the conceptual framework includes a discussion on mentoring, role modeling, acculturation, cultural intelligence, and work outcomes drawing from research on of novice teacher induction, cross-cultural psychology, and management.

Conceptual Framework

Mentoring for Teacher Effectiveness

Mentoring is an essential ingredient in novice teachers' success in the classroom (Bullough, 2012; Capizzi, Wehby, & Sandmel, 2010; Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond, 2017; Correa & Wagner, 2011; Darling-Hammond et al., 2009; Gordon & Lowrey, 2017; Kessels, 2010; Löfström & Eisenschmidt, 2009; Sun, 2012; Tillman, 2005). Carver-Thomas and Darling-Hammond (2017) and Gordon and

Lowrey (2017) proposed mentoring practices to ensure novice teachers' success and retention in schools. First, Carver-Thomas and Darling-Hammond (2017) provided guidelines for mentoring novice teachers which included: (a) assignment of a mentor, (b) frequent meetings with the assigned mentor, (c) a focus on classroom observation and feedback, (d) analyzing student data to identify areas for growth and areas of strengths, (e) discussion of instructional issues, and (f) working in concert to develop a professional growth plan (p. 34). Gordon and Lowrey (2017) went further, arguing that while formal mentoring was integral to the mentoring structure, mentoring should be viewed as a web. In the mentoring web, principals, mentors (both formal and informal), college and university faculty, school support staff, students, parents, and the induction program all contributed to novice teacher development (Gordon & Lowrey, 2017). Further, novice teachers should be encouraged to seek out informal mentors because of the additional contributions they provided outside of the traditional mentoring model (Gordon & Lowrey, 2017; Correa & Wagner, 2011).

Various studies analyzed the contributions of mentorship to effective teaching practices and professional growth (Capizzi, et al., 2010; Löfström & Eisenschmidt, 2009; Correa & Wagner, 2011). In a study involving pre-service teachers completed by Capizzi and colleagues (2010), researchers found that pre-service teachers' instructional effectiveness improved following feedback on a lesson that had been videotaped. The teacher candidates found that watching the lessons together with mentors was helpful in the instructional feedback process. In a mentoring survey of novice teachers in Estonia, researchers found that novice teachers received mentoring support, including personal and professional knowledge development, feedback, collegial support, mutuality within the

mentoring relationship, mentor access, and trust (Löfström & Eisenschmidt, 2009). However, respondents highlighted the need for mentors to facilitate rather than lead reflection, the need for mentor professional learning to facilitate the mentor-mentee process, and the need to infuse mentoring into the school culture. Lastly, Correa and Wagner (2011) found informal mentors were critical to mentoring, providing feedback on instruction which novice teachers found valuable.

Mentor Preparation. Effective mentoring relies on a mentor's ability to engage in mentoring practices that contribute to mentee growth. Several researchers established the need for mentors to be prepared adequately prior to stepping into a mentorship role and to continue to receive professional learning throughout the mentoring process (Bullough, 2012; Darling-Hammond et al., 2009; Kessels, 2010; Sun, 2012). Because of the distinct knowledge and skills required of mentors, this development is essential to mentor-mentee outcomes. For example, when providing support to novice teachers, mentors experience dissonance because of the competing aims of providing collegial support to mentees, while also providing critical feedback to ensure improved student outcomes (Bullough, 2012). Furthermore, novice teachers have indicated that mentors must be trustworthy, supportive, and offer the mentee a "degree of challenge" to improve instructional practice (Kessels, 2010, p. 33). Additionally, mentors should provide knowledge about teaching and learning, provide formative assessment and feedback to mentees, and support mentees through new challenges and experiences (Sun, 2012). Moreover, because of the unique role mentors occupy, mentors are often viewed as vehicles for teacher retention and development, spearheading changes in school culture (Bullough, 2012). These demands underscore the need for specialized professional learning to become

effective mentors (Kessels, 2010) and improve student outcomes (Darling-Hammond et al., 2009).

Specialized professional learning for mentors includes strengthening relationship-building capabilities, classroom observations, use of formative data to inform instruction, and collection and analysis of student evidence (e.g., work samples and other artifacts) based on educational standards (Sun, 2012). In addition to specialized professional learning, Sun (2012) asserted that mentor selection is a salient component of novice teacher induction programs and should be approached carefully. Being an effective teacher should not be the sole consideration when selecting mentors (Bullough, 2012). Mentors should meet certain criteria, including: (a) three or more years of effective instructional practice, (b) ability to reflect on his or her own teaching, (c) subject-area knowledge and content pedagogy, (d) demonstrated commitment to his or her own professional growth and that of mentees, and (e) ability to be empathetic and understanding of mentees' needs (Sun, 2012, p. 7).

Role Modeling

Role modeling, like mentoring, is a pertinent component of new teacher induction programs. Social cognitive theory as proposed by Albert Bandura (Grusec, 1992) and components of psychosocial support (Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz, & Lima, 2004) both inform role modeling. As framed by social cognitive theory, peer observations are a form of role modeling in which a teacher observes a teaching event and, subsequently, adopts behaviors from the teaching event. Psychosocial support, on the other hand, includes role modeling as a way to build and deepen interpersonal relationships among the mentor, mentee, and other colleagues.

