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MENTOR/MENTEE PERCEPTIONS OF MENTOR FUNCTIONS:
THE MENTORING OF ADULT LEARNERS IN
A LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT NETWORK

By

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A DISSERTATION

Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Agriculture and Natural Resources
Education and Communication Systems

2003

ABSTRACT

MENTOR/MENTEE PERCEPTIONS OF MENTOR FUNCTIONS: THE MENTORING OF ADULT LEARNERS IN A LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT NETWORK

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Survey research was used in studying mentor/mentee perceptions of the effectiveness of mentoring relationships in a nonformal educational program called the Leadership Development Network (LDN). The surveys incorporated modified versions of Cohen's post-secondary Principles of Adult Mentoring Scale (PAMS), one for LDN mentors and one for LDN mentees. The data showed that mentors rated the overall effectiveness of the mentoring relationship as "effective" whereas mentees rated it "less effective."

Additionally, the survey research also investigated mentor/mentee perceptions of effectiveness in the six PAMS subscales, or mentor functions, identified by Cohen. LDN mentors and mentees reported lowest effectiveness ratings in the Confrontive Focus mentor function. No single mentor function received more than an average ("effective") rating by either LDN mentors or LDN mentees.

Additional selected variables, age, level of trust, degree of mutual benefit, length of orientation, frequency of meeting over a six-month period, level of education attained, were also examined to determine if these variables influenced how mentors and mentees perceived the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship. The level of trust and the

degree of mutual benefit were perceived as high, demonstrating their importance in establishing effective mentoring relationships. These same variables were examined to see if they influenced how mentors and mentees perceived the effectiveness of Cohen's six mentor functions. Mutual benefit was the only variable which demonstrated any significant difference in how mentors and mentees perceived effectiveness in the mentor functions. Mentors and mentees who perceived a high degree of mutual benefit also perceived higher effectiveness ratings in the six mentor functions.

DEDICATION

To my wife and life partner, Jackie, for your encouragement through this whole learning process. You have been a mentor to me in many ways these past thirty-three years.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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CHAPTER 1-- INTRODUCTION

Background and Setting

Mentoring as an educational activity has been around for centuries, taking different forms and functions. The importance of mentoring in its many varied forms has been firmly established in history. For example, for centuries experienced artisans and craftsmen have taught their skills and trades to apprentices. Hunters have taken younger men with them and taught them how to stalk, strike and then gut their kill. Women taught younger girls how to collect flax, spin it and develop cloth for sewing into wearing apparel. Blacksmiths took younger boys into their shops and taught them how to forge utensils from hot metal. Carpenters have taken unskilled laborers and taught them the fine art of cabinet making or house construction. Before the advent of trade schools, mechanics with years of experience took journeymen under their wings and actively demonstrated the fine art of car repair, helping them to "hear" an engine, diagnose the problem and suggest a solution.

In the world of nursing, experienced nurses have mentored recently "pinned" nurses. Doctors trained other doctors by bringing young men into their homes. Today's residency in hospitals is a form of mentoring reminiscent of the days when doctors took their proteges with them on house calls.

In the business world, upper management executives become mentors to less experienced employees to assist them in climbing the corporate ladder. These upper management executives become sponsors to younger men and women who are in the early stages of learning the corporate culture. In many cases, these senior executives open doors to the junior members of the company, doors which otherwise would remain

shut.

In academia, experienced teachers become mentors to teachers in their first year of teaching. Some educators likewise take on promising students in order to coach them in specific aspects of their education.

In the religious realm, rabbis trained other rabbis through a process of ongoing mentoring. Within the Judaeo-Christian context, mentoring has been prevalent in the development of new leaders. Barnabas, for example, was instrumental in mentoring the Apostle Paul who in turn later mentored a young man named Timothy. In the early colonial days in America, prior to the founding of seminaries and divinity schools, ministers took young men into their homes and taught them the Bible and pastoral skills in preparation for their ordination. Medicine men among the Navajo, who have a religious function, took underlings—even boys—and passed on to these proteges the oral wisdom of their past.

