Effective Mentoring Programs: a Guide to Developing Successful Programs

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EFFECTIVE MENTORING PROGRAMS:
A GUIDE TO DEVELOPING SUCCESSFUL PROGRAMS

by

Casey Cutter

A Research Project Presented in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Education

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ABSTRACT

Effective Mentoring Programs: A Guide to Developing Successful Programs

The following research project addressed the current state of the educational community and focused on mentor programs and how they can help reduce attrition and provide adequate support for beginning teachers. The research addressed the challenges first year teachers face; the author discussed mentor programs as an ideal support mechanism for beginning teachers. The author used a guidebook format to summarize research and present a resource that can be used to develop and implement new mentor programs. The guidebook did not encompass all methods to developing a mentor program, however, it included the main components needed to develop a purposeful program.
TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter | Page
--- | ---
1. INTRODUCTION | 1
Statement of the Problem | 1
Purpose of the Project | 2
Chapter Summary | 2
2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE | 4
The Current State of Teaching | 4
The New Look First Year Teacher | 6
First Year Teacher Struggles | 6
How Can our Nation Address these Problems? | 9
What is a Mentor? | 10
History of Mentor Programs | 10
The Role of the Mentor | 11
Functions of the Mentor | 12
Stages | 15
Using Existing Support | 16
Mentor Selection Process | 17
Mentor and Protégé Matching | 19
Mentor and Protégé Training | 20
Mentor/Protégé Relationship | 21
Time Devoted to Mentoring | 23
Confidentiality | 25
Incentives | 25
Evaluating Programs | 26
Chapter Summary | 27
1. METHOD | 28
Target Audience | 28
Goals and Procedures | 28
Assessment | 29
Chapter Summary | 29
2. RESULTS | 30
Introduction | 31
The Present State of the Educational World | 32
Retention Problems | 33
What Does the New First Year Teacher Look Like? | 35
The Struggles of the First Year Teacher | 36
What’s it Like? | 36
Why the Frustration and Retention Problems? ........................................... 37
So What Can the Educational Leaders Do? ........................................... 40
History of Mentoring ........................................................................... 41
Mentor Programs ................................................................................. 42
Where Does a District Start? .............................................................. 42
What is Mentoring? ............................................................................ 42
The Role of the Mentor ...................................................................... 44
Additional Roles of the Mentor ......................................................... 44
The Functions of the Mentor .............................................................. 45
Professional Support Functions ......................................................... 46
Technical Support Functions ............................................................. 47
Personal Support Functions ............................................................... 48
Do Not Duplicate Existing Support Systems ..................................... 51
Selecting Appropriate Mentors .......................................................... 52
What Qualities Should a Mentor Have? ............................................ 53
What to Look For? ............................................................................. 53
What Now? ....................................................................................... 54
Training .............................................................................................. 56
Why is Training Needed? ................................................................. 56
Who Should Supervise the Program? ................................................ 57
What Should the Training Address? .................................................. 58
Training Topics .................................................................................. 58
The Importance of Mentor/Protégé Relationships............................. 59
How Much Time Should Be Committed to Mentor Programs? ....... 61
Time Spent Together ........................................................................ 61
Difficulties in Finding Time .............................................................. 62
Part Time or Full Time? ..................................................................... 62
How Can a District Help Create Time? ............................................. 63
Confidentiality ................................................................................... 64
How Should a District Reward Mentors? ........................................... 65
Examples of Incentives ..................................................................... 65
The Argument Against Pay Incentives .............................................. 66
Assessment and Evaluation of Programs .......................................... 66
Conclusion ........................................................................................ 67

3. DISCUSSION .................................................................................... 69
Reviewer Background ........................................................................ 70
Results ............................................................................................... 70
Limitations of the Project ................................................................. 72
Future Study ...................................................................................... 72
Chapter Summary ............................................................................ 73
REFERENCES .................................................................................................75

APPENDIX A ...................................................................................................78
Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

The interest in the subject of mentor programs has grown since the 1970s (Frutwengler, 1993, as cited in Freiberg et al, 1994). Mentor programs have tripled in the last twenty five years (Darling-Hammond & Sclan, 1996, as cited in Ganser, 2001). These programs have provided schools nationwide an effective way to address teacher attrition and the first year challenges most novice teachers face. Many scholars support the idea of mentoring and trust that effective mentor programs can take schools to entirely new heights (Andrews, 2005; Cho, 2002; Easley, 2000; Ganser, 1995, 2001, 2002; Hancock & Kilburg, 2003; Keane & Moore, 2001; NFIE, 1999; Renard, 2003; Sheeler, 1996; Wilder, 1992; Williams, 2001).

Statement of the Problem

Recent studies have confirmed that attrition is an issue in the field of education. The Natural Center for Education Statistics (1995, as cited in NFIE, 1999) reports that 9.3% of first year teachers leave the profession after only one year. The same report confirms that 11.1% of the first year teachers leave their jobs for another district or teaching opportunity. These studies have shown that attrition rates are rising with first year teachers, a second problem has surfaced with the expected number of retirees increasing within the next ten years. This expected turnover poses a problem with the estimated two million new teachers entering the profession within the next decade. How
can we successfully support and develop our new teachers while also reducing teacher attrition rates?

Mentor programs have been one of the most popular approaches to this problem through the history of schools (Carter & Francis, 2000; Feiman-Nemse, 1996; Huling and Resta, 2001; all cited in Cho, 2002). The dilemma is not that schools are failing to adopt mentor programs. In reality, over half of the nation’s states have implemented state mandated programs for entry level teachers (1999, as cited in Feiman-Nemser, 1998). The issue instead lies in what seemingly are faulty programs, programs that are poorly developed and ineffective.

Purpose of the Project

The purpose of the project was to formulate a handbook in order to support administrators and districts in implementing an effective mentoring program or to improve an existing program. The purpose of this program focused on reducing attrition and strengthening skills and abilities of beginning teachers. The handbook addressed what were considered to be the most important factors in developing an effective mentoring program. The key topics inform school administrators of the most pressing issues, and provided are approaches that will support the implementation and maintenance of successful programs.

Chapter Summary

The biggest issue that schools today face is teacher attrition. This is an issue that cannot be ignored. Schools nationwide must act quickly with support programs
that are proven to successfully combat the issue of attrition. Designing an effective mentoring program is the most successful way. Effective mentor programs are proven to benefit all members of a school community. Chapter 2 reviewed research that addresses issues most relevant to mentor programs today
Chapter 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

As mentioned earlier, the purpose of the project was to develop a handbook that provided guidelines and important questions to consider when developing a new mentor program or improving an existing program. The handbook focused mainly on that point of view of a principal or a district. This focus did not discount the relevancy of the research for a current teacher or beginning teacher. The handbook might have contributed in helping beginning teachers to become aware of the challenges which first year teachers face on a daily basis. It may also have helped these teachers to become more aware of what to expect from mentor programs giving them a sense of empowerment to ask potential employers about their mentor programs.

The Current State of Teaching

Much of the recent literature on the state of education points to the reality that we are facing a shortage of qualified teachers. A Pittsburgh area principal by the name of Bernard Taylor (1999, as quoted in Easley, 2000) explains that there is a “lack of qualified candidates, even among the large number of board approved applicants” (p. 4). Tom Ganser (2002), a mentor specialist, attributed this shortage to three main reasons. One of the reasons for this reality was that a large wave of teachers were considering retirement. A sizeable portion of the teachers that came into the profession in the 1960s and 1970s are leaving the profession. The second reason stemmed from the increase in enrollment expected in most schools nationwide. Jacob Easley cited a Chase study (1998, as cited in Easley, 2000) that predicted school enrollments to be around 54.3 million for the current year of 2007. Bob Chase (1998, as cited in Easley, 2000)
projected that, according to the statistics, we will need around two million new teachers during the next decade. The third reason that Ganser (2002) supported was the current “state and national incentives to reduce class size”. Easley (2000) claimed that a “myriad of more attractive high paying jobs” (p. 5) will lure teachers out of the profession in the future. Some districts seemingly are committed to becoming more competitive in terms of pay, offering bonuses for signing on.

A Columbia University Teachers College Study (1997, as cited in Keane Mills & Moore, 2001) attributes the problem of teacher shortage to a large increase in teacher attrition; teacher shortage is not due to the lack of people entering the profession. According to the Natural Center for Education Statistics (NCES) (1995, as cited in NFIE, 1999) 9.3% of first year teachers leave the profession after only one year. This same organization (1995, as cited in NFIE, 1999) recorded that another 11.1% leave for another district or teaching opportunity during the first year as well. A related report from NCES (1995, as cited in Easley, 2000) confirmed the private sector experienced twelve percent attrition rates and seven percent for the public area in the years of 1993 to 1995. Bob Chase (1998, as cited in Easley, 2000) reported that twenty percent of first year teachers leave the profession after only their first year. A Jambor and Patterson report (1997, Keane et al., 2001) maintained a forty percent attrition rate for new teachers within the first seven years. Halford noted that thirty percent of teachers leaving after the first five years (1999, as cited in Easley, 2000). Attrition has reached an all time low in
some urban districts where Bob Chase (1998, as cited in Easley, 2000) reported schools are losing fifty percent of their first year teachers.

The New Look First Year Teacher

A number of research studies suggested that the first year teacher looks completely different than in the past. Ganser (2002) claims “that a far wider range of routes into teaching exist than was true just ten or fifteen years ago, when most teachers were prepared in a four year baccalaureate degree program” (p. 3). There are various non-traditional programs that allow for many new types of candidates. Ganser also argued that there was an evolving change in the characteristics of first year teachers. The typical teacher was once determined to spend his or her whole career in education; the contemporary represents teacher candidates who are changing careers and interested in spending less time in the teaching profession. This new look teacher may cause school administrators to take a fresh look at approaching the first year teacher.

First Year Teacher Struggles

Research supported that the first year of a beginning teacher’s career is one of the most challenging of their years. DaeYeon Cho (2002) believed that the transition from college student to a teacher is a “tremendously drastic change” (p. 4). Veerman (1984, as cited in Hancock & Kilburg, 2003) claimed that the first year can be a “transitional shock to new teachers” (p. 3). Kenneth Wilson (1999, as cited in NFIE, 1999), a Nobel-laureate physicist at The Ohio State University and a member of the NFIE’s board of directors, posed an analogy to explain the feeling of first year teaching:
imagine you aspire to be a mountaineer. You have a new pair of boots, a tent, a backpack, and endless enthusiasm, but you have never so much as climbed above the tree line. You have been dropped off at the base of Everest and told to get to the top or quit. If you don’t make it, your enthusiasm disappears, and you seek ways to avoid similar challenges in the future (p. 3).

Seemingly this is the feeling that many beginning teachers experience when starting their first school year. Some students interviewed by Ganser (1999) even compared it to climbing a cloud covered mountain with limited vision, knowing little about the elevation of the mountain. Others interviewed (1999) compared it to “a journey for which there is no map to guide you” (p. 6).

The difficulties of this transition clarified for DaeYeon Cho (2002) that novice teachers experience “stress, anxiety, frustration, and isolation both in the classroom and in their personal lives” (p. 5). Easley (2000) showed the struggles of the new teacher were usually linked to “discomfort, frustration, and lack of commitment” (p. 6). Barth (1990, as cited in Easley, 2000) studied the feelings of one suburban high school’s faculty on the subject of first year teaching and found that beginning teachers felt: a) A sense of discomfort and malaise b) A low sense of trust toward the administration, the public, and even themselves c) Separation from one another d) A feeling of helplessness and being trapped in their jobs and powerless to effect change e) A sense of frustration at the “nonteaching” demands placed upon them (p. 6).

Jambor and Patterson (1997, Keane et al., 2001) attributed high attrition rates to student discipline problems, lack of support from coworkers, the beginning teacher’s
deficiency in planning lessons, few resources and even just the basic difficulties of adjusting their lives to the lifestyle of teaching (p. 124). Lisa Renard (2003) found that teachers were feeling a sense of frustration due to the overwhelming expectations of their school administrators. One novice teacher interviewed was expected to sit on four different committees, attend department and faculty meetings and professional development activities and take charge of the school’s academic team. Some literature displayed evidence of these unfair expectations held for beginning teachers everywhere (Renard, 2003; Easley, 2000; Cho, 2002; Williams, 2001; Kilburg, Hancock, 2003). Bob Chase (1998, as cited in Easley, 2000) explained that, “Teaching is the only profession that expects its novices to fly solo” (p. 7).

Renard (2003) believed that teachers don’t learn the necessary skills through books or university educational experiences but through the process of trial and error. She contended that most beginning teachers are learning the material for their subject areas or grade levels and are only one step ahead of their students. Huberman (1989, as cited in Renard, 2003) goes on to express his thoughts by saying:

we expect brand new, just-out-of-the-wrapper teachers to assume the same responsibilities and duties as our most seasoned professionals, and we expect them to carry out those duties with the same level of expertise and within the same time constraints. We hold new teachers accountable for skills that they don’t yet have and that they can only gain through experience (p. 63).