Role modeling through peer observation. Social learning theory or social cognitive theory, as presented by Bandura, focused on how children's and adults' cognition of social experiences impact their behavior and development (Grusec, 1992, p. 781). As explained by Grusec (1992), Bandura argued that there were four distinct components to the modeling process in social cognitive theory. First, the observer pays attention to events produced or modeled behavior, followed by the retention of the observed event or modeled behavior either through imagery or verbal methods (Grusec, 1992). Then, the pictorial or verbal representation produced must be converted into proper actions, and the observer must connect some value to adopt the observed event as a model (Grusec, 1992). In some instances, individuals may observe role modeling directly, while in other instances, role modeling may be indirect. Several studies analyzed the effects of direct peer observation on improved outcomes for the observers (Hendry, Bell, & Thomson, 2014; Hunzicker et al., 2017). In a research study on direct peer observation of university faculty, researchers found that respondents who observed their peers teaching indicated that the peer observations either served to validate their own teaching practices or led them to learn new teaching practices (Hendry et al., 2014). Additionally, Hendry et al. (2014) found that respondents also reported other beneficial aspects of the peer observation, including observing student engagement in class and a reduced feeling of isolation as they collaborated with their colleagues after the peer observations.

Indirect role modeling is also a component of role modeling. Indirect role modeling occurs when individuals observe behaviors from peers, supervisors, and others within their work environment, often with individuals processing observed behaviors unconsciously (Cruess, Cruess, & Steinhart, 2008). Cruess and colleagues (2008)

posited that reflection is an integral component of actively examining actions and activities taken by role models as a component of learning from the indirect role modeling observed. To learn from observed actions, Cruess et al. (2008) offered a modeling process framework for application following the active observation of role models where mentees explore unconscious behaviors, making them conscious and reflecting on those behaviors to convert insights into principles and actions. Within the proposed model, mentees would actively explore "affect and values" of the observed behaviors and reach "generalisation and behaviour change" (Cruess et al., 2008, p. 719).

Warhurst (2011) further validated the notion that role modeling can be an unconscious process that does not become conscious until reflection takes place. Participants in this study on mid-level managers learned from senior-level managers in their work environment in an ad hoc manner rather than through a formalized relationship. Participants selected indirect role models as a result of participant perceptions of the observed individual's competence as a manager (Warhurst, 2011). Moreover, role model selection was not constrained to one person. Participants selected multiple role models and chose behaviors from each to create a personalized composite role model. The composite role model represented a blend of culled behaviors viewed positively by the participants (Warhurst, 2011).

Role modeling through psychosocial support. Psychosocial support differs from direct and indirect modeling because of its focus on interpersonal relationships, where "role modeling, acceptance and confirmation, counseling, and friendship" (Allen et al., 2004, p. 128) are integral functions of mentoring and related to satisfaction with the mentor and, therefore, may be linked to mentor-mentee outcomes

(Weimer, 2019). Others have come to similar conclusions, finding that psychosocial support, or collegial relationships with mentors and others, was an essential component of novice teacher success (Le Cornu, 2013; Weimer, 2019; Yusko & Feiman-Nemser, 2008). Le Cornu (2013), for example, found that mentees who had positive relationships with colleagues at their schools had a "sense of belonging and social connectedness" (p. 4). Moreover, positive relationships allowed mentees to join networks of veteran teachers to share ideas, engendering positive outcomes for novice teachers. The positive relationships were mutual in that mentees adopted veteran teachers' strategies, and veteran teachers adopted those of mentees, reaffirming novice teachers' contributions to the school (Le Cornu, 2013). Support from novice peers also contributed to novice teacher success. Novice teachers reported receiving support from their novice peers, both professionally and personally, allowing them to discuss problems and find solutions (Le Cornu, 2013).

School Administrators, Mentoring, and Role Modeling

Given the importance of mentoring and other induction practices to teacher development and retention, principals and other school administrators occupy a crucial space in the mentoring structure and process of a school as well as the role modeling that takes place. Principals and other school administrators are central to establishing a school culture of collaboration where mentoring, role modeling, and other forms of teacher collaboration flourish (Brücknerová & Novotný, 2019; Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond, 2017; Correa & Wagner, 2011; Gordon & Lowrey, 2017; Haiyan, Walker, & Xiaowei, 2017; Ingersoll, 2012; Löfström & Eisenschmidt, 2009; Pogodzinski, 2015; Youngs, 2007). However, much like mentors, school administrators need professional learning

to create school settings where mentoring relationships lead to teacher growth and retention (Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond, 2017). In addition to professional learning, school administrators also should be active participants in the mentoring process of novice teachers (Gordon & Lowry, 2017; Youngs, 2007).

Correa and Wagner (2011), for example, found that school administrator involvement in the early stages of mentoring was integral to effective mentoring. Therefore, school administrators needed to be involved by attending mentee orientation and involving themselves in the pairing of mentors and mentees. Moreover, school administrator involvement proved beneficial beyond the early stages of mentoring. Tillman (2005) discovered that mentee competence grew when a mentor and the school administrator collaborated in the mentoring process with the mentee. Further, mentees found feedback born from collaboration between the mentor and the principal to be indispensable to their success (Correa & Wagner, 2011).