Each one of the situations above is an example of a mentoring relationship between two people. Mentoring, therefore, has been and continues to be a major vehicle for the development of men and women by more experienced persons through the transmission of knowledge, the passing on of skills and the sharing of moral and ethical codes.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for the study finds its origin in a scale developed by Cohen (1993; 1995a; 1995b) in his Principles of Adult Mentoring Scale (PAMS) and described in detail in the literature review. Cohen describes six subscales which play a significant role in mentoring relationships. These six subscales are: 1) relationship

emphasis, 2) information emphasis, 3) facilitative focus, 4) confrontive focus, 5) mentor model and 6) student vision. These subscales form what Cohen called mentor functions.

The intent of the relationship emphasis is the development of trust between mentor and mentee. This is seen first and foremost as a function of the mentor. By information emphasis, Cohen describes the role of the mentor in obtaining the needed information about the mentee, his/her goals and plans, in order to make sure that what he/she (the mentor) offers, fills a need of the mentee. By facilitative focus, Cohen is attempting to examine how the mentor guides the mentee in an exploration of possibilities, looking at options and alternative views which will help the adult learner, or the mentee, to arrive at his/her own conclusions. Confrontive focus are those items in the instrument that examine the mentor's role of challenging the mentee in order that the mentee may make the necessary changes in direction or behavior to continue in his/her personal, professional and intellectual development. As a role model, Cohen examines if the mentor shares from his/her own experiences in life "to motivate students to take necessary risks (make decisions without certainty of successful results) and to continue to overcome difficulties in their own journey toward educational and career goals" (Cohen, 1993, p. 76). In the student vision Cohen examines if the mentor helps the mentee to develop his/her critical thinking ability, to cast a vision for a preferred future, to help the mentee become an independent adult learner.

Cohen presents two versions of the scale, one for post-secondary education and one for business, to analyze mentor role competencies. Reliability of the educational version is .9490 using the alpha scale, (Cohen, 1993, pp. 133, 183.) All six subscales measured by the Principles of Adult Mentor Scale demonstrate positive correlation.

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Accordingly, each mentor behavior "showed a high positive correlation... as indicated by the results of the Pearson Correlation Coefficient ® data" (Cohen, 1993, p. 183).

The intent of the Scale as a self-assessment tool is to help mentors "to become more alert to the impact of their specific behaviors on mentees" (Cohen, 1995a, p. 24)

In addition to assisting mentors in a self evaluation of their mentoring skills, Cohen in his findings, states that PAMS could be used as a diagnostic tool for identifying areas of deficiency around which a mentoring training program could be developed (Cohen, 1993, p. 202). This has significance for this study as it seeks to suggest training for mentors in order to enhance effective mentoring relationships.

Context of the Study

The mentoring relationships within the Leadership Development Networks (LDN) of the Christian Reformed Church of North America were the context for this study. The Christian Reformed Church in North America (CRCNA) is a Protestant denomination within the U.S. and Canada with a 150 year history. For every new local church that is started, or "planted", two churches die or merge. For the past fifteen years, Christian Reformed Home Missions, an agency of the CRCNA, has been facilitating nonformal educational programs for developing leaders for the church in order to contribute to the starting of new churches. These programs have gone under the names of Evangelist Training Program (ETP), ¡Adelante! (Spanish-language ETP), "Called to Serve," (training in Basic English for Southeast Asian church leaders in the U.S. and Canada) and now more recently, Leadership Development Networks. Through these nonformal educational settings, adult learners acquire a theological knowledge base, skills development and character formation appropriate to those with the calling to be

ordained evangelists.

Each nonformal LDN has as one of its core values that the learning experience must be mentorship-driven (New-Church Development Department, 2000, Section D-41). In other words, the adult learners must have a mentor. Mentoring is seen as a means of assisting the adult learners in the LDNs. Levinson (1978, p. 97) states, "The mentor relationship is one of the most developmentally important relationships a person can have in early adulthood." His study suggests a correlation between adult and career development, both spheres which take on significance in the training of these future evangelists. Stanley and Clinton (1992, p. 11), in discussing mentors, say that most leaders over the course of their lifetime are helped along the way by three to ten significant people.