Allen (2000, as cited in Renard, 2003) asserts that “new teachers are not finished products, and expecting them to perform all of the duties that we expect of seasoned
professionals is unrealistic” (p. 63). Halford (1998, as cited in Renard, 2003) noted that “Teaching remains the profession that eats its young” (p. 63).

Research by Scherer (1999, as cited in Cho, 2002) supported that employees are most successful when they feel satisfaction with themselves and with their jobs. This cannot be attained when novice teachers are experiencing overwhelming feelings of frustration. Scherer (1999, as cited in Cho, 2002) showed that potential consequences to these feelings to be that many new teachers become indifferent to teaching. This indifference can result in the loss of extremely qualified teachers and the loss of millions of dollars to school districts. In a California school district, Easley (2002) showed that the district reduced the dropout rate of new teachers and saved immeasurable dollars on recruitment and rehiring by creating successful support programs.

How Can our Nation Address these Problems?

Teacher attrition and a lack of qualified candidates impair our nation financially; they may also damage the quality of education in our schools. A variety of research (Darling Hammond, 1997, 2000; Moir, 2001; Scherer, 2001; Weiss, 1999; all cited in Andrews & Quinn, 2005) provided support in regard to mentoring programs and their effect on teacher attrition and the lack of support felt by beginning teachers. Consider the analogy that Kenneth Wilson (1999, as cited in NFIE, 1999) provided about mountaineering. According to Wilson, mentoring is like climbing Everest by “taking a practice run with somebody who has lots of experience and the ability to share it” (p. 3). Mentoring is also seen as one of the most popular ways to support and retain new

What is a Mentor?

What makes a mentor? Scholars have defined a mentor in numerous ways. Haney (1997, as cited in Cho, 2002) defined mentoring as “a learning process between an experienced and less experienced person in which the mentor provides guidance, advice, support and feedback to the novices” (p. 5). Georgia Archibald (1999, as cited in NFIE, 1999) defined mentoring as “a process that opens the doors to the school community and helps new faculty find the wisdom of all the teachers in the building” (p. 4). Lynette Henley (1999, as cited in NFIE, 1999) explained mentoring as “going next door to that new person and saying ‘What can I do for you?’” (p. 4). A leading mentor specialist Tom Ganser (2001) explicated that mentoring programs are created to “offset beginning teaching as a disheartening ‘sink or swim’ experience that serves neither new teachers nor their students” (p. 3). Mentors are teachers who provide leadership and guidance to new teachers (Sheeler, 1996). Logue (1999, as cited in NFIE, 1999) summarized the definition of mentoring by saying that “mentoring is a mechanism to articulate and share the genius of teaching” (p. 4).

History of Mentor Programs

Mentoring is not a new idea to the field of education. Mentoring programs have been in existence since the early 1970s for beginning teachers (Frutwengler, 1993, as cited in Freiberg et al, 1994). Mentoring programs have tripled within the past 25 years.
The interest in mentoring programs is clearly supported by the amount of literature that has focused on the idea of mentoring. Many have claimed that such programs have become an international phenomenon (Moscowitz & & Stephens, 1997, as cited in Ganser, 2001). Some of these programs have been university based while others have been supported by school districts or specific schools. In fact, in a 1999 report by Nemser (1999, as cited in NFIE, 1999), it was discovered that more than half the states required mentoring programs for entry level teachers.

The Role of the Mentor

From scholar to school and from school to district, there are differing opinions regarding what a mentor’s role should look like. However, most researchers agreed on the importance of identifying these expectations and relaying them to the district, school, administrators and the mentor and protégé who were participating in the program.

Some districts such as a Columbus, Ohio district (Wilder, 1992), explained the mentor’s role in the simplest of terms, maintaining the belief that the role of a mentor is to help the new teacher in becoming the most effective teacher.

While interviewing mentors of an urban district, researchers (Freiberg et al, 1994) found that mentors saw themselves in five main roles. These roles were counselor, resource person, helper, mediator and model. Most mentors predominantly cited the role of counselor as their main role. One of the most important pieces of being a mentor was “working with beginning teachers, giving them encouragement, listening to their
frustrations and overall helping them” (Freiberg et al, 1994, p.14). During this same interview mentors explained their role as a resource person by saying that they were continually supplying materials and handouts to support the novice teachers. The role of helper was seen in the way that they helped out the beginning teachers by assisting in classes and helping troubled students with concepts. The role of mediator was an extension of the counselor role; the mentor generally helped reduce the stress load and uncertainty for the new teacher. Finally, the mentor assumed the role of a model by giving demonstration lessons and providing the novice teacher with lesson examples. Kristina Sheeler (1996) explained the role of mentors by saying that they were coaches, counselors, role models, cheerleaders, facilitators and resources. Keene and fellow researchers (Keane et al, 2001) reported that school districts in Oakland County, Michigan school districts described the mentor’s role as trainer, coach, model and as a source or encouragement and acceptance.

Functions and Focus Areas of the Mentor

Gita Wilder (1992) reviewed the current state of mentor programs in several districts and focused specifically on the functions of a mentor. Wilder explained that the greatest differences were seen in the structure of the programs. Mentor functions differed in the following ways: a) Length of the teacher’s tenure as mentor b) Whether the mentor was rewarded beyond his/her usual teaching for serving the role c) Whether the mentor served full or part time d) Whether the mentor was in the same building, taught the same subject, or taught in the same grade e) Whether the responsibilities of the mentor were
related to evaluating the protégé (p. 20). These functions seemingly address more of what the mentor’s involvement should be (Wilder, 1992). One Korean study (Cho, 2002) found that mentoring programs were most successful when the mentors had a role in designing the functions of the program and discussing expectations of the mentor.

Tom Ganser (2001) believes it is important to consider whether the mentor serves solely as a mentor or if the role is just part time. Many districts have the mentor serve in a part time position while still performing the majority of their teaching duties. Some larger urban districts designed their programs to have full time mentors (Ganser, Marchione & Feischmann, 1999, as cited in Ganser, 2001). Occasionally these mentors were associated with colleges or universities (e.g Omaha Public Schools, as cited in Ganser, 2001).

An Oakland County school district representative (Keane et al, 2001) explained the mentor functions as “taking time to listen, helping the protégé build relationships with other faculty members, modeling teaching techniques, sharing classroom management ideas, and nondirectively sharing the wisdom developed through experience” (p. 125). Odell (1991, as cited in Tauer, 1996) felt that guidance and providing assistance with urgent problems was the most important function of a mentor. Perry (1970, as cited in Williams, 2001) described the purposes of a mentor by saying:

Constructivist mentors encourage and accept the beginning teacher’s autonomy and initiative; allow responses to drive learning; shift instructional strategies, and alter content; inquire about understanding of concepts before sharing their own understanding of those concepts; encourage engagement in dialogue, foster inquiry by asking thoughtful, open-ended questions, seek elaboration of the
novice’s initial responses, engage the novice teacher in experiences that might engender contradictions to their initial hypotheses and then encourage discussion; provide time for construction of relationships and nurture the novice’s natural curiosity (p.13).

A qualitative survey by Wilder (1992) found that most mentor functions fit into the three areas of professional support, technical support and personal support.

Freiberg’s qualitative study (1994) further addressed this issue and found the functions that were most important to both mentors and protégés. The five functions that the novice teachers cited as important were support, encouragement, someone to listen to, someone to help provide ideas and resources and someone to provide information about school policies and procedures. The mentor teachers listed modeling and mentor direct involvement as the most important issues. Overall the report expressed the consensus that a mentor teacher was a person who “provided feedback on teaching performance and classroom management, demonstrated a model to follow, served as a guide through mounds of paperwork and even gave assurance that all teachers have the same fears and problems” (p. 21). Another study in 2005 (Andrews & Quinn, 2005) designed and administered a questionnaire of first year teachers finding that emotional support and support with policies and procedures were the most important areas of need. Yet another study carried out in 2005 (Andrews & Quinn, 2005) with four school districts confirmed that emotional support from someone who cares and supports the new teacher was the most basic need of protégés.
Cho (2002) conducted research in order to find the most important functions of both mentors and protégés. The researcher found that both mentors and protégés have higher needs for classroom issues than outside classroom issues. New teachers listed support related to teaching activities as the most important, where mentors listed classroom managerial activities as the most important. As for outside classroom issues, new teachers expressed the greatest concern with learning information about school contexts and becoming more familiar with the tasks their mentors had given them. Mentors felt that teaching novice teachers how to develop great relationships in and around the school was the most important function related to being outside the classroom.

A Klausmeier study (1994, as cited in Sheeler, 1996) stated that a new teacher’s greatest areas of need are in: a) teaching style b) instructional strategy c) classroom management methods d) time management (p. 7). One successful mentoring program in California (DiGeronimo, 1993, as cited in Sheeler, 1996) listed the expected duties of mentors as: “providing support in difficult and great times, answering questions on anything school related, providing guidance with lesson planning, teaching and discipline, assisting in developing homework and test writing strategies, consulting whenever needed, advising teachers with their parent, student, administrative relationships and keeping the teachers aware of deadlines” (p. 8).

Stages

A first year teacher goes through many different learning stages in their first year. The functions of a mentor change with these various learning stages. Wilder (1992)
showed evidence in existing programs that most teachers need guidance in classroom management and the everyday details of preparing a classroom at the start of the year in the beginning stage. She further explained that, as the year progresses, the focus evolved to more material-specific issues such as report cards and parent teacher conferences. The last stage shifts to the need for the new teacher to reflect with the mentor about their experiences and learning. A recent symposium (NFIE, 1999) relayed similar results from mentor program specialists. Ganser (1999) believed that a new teacher goes through three stages. The first stage focuses on practical skills and information, while the second focuses on classroom management and the art of teaching. Finally, the third stage focuses on professional development and a “deeper understanding of instructional strategies” (p. 14). Ganser also mentioned that the needs of first year teachers cannot be generalized, as each teacher is different. He believed that needs of beginning teachers will never be static. A Wildman, Magliaro, Niles and Niles study (1992, as cited in Sheeler, 1996) argued the importance of tailoring the mentors’ functions specifically to the needs of first year teachers. The needs of first year teachers fluctuate depending on the needs and cultures of the community in which the school is located (Ganser, 1999). Some districts even stress the significance of having teachers and mentors meet about their specific needs and expectations of each other (Ganser, 1995).

Using Existing Support

Ganser (2002) believed that duplicating existing support when creating a mentor program is detrimental to the success of the program. It has been suggested that, at times,
Mentor programs have a tendency to ignore support systems that are already in place (Ganser, 2002). One of the leading proponents for using existing support is Tom Ganser. Ganser (2001) felt that this was extremely crucial and believed that a “New Teacher Support Audit” should always be performed. There are three steps involved in this audit. The first step involves finding what support or support programs exist within the school or district. The second step focuses on discovering what people or programs exist outside of the school for novice teachers. The final step conducts a study relative to determining how a mentor program would help the existing programs and support groups (Ganser, 2001). Ganser believed that “shifting responsibilities” helps no one.

Mentor Selection Process

It is safe to say that all educators support the careful selection of mentors. In one of the largest teacher induction programs ever created in the country, a New York program handpicked veterans using their experience and character traits (Keller, 2006). In a Chicago qualitative school district study (Freiberg et al, 1994), most schools admitted “setting extremely high standards for mentor teachers”, using a “rigorous selection process they felt was as consistent, unbiased, and as nonpolitical as possible” (p. 19). A successful program facilitator identifies the characteristics that make a good mentor and finds candidates that match these characteristics.

Tom Ganser (1999) told a story at a recent symposium that summarized how one should not select a mentor:
I can remember a teacher telling me this story. He was outside in early August painting a white fence, like Tom Sawyer. His principal, driving past in a car, stopped and said, ‘We’re hiring a new teacher this year. Would you like to be his mentor?’ (p. 9).

Most believe that more thought should be put into the selection process. A nationwide survey found that most school administrators preferred mentors who can demonstrate a high degree of skills as a classroom teacher (Wilder, 1992; NFIE, 1999). This same study found that mentors usually had to have some experience as a teacher (one to seven years) and some even had to have advanced degrees. A symposium presenter (Sheeler, 1996) in San Diego, California came to the conclusion that a mentor should have at least five years of teaching experience and notable evaluations from their colleagues.

Another study (Wilder, 1992) of American school districts noted that most sites had selected criteria for choosing mentors. Most faculty describe an ideal mentor as someone who is very well respected by colleagues and having the confidence to provide advice to other adults (NFIE, 1999). The teacher symposium (NFIE, 1999) provided four general categories used to select a mentor teacher: “attitude and character, professional competence and experience, communication skills and interpersonal skills” (p. 10).

Wilder’s 1992 study noted that districts complained of a lack of quality candidates and were worried that the best people were not applying for mentor positions. Wilder contended (1992) that this a serious cause for concern for most districts.
Mentor and Protégé Matching

Matching mentors and protégés is an important issue when developing and maintaining mentor programs. Critics in Oakland County, Michigan believe that one of the most significant keys to a successful program is finding the “best fit” between the personalities, needs, and talents of mentors and protégés (Keane et al, 2001). In a study of mentors by Susan Tauer (1996), the success of a mentor relationship was attributed to the similarities in teaching styles, personalities, and even curricula. In a Parkay study (1988, as cited in Williams, 2001) it was noted that matching teaching styles and ideologies translated to a successful mentor experience for all.