School administrator involvement with mentees has proven crucial globally as school administrators engage in overall school improvement efforts and in developing the school culture to support novice teachers. For example, in a study completed in Australia, Lynch, Smith, Provost, and Madden (2016) found that a collaborative learning model, when conducted in a distributive manner involving the principal, lead teachers, and mentees, led to improved student outcomes in achievement across various measures. In this model, lead teachers provided coaching, mentoring, and feedback to teacher teams, the principal provided the same support for teachers and the leadership team, and specific professional learning for teachers was selected based on teacher needs (Lynch et al., 2016). Furthermore,

school administrators are responsible for establishing the school culture and processes that buttress mentor-mentee relationships and overall novice teacher induction. Youngs (2007) found that principals who had successful teacher induction programs engaged in a distributive leadership model where they shared induction responsibilities with others at their school. Moreover, school administrators influenced the outcomes of induction programs by building a positive teacher learning culture for all by redesigning school structures to promote teacher learning, espousing learning as part of the profession, and developing a climate that encouraged trusting, collegial relationships (Haiyan et al., 2017). In school settings where mentees perceived a negative relationship between teachers and school administrators, novice teacher engagement with mentors decreased (Pogodzinski, 2015), possibly leading to diminished outcomes.

Acculturation

Acculturation is discussed here to provide context for the cultural adjustment individuals experience when transitioning to a new cultural environment, which ITs experience when arriving in a different country to teach in a new academic setting. Acculturation is defined as two cultures coming into contact with one another over a protracted span of time (Berry et al., 1989). Berry (2005) described acculturation as "a process of cultural and psychological changes that involve various forms of mutual accommodation [between cultural groups], leading to longer-term psychological and sociocultural adaptations between groups" (p. 699). Acculturation is a psychological process, where individuals "hold attitudes" as to how they choose to engage and relate to others they encounter in the acculturation space (Berry et al., 1989, p. 186).

Attitudes held by individuals lead to distinct acculturation attitudes where individuals decide "whether or not one's own cultural identity and customs are of value and should be retained" and to decide "whether positive relationships with the larger society are of value and should be sought" (Berry et al., 1989, p. 187). The acculturation attitudes adopted by individuals result in assimilation, integration, separation, or marginalization. Assimilation culminates in an individual turning away from his or her own culture and becoming part of the dominant culture, while integration allows the individual to retain his or her own culture and become part of the dominant culture (Berry et al., 1989). Separation and marginalization involve the individual living outside of the dominant culture by choice as is the case with separation, or because it is imposed on the individual by the dominant culture as is the case with marginalization (Berry et al., 1989). Each of these attitudes is accompanied by acculturative stress, which is a type of stress that arises from the process of acculturation (Sam, 2015). Individuals whose acculturation attitudes steered them toward integration experienced less acculturative stress and achieved improved outcomes, while those who gravitated toward marginalization experienced the most stress (Berry, 2005).

Acculturation and work outcomes. The field of expatriate management has focused on developing an understanding of the contexts and conditions that may allow for the successful acculturation of expatriates (i.e., individuals working in a foreign country) in foreign work environments. Acculturation research in this area focused on the "cultural nuances of moving overseas, adaptation, and subsequent job success" (Gonzalez-Loureiro, Kiessling, & Dabic, 2015, p. 248). Researchers found various conditions and contexts which contribute to successful acculturation

of expatriates. For instance, Farh, Bartol, Shapiro, and Shin (2010) proposed a process model to explain how expatriates could engage in networks to create supportive ties. Through these networks, expatriates could address their informational or social needs, furthering their adjustment in a foreign country (Farh et al., 2010). Within this model, expatriates connect with a person who possesses knowledge about the new environment and understands expatriate needs, leading to improved adjustment (Farh et al., 2010).

Cultural intelligence. Other researchers (Ang et al., 2007; Guðmundsdóttir, 2015; Ramalu, Rose, Uli, & Kumar, 2012; Sambasivan, Sadoughi, & Esmaeilzadeh, 2017) stressed the importance of cultural intelligence and its effects on expatriates' adjustment to and performance in foreign work environments. Ang et al. (2007) defined cultural intelligence "as an individual's capability to function and manage effectively in culturally diverse settings" (p. 337). Sambasivan et al. (2017) found that culturally intelligent individuals were able to focus more on adjusting to social and work-related integration because they were less anxious when placed in a different cultural context. Other researchers have suggested organizations develop expatriates' cultural intelligence prior to arriving in the foreign country (Guðmundsdóttir, 2015; Ramalu et al., 2012). Ramalu et al. (2012) recommended that cultural intelligence development could be continued through mentoring and coaching provided by local mentors and expatriate mentors, possibly leading to improved adaptation and performance in the new cultural context.

Methods

To complete the literature review, I identified and examined peer-reviewed journal articles on international teacher experiences as

they related to the broad dimensions of (a) mentoring, (b) role modeling, and (c) acculturation. First, database searches were completed to identify peer-reviewed journal articles, including the following databases: ABI/Inform Collection, Academic Search Premier, ERIC, EBSCO Education Source, JSTOR Journals, Professional Development Collection Education, ProQuest, Springer Link, Taylor and Francis, Science Direct, and Web of Science. The following search terms were used first individually and then in combination (e.g., "international teachers" or "international teachers AND mentoring"): "international teachers," "overseas trained teachers," "foreign teachers," "employment of foreign teachers, "international teachers," "teacher induction," "culture shock," "acculturation," "mentoring," and "role modeling." Additionally, the references list of articles selected for inclusion were explored to locate additional articles. Through this method, a total of 20 articles were identified for possible inclusion.