Within the CRCNA the importance of this mentorship has already been identified in previous studies, the most recent being the research of De Vries (1987) in which the author examines the mentoring relationship between new pastors and more experienced pastors.

As important as mentoring has been declared for LDN, the assigning of mentors to LDN adult learners and the monitoring of the mentoring enterprise has been a sporadic and not-well-thought-out activity. The need for answering questions regarding the effectiveness of mentoring in the LDNs leads to this broader study on the whole issue of mentoring of adult learners in any nonformal educational setting.

Population

There are two populations in this study. One of the populations is all of the adult learners, or mentees, in the Leadership Development Networks (LDNs) in the Christian

Reformed Church in North America. The other population is the corresponding mentors for these mentees. The LDNs are located in southern California, Texas, New Jersey, Illinois, Michigan, and Florida, as well as in Vancouver, Canada. The mentee population for this study consists of the following: 2 in Florida; 16 in New Jersey; 5 in Chicago, Illinois; 9 in California; 14 in Canada; 22 in Texas, totaling 68 mentees. The mentor population consists of 2 mentors in Florida; 8 in New Jersey; 5 mentors in Illinois; 6 in California; 9 in Canada; 17 in Texas, for a total of 47 mentors. The difference in size between the mentee population and the mentor population is due to some mentors having more than one mentee while other mentors have a single mentee under their care.

These populations consist of native English-speakers, native Spanish-speakers, and those for whom English is a second language. Ethnically/racially, the population is composed of Anglo Americans, Hispanics and African Americans.

Many of the mentees are second career learners. Academically they range from some high school all the way to learners with Master's degrees. All have opted for this form of training instead of enrolling in the formal programs at the Reformed Bible College or Calvin Seminary.

The mentors in this population are mostly ordained ministers or evangelists in active ministry in the Christian Reformed Church in North America. Many hold a bachelor's degree from the Reformed Bible College or a Master's degree from Calvin Seminary. A few are graduates of nonformal educational programs such as the LDN itself. Even fewer are graduates of other bible colleges or seminaries from outside the U.S. and Canada.

Purpose of the Study and Objectives

Galbraith and Cohen (1995a; 1995b) point out that too often a mentor enters into a mentoring relationship without any forethought of what ingredients are needed for a successful mentoring experience. What begins as an honorable goal sometimes ends in utter frustration for both mentor and mentee. Mentoring often happens with little consideration as to what contributes to an effective mentoring experience.

The purpose of this study was to examine mentoring relationships in terms of the functions of a mentor. The objectives were to:

1) Examine the extent to which the six mentor functions identified by Cohen can be helpful in understanding the perceptions of both mentors and mentees.

2) Examine mentors' perceptions of the mentor functions when selected variables are examined. The selected variables were age, degree of mutual benefit, level of trust, frequency of meeting, length of orientation, level of education attained.

3) Examine mentees' perceptions of the mentor functions when selected variables are examined. The selected variables were age, degree of mutual benefit, level of trust, frequency of meeting, length of orientation, level of education attained.

Definition of Terms

It was hard to arrive at exact definitions for some of the terms which were used in this study. Merriam (Spring 1983, p. 169) cites the difficulty of arriving at a clear definition for even the simple word *mentoring*. "[M]entoring appears to mean one thing to developmental psychologists, another thing to business people, and a third thing in academic settings." Bova (May-June 1984), for example, cites ten different examples of definitions for mentoring. The definitions given below were considered working definitions of words frequently employed in this study.

Andragogy

"The art and science of helping adults learn." (Knowles, 1985, p. 6).

Mentor

"One who offers knowledge, insight, perspective or wisdom that is helpful to another person in a relationship that goes beyond doing one's duty or fulfilling one's obligations." (Shea, 1999, p. 3).

Mentee

"A recipient of a mentor's help, especially a person who seeks out such help and uses it appropriately for developmental purposes..." (Shea, 1999, p. 3).