Ganser (1995) supported the notion that success of the mentoring relationship is dependent on how carefully the mentor and protégé are matched. He asserted that the most important factors to matching teachers and mentors are the proximity of classrooms and teaching ideology and gender. Ganser also supported that there was no “fool-proof recipe” to finding the right match. Appropriate pairing of mentors and protégés will likely “prevent problems down the line” (p. 11). Kilburg and Hancock (2003) recommended the following criteria be considered when pairing mentors and protégés: grade level, subject area, similar interests in and outlooks on teaching, location, and trying to avoid pairing the novice teacher with a person who is responsible for evaluations of staff (p. 3-4).

A 1999 symposium (NFIE) produced results that matching new teachers with several different teachers may prove to be an effective approach. This strategy equally
distributed the task of mentoring to a large group of mentors thus reducing the time commitment for mentors. It was suggested that this approach might decrease the pressure of creating the “perfect mentor” match.

Mentor and Protégé Training

Effective mentors are developed over time and through effective training programs (Keane et al, 2001). Such training can support the mentor in preparing for the emotional and practical aspects of mentoring. Ganser (2001) believed that mentoring was a completely different role than teaching; we cannot assume that being an effective teacher automatically makes one an effective mentor.

Training programs were very common in states with mentor programs (Wilder, 1992). Some states even had teacher organizations perform the training. Other states received assistance from colleges and universities in developing the training programs (Wilder, 1992). Ganser (2002) argued that the best decision principals could make was to participate in the training of mentors.

Schools had a choice of whether to specifically address the needs of their staff in their mentoring programs or generalize their programs. Many districts generalized their training programs. A national survey (Wilder, 1992) of all the states listed the common training topics to be effective teaching, observing, classroom management, curriculum planning, conferencing, working with adult learners, supervision, and support techniques. A Renaud study (2003) showed that the most common training programs for mentors and protégés dealt with methods for classroom management, student discipline, time
management, assessment of student work and the accommodation of differing student needs (p. 125). A Missouri training program (NFIE, 1999) provided a six day training session that focused on facilitating reflective practice, understanding state mandates, establishing relationships on trust, collegiality and confidentiality, developing classroom observation skills, creating professional development plans and understanding the academic, professional, and social needs of new teachers (p. 12). A related study (Andrews & Quinn, 2005) confirmed that training programs should put more emphasis on the significance of mentors planning lessons and units with their protégés and observing, being observed and conferencing after observations. Kilburg and Hancock (2003) noted that it was important to technically train the mentor but even more important to prepare and train the mentor to work with a number of different personalities.

In a survey of eight sites (Wilder, 1992) with mentoring programs, all sites had initial training sessions but had few opportunities for training during the school year. A symposium (NFIE, 1999) of national teachers emphasized that training for mentors and protégés must be continual. Schools need to avoid “frontloading” training and provide training throughout the school year to better prepare mentors and protégés (Ganser, 2001, p. 12).

Mentor/Protégé Relationship

Klausmeier (1994, as cited in Sheeler, 1996) argued that a healthy mentor relationship “can improve the teaching of the new instructors, increase their desire to
remain in teaching, ensure their continued professional development, and affect the positive development of the teaching profession” (p. 8). Studies (Ackley & Gall, 1992; Manthei, 1992; Wagner, 1985; all cited in Tauer, 1996) suggested that relationships can not only help a new teacher with their entry into teaching but also augment the professional development of the mentor teacher. This can be seen with mentor teachers learning new teaching methods from their protégés (Sheeler, 1996).

Mentor/protégé relationships are crucial to the success of mentoring programs. Hancock & Kilburg (2003) provided an example of a mentor/protégé relationship that negatively affected a mentor experience. The relationship began in a very healthy way, with both teachers demonstrating a commitment to forming an effective relationship. As time passed, the two seemed to be at odds with each other. This tension mounted from their incompatibilities in personality, creating a negative experience and inhibiting their career development. One new teacher who was interviewed stressed the importance of her relationship by saying that “she should have switched mentors, because our personalities didn’t mesh well” (Freiberg et al, 1994, p12). She further explained that she would have gotten more out of the year if she would have had a good relationship with her mentor.

Jarmin and Makiel (1993, as cited in Sheeler, 1996) listed four factors that help in creating a successful mentoring relationship to include continued interaction during the year, a designated meeting place, an overall time commitment, and a commitment to meet regularly. Tauer’s study (1996) also found that successful relationships were
distinguished by frequent and meaningful interactions between the mentor and protégé. An Oakland County district (Keane et al, 2001) expected mentors and protégés to hold regular meetings and share a teacher log documenting their time together. It was also expected that mentors participate in classroom visits (to the protégé’s classroom) and that protégés visit their mentors’ classroom. A related study (Costa & Garmston, 1994, as cited in Williams, 2001) provided three main goals to help establish successful mentor relationships: building trust, facilitating mutual growth, and working together while still having their own unique personalities.

The mentor/protégé matching is an important yet difficult process for many. This unpredictability warrants program leaders to use caution when selecting a mentor/protégé duo (Tauer, 1996). The mentor/protégé relationship cannot be predicted, thus, studies show that more effort should be put into creating “optimal conditions” instead of “optimal relationships” (Tauer, 1996, p. 17). Most researchers agreed that developing these relationships is crucial in order to insure teachers are ready for any obstacle in the future (Sheeler 1996).

**Time Devoted to Mentoring**

The National Center for Education Statistics (1999, as cited in NFIE, 1999) provided data that clearly confirmed that the effectiveness of a mentor program is linked directly to the time a mentor and protégé spend together. Only 36% of new teachers who met around three to ten times a year with their mentors reported marked improvements in
their instructional skills. This statistic jumped to 88% of protégés who met with their mentors once a week, reporting greater instructional skill improvements.

Hancock and Kilburg (2003) provided an example of difficulties experienced in the mentor/protégé relationship due to time constraints. The mentor and protégé got along very well and were excited to work together. The realities of daily life in the classroom set in, making it impossible to meet; they grew very frustrated. The protégé had a very difficult first year because of these time issues. In a related instance, a new teacher had a negative mentor experience due to having only seen his mentor in committee or department meetings when there was very little time to talk (Renard, 2003). In an Anchorage, Alaska school, mentors and protégés made a commitment to meet for a minimum of 25 hours per year and admitted that this commitment led to greater success (NFIE, 1999).

One of the most perplexing issues debated in mentor/protégé based research is the issue related to part time and full time mentors (NFIE, 1999). The NFIE Symposium showed that part time mentors can experience some substantial demands relative to finding time for mentoring and completing classroom related tasks and duties. On the other hand, full time mentors can cost districts large amounts of money and are not an option for some schools.

Ganser (2002) believed that principals can support this relationship by freeing mentors and protégés from other time consuming duties. Sheeler (1996) claimed that another way to help with the time issue was to have mentors and protégés outline their
responsibilities and make time commitments. Ganser (1995) believed that the issue was so important that substitutes should be hired or other teachers could provide support in order for the mentor and protégé to meet thirty minutes at least twice a week. Kilburg and Hancock (2003) contended that if time is not provided, mentors and protégés could become frustrated, placing a negative impact on the relationship.

Confidentiality

The idea of confidentiality relates to whether or not staff members and administration should be allowed to have knowledge of the discussions of mentors and protégés (Ganser, 1995). At hand is the issue of whether or not mentors should provide evaluations for administration. The majority of programs stress confidentiality, prohibiting mentors to provide evaluations to administrators. The NFIE symposium provided support for the idea of making clear policies about confidentiality (1999). The purpose of creating policies such as this is to “protect the integrity of the mentoring relationship according to the high standards of professionalism” (NFIE, 1999, p7).

Incentives

The issue of incentives stems from the question of how to attract the most qualified candidates to become mentors (NFIE, 1999). Incentives can appear in various forms, incentives might include reduced or modified course loads, credits towards relicensure or recertification, and additional payments or stipends. The participants of the symposium (NFIE, 1999) argued that reduced course loads support mentors and protégés, as programs are ineffective when time is spent meeting after hours or on the weekends.
In Oakland County, Michigan several districts provided incentives to mentors in the form of a stipend of $300 to $500 a year (Keane et al, 2001). Lewis (1999, as cited in NFIE, 1999) argued that the problem with incentive pay was that it could lead to professional jealousy and could be detrimental to mentoring programs. In fact Donnis Deever of Glendale, Arizona claims (1999, as cited in NFIE, 1999) that paying stipends can affect other areas of mentor programs because the money is not going to programs such as mentor training programs.

**Evaluating Programs**

Many school administrators take the time to evaluate their mentoring programs to measure their usefulness. Evaluating programs may lead to the improvement of the effectiveness of programs and may justify the investment in the program to policymakers and stakeholders (NFIE, 1999). One study (NFIE, 1999) confirmed the relevance of “keeping statistics” to show that mentoring is purposeful and to protect mentor programs from being eliminated or reduced.

Most often someone of authority supervised the evaluation procedures which could include the preparation of lesson plan portfolios, teacher reflective journals, self observation through tapings, student reflections, self-assessment strategies and formal observations (Keane et al, 2001). Such evaluations can involve anyone including but not limited to, principals, assistant principals, counselors, teachers, mentors, and protégés. In a study (Wilder, 1992) of existing mentor programs across the nation, many of the school administrators collected information to better evaluate their mentor programs.
Chapter Summary

Successful mentor programs are necessary in order to address the needs of beginning teachers. Each mentor program has varying components which make it successful. Although each program is different, there exists the common goal of supporting first year teachers in their professional growth. Chapter 3 addressed the method used in order to apply the noted research to a guidebook developed for use by school and district personnel.
Chapter 3

METHOD

The goal of this project was to create a resource that could be used to develop and implement an effective mentoring program. As discussions were initiated with school and district personnel, the researcher found that there were varying discrepancies in school and district based mentoring programs. The researcher found that many novice teachers experienced frustration during their first year, due to lack of support. This lack of support caused many well educated and motivated teachers to leave teaching. The author elected to conduct research related to effective mentoring programs with the intent of developing a guidebook to assist school and district personnel in evaluating, developing, and maintaining an effective mentoring program.

Target Audience

The main target audience for the project was administrators at the district level and at the school level.

Goals and Procedures

The guidebook was created in order to assist principals and other administrators in developing a new mentoring program and improving an existing program. The guide summarized relevant literature, providing the target audience with a collection of best practices to apply to the development and maintenance of an effective mentoring program.
Assessment

Assessments and feedback were provided by a group of seven administrators in the local area. Each participant was being asked to provide feedback regarding the usefulness of the guide to administrators and to teachers. The participants also provided recommendations regarding issues they believed should be included in the guide.

Chapter Summary

Chapter 3 addressed the importance of effective mentoring programs. Goals and target audiences of the guide were presented and information was provided on why the resource can be useful to numerous audiences. The researcher presented a sound strategy in seeking feedback and improving the guidebook as well. Discussed was the need for a comprehensive resource necessary to developing and maintaining an effective mentoring program. Goals of the project were addressed, as was the target audience. Chapter 4 includes the guidebook developed by the author.
Chapter 4

RESULTS

EFFECTIVE MENTORING PROGRAMS:
A GUIDE TO DEVELOPING SUCCESSFUL PROGRAMS
Introduction

What can districts and administrators do in order to attract better teaching candidates? The obvious answer to some is mentor programs. What makes a mentor program effective? Is it the character of the mentor or the focus of the program? Is it the mentor-protégé relationship or the material that is covered by the mentor? These are questions that plague districts and administrators throughout the country.

Many school districts have found that mentor programs better prepare novice teachers and lead to greater productivity, but few have found the correct formula for a successful mentor program. Some mentor programs focus on incorrect issues or simply do not invest enough time into their programs. This guidebook was designed to help districts and administrators either implement a new program or to improve an existing program. The guidebook focused on the most important topics within mentoring. Each section was designed to question and make the reader think about what they think will be the most relevant topics for their particular situation. This guidebook is designed to help make our schools better and to support districts in saving money in the long term.
The Present State of the Educational World

The general perception of the educational community is that we are failing our students. Teaching salaries continue to be below the norm, quality candidates are becoming harder and harder to find and educational requirements for teachers have increased because of the No Child Left Behind Act. Studies show that we are facing a shortage of qualified teachers. The contemporary educational system is not the same as it was thirty years ago. Why are districts struggling to find qualified teachers?

**Why No Qualified Candidates?**

1) Large number of retirees
   a) Many teachers who entered the profession in the 1960s and 1970s are leaving the profession (Ganser, 2002)

2) Increase in population/ Increase in enrollment (Ganser, 2002)
   a) Predicted 54.3 million student enrollment for this year (1998, as cited in Easley, 2000)
   b) Estimated two million new teachers needed in the next decade (1998, as cited in Easley, 2000)

3) Efforts at the national level to reduce class size (Ganser, 2002)
Many scholars agree with Ganser’s reasons as mentioned above for a lack of qualified candidates but others believe it is more likely due to the large retention problems that districts are facing.