To be included in this analysis, peer-reviewed journal articles had to be published between 2009 and 2019 and focus on the experiences of international teachers working predominantly in K-12 public schools in a foreign country. The time and public school delimitations were put in place to collect articles that represented contemporary IT experiences within public schools to maintain consistency among the articles examined. The inclusion criteria yielded a total of 10 articles for inclusion in this analysis. To complete the analysis, the constant comparative method was used to identify findings related to mentoring, role modeling, or acculturation (Glaser & Strauss, 2008) within the articles selected for inclusion. For example, in terms of the dimension of acculturation, if the researcher described a teacher's experience in terms of "culture shock" (Cross et al., 2011, p. 505), it fell within the dimension of acculturation.

Following the initial review for each of the three dimensions, the representations for each dimension found in the articles were reviewed and compared across articles to integrate the findings. Then, resulting themes that arose from the comparison of incidences within each dimension were identified (Glaser & Strauss, 2008). The articles included in this review, IT countries or regions of origin, and dimensions identified and examined in each article are found in Table 1.

Table 1

Peer-reviewed Articles on International Teacher Experiences (N = 10)

Author(s) (Year)	International Teacher Setting	International Teacher Country or Region of Origin	IT Dimensions Identified and Examined
Bailey (2013)	United States	Jamaica	Acculturation
Cross, Young, and Williams-Johnson (2011)	United States	Jamaica	Acculturation Role Modeling
de Villiers and Weda (2018)	South Africa	Zimbabwe	Acculturation Mentoring Role Modeling
Dunn (2011)	United States	India	Acculturation Mentoring Role Modeling
Fee (2011)	United States	Central America, South America, and Spain	Acculturation Role Modeling
Miller (2009)	England	Caribbean and Guyana	Acculturation Mentoring
Miller (2018)	England	Jamaica	Acculturation Role Modeling

Datta Roy & Lavery (2017)	Australia	Canada, Eritrea, India, Iran, Iraq, Ireland, Japan, South Africa, Seychelles, Ukraine, United Kingdom, Zimbabwe	Acculturation Mentoring
Vandeyar, Vandeyar, & Elufisan (2014)	South Africa	Zimbabwe and Nigeria	Acculturation
Weda & de Villiers (2019)	South Africa	Zimbabwe	Acculturation

Study Results

The review of the articles and subsequent comparative analysis of the dimensions of mentoring, role modeling, acculturation, and principals and ITs yielded three IT themes across the articles: (a) a need for induction, (b) role modeling as collegial support, and (c) IT acculturation issues. In the course of the examination, a fourth dimension was added, principals and ITs, since it appeared in the literature reviewed. This fourth dimension yielded the theme of principal perceptions of ITs. Acculturation issues was the most comprehensive theme and, therefore, was divided into four sub-themes. IT dimensions examined, resulting themes and sub-themes, and the articles in which the themes appeared are found in Table 2.

Table 2.

IT Dimensions Examined and Resulting Themes

IT Dimensions Examined	Resulting Themes	Author(s) and Year
Mentoring	A Need for Induction	Dunn, 2011; de Villiers & Weda, 2018; Miller, 2009; Datta Roy & Lavery, 2017
Role Modeling	Role Modeling as Collegial Support	Cross et al., 2011; de Villiers & Weda, 2018; Dunn, 2011; Fee, 2011; Miller, 2018
Acculturation	IT Acculturation Issues (*sub-themes*)	
	Behavioral and academic expectations of students	Bailey, 2013; Cross et al., 2011; Dunn, 2011; de Villiers & Weda, 2018; Fee, 2011; Vandeyar et al., 2014; Weda & de Villiers, 2019
	Shifts in pedagogical practices	Cross et al., 2011; Dunn, 2011; de Villiers & Weda, 2018; Fee, 2011; Vandeyar et al., 2014
	Understanding the host culture and the educational system	Dunn, 2011; Fee, 2011; Datta Roy & Lavery, 2017
	Feelings of marginalization	Cross et al., 2011; Dunn, 2011; de Villiers & Weda, 2018; Fee, 2011; Vandeyar et al., 2014
Principals and ITs	Principal Perspectives of ITs	Dunn, 2011; Vandeyar et al., 2014

A Need for IT Induction

Induction as a need for ITs was found as a theme in the literature. In four of the articles reviewed, ITs did not participate in any type of induction either from the recruiting agency prior to arriving in the host country or once they arrived at the school sites (Dunn, 2011; de Villiers & Weda, 2018; Miller, 2009; Datta Roy & Lavery, 2017). In one study, ITs did receive school district-level support and a mentor from the hiring agency; however, school district-level meetings were scheduled at times that conflicted with ITs' school schedule and visits from the hiring agency-appointed mentor were infrequent (Dunn, 2011). ITs may have benefitted from participating in an induction program. In three studies, ITs indicated that a comprehensive induction would have allowed them to receive professional learning as it related to the curricula, the educational system of the host country, and the culture of the school (de Villiers & Weda, 2018; Miller, 2009; Weda & de Villiers, 2019). Because they did not partake in an induction program, ITs perceived they were left to struggle. (Miller, 2009).