Mentoring relationship

"A developmental, caring, sharing and helping relationship where one person invests time, know-how and effort in enhancing another person's growth, knowledge, and skills." (Shea, 1999, p. 3).

Nonformal education

"Any intentional and systematic educational enterprise (usually outside of traditional schooling) in which content is adapted to the unique needs of the students (or unique situations) in order to maximize learning...." (Kleis, Lang, Mietus, and Tiapula, 1973, p. 6).

Effective mentoring

"The aim of effective mentorship, then, is to promote the development of the learner.... taken to mean an increase in the ability to perceive and hold complexity, to tolerate ambiguity, to experience one's own and others' feelings more richly, to see oneself and others in a broader context, and to make wholehearted commitments in a complex, tentative, and interdependent world."(Daloz, 1998, p. 354).

LDN

Abbreviation for Leadership Development Network, a nonformal educational program for training evangelists in the Christian Reformed Church in North America.

Significance of the Study

Schmoll (1981, p. 5) has accurately pointed out the need for such inquiries into mentoring relationships and adjustments in those relationships.

> In a society which is fast moving (Toffler, 1974); in a society in which persons are increasingly isolated from one another (Fromm, 1955; Toffler, 1974; Fleming, 1975); in a society in which friendships are few if at all (Sadler, 1969; Macoby, 1976; Levinson, 1978); in a society which has shifted its focus from one of goals to roles (Glasser, 1972); and in a society in which the individual has become of primary importance, there seems to be a tremendous need to explore relationships that offer hope for both individuals and society.

This study was essential to examining suggested characteristics that make for effective mentoring relationships in nonformal educational settings. Identifying characteristics essential to effective mentoring relationships can stimulate the design of training modules for mentors regarding the development of these essential characteristics or behaviors.

The results of this study add to the growing body of research on the specific

subjects of mentors, mentees and the mentoring relationship. Greater clarity of definition of these terms was the outcome of this study, as well as a theoretical framework for effective mentoring relationships.

Limitations

Survey research on two populations, an LDN mentor population and an LDN mentee population, was used in the development of this study. These are two very specific populations, therefore, the generalizability of the results of this study to other settings is limited in scope. The study has validity and reliability only to the two particular populations on which this study focuses.

This study is also time-limited, examining survey responses regarding a single period of time within a broader mentoring relationship. The perceptions of mentors and mentees regarding the relationship are essentially "frozen in time," since they were not asked to respond to the survey more than once in the mentoring relationship.

Assumptions

Although there can be no direct control over the responses given by respondents to the surveys, it is assumed that the respondents are able and willing to give valid responses to all statements in the surveys. It is also assumed that respondents are able and willing to give reliable responses to all statements on the surveys.

CHAPTER 2—LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The focus of this literature review was on sources regarding mentoring in the educational and business settings. With few exceptions, most of the literature available on the subject of mentoring dates from the early 1980s forward. Wunsch (1994, p.1) notes, "from 1980 to 1990, over 380 articles appeared in the popular press and academic journals on mentoring in business and education". Gray (1989) and Gray and Gray (1986) provide two annotated bibliographies, one for literature prior to 1986, and one from 1986 through 1989, covering more than 1,300 entries. Noller & Frey, (1983) provide an additional resource, including a matrix on seventeen specific mentoring areas. Biehl (1997, p. 9) points out one reason why there is so little formal literature on mentoring prior to the early 1980s or late 1970s: " [A] book on mentoring would not have been necessary one hundred years ago.... It was to human relationships what breathing is to the body. Mentoring was assumed, expected, and therefore almost unnoticed because of its commonness in human experience". Something happened to take mentoring out of the mainstream of experiences so that a formal revival of mentoring needed to occur and be written about. As literature on adult learners began to appear, so did articles and books on the subject of mentoring.

This literature review deals with the adult learner, with the mentor, the mentee, and with the mentoring relationship. The literature review is divided into four main sections: 1) the adult learner, 2) characteristics and role of the mentor, 3) characteristics and role of the mentee, 4) the mentoring relationship as perceived and