Retention Problems

Most districts are keenly aware of the retention problems that face the educational world. In some districts it’s a serious problem that is faced every single day and in others it is a problem that is faced less regularly. Either way, attrition affects each and every district and this attrition is costing schools billions of dollars. Some scholars such as Jacob Easley (1998, as cited in Easley, 2000) believe the problem lies in the amount of “more attractive high paying jobs” that are luring teachers out of the profession. Some districts are trying to keep up with the professional world by offering bonuses and competitive pay; generally the education world cannot keep up with the “real world”. A Columbia University Teachers College Study (1997, as cited in Keane Mills & Moore, 2001) confirms this argument by finding the teacher shortage problem comes from a big increase in teacher attrition as well as a shortage in people entering the profession.

Many in the field of education might deny there is a teacher retention problem, but statistics show the problem is real. Consider the following statistics:

- Every Year 200,000 teachers are hired. 22,000 quit by the end of the school year - Graziano (2005, p. 40)
- Of the 3,214,900 public school teachers in the 2003-2004 year 8 percent left the profession and 8 percent moved to a different school - National Center for Education Statistics

- 9.3% of the first year teachers leave the profession after only one year - NCES (1995, as cited in NFIE, 1999)

- Easley cites that 20% of teachers leave the profession after one year (1998, as cited in Easley, 2000)

- Alternative NCES study shows 12% attrition rates for the private sector and 7% for the public sector in 1993 through 1995 (1995, as cited in Easley, 2000)

- One report for urban districts shows a 50% attrition rate for first year teachers – Bob Chase (1998, as cited in Easley, 2000)

- Halford report shows 30% leaving after the first five year (1999, as cited in Easley, 2000)

- Overall 40% attrition rate for teachers within the first seven years – Jamber & Patterson (1997, Keane et al., 2001)

Overall, these statistics prove to be daunting for all districts; the statistics clearly show that there is a problem within the field of education. Many will blame this on the lack of financial rewards in the profession; still, others will place blame on the lack of support given to these new teachers. Reports by Inman and Marlow (2004), show that most leave the profession due to a lack of professionalism, collegiality, and administrative support. Richard Ingersoll, a specialist who studies teacher attrition and
retention claims (2003, as cited in Cochran-Smith, 2006) that “job dissatisfaction and the desire to pursue a better job outside the education field” are the main reasons for teachers leaving the profession (pg 8). To say these numbers are alarming would be an understatement; the statistics absolutely must motivate our industry to take action.

What Does the New First Year Teacher Look Like?

The statistics related to attrition and the lack of qualified candidates, clearly demonstrates that the field of education is rapidly changing. What does the first year teacher look like now? Gone are the times of fresh new college graduates. Richard Ingersoll’s (2003, as cited in Cochran-Smith, 2006) studies support that there is an increasing level of mid career entrants that actually make up 50% of the teachers in some districts (p. 9). Tom Ganser (2002) believes “that a far wider range of routes into teaching exist than was true just ten or fifteen years ago, when most teachers were prepared in a four year baccalaureate degree program” (p. 3). There are many different education programs that exist today compared to those of the past.

Part of this expansion has developed because of the recent requirements for beginning teachers such as the No Child Left Behind Act. These requirements have made entrance into the teaching field more challenging thus forcing the post-secondary world to adapt. Some examples of these new programs are alternative licensure programs and MEd and licensure Programs. Both of these programs were developed to attract individuals changing careers and to attract the attention of highly qualified candidates with a desire to go into teaching later in life. Proponents of these programs do not claim
the majority of teachers today are different than in the past; however it is clear that there is a greater diversity of educators with different backgrounds that now exist in the teaching field. Many educators suggest that this new look teacher forces us to take a fresh look at approaching the first year teacher. Candidate’s backgrounds are different in this day in age; one thing that remains the same are the struggles that first year teachers face.

The Struggles of the First Year Teacher

The majority of experienced teachers can relate to the struggles that a first year teacher faces. Most agree that no matter how well prepared or educated a first year teacher is, challenges arise when trying to make the transition from student to teacher. Below are some phrases and explanations from top researchers that explain the rollercoaster ride that is known as the first year of teaching.

What’s it Like?

- “It’s like climbing a cloud covered mountain where you can’t see much ahead and you have no idea the elevation of the mountain.” – Ganser (1999, p. 3)
- “Imagine you aspire to be a mountaineer. You have a new pair of boots, a tent, a backpack, and endless enthusiasm, but you have never so much as climbed above the tree line. You have been dropped off at the base of Everest and told to get to the top or quit. If you don’t make it, your enthusiasm disappears, and you seek ways to avoid similar challenges in the future – Kenneth Wilson (1999, as cited in NFIE, 1999, p. 3)
Beginning teachers face a variety of emotions, such as:

- “A sense of discomfort and malaise” – Barth (1990, as cited in Easley, 2000, p. 6)
- “Tremendously drastic change” – DaYeon Cho (2002, p. 4)
- “A low sense of trust toward the administration, the public, and even themselves”
  – Barth (1990, as cited in Easley, 2000, p. 6)
- “Transitional shock” – Veerman (1984, as cited in Hancock & Kilburg, 2003, p. 3)
- “A feeling of helplessness and being trapped in their jobs and powerless to effect change” – Barth (1990, as cited in Easley, 2000, p. 6)
- “A journey for which there is no map to guide you” – Ganser (1999, p. 6)
- “A sense of frustration at the ‘nonteaching’ demands placed upon them” – Barth (1990, as cited in Easley, 2000, p. 6)
- “Stress, anxiety, frustration, and isolation both in the classroom and in their personal lives” – DaYeon Cho (2002, p. 5)

Why the Frustration and the Retention Problems?

Why do new teachers experience such a myriad of emotions? The simple answer that most cite is related to expectations that are exceedingly high. Huberman (1989, as cited in Renard, 2003) addresses the situation in a very interesting way:

“We expect brand new, just-out-of-the-wrapper teachers to assume the same responsibilities and duties as our most seasoned professionals, and we expect them to carry out those duties with the same level of expertise and within the same time constraints. We hold new teachers accountable for skills that they don’t yet have and that they can only gain through experience” (p. 63).
Lisa Renard agrees with this idea of “expectations”; in one instance it was found that new teachers feel a sense of frustration due to overwhelming expectations from their supporting colleagues.

Allen and Lisa Renard’s research articles agreed with these reports and showed that new teachers were being expected to do too much. In Allen (2000, as cited in Renard, 2003) of the Education Commission of the States asserts that “new teachers are not finished products, and expecting them to perform all of the duties that we expect of seasoned professionals is unrealistic” (p. 63). In Lisa Renard’s study (2003), a beginning teacher was expected to run the school’s academic team, attend department and faculty meetings, and sit on four different committees.

Many new teachers are placed into difficult situations during their first year. The following reports have confirmed the common practice of placing first year teachers with troubled students or with a lack of resources. A 2004 study of secondary schools by Andrews and Quinn (2004) found that 39.2 percent of new teachers “float” from classroom to classroom and don’t even have their own classrooms. This same study found 39.6 percent had to prepare for three or more classes. The most alarming statistic was that 25.5 percent taught outside of their subject of university preparation. The study was performed in only one district but it is frightening nonetheless that even with the No Child Left Behind Act, such a statistic exists. These are difficult circumstances, and in the opinion of some, make absolutely no sense because the beginning teachers should be
placed in a situation that helps them to succeed. This seems to be a trend with first year teachers and one that studies show hinders their success and motivation.

Lisa Renard (2003) shares evidence that first year teachers are more likely to learn essential skills through their first year teaching experience than through their four year school program or licensure program. In fact, Renard (2003) contends that most first year teachers are only learning the material one step ahead of the students. These examples clearly support why first year teachers experience extreme difficulties during the first year.

The general feeling and research illustrates that most employees are most successful when they are happy with themselves and their job (Easley, 2000). If this satisfaction is not attained then there are potential consequences for first year teachers and their students. Scherer (1999, as cited in Cho, 2002) has found research demonstrating that beginning teachers begin to develop a feeling of indifference if they continue to experience long periods of frustration. Scherer believes that this indifference leads to attrition and ultimately the loss of money for school districts. Why is teaching “the only profession that expects its novices to fly solo?” – Chase (1998, as cited in Easley, 2000, p. 7). Teaching should not be known as the “profession that eats its young”- Halford (1998, as cited in Renard, 2003, p. 63). These statistics and studies must be addressed if the teaching community is to have any hope for a successful future.
So What Can the Educational Leaders Do?

The answer to this question is not an easy one but one that must be considered. The reality of the situation is that districts nationwide are experiencing the first year teacher learning curve. This learning curve is not a small issue; a Graziano (2005) study shows that these frustrations lead to teacher attrition, loss of money and an overall lack of qualified candidates. The same study (Graziano, 2005) reported that 15 percent of new teachers leave the profession or switch schools every year, which results in a $5.8 billion dollar loss for schools nationwide.

Many believe that the solution begins with better support for beginning teachers. The most popular method to providing support for first year teachers is mentoring. The term “mentoring” is understood to serve a variety of purposes; many programs have been statistically proven to reduce teacher attrition (Darling Hammond, 1997, 2000; Moir, 2001; Scherer, 2001; Weiss, 1999; all cited in Andrews & Quinn, 2005). Additional reports conclude that mentoring programs are seen as the most popular method to provide support for beginning teachers (Carter & Francis, 2000; Feiman-Nemse, 1996; Huling & Resta, 2001; all cited in Cho, 2002). Research indicates that successful mentoring programs save school districts millions of dollars (Easley, 2000). Halford (1998, as cited in Easley, 2000) found that the state of California school system saved millions of dollars on recruiting, rehiring, training, and even managed to slim attrition rates by implementing a successful mentoring program. A report by Richard Ingersoll (2003, as cited in Cochran-Smith, 2006) contends that new teachers who don’t go through an induction
program are twice as likely to leave the profession after the first year. Many research reports have concluded that mentoring is a realistic solution for an ongoing problem.

History of Mentoring

In Western Civilization, the idea of mentoring goes back to the days of Greek Mythology. According to mythology, Odesseus went off to fight in the Trojan War and left his son Telemachus to his good friend named Mentor. Mentoring has been a constant in history appearing even in the Old Testament with Moses and Joshua as one example. Mentoring has since been adopted by almost all professions. In the field of education, many consider mentoring to be an international phenomenon (Moscowitz & & Stephens, 1997, as cited in Ganser, 2001). Mentoring is by no means a new idea to the field of education and has, in fact, been in existence since the 1970s (Frutwengler, 1993, as cited in Freiberg et al, 1994). Since the formal induction of mentoring into education, such programs have tripled in existence (Darling-Hammond & Sclan, 1996, as cited in Ganser, 2001). Mentoring programs have become quite widespread in the recent years. After conducting a nationwide study, Remser (1996, as cited in Ganser, 2001) found that more than half the states in our nation require mentoring programs for first year teachers. Each of these programs has a different look in each state; each is supported by a school district or specific school. Some programs even begin at the university level. The guidebook will focus on programs that are formulated at the district or school level.
Mentor Programs

As mentioned previously, this guidebook has been developed to provide districts, administrators, and first year teachers with the most current information in order to create a new mentoring program, improving an existing program or just simply learning more about the idea of mentoring. The guidebook is a collection of research; the research represents mentoring literature that might motivate readers to ask themselves questions relative to implementation of a program or improving an existing program.

Where Does a District Start?

Most studies support the idea of beginning an approach by defining the meaning of “mentoring”. Researchers believe there is no right or wrong answer; most believe a district must come to a consensus in order to successfully formulate or improve a program.

What Is Mentoring?

- “Mentoring is like taking a practice run with somebody who has lots of experience and the ability to share it” - Kenneth Wilson (1999, as cited in NFIE, 1999, p. 3)
- “Mentoring is a mechanism to articulate and share the genius of teaching” - Logue(1999, as cited in NFIE, 1999, p. 4)
- “Mentors are teachers who provide leadership and guidance to new teachers” – Sheeler (1996, p. 4)
“Mentoring is going next door to that new person and saying ‘What can I do for you?’” - Lynette Henley (1999, as cited in NFIE, 1999, p. 4)

“It’s a process that opens the doors to the school community and helps new faculty find the wisdom of all the teachers in the building” - Georgia Archibald (1999, as cited in NFIE, 1999, p. 4)

“It offsets beginning teaching as a disheartening ‘sink or swim’ experience that serves neither new teachers nor their students” - Tom Ganser (2001, p. 3)

One might conclude that the definition of mentoring travels through a large chasm of meanings. The important piece that researchers believe is that each district needs to be clear about the definition, as this definition helps formulate a mission for the mentoring program. The key point is to come to a consensus regarding the definition and to get all stakeholders to “buy into” the program.