Role Modeling as Collegial Support

Role modeling appeared in the literature in terms of psychosocial support rather than through direct peer observation. In five of the research studies reviewed, ITs discussed collegial relationships and the impact of those relationships in helping or hindering their transition to the new academic setting (Cross et al., 2011; de Villiers & Weda, 2018; Dunn, 2011; Fee, 2011; Miller, 2018). ITs who built positive collegial relationships with their local school colleagues received support in sharing and developing lessons, managing the classroom, and navigating the new culture (Cross et al., 2011; Dunn, 2011). Other ITs received support from peer ITs who

had arrived earlier and, therefore, received more guidance from veteran ITs (Fee, 2011).

Other ITs, however, cited that they experienced negative relationships with their local school colleagues. In the negative relationships developed, ITs felt they did not have their local school colleagues' professional respect (Fee, 2011; Miller, 2018). Professional respect was accorded to ITs through student performance, once ITs' students were enrolled in their local school colleagues' classes (Fee, 2011). Other ITs expressed that they felt disconnected from their local school colleagues and articulated a need to develop collegial relationships (de Villiers & Weda, 2018). ITs indicated that professional learning on how to build collegial relationships might have been helpful in building positive collegial relationships (de Villiers & Weda, 2018).

IT Acculturation Issues

Behavioral and academic expectations of students. First, ITs experienced acculturative stress from a mismatch between their expectations regarding students' classroom and social behaviors as well as students' predispositions toward academics and the reality of student behaviors and academics (Bailey, 2013; Cross et al., 2011; de Villiers & Weda, 2018; Dunn, 2011; Fee, 2011; Vandeyar et al., 2014; Weda & de Villiers, 2019). For example, ITs expected students to be "obedient and disciplined" (Cross et al., 2011, p. 505) in ways similar to how students behaved in their home countries. Further, ITs were expected to moderate students' behavior rather than students moderating their own behavior. In one study, ITs expressed that parents expected them to teach their children how to behave (Fee, 2011). ITs also felt blamed for students' misbehavior (Bailey, 2013). Students' social behaviors also were a source of dissonance for ITs as

they witnessed their students exhibiting different social behaviors or situations from students in their home countries, such as dating, becoming pregnant, or engaging in drug use (Fee, 2011; Vandeyar et al., 2014). Finally, ITs expected to maintain a professional distance between themselves and the students. ITs did not expect for students to have an expectation of liking their teachers as part of the student-teacher relationship (Bailey 2013; de Villiers & Weda, 2018). Academically, students in the host nation were also different from the IT perspective. ITs perceived that students had a sense of entitlement and did not seem to value education as students did in their home countries (Bailey, 2013). Rather, students had to be persuaded as to the value of education (Bailey, 2013; Vandeyar et al., 2014). Moreover, ITs felt blamed for students' poor academic performance (Vandeyar et al., 2014).

Shifts in pedagogical practices. ITs also had to make pedagogical and instructional adjustments in the host country (Cross et al., 2011; Dunn, 2011; de Villiers & Weda, 2018; Fee, 2011; Vandeyar et al., 2014). ITs experienced a different pace of instruction, where instruction was expected to happen at a faster pace (Cross et al., 2011). Also, ITs had to adopt different approaches to instruction and abandon traditional pedagogical practices, such as lecturing, in favor of other pedagogical practices (Dunn, 2011; Fee, 2011; Vandeyar et al., 2014). Moreover, ITs engaged in more testing than they had in their home countries (Fee, 2011). In terms of student class grades, ITs in one study mentioned grading as an issue as they found grading to be more relaxed in the host country than it had been in their previous environment (Vandeyar et al., 2014). Lastly, ITs were not used to being given academic leeway to create lessons and adopt new pedagogical practices, another source of dissonance for ITs when they started teaching in the host country (Fee, 2011).

While ITs experienced dissonance as they adopted new pedagogical practices, ITs in two studies cited this as a positive experience (Miller, 2009; 2018). ITs in these studies indicated that being in a new environment allowed them to grow in their instructional practice. Specifically, ITs reported appreciating the continued professional learning made available to them in their schools (Miller, 2009). In addition to the professional learning offered, ITs specified that the frequent classroom observations and subsequent feedback helped them to grow in their pedagogical practice (Miller, 2009). Other ITs, however, did indicate frequent classroom observations as a source of stress. In one study, ITs stated that they were unaccustomed to not only the frequency of observations, but also to the number of people who observed them (Fee, 2011).

Understanding the host culture and the educational system. Throughout the studies, ITs experiences indicated a need to understand the host culture (Dunn, 2011; Fee, 2011; Datta Roy & Lavery, 2017), and how to navigate the educational structure (Fee, 2011; Datta Roy & Lavery, 2017). ITs had little to no knowledge of the culture of the host country prior to arriving (Dunn, 2011; Datta Roy & Lavery, 2017). Some ITs resorted to online resources, such as Wikipedia and YouTube, to address the knowledge gap and learn about the host country's culture (Dunn, 2011). When navigating the educational system, ITs did not possess an understanding of the system, creating obstacles as they attempted apply for teacher licensure in the host country (Fee, 2011; Datta Roy & Lavery, 2017). At the school level, ITs had to adjust to both political and cultural aspects of the schools, including understanding political factions among teachers (Fee, 2011).