The staff, in collaboration with the principal, must also make it a point to clearly define the goals of the program. It is extremely important to outline the program and also establish goals for the program. A report by Huling and Austin (1990, a quoted in Ganser, 1993) lists five goals that are very common throughout mentor programs:

1) To improve teaching performance

2) To increase the retention of promising beginning teachers during the induction years
3) To promote the personal and professional well-being of beginning teachers by improving teacher’s attitudes towards themselves and the profession

4) To satisfy mandated requirements related to induction and certification

5) To transmit the culture of the system to beginning teachers (p. 3)

The Role of the Mentor

As with any program, the role of the participants must be defined so that there is universal understanding. Universal understanding supports the program in reaching its designated goals in a more efficient way. The mentor is the person who supplies information and direct support to the first year teacher. A mentor program may be eloquently designed, as defined by an outstanding mentor selection process. However, the program might still fail without the mentor being keenly aware of the role and related responsibilities.

*Additional Roles of the Mentor*

The roles of a mentor are defined under the district’s or school’s discretion. In most schools, the mentors played a variety of roles. The following is a list of the numerous different roles mentors fulfilled, as defined by research (Freiberg et al, 1994), (Kristina Sheller, 1996), (Keane et al, 2001):

- Trainer
- Coach
- Model
Counselors
Role Models
Cheerleaders
Facilitators
Helpers
Resource Person
Mediators

The focus should not be on eliminating certain roles, as each mentor will undeniably serve in each one of these roles at one time or another. The attention should be devoted to finding the most important roles that match the district’s mission and values and converting these roles into functions for the mentors and protégés.

The Functions of the Mentor

Research on existing mentoring programs (Wilder, 1992) found that the functions of a mentor differ from school to school but most found general similarities in the overall approach to the functions of a mentor. Gita Wilder (1992) performed a qualitative study and found that most mentor functions fell into the three areas of professional support, technical support, and personal support. Each study cited research in all three areas, and contended that while some may be more important in certain schools, all three areas must be addressed by school districts.
Professional Support Functions

The professional support functions are functions that help the first year teacher to experience support in their professional growth. These functions can include supporting a beginning teacher with lesson plans to modeling a lesson. In a qualitative study conducted by Freiberg (Freiberg et al, 1994), the researcher noted functions that were most important to mentors and protégés. Of the five main functions, one included the professional support area. This important function related to providing ideas and resources to the protégé. This same report confirmed the professional functions of modeling and mentor involvement to be the most important functions of a mentor. Freiberg expressed the idea that the mentor was a person who “provided feedback on teaching performance and classroom management and demonstrated a model to follow” for beginning teachers (p. 21).

In a Korean Study (Cho, 2002), Dae Yeon Cho studied the most important functions as expressed by mentors and protégés; these functions were related to classroom issues. Cho found that first year teachers listed a professional function of providing support for teaching activities as the most important inside the classroom function. The mentors in the study also listed the professional function of helping with classroom managerial activities as another important classroom function.

Teachers in a successful teaching program in California (DiGeronimo, 1993, as cited in Sheeler, 1996) listed their professional duties as “providing guidance with lesson
planning, teaching and discipline, assisting in developing homework and test writing strategies, consulting whenever needed, and advising teachers with their parent, student, and administrative relationships” (p. 8). Another study by Klausmeier (1994, as cited in Sheeler, 1996) found that the most common areas of assistance were all professional areas. These areas included teaching style, instructional strategy, classroom management methods, and time management (p. 7). This research supports the idea that professional support is an essential area in which mentors must focus.

**Technical Support Functions**

This area is generally a more detailed function where in which mentors provide assistance in relaying important information to first year teachers that they may not know or forget. This function can include helping a beginning teacher to access the districts computer site or simply reminding the beginning teacher of the weekly meeting. This allows the mentor to be a person that the protégé can go to when they have questions outside of the classroom. Many will minimize the idea of this being important; research demonstrates that this function is equally as important. Cho’s (Cho, 2002) study found that the professional function of technical support was the most important area for new teachers. First year teachers specifically noted the need for technical support with learning information about school contexts and becoming more familiar with the tasks that their mentors had given them.

A California study (DiGeronimo, 1993, as cited in Sheeler, 1996) listed “answering questions on anything school related and keeping the teachers aware of
deadlines” as the technical support functions expected of mentors. The Freiberg (Freiberg et al, 1994) and Andrews and Quinn (Andrews & Quinn, 2005) studies found support with policies and procedures to be critical functions needing support from the mentors. The Freiberg study also noted that first year teachers need someone to help guide them through the excessive amount of paperwork during their first year.

Sometimes, the mentor can focus too much on professional support and neglect the technical support. While it is purposeful for a mentor to support professional development, it is the support of the “little things” that beginning teachers need.

**Personal Support Functions**

Personal support is an area that seems to receive little attention, though some studies contend this is an area of great need. The educational community focuses on professional issues and technical needs with ease, but sometimes neglects to provide teachers “emotional support”. If one were to review the roles listed by mentors and beginning teachers, one would see that almost every role has an emotional piece to it. The first year is a difficult time for teachers and studies show that sometimes, teachers just need a strong personal support system. The first year presents an emotional roller coaster; mentors can successfully provide encouragement during this difficult time.

Three of Freiberg’s (Freiberg et al, 1994) five functions were personal support functions. These functions included support, encouragement and someone to listen to. Frieberg mentioned that first year teachers just need “assurance that all teachers have the same fears and problems” (p, 21). A 2002 study (Andrews & Quinn, 2005) found that
emotional support from someone who cares and supports is the most important and most basic need listed by beginning teachers. DiGeronimo (1993, as cited in Sheeler, 1996) found a successful district in Daly City, California that listed “providing support in difficult and great times” as one of the main expected duties of mentors. Most of Sheeler’s (1996) research mentioned the importance of mentors helping their protégés develop relationships with the school staff as an important personal support function. The personal support function is one in which the mentor insures the new teacher feels comfortable and at home within the school. These studies confirm that personal support must be addressed in order for a mentor program to be complete.

The school or district must define these roles. It is the responsibility of the district or school to decide upon the details of each function; the functions must be clearly communicated so expectations are met. Perry (1970, as cited in Williams, 2001) combines these three functions together by describing the mentor’s role:

“Constructivist mentors encourage and accept the beginning teacher’s autonomy and initiative; allow responses to drive learning; shift instructional strategies, and alter content; inquire about understanding of concepts before sharing their own understanding of those concepts; encourage engagement in dialogue, foster inquiry by asking thoughtful, open-ended questions, seek elaboration of the novice’s initial responses, engage the novice teacher in experiences that might engender contradictions to their initial hypotheses and then encourage discussion; provide time for construction of relationships and nurture the novice’s natural curiosity” (p.13).

Adapting Functions to the Natural Stages Teachers Go Through

The balance between the professional, technical, and personal functions is essential when developing a mentor program. Each schools blend of these functions is
what makes the mentor program unique. However each school must recognize the stages of a first year teacher so that they can better align the mentor’s role to the current stage through which the new teacher is going. Research shows that a teacher’s progression rate through these stages can be different; however, the stages are generally similar. A mentor program specialist, Tom Ganser (1999), believes there are three specific stages that a first year teacher progresses through. The first stage is a blend of professional and technical needs during which a new teacher needs practical skills and information. The second stage shifts to a more professional focus where the novice teacher is looking for guidance with classroom management issues and the general art of teaching. The third stage is defined by the first year teacher’s search for a “deeper understanding of instructional strategies” (p. 14).

Gita Wilder’s (1992) studies presented a fairly similar view on the stages of the first year. She also found that there were three main stages during the first year. The first stage produced evidence of professional and technical needs, illustrating that new teachers need guidance in classroom management and the technical details of setting up a classroom. The second stage focused more on technical needs such as support in developing report cards and organizing parent teacher conferences. The final stage was based primarily on an emotional need of the teachers to reflect on what they had learned and from where they had journeyed.

Many studies focus on the idea of stages, but most effective programs were characterized by individualizing specific functions of the mentor in order to meet the
needs of the first year teacher. Ganser (1999) argues that beginning teachers needs will never be the same, so districts cannot over generalize first year teachers; each teacher is uniquely different. In a second study, Ganser (1995) recommends that teachers and mentors meet about their needs and expectations so that they better support one another. A Wildman, Magliaro, Niles and Niles (1999) study agreed with Ganser and the importance of catering functions to each individual teacher. Some research cited the extreme variation of school types and highlighted the importance of adjusting programs to the needs in that particular community (Ganser, 1999).

The majority of the research cited (Ganser, 1995, 1999; Wilder, 1992; Wildman, Magliaro, Niles and Niles, 1999) confirms that a school or district must take into account the stages of a first year teacher as well as the specific needs of each teacher. Schools can generalize but studies show more success when districts adapt each programs functions to the particular novice teacher. This approach takes more time and resources; however it could result in a more successful mentor program.

Do Not Duplicate Existing Support Systems

Once the role of the mentor and functions have been agreed upon, the district must do some research to carefully identify the existing support systems for first year teachers. This search is very important because it prevents the duplication of existing support systems. Tom Ganser (2001) is a proponent for conducting what he calls a “New Teacher Support Audit”. This audit is performed in order to insure that no existing support is duplicated. The audit consists of three stages. The first stage involves
reviewing programs that already exist within the school. During the second stage, programs that exist outside the classroom are reviewed. The third and final stage addresses how a mentor program will help add to the existing programs. This “New Teacher Support Audit” poses some interesting questions for districts today. Districts and school personnel should have a clear understanding of their existing support programs.

Selecting Appropriate Mentors

Once a district has done their research and is progressing through the stages of implementing or improving a mentor program, mentor selection should follow. Ganser (1999) clearly explained how not to select a qualified mentor at a teaching symposium: “I can remember a teacher telling me this story. He was outside in early August painting a white fence, like Tom Sawyer. His principal, driving past in a car, stopped and said, ‘We’re hiring a new teacher this year. Would you like to be his mentor?’” (p. 9).

Various studies confirm the importance of having a high selection criteria in selecting a mentor (Freiberg et al, 1994; Keller, 2006; NFIE, 1999; Sheeler, 1996; Wilder, 1992). In a Chicago qualitative school district study (Freiberg et al, 1994), most school administrators admitted “setting extremely high standards for mentor teachers” and even used a “rigorous selection process they felt was as consistent, unbiased, and as nonpolitical as possible” (p. 19). A New York study (Keller, 2006) selected mentors based on character traits and experience. The overall response to mentor selection related
to taking time and finding the most purposeful manner in which to recruit the best candidates.

**What Qualities Should a Mentor Have?**

Most districts have a prescribed list of characteristics used in the recruitment of mentors. The following is a list summarizing mentor characteristics which district and school personnel consider in their search for mentors.

**What to Look For?**

- **“Attitude and Character”** – Teacher symposium (NFIE, 1999)
  - Someone with the confidence to provide advice to other adults - (NFIE, 1999)

- **“Professional Competence and Experience”** - Teacher symposium (NFIE, 1999)
  - High degree of skills as a classroom teacher – Wilder (1992; NFIE, 1999)
  - Solid evaluations from colleagues – Sheeler (1996)
  - One to seven years experience - Wilder (1992; NFIE, 1999)
  - Possible Masters Degree - Wilder (1992; NFIE, 1999)

- **“Communication Skills”** - Teacher symposium (NFIE, 1999)

- **“Interpersonal Skills”** - Teacher symposium (NFIE, 1999)

A majority of the studies cited in this guidebook showed the importance of attracting excellent candidates to become mentors. Of greatest concern was the lack of qualified teachers from which to choose. In Wilder’s (1992) research, there were many districts in various states that had complex worries. Many of the reports
complained of these so-called “qualified candidates” already being over extended with other activities and committees. The dilemma for most districts is to somehow attract the most qualified candidates without taking away from other important focuses of the district.

What Now?

What should a district do once they have established functions of the mentors and selected qualified candidates? Should districts randomly match mentors and protégés? Just as selecting mentors is a careful and important process, many scholars believe the matching of mentors and first-year teachers is even more important (Ganser, 1995; Kilburg and Hancock, 2003; Keane et al, 2001; Tauer, 1996; Williams, 2001). Tom Ganser (1995) believes strongly in the success of a program being dependent on the meticulous pairing of a mentor and a beginning teacher (p 10).

What creates a perfect fit? The following is a summary of ideas relative to what is important in matching first-year teachers and mentors.

When matching a mentor and protégé, districts look for:

- the following criteria: grade level, subject area, similar interests and outlooks on teaching, same location, and trying to avoid pairing the novice teacher with a person that is responsible for evaluations of staff - Gary Kilburg and Tom Hancock (2003, p. 3-4)
- class proximity, teaching ideology, gender – Tom Ganser (1995)
finding the “best fit” between the personalities, needs, and talents of mentors and protégés – Oakland County, Michigan district (Keane et al, 2001)

similarities in personalities, teaching styles and curricula – Susan Tauer (1996)

a matching of teaching styles and ideologies – Parkay (1988, as cited in Williams, 2001)

A 1999 teacher symposium held by the National Foundation of the Improvement of Education (NFIE, 1999) demonstrated ingenuity by approaching the matching process in a vastly different way. A group of experienced individuals developed the idea of giving new teachers multiple mentors. One advantage to this method related to the lack of pressure on the district and schools to make perfect matches; a second advantage involved a shorter time commitment required of each mentor. This process was a purposeful learning experience for the first year teacher, as it gave the protégé a chance to work with different personalities. A major disadvantage dealt with building rapport and a relationship with each mentor. It was difficult for the mentors to meet the personal and emotional needs of the novice teacher.