Feelings of marginalization. ITs also experienced marginalization due to prejudice from local school colleagues, students, and sometimes the principals (Cross et al., 2011; Dunn, 2011; de Villiers & Weda, 2018; Fee, 2011; Vandeyar et al., 2014). Teachers cited their accents as a source of discrimination when they spoke the language of the host country (Cross et al., 2011; Dunn, 2011; de Villiers & Weda, 2018; Fee, 2011; Vandeyar et al., 2014). Furthermore, some ITs also indicated that their race was also a factor in the prejudice experienced (Cross et al., 2011). Other ITs stated that once they were identified as foreigners in the host country (for example, by last name), this also became a source of discrimination for them within the school (Vandeyar et al., 2014; Weda & de Villiers, 2019).

Principal Perspectives of ITs

While the preponderance of the literature analyzed focused on IT narratives, principal perspectives on ITs also appeared. In two of the articles reviewed, the principal perspectives on ITs were addressed explicitly, representing both positive and negative outlooks from principals (Dunn, 2011; Vandeyar et al., 2014). Principals who held positive viewpoints on ITs identified ITs' strong work ethic and contributions made to raising the standards (Vandeyar et al., 2014). In this study, students also corroborated the perceptions of principals. Conversely, principals in the study completed by Dunn (2011) did not perceive benefits to having ITs in their schools. Specifically, principals believed that IT issues (e.g., pedagogical issues and classroom management issues, among others) outweighed the benefits of ameliorating teacher shortages and possibly gaining highly qualified teachers with content expertise, which the school district had used to advocate for IT recruitment

(Dunn, 2011). Principals indicated that ITs needed further support and suggested continued professional learning, starting before ITs arrived in the host country, once in the host country, and throughout the school year (Dunn, 2011). Additionally, school district support and support from the recruitment agency were also identified by principals as issues which had contributed to IT outcomes (Dunn, 2011).

Discussion

A Need for an IT Induction Framework: Mentoring and Collegial Support

Findings from the literature indicated that ITs received little to no induction prior to arriving in the host country or once in the host country (Dunn, 2011; de Villiers & Weda, 2018; Miller, 2009; Datta Roy & Lavery, 2017). ITs indicated that the ability to participate in an induction program would have proven beneficial as they came to understand the host country's curricula, the educational system, and the school culture (de Villiers & Weda, 2018; Miller, 2009; Weda & de Villiers, 2019). Furthermore, ITs had mixed results in the ability to establish collegial relationships or psychosocial support, which either advanced or impeded their transitions within the new culture (Cross et al., 2011; de Villiers & Weda., 2018; Dunn, 2011; Fee, 2011). As the IT corps continues to grow, limited or partial induction practices (Miller, 2008) will need to give way to a comprehensive induction framework to ensure positive IT outcomes.

ITs and mentoring. To address IT induction needs, ITs need to participate in a comprehensive induction program in the same way as novice teachers with an emphasis on mentoring practices. Research on effective new teacher induction program practices identified

mentoring as a practice that contributed to novice teachers' classroom success (Bullough, 2012; Capizzi et al., 2010; Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond, 2017; Correa & Wagner, 2011; Darling-Hammond et al., 2009; Gordon & Lowrey, 2017; Kessels, 2010; Löfström & Eisenschmidt, 2009; Sun, 2012; Tillman, 2005). Furthermore, research from the field of expatriate management also suggested that mentoring or coaching is an effective practice for improving work outcomes for individuals working in a foreign country (Ramalu et al., 2012; Pekerti, Vuong, & Napier, 2017). For mentoring to be effective in advancing IT outcomes in schools, ITs need both formal mentoring (Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond, 2017) and informal mentoring (Gordon & Lowery, 2017; Correa & Wagner, 2011).

Formal mentoring needs to occur through assigned mentors who can support ITs' development through IT classroom observations and subsequent feedback to ITs, collaborative analysis of student data to identify student needs, discussing classroom issues, and working with ITs to determine IT professional learning needs (Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond, 2017). Mentoring practices for ITs should be undergirded by the understanding that ITs are likely content experts who need to gain an understanding of the curriculum and the educational system of the host country. IT outcomes also may be furthered if ITs have access to informal mentors, such as other colleagues, school leaders, school support staff and parents (Gordon & Lowrey, 2017). Through informal mentoring relationships, ITs may be able to gain a deeper understanding of the curriculum, the educational system, and the school culture from various points of view.