Much of the research showed the importance of getting to know both the mentor candidates and first year teachers so that matching would be easier (Ganser, 1995; Keane et al, 2001; Tauer, 1996; Williams, 2001). There exist different ideas regarding the matching of mentor and protégé. Some programs included personality tests, others had interviews, and some had both mentors and protégés submit personal philosophies of teaching. Others deviated from detailed processes, involving building
principals who knew their staff well enough to make the decision. Ganser (1995) argues that there is no “fool proof” way to match mentors and protégés. This matching responsibility belongs to the district and individual schools involved.

Training

Following the assignment of mentor and protégé, the next step involves the development of training activities for both mentors and protégés. The first question to be considered has to do with the time it will take to train participants. One Missouri district (NFIE, 1999) had a short training of only six days. In another study of eight sites by Gita Wilder (1992) every site had an initial training; it was found that training was relatively short and administered at the beginning of the school year. After speaking with several local Colorado Springs districts, this seemed to be the norm as well. Tom Ganser warns districts about this method that he calls “front-loading” (Ganser, 2001, p. 12). Ganser believes that the training should be provided throughout the school year because mentoring is a year long learning experience.

Why is Training Needed?

On average most schools rely on a short training session at the beginning of the year. These districts believe that only a small amount of training is needed if the mentor selection and matching is done effectively. Tom Ganser disagrees with this, believing that mentoring is a completely different role than teaching and it is benighted to think that someone will be an excellent mentor if they are a successful teacher. It appears that many think that training is needed for mentors to work more
effectively with other adults. Keane’s (2001) research found that successful mentors are developed over time through effective training programs. This research supports districts as they begin to shift their focus from the protégés needs to also the mentors needs. Phyllis Williams (NFIE, 1999), a member of the professional development committee for the (United Teachers of Los Angeles) describes the feelings of a mentor by saying, “In my first year of mentoring, I felt like a new teacher. The information was given to us quickly and I felt lost. You are fumbling around trying to look like a mentor, but what you really need is someone to mentor the mentor” (p. 12). Training programs should provide opportunities to better prepare the mentors in order that they might better support protégés.

Who Should Supervise the Program?

The majority of training programs are supervised by the specific school district but other options exist. Some schools had teacher organizations perform the training; others even worked with local colleges or universities to develop a college run program. The other question that exists for districts is who within the district should be in charge of the program. Should there be a designated mentor program director or should school principals be more involved? Tom Ganser (2002) suggests that the more involved a principal is in training the more effective the whole program is. Others think it is wiser to completely control the program at the district level. There are advantages to both sides but it is up to the district administration to decide what is best for them when implementing a new program or improving an existing program.
What Should the Training Address?

The district has outlined the length of the training program and who will supervise the program. Of utmost importance is the subject of training. Length of the program obviously affects the material that is covered. Below is a summary of the most common training topics for both mentors and beginning teachers according to various researchers cited.

Training Topics

- Working with different personalities - Kilburg and Hancock (2003)
- Mentors planning lessons and units with their protégés and observing, being observed and conferencing afterwards – Andrews and Quinn (2005)
- Facilitating reflective practice, understanding state mandates, establishing relationships on trust, collegiality and confidentiality, developing classroom observation skills, creating professional development plans and understanding the academic, professional, and social needs of new teachers – Missouri training program (NFIE, 1999)
- Effective teaching, observing, classroom management, curriculum planning, conferencing, working with adult learners, supervision, and support techniques – Wilder (1992)

These are all important topics that need to be discussed within a district in order to decide how beginning teachers will be supported. Most importantly, these
carefully selected training topics should focus on both first year teachers and mentors.

The Importance of Mentor/Protégé Relationships

A district can select an excellent mentor, match him up with a similar teacher, provide excellent training and the mentor can still have a bad experience. Human relationships are unpredictable. Everything can be set up with good intentions but, if the mentor and first year teacher don’t get along, the entire experience for both participants can be disastrous.

Klausmeier (1994, as cited in Sheeler, 1996) suggests that an excellent mentor/protégé relationship “can improve the teaching of the new instructors, increase their desire to remain in teaching, ensure their continued professional development, and affect the positive development of the teaching profession” (p. 8). Numerous reports (Ackley & Gall, 1992; Manthei, 1992; Wagner, 1985; all cited in Tauer, 1996) claim that a healthy mentor/mentee relationship can help a beginning teacher to grow in his professional development. The studies should also draw the attention of districts and administrators, reminding them of the importance of creating an appropriate fit with a mentor and first year teacher.

What Can Districts do to Help Facilitate Successful Relationships?

Healthy relationships cannot be forced upon people but certain things can be done to support and nurture healthy relationships. Below is a summary of best practices that support the establishment of effective relationships.
Successful relationships were characterized by frequent and meaningful interactions – Susan Tauer (1996)

Three goals to establish successful relationships (Costa & Garmston, 1994, as cited in Williams, 2001):
1) Building trust
2) Facilitating mutual growth
3) Working together and not ignoring each others unique personalities

Oakland County District mentors and protégés had regular meetings and had teacher logs to keep track of all their time together - Keane et al (2001)

Four factors to ensure a purposeful working relationship:
1) Continued interaction throughout the year
2) Designated meeting place
3) Overall time commitment
4) Commitment to meet for large amounts of time once in a while

As mentioned earlier, successful relationships cannot be forced. The overwhelming amount of evidence citing the importance of mentor/protégé relationships should cause districts to greater appreciate the importance of mentor selection and matching. However, it should also demonstrate to districts that relationships are unpredictable and all factors cannot be controlled. Tauer (1996) realizes this and believes that more time should be focused on creating “optimal conditions” and less on forming “optimal relationships” (p. 17). Whatever approach is taken, the importance of the
mentor and beginning teacher relationship should not be minimized. If administrators are attentive to research, they will try to create the best conditions for their mentors and teachers.

How Much Time Should Be Committed to Mentor Programs?

The next natural step is addressing the issue of time associated with developing a mentor program. How much will the district focus on the mentor program? How much time will be spent on developing the program? How much time should mentors and first year teachers be expected to spend together? The questions relative to time are to be considered when asking a district about budget proposals. Districts should be able to support school administration and establish the importance of forming an excellent mentor program. School districts need to decide what they will give up to put more time and money towards mentor programs. The makeup of every district looks different but each district must come together as an administration and decide on the priority of mentor programs if mentoring is to have a strong place in the school community.

Time Spent Together

In a study performed by the National Center for Education Statistics (1999, as cited in NFIE, 1999), it was found that a substantial amount of evidence supported the notion that the effectiveness of a mentor/protégé relationship coincided directly with the amount of time spent together between a mentor and first year teacher. The study found that 88 percent of first year teachers who met with their mentors at least once a week saw great improvement in their instructional skills. Only 33 percent of the novice teachers
that met a few times during the school year cited notable improvements in their instructional skills. This report confirmed the importance of making time for mentors and protégés to spend together. The numbers cited by the NFIE (1999) show strong evidence that districts must commit time and resources in order to create and maintain successful mentoring programs.

Difficulties in Finding Time

There does exist the issue of time, because most people simply do not have any extra time. Teachers and administrators are frequently caught in a balancing act of time. A Hancock and Kilburg report (2003) referred to two school teachers who were initially excited to work and grow together, but frustration set in when they could not make time for each other. Two extremely motivated teachers who have been carefully paired do not assure success; this was confirmed by the study. A commitment to time from both teachers is essential for success. Renard (2003) cited a mentor/protégé relationship that proved unproductive due to a lack of time commitment. The studies confirm that it is important for a school to clearly decide on the amount of time needed from each participant. A school in Anchorage, Alaska solved the time commitment issue by having mentors and protégés agree to a minimum 25 hour time commitment each year (NFIE, 1999). This approach led to very successful mentor programs for Alaska school district.

Part time or Full time?

A School district must decide whether the mentors should be full time or part time. The majority of schools rely on a part time mentoring system. Most recently, some
districts have experimented with full time mentor positions and have achieved success. In 1992, an Urban Mentor Teacher Program (UMTP) with full time mentors was implemented in an urban district; almost all sources had positive feedback. In 2004, the nation’s largest district in New York City began a new mentor program that hired 300 full time mentors to assure that the program was a success. The New Teacher Center at the University of California, Santa Cruz (Bess, 2006) praised the district for making this switch that cost the district around 36 million (p. 1). The full time status of mentors at the New York City district assured new teachers of at least 1 ¼ hours of coaching each week. The reality of the situation is that very few districts can afford the high cost associated with creating full time positions. The question of part time or full time depends greatly on the level of financial commitment a particular school or district has shown in their induction or improvement process. Full time programs have shown excellent results but districts must be set on increasing funding to hire full time mentors.

How Can a District Help Create Time?

Districts must find a way to create opportunities related to time in order to support the mentor and beginning teacher relationship. Ganser (1995, 2002) discovered that principals must find ways to free teachers from some time consuming activities (such as grading, planning, and administrative paperwork) and even go as far as hiring substitutes to cover classes so that teachers and mentors can meet twice a week. Kristina Sheeler (1996) discussed the importance of having mentors and beginning teachers sit down to outline schedules and make time to meet together. The issue of time commitment issue is
not one that must be solved by the teachers; it must also be addressed by the school
district so that advances can be made.

Confidentiality

Confidentiality is an issue that is very commonly ignored by districts. Principals
and administrators sometimes look towards mentors for feedback on how the protégé
teacher is performing because the mentor has developed a strong relationship with the
teacher and most likely knows their performance better then most people in the school.
This is a common approach; some of the following studies contend that this is not the
most effective approach to the mentoring system. A NFIE report shows the importance
of confidentiality by arguing that it “protects the integrity of the mentoring relationship
according to the high standards of professionalism” (NFIE, 1999, p7). A study by Laura
Dukess of six New York districts (2001) found that almost every mentor and first year
teacher believed that the mentor relationship had to be confidential in order to be
productive. Maintaining confidentiality supports first year teachers in feeling more
comfortable with their mentors. Maintaining confidentiality supports novice teachers in
entrusting and befriending their mentors so they can better progress in their professional
development. Studies argue that a beginning teacher is less likely to confide in a mentor
if they fear that the mentor will tell others within their school about their performance
(Ganser, 2002). Confidentiality is an important legal issue; some believe strongly in
developing clear polices about confidentiality to better protect the participants and the
district.
How Should a District Reward Mentors?

This is the question that compares the intrinsic and extrinsic values. How should a district reward mentors who give of their time and hard effort? Should a district reward mentors at all? Most districts believe that some form of incentive should be developed for participants. An educational symposium (NFIE, 1999) recently found that incentives are absolutely necessary to attract the most qualified candidates. Why would a qualified mentor candidate want to give numerous hours of their time to help a new teacher? Some believe that a mentor might perform the services out of duty to gain intrinsic rewards. Consider the time commitments teachers face; providing extrinsic rewards may further motivate the potential mentor.

Examples of Incentives

Incentives might include payments or stipends, credits towards relicensure, or a reduced or modified course load. An Oakland County, Michigan district found success in paying their mentors a stipend that ranged from $300 to $500 per year (Keane et al, 2001). The teacher symposium held by the NFIE found that reduced or modified course load was most effective for the majority of teachers (NFIE, 1999). The argument was that mentor programs become quickly ineffective when long hours are spent outside of the typical school day. Reducing their workload affords teachers more time to devote to supporting the beginning teacher.
The Argument Against Pay Incentives

As cited in various studies in this report, stipends and payments were the most common incentives given to our nation’s mentors. A major disadvantage relates to cost, however some of the following research proves other reasons to not rely on payments. Donnis Deever of Glendale, Arizona (1999, as cited in NFIE, 1999) claimed that providing stipends is a mistake because the money should be put towards training. Other administrators at the NFIE teacher symposium described the development of professional jealousy occur when stipends were provided. Lona Lewis (1999, as cited in NFIE, 1999) believes that such jealousy can lead to the demise of a program. A district should carefully discuss what incentive system best fits their environment.

Assessment and Evaluation of Programs

The final step for program developers or facilitators is to design an assessment program. In the Gita Wilder’s study (1992), she found that the majority of schools which had mentor programs had some form of evaluation program. A NFIE (1999) study lists two reasons for developing an evaluation of a mentor program. The first reason relates to justifying to the district and program developers that the program has produced successful results. There are numerous ways that schools have done this. The 1999 teacher symposium (NFIE, 1999) came to the conclusion that detailed statistics must be kept to demonstrate progress within the program. These statistics provide support to schools in that they will continue to maintain their mentoring programs. An Oakland
County, Michigan district (Keane et al, 2001) records these statistics through student reflections, tapings, self-assessment strategies and formal observations. Most districts in a 1992 study by Gita Wilder involved a variety of stakeholders in the evaluation process; these stakeholders were familiar with the district-based mentoring program. Others in the study found outside organizations to assist with the evaluation and to give a fair unbiased assessment to the participating district or school.