Formal mentors are pivotal in helping to facilitate IT growth as they gain fluency with the curriculum, educational system, and school culture. Therefore, careful attention needs to be given to mentor selection and preparation to support ITs (Bullough, 2012; Darling-Hammond et al., 2009; Kessels, 2010; Sun, 2012). While being an effective teacher is an important consideration when selecting mentors, IT mentors need additional skills and knowledge to support ITs (Bullough, 2012). Once selected, IT mentors need to be prepared to mentor ITs prior to beginning the IT mentoring process and while the IT mentoring is in progress. Mentor preparation should include strategies for relationship-building, effective classroom instruction, use of formative data to guide instruction, and collecting and analyzing student evidence based on curriculum standards (Sun, 2012). Additionally, IT mentors need to see themselves in a facilitative role as they guide ITs' reflections, so that ITs can become self-sustaining in the classroom (Kessels, 2010). As a result, ITs may not feel that they are left alone to struggle in the classroom (Miller, 2009). Lastly, IT mentors would benefit from professional learning on acculturation and cultural intelligence. IT mentors need to gain an understanding of the acculturation issues faced by ITs as ITs tackle the acculturation issues of maintaining their own culture and coming into contact with people from other cultures within the school and outside the school (Berry et al., 1989). Further, a focus on helping develop ITs' cultural intelligence may prove beneficial in lessening acculturation stressors and lead to improvements in social and work-related adjustments (Sambasivan et al., 2017).

ITs, collegial support, and role modeling. ITs indicated that relationships with their colleagues either advanced or hindered their transitions to a new academic environment (Cross et al., 2011; de Villiers, 2018; Dunn, 2011; Fee, 2011; Miller, 2018). ITs who

established positive collegial relationships received support as it related to academics, student behavior, and understanding the new culture (Cross et al., 2011; Dunn, 2011). ITs who had negative collegial relationships experienced a lack of professional respect (Fee, 2011; Miller, 2018) or a sense of disconnection from their colleagues in their schools (de Villiers & Weda, 2018). Given the importance ITs ascribed to collegial relationships, it may be that these relationships served as indirect role modeling experiences for ITs (Warhurst, 2011).

Social cognitive theory as explained by Bandura (Grusec, 1992) is a lens to use in comprehending the manner in which collegial relationships served as indirect role modeling experiences for ITs. Within this experience, ITs were exposed to unconscious behaviors (Cruess et al., 2008; Warhurst, 2011) exhibited by local school colleagues related to lesson development, classroom management, and understanding the culture. Through various interactions with local school colleagues, it may be that ITs connected a value to the observed actions within the interaction, which then allowed ITs to form a model (Grusec, 1992). This model became a frame of reference to inform IT instructional practices.

In addition to the indirect modeling component, positive collegial relationships increased ITs' sense of connectedness and belonging, contributing to IT psychosocial support structures (Allen et al., 2004). Collegial relationships are a recognized component of novice teacher success (Le Cornu, 2013; Weimer, 2019; Yusko & Feiman-Nemser, 2008). The ability for ITs to be able to access local school colleague networks to adopt instructional strategies and share instructional strategies may add to ITs' sense of self-efficacy as they make contributions in their new environment (Le Cornu, 2013). ITs, therefore, need support to help them access local school colleague

networks to eliminate or lessen perceptions of professional disrespect or disconnection (Fee, 2011; Miller, 2018; de Villiers & Weda, 2018). By engaging in local school colleague networks, IT outcomes may be improved as ITs add local school colleagues to their support network (Farh et al., 2010). Finally, support from both veteran IT and other recently arrived IT peers may also prove to be beneficial, both personally and professionally, as they discuss problems and create solutions (Le Cornu, 2013). The support can be face-to-face (Fee, 2011) or could be accessed through online technologies, such as blogs, where ITs can access additional supportive structures (Nardon, Aten, & Gulanowski, 2015).

Assisting ITs in Navigating Acculturation Issues

In the review of the literature, ITs identified various acculturation issues which were grouped into the themes of behavioral and academic expectations of students; shifts in pedagogical practices; understanding the host culture and the educational system; and feelings of marginalization (Bailey, 2013; Cross et al., 2011; de Villiers & Weda, 2018; Dunn, 2011; Fee, 2011; Miller, 2009, 2018; Datta Roy & Lavery, 2017; Vandeyar et al., 2014; Weda & de Villiers, 2019). An initial step in assisting ITs in navigating acculturation issues is to develop an understanding of the acculturation process and the issues inherent in the acculturation process. First, schools receiving ITs should possess an understanding of the acculturation attitudes of assimilation, integration, separation, and marginalization (Berry et al., 1989). Moreover, an understanding that ITs are facing acculturation issues both personally and professionally should also be emphasized (Gonzalez-Loureiro et al., 2015) to contextualize the IT experience. Lastly, because ITs will gravitate toward an acculturation attitude or be forced into one, as is

the case with marginalization, receiving schools should understand that each of these attitudes is accompanied by acculturative stress (Berry, 2005; Sam, 2015). ITs who are able to adopt an integration acculturation attitude will experience less stress, while those who are marginalized will experience the most.

Research on cultural intelligence development may prove beneficial in helping ITs navigate acculturation issues. Cultivating cultural intelligence may allow ITs to operate and mediate effectively in culturally diverse schools (Ang et al., 2007). Cultural intelligence development should occur prior to ITs entering the host country and should be directly related to the culture of the host country (Guðmundsdóttir, 2015). For example, if an IT will be teaching in the United States, then he or she should be exposed to differences in student behavior, academic expectations, and the pedagogical practices of American schools prior to arriving and once in the United States. Developing ITs' cultural intelligence may reduce the acculturative stress ITs experience as they encounter differences in perceived student social and school behaviors, perceived student academic dispositions, and are asked to make shifts in pedagogical practices from those they experienced in their home countries.