The second addresses need as it relates to developing a mentor evaluation program to measure growth and in turn, to address deficiencies. Just as in teaching, reflection is believed to be important in facilitating growth and fostering success within a program. The acknowledgement of these necessary improvements will support the facilitator in determining areas for growth.

Conclusion

This guidebook was developed to educate district administrators and teachers on contemporary mentoring programs. Effective mentoring programs support districts in cultivating and retaining qualified and successful candidates. The challenge for the school administrator lies in developing and maintaining programs, not only to meet district and state mentoring requirements, but to positively affect everyone involved. An effective mentoring program has the power to transform the outlook of a district and its employees. The guidebook was designed as a resource to school administrators and to charge districts with reviewing their own mentoring programs in order to improve current
practices. The potential for effective change lies in the hands of the program developers, as they consider the ideas that are presented in this guidebook.
Chapter 5

DISCUSSION

The reality in education is that attrition exists. The Natural Center for Education Statistics (1995, as cited in NFIE, 1999) found that 9.3\% of first year teachers leave the profession of teaching after only one year. It is clear that something is needed to address this situation. Mentoring is a popular approach to addressing this situation. Mentor programs have been one of the most common approaches to attrition throughout the history of schools (Carter & Francis, 2000; Feiman-Nemse, 1996; Huling and Resta, 2001; all cited in Cho, 2002). Currently, over half of the nation’s states have implemented state mandated programs for entry level teachers (1999, as cited in Feiman-Nemser, 1998). Mentor programs clearly exist but are they effective? Reports differ in the evaluation of programs but almost all the articles cited agree that mentoring programs need improvement.

The need for improvement in mentoring programs is what motivated the author to develop a guidebook to help administrators and districts advance their current mentoring programs or develop new programs. The guidebook was sent to various local administrators; these reviewers were asked to complete a survey after reviewing the guidebook. The survey that was sent to the reviewers and the survey results are located in Appendix A.
Reviewer Background

All of the reviewers that participated in the survey are experienced educators. Each participant was chosen based on educational background and experience. Most of the participants have spent time in administrative roles; most have had experience in mentor programs as a supervisor, mentor or protégé.

Results

The survey reviewed six local administrators. Only five total questions were not answered by participants. Every participant agreed in their response that mentor programs can be a valuable asset in schools. All participants agreed that attrition was a problem in education for a variety of reasons. All respondents saw mentoring as an important piece to addressing attrition and supporting beginning teachers. However, most of the reviewers had mixed experiences with the success of mentor programs. Many saw the potential in mentoring, but saw shortcomings in their respective programs.

Four participants listed the opportunity to connect as the most positive aspect about mentor programs. Reviewers also concluded that mentor programs helped new teachers to find success, helped retain new teachers in the profession, gave support to new teachers and communicated the norms and cultures of the school to the new teachers.

Four participants listed inconsistent relational success as the least positive aspect of mentor programs. Other common responses about the least positive aspects of mentoring were ineffective implementation, a lack of quality mentors and mismatched
mentors and protégés. Five out of six of the responses indicated that improvement is needed in mentor programs. Three participants believed that in order for mentor programs to achieve additional success, more commitment from administrators is needed.

Five participants found that every subject in the guidebook was important to creating a successful mentor program. Two others felt that the mentor selection process was the most crucial part of a mentor program. Two respondents believed that the selection process was the area in mentor programs that needed the most improvement. The survey confirmed that three reviewers agreed that a mentor program is only as effective as the people organizing it and the program must be adjusted to the individual needs of a school. Five of the responses found that most administrators knew the information in the book but the majority failed to practice the information in their schools.

The survey also conveyed opinions about the effectiveness of the guidebook. The general response from the reviewers suggested that the guidebook had very informative research that better educated the reader. One particular participant felt that the section on new teacher needs was extremely helpful and even considered using this information in his existing program. Another respondent found the section on compensation for mentors very interesting. The guidebook summarized a large spectrum of research, helping administrators to become more familiar with the material. The guidebook also cultivated more interest in the subject for three reviewers.
Two participants mentioned that the guidebook was very informative but failed to be “user friendly”. Another reviewer felt that the guidebook needed more “How to” lists that administrators could quickly refer to when implementing or improving a mentor program. The average reader believed that the guidebook was less of a guidebook and more of a research summary.

Limitations of the Project

The reviewers found the project helpful, but in a different way than expected. The project was originally developed as a “How to” guidebook but ended up being more of a research summary. The project’s format limited the author in developing a true “guidebook” because the author’s opinions could not be reflected. The premise of a guidebook is based on opinion because the author selects his or her own research to include. By selecting some research over another, the author conveys to the reader what he or she feels is most important. The author chose to focus on presenting the research in a manner that did not reflect a particular opinion so that the reader could choose what he or she thought was the most important way to develop an effective mentor program.

Future Study

According to survey participants, the guidebook was a very beneficial piece, although it leaves much room for future study. Most reviewers agreed that the guidebook needed more purposeful applications and was “too research heavy” to use as a guidebook. Administrators need research, but busy administrators need less details and more useful applications. After reading each survey, it was clear to the author that educators need a
more “user friendly” guidebook to which they can quickly refer in their daily jobs.
Although many members of the educational community appear to know much about
mentoring programs, a clearly defined guidebook should be developed in order to help
administrators transition from knowing the information to applying the information in
their respective programs. Schools and their respective districts need research based
guidebooks so that they can begin to improve mentor programs. These guidebooks need
step by step instructions and purposeful lists that condense the large amount of
information included in this guidebook.

Chapter Summary

Mentor programs have proven to successfully address attrition and to better
prepare beginning teachers. Under current federal legislation such as No Child Left
Behind, it becomes apparent that mentoring programs are here to stay. District and
school personnel across the nation need to be further educated in regard to developing
and improving mentor programs. These administrators need “user friendly” resources to
help them succeed in designing programs. This guidebook serves as a resource to the
educational community; it is the hope of this author that this guidebook stresses the
importance of successful mentor programs. The longer the educational community waits
to improve such programs, the more money education loses and the less qualified
teachers there are to choose from. Poorly ran mentor programs cost districts money
because they lose more beginning teachers thus forcing districts to spend more money on
training new teachers. Effective and purpose-driven mentoring clearly affects the success
of a school district and its students.
REFERENCES


APPENDIX A

GUIDEBOOK REVIEW SURVEY

Current Position:

Years in Position:

1) Have you designed any school based mentor programs?
   ___ Yes ___ No

Have you supervised any school based mentor programs?
   ___ Yes ___ No

Have you participated in any school based mentor programs as a mentor?
   ___ Yes ___ No

Have you participated in any school based mentor programs as a protégé?
   ___ Yes ___ No

2) Are mentor programs a valuable resource in schools?
   ___ Yes ___ No
   Explain:

3) Based on your experience with mentor programs, list the three most positive aspects.

4) Based on your experience with mentor programs, list the three least positive aspects.
5) Is improvement needed in school mentor programs?
   ___ Yes
   ___ No
   Explain.

6) What part of the guidebook was the most helpful for you as an administrator or former administrator?

7) What part of the guidebook was least helpful for you as an administrator or former administrator?

8) After reading the guidebook, which areas do you see as having the greatest impact on creating and maintaining purposeful mentor programs?

9) After reading the guidebook, which elements of mentor programs do you see as having the greatest need for improvement?

10) Would you use this guidebook as a reference in the future?
    ___ Yes
    ___ No
    Explain.

11) Is the field of education challenged in retaining qualified candidates?
    ___ Yes
    ___ No
    Explain.
12) Do you believe teacher attrition is a problem?
   ___ Yes
   ___ No
   Explain.

13) Do you think the information in this guidebook is understood and practiced by
    administrators in your field?
   ___ Yes
   ___ No
   Explain.

14) Has the guidebook cultivated more interest for you in the subject of
    mentoring?
   ___ Yes
   ___ No
   Explain.

15) Based on your experiences, what is your personal opinion on the effectiveness
    of mentor programs?
GUIDEBOOK REVIEW SURVEY #1

Current Position:

Professor Emeritus. Prior to that: Associate Professor in Teacher Education Programs Graduate at Regis University. As part of that position, I placed student teachers in student teaching assignments. I also work with the Archdiocese of Denver program which has a huge mentoring program.

Years in Position: Professor Emeritus, almost a year now. Associate Professor: 1994-2006

1) Have you designed any school based mentor programs?
   \( \checkmark \) Yes \hspace{1cm} \_ \) No

   Have you supervised any school based mentor programs?
   \( \checkmark \) Yes \hspace{1cm} \_ \) No

   Have you participated in any school based mentor programs as a mentor?
   \( \checkmark \) Yes \hspace{1cm} \_ \) No

   Have you participated in any school based mentor programs as a protégé?
   \( \checkmark \) Yes \hspace{1cm} \_ \) No

2) Are mentor programs a valuable resource in schools?
   \( \_ \) Yes
   \( \_ \) No
   Explain.

I believe that the research within the document itself, reviews many of the needs for both school and district mentor programs.
3) Based on your experience with mentor programs, list the three most positive aspects.

   (Are you asking about the three most positive aspects of a mentoring program for teachers or are you asking about the three most positive aspects of the Guidebook that I am reviewing?) Three most positive aspects of mentoring programs are “Possible” retention of good teachers; providing support for new teachers (if possible through their third year of teaching); and quite possibly provide staff development collaborative groups for all teachers within a school.

4) Based on your experience with mentor programs, list the three least positive aspects.

   (As above?) Three least positive aspects of mentoring programs are: there usually is not a specific group of mentors identified, paid and given time to mentor; there is no support for the mentors in that by December everyone is busy and the last thing a mentor usually thinks about is taking extra time to mentor the new teacher (unless, of course, they have become good friends); and mentoring programs come and go (one of those things that is the last on the administrator’s list of ‘things to do’).

5) Is improvement needed in school mentor programs?

   X Yes
   ___ No
   Explain.

   See above under least positive aspects.

6) What part of the guidebook was the most helpful for you as an administrator or former administrator?

   (I’ve never been an administrator)
7) What part of the guidebook was least helpful for you as an administrator or former administrator?

(As above)

8) After reading the guidebook, which areas do you see as having the greatest impact on creating and maintaining purposeful mentor programs?

I’m sorry, I guess that I have read too many Master thesis. The guidebook read like chapter 2 of the thesis to me. It was very wordy. I wanted it to be in an ‘easy read’ format (different format, several kinds of fonts, short ‘how to’ sections) There was just too much research for me. We all know that mentoring programs either do not exist or are poorly implemented within both schools and districts. A few of the “quotes” were okay to use, but not all of that background information.

9) After reading the guidebook, which elements of mentor programs do you see as having the greatest need for improvement?

In most cases, all of them. The only program that I have seen that really works is the one in Cherry Creek (STAR Mentor Program) wherein money and time and commitment is actually set aside by the district in support of the program.

10) Would you use this guidebook as a reference in the future?

___ Yes
X No
Explain.

It’s too wordy. Just not in good format for an ‘easy-read’ how to set up a great mentoring program. I already know that we need to design and implement them, I want to know ‘how to do it’. Maybe like a Step-by-step for school and then Step-by-step for district.
11) Is the field of education challenged in retaining qualified candidates?

_X Yes
__ No
Explain.

It’s challenged in keeping them for a variety of reasons—one of which may be they had no support during their first three years of teaching. That is definitely NOT the only reason good teachers leave.

12) Do you believe teacher attrition is a problem?

_X Yes
__ No
Explain.

Better money in almost any other arena; less hassle; less rules and regulations made by decisions makers who have never practiced in the field for which they are making decisions; new demographics for which there seems to be no answers; less time spent in the workplace or working on work someplace else; fewer fast-decision making needs (I can’t remember the number of decisions that teachers must make on the spur-of-the-moment but it’s a lot); etc. etc. etc.

13) Do you think the information in this guidebook is understood and practiced by administrators in your field?

_X Yes
_X No
Explain.

Understood----yes. Practiced---no.
14) Has the guidebook cultivated more interest for you in the subject of mentoring?

___ Yes  
X  No  
Explain.

I’ve always been interested in mentoring, from both the one who is doing the mentoring point-of-view and the one who is being mentored point-of-view.

15) Based on your experiences, what is your personal opinion on the effectiveness of mentor programs?

Real mentoring programs, in general, are few and far between. Most of them are of the “if you have a question, go ask the teacher in the classroom next door” type. Cherry Creek School district has an excellent program in which experienced teachers, apply for and are hired to mentor, within the district for a period of three years. Mentoring is their position within the district. Alternative Licensure programs usually have good mentoring programs because a process for mentoring must be written as such within the application to the state to become a State Agency for issuing Alternative Licenses. The candidates in these programs, are teachers of record, even though they are not yet licensed and are working on their license, so each of them must be specifically assigned a mentor within the school and/or district with whom to work. These mentoring programs are specifically designed, implemented and appreciated by the mentor, the mentee, and the school and district administration. Therefore they work. Other mentoring programs are not so specific and appreciated thus they usually start out the school year strong and fade around Christmas time.
GUIDEBOOK REVIEW SURVEY #2

Current Position:
Assistant Professor

Years in Position: 3

1) Have you designed any school based mentor programs?
   ___ X Yes ___ No

Have you supervised any school based mentor programs?
   ___ X Yes ___ No

Have you participated in any school based mentor programs as a mentor?
   ___ X Yes ___ No

Have you participated in any school based mentor programs as a protégé?
   ___ X Yes ___ No

2) Are mentor programs a valuable resource in schools?
   ___ X Yes ___ No
   Explain.

   Purpose-driven mentor programs which are effectively planned and implemented provide to new teachers much needed support during their first years of teaching.
3) Based on your experience with mentor programs, list the three most positive aspects.

Building professional and personal relationships in the workplace.
Research-based learning becomes the norm. Teacher retention.

4) Based on your experience with mentor programs, list the three least positive aspects.

Ineffective implementation and monitoring can jeopardize the program and the experience. Mismatched mentors and protégés. Lack of supervision during implementation.

5) Is improvement needed in school mentor programs?

_X_ Yes
___ No
Explain.

Administrators (and mentors) are not always willing to commit to the process (time, relationship building). New administrators have little to no experience in planning for such programs. Adult learning theory is not addressed.

6) What part of the guidebook was the most helpful for you as an administrator or former administrator?

The research provided was informational and purposeful.
7) What part of the guidebook was least helpful for you as an administrator or former administrator?

The guidebook really was research-based with no purposeful applications.

8) After reading the guidebook, which areas do you see as having the greatest impact on creating and maintaining purposeful mentor programs?

Commitment from all stakeholders. Knowledge of adult learning theory, commitment to the process.

9) After reading the guidebook, which elements of mentor programs do you see as having the greatest need for improvement?

I believe my comments in the questions above can be referred to.

10) Would you use this guidebook as a reference in the future?

___ Yes  
X  No  
Explain.

See Question #7.
11) Is the field of education challenged in retaining qualified candidates?

_X_ Yes
__ No
Explain.

Lack of training at the university level, lack of training and support in the workplace. Little to no support for teachers seeking that support.

12) Do you believe teacher attrition is a problem?

_X_ Yes
__ No
Explain.

It’s a natural process-baby boomers are close to retiring. With that population being so substantial, there seems to be the likelihood that the field will be short on qualified candidates.

13) Do you think the information in this guidebook is understood and practiced by administrators in your field?

_X_ Yes
_X_ No
Explain.

Understood, yes, practiced, no.
14) Has the guidebook cultivated more interest for you in the subject of mentoring?

___ Yes
X  No
Explain.

I have designed mentor training programs for both administrators and teachers, and I’ve trained mentors. Having done this for a number of years, I would say the guidebook provided an opportunity to revisit much of what I incorporated into those programs.

15) Based on your experiences, what is your personal opinion on the effectiveness of mentor programs?

See Questions #4 and 5.
GUIDEBOOK REVIEW SURVEY #3

Current Position:

Associate Professor, Teacher Education

Years in Position: 6

1) Have you designed any school based mentor programs?
   ___ Yes   X No  But helped design a district-wide program

Have you supervised any school based mentor programs?
   X Yes  ___ No

Have you participated in any school based mentor programs as a mentor?
   ___ Yes   X No

Have you participated in any school based mentor programs as a protégé?
   ___ Yes   X No

2) Are mentor programs a valuable resource in schools?

   X Yes
   ___ No

   Explain.

   Support for the overwhelmed new teacher is essential!

3) Based on your experience with mentor programs, list the three most positive aspects.

   Support for the new teacher. Clear resources to help reduce the loss of teachers. Consistent training, rather than haphazard help
4) Based on your experience with mentor programs, list the three least positive aspects.

- Difference in programs from school to school and district to district.
- Being sure the program is NOT evaluative.

5) Is improvement needed in school mentor programs?

   X Yes
   ___ No

Explain.

I perceive that we have inconsistent implementation.

6) What part of the guidebook was the most helpful for you as an administrator or former administrator?

   Lots of information available. Nicely sequenced.

7) What part of the guidebook was least helpful for you as an administrator or former administrator?

   The guidebook was more like a White Paper: It was written in great detail, in a formal style (more like a review of lit). However, principals and teachers don’t have time to digest in such detail. Suggest bigger fonts, less text, use of bullets, etc., to make it more readable.

8) After reading the guidebook, which areas do you see as having the greatest impact on creating and maintaining purposeful mentor programs?

   Consistent content of programs from one location to the next.
9) After reading the guidebook, which elements of mentor programs do you see as having the greatest need for improvement?

Selection of mentors.

10) Would you use this guidebook as a reference in the future?

Yes If I were still a principal
X No
Explain.

I’m no longer a principal, thus there’s no relevancy for me now. Also, information provided builds background well, but didn’t give everyday activities to use.

11) Is the field of education challenged in retaining qualified candidates?

Yes
X No
Explain.

There are huge issues related to keeping quality people: Classroom management, Parent non-support, Politician meddling and Media simplification and distortion.

12) Do you believe teacher attrition is a problem?

Yes
X No
Explain.

Data shows that we lose huge numbers of new teachers between 3 and 5 years.
13) Do you think the information in this guidebook is understood and practiced by administrators in your field?

___ Yes
___ No
Explain.

14) Has the guidebook cultivated more interest for you in the subject of mentoring?

___ Yes
___ No
Explain.

15) Based on your experiences, what is your personal opinion on the effectiveness of mentor programs?
GUIDEBOOK REVIEW SURVEY #4

Current Position:

Principal

Years in Position: starting 3rd year

1) Have you designed any school based mentor programs?
   ___ Yes     X No

   Have you supervised any school based mentor programs?
   X Yes       ___ No

   Have you participated in any school based mentor programs as a mentor?
   X Yes       ___ No

   Have you participated in any school based mentor programs as a protégé?
   X Yes       ___ No

2) Are mentor programs a valuable resource in schools?
   X Yes
   ___ No

   Explain.

   They are important for communicating the culture and norms of a
district/school. Mentoring programs provide an opportunity for new staff to
connect and integrate appropriately into the culture. They help new staff to be
successful earlier.

3) Based on your experience with mentor programs, list the three most positive
   aspects.

   Communicate norms and culture. An opportunity for new staff to connect.
   Increased opportunity for success of new staff members.
4) Based on your experience with mentor programs, list the three least positive aspects.

Finding quality mentors that will follow through. Inconsistent success with connection between mentor and protégé.

5) Is improvement needed in school mentor programs?

_X_ Yes
___ No

Explain.

The issues stated in number 4 must be addressed effectively.

6) What part of the guidebook was the most helpful for you as an administrator or former administrator?

The section on stages of new teacher needs

7) What part of the guidebook was least helpful for you as an administrator or former administrator?

The section on review of programs for redundancy.

8) After reading the guidebook, which areas do you see as having the greatest impact on creating and maintaining purposeful mentor programs?

The section on stages of new teacher needs and the mentor selection process.

9) After reading the guidebook, which elements of mentor programs do you see as having the greatest need for improvement?

Selection processes and getting full buy-in from mentors.
10) Would you use this guidebook as a reference in the future?

___ Yes
___ No
Explain.

I really like the section on stages of needs – it is something we need to take a look at in our program.

11) Is the field of education challenged in retaining qualified candidates?

___ Yes
___ No
Explain.

Especially in the higher poverty level districts

12) Do you believe teacher attrition is a problem?

___ Yes
___ No
Explain.

13) Do you think the information in this guidebook is understood and practiced by administrators in your field?

___ Yes
___ No
Explain. I think it is understood, but practice is inconsistent at best.

14) Has the guidebook cultivated more interest for you in the subject of mentoring?

___ Yes
___ No
Explain.
15) Based on your experiences, what is your personal opinion on the effectiveness of mentor programs?

As it is with many programs – the program is only as effective as the people who organize it and implement it. Administrators & mentors that are knowledgeable and committed to mentor programs are successful with them.
GUIDEBOOK REVIEW SURVEY #5

Current Position:
Assistant Superintendent

Years in Position: Eight

1) Have you designed any school based mentor programs?
   ___ Yes    ___ No

   Have you supervised any school based mentor programs?
   ___ Yes    ___ No

   Have you participated in any school based mentor programs as a mentor?
   ___ Yes    ___ No

   Have you participated in any school based mentor programs as a protégé?
   ___ Yes    ___ No

2) Are mentor programs a valuable resource in schools?
   ___ Yes
   ___ No

   Explain.

   When roles of mentors and mentees are clearly defined and adequate time
   is provided mentor programs can be a valuable tool.
3) Based on your experience with mentor programs, list the three most positive aspects.

   It allows for a “connection” to the building culture. It allows for a safe avenue to ask what would sometimes be considered trivial questions. It allows for the sharing of ideas in a non-threatening, collegial manner. Top of page

4) Based on your experience with mentor programs, list the three least positive aspects.

   Sometimes the fit between mentor/mentee is not good. Some mentor don’t take the process seriously and do not meet on a regular basis.

5) Is improvement needed in school mentor programs?

   
   X Yes
   ___ No
   
   Explain.

   There is always opportunity for improvement.

6) What part of the guidebook was the most helpful for you as an administrator or former administrator?

   Good research on the components of a good program.

7) What part of the guidebook was least helpful for you as an administrator or former administrator?

8) After reading the guidebook, which areas do you see as having the greatest impact on creating and maintaining purposeful mentor programs?

   A key is matching the right mentor with the right mentee.
9) After reading the guidebook, which elements of mentor programs do you see as having the greatest need for improvement?

10) Would you use this guidebook as a reference in the future?

   ___ Yes
   ___ No
   Explain.

11) Is the field of education challenged in retaining qualified candidates?

   ___ Yes
   ___ No
   Explain.

12) Do you believe teacher attrition is a problem?

   ___ Yes
   ___ No
   Explain.

13) Do you think the information in this guidebook is understood and practiced by administrators in your field?

   ___ Yes
   ___ No
   Explain.

   To varying degrees.

14) Has the guidebook cultivated more interest for you in the subject of mentoring?

   ___ Yes
   ___ No
   Explain.
15) Based on your experiences, what is your personal opinion on the effectiveness of mentor programs?

They are as unique as the people they are designed to serve. They must be continually monitored and modified as needs and issues arise.
GUIDEBOOK REVIEW SURVEY #6

Current Position:

Special Program Coordinator (includes HR function)

Years in Position: 4

1) Have you designed any school based mentor programs?
   X Yes    ___ No

   Have you supervised any school based mentor programs?
   X Yes    ___ No

   Have you participated in any school based mentor programs as a mentor?
   X Yes    ___ No

   Have you participated in any school based mentor programs as a protégé?
   ___ Yes    X No

2) Are mentor programs a valuable resource in schools?
   X Yes    ___ No
   Explain.

   They are important to help acculturate the new employees to the school. It is helpful if they serve as a non evaluative means of providing a network of support to new employees.

3) Based on your experience with mentor programs, list the three most positive aspects.

   Connection between employees. Orientation to cultural aspects of school. Non evaluative relationships for new teachers.
4) Based on your experience with mentor programs, list the three least positive aspects.

   Inconsistency among mentors. Lack of follow through. Lack of training of mentors

5) Is improvement needed in school mentor programs?

   X Yes
   ___ No
   Explain.

   Specific checklists and topical suggestions for people monitoring and initiating mentor programs would be helpful.

6) What part of the guidebook was the most helpful for you as an administrator or former administrator?

   Research supporting mentorship programs. Discussion of ways to compensate mentors.

7) What part of the guidebook was least helpful for you as an administrator or former administrator?

   Background regarding attrition etc…
8) After reading the guidebook, which areas do you see as having the greatest impact on creating and maintaining purposeful mentor programs?

   Ideas for training of mentors.

9) After reading the guidebook, which elements of mentor programs do you see as having the greatest need for improvement?

   Consistency

10) Would you use this guidebook as a reference in the future?

    X Yes
    X No
    Explain.

    Yes and NO. A little too dense to pick up and use. Would be helpful to have reproducible checklists and easier to read suggestions.

11) Is the field of education challenged in retaining qualified candidates?

    X Yes
    ___ No
    Explain.

12) Do you believe teacher attrition is a problem?

    X Yes
    ___ No
    Explain.

    Expensive to recruit and train new faculty
13) Do you think the information in this guidebook is understood and practiced by administrators in your field?

   X   Yes
   ___ No
   Explain.

14) Has the guidebook cultivated more interest for you in the subject of mentoring?

   ___ Yes
   X   No
   Explain.

15) Based on your experiences, what is your personal opinion on the effectiveness of mentor programs?

   They can be very effective depending on the commitment and training of the mentor.