Mentoring and role modeling are also components of developing ITs' cultural intelligence. Through mentoring structures, ITs can continue to develop cultural intelligence and cross-cultural adjustment, contributing to enhanced work outcomes (Ramalu et al., 2012). Mentors can also help ITs by adding them to their local school networks, enhancing ITs' sense of belonging to the group (Pekerti et al., 2017). Additionally, mentors can also model cognitive processes related to specific tasks, including "cultural knowledge and appropriate and inappropriate behaviors" within a school (Pekerti et

al., 2017, p. 244). Lastly, the cultural intelligence of school faculty, students, and staff may also need to be developed to advance IT outcomes and may aid in ITs' cross-cultural adjustment. Some ITs experiences indicated that once they were identified as foreigners due to their accents or last names this led to discriminatory behaviors (Cross et al., 2011; Dunn, 2011; de Villiers & Weda, 2018; Fee, 2011; Vandeyar et al., 2014). Developing teachers', students', and school leaders' cultural intelligence may help to reduce marginalization experienced by ITs.

School Administrators and ITs

Principal perspectives found in the literature represented both negative and positive perceptions of having ITs in schools (Dunn, 2011; Vandeyar et al., 2014). Each perspective presented in the literature further delineates the need for mentoring, role modeling, and an acculturation orientation to be established by principals to support ITs. Ultimately, principals and other school administrators are responsible for creating collaborative school cultures where ITs and other teachers can grow in their instructional practice (Brücknerová & Novotný, 2019; Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond, 2017; Correa & Wagner, 2011; Gordon & Lowrey, 2017; Haiyan, et al., 2017; Ingersoll, 2012; Löfström & Eisenschmidt, 2009; Pogodzinski, 2015; Youngs, 2007). Therefore, school administrators need to give careful consideration to ITs' holistic development within the context of the school environment and acculturation needs.

In the review of the literature, principals in one study indicated that the pedagogical and classroom behavioral issues negated the benefits of having ITs in their schools (Dunn, 2011). Principals acknowledged that pre-service and ongoing professional learning were options to help ITs be more effective. One principal went

further, stating that ITs should be treated in a similar manner to pre-service teachers completing an internship (Dunn, 2011). This particular principal perspective clearly elucidates the need for principals to involve themselves in the mentoring, role modeling, and acculturation of ITs, much in the same way as they should with novice teachers to ensure positive IT outcomes (Gordon & Lowery, 2017; Youngs, 2007). To be effective, however, principals and other school administrators also need professional learning on effective induction practices (i.e., mentoring and role modeling) and how to establish them within their schools for ITs and novice teachers alike (Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond, 2017). In addition to the focus on establishing effective induction practices, professional learning also could include instruction in acculturation (Berry et al., 1989; Berry, 2005) and cultural intelligence development (Pekerti et al., 2017; Ramalu et al., 2012). Professional learning in acculturation and cultural intelligence may help school administrators as they engage in the initial stages of induction practices by establishing and attending IT orientation, pairing ITs with mentors (Correa & Wagner, 2011; Pogodzinski, 2015), and throughout the mentoring process during the school year (Ingersol1, 2012; Tillman, 2005). Furthermore, by reducing the acculturation issues experienced by ITs through mentoring, role modeling, and other induction practices, school administrators could also further IT contributions their schools.

Additionally, principals expressed that ITs did make positive contributions to their schools due to a strong work ethic and by raising school standards (Vandeyar et al., 2014). School administrators, therefore, could enlist ITs and their mentors in school improvement efforts. Identifying IT content expertise and coupling it with coaching, mentoring, feedback, and professional learning could lead to enhanced student outcomes (Lynch et al., 2016). ITs valued

professional learning they were given, concluding that it helped them to grow in their instructional practice (Miller, 2009; 2018). IT mentors could be instrumental in this process as they work with school administrators to identify IT pedagogical needs, provide support in the development of pedagogy, and select local school colleagues who could role model the pedagogy directly through classroom observations (Hunzicker et al., 2017). Central to this effort is how school administrators share responsibilities for IT induction with mentors (Youngs, 2007) and build a positive teacher learning culture, where an open and supportive school climate is present and learning is considered an essential professional component of being a teacher (Haiyan et al., 2017).

Conclusion

As the teacher shortages fluctuate in countries around the world, school systems may recruit ITs to help ameliorate teacher vacancies. Based on the review of the literature, ITs need comprehensive support in the form of mentoring and role modeling, which takes into account the unique acculturation needs of ITs to ensure their success. School administrators are positioned to provide such supports, if they attend to IT needs by creating logistical structures and a school culture of collaboration that supports all teachers, including ITs. The IT narratives contained within the literature provide a place for school administrators to begin to address IT needs. There is a need, however, for researchers to further study the specific actions taken and perceptions held by school administrators in relation ITs to further develop school administrators' IT supervisory capacity within an acculturation

orientation. The success of ITs is vital to schools that rely on them to contribute to positive student outcomes.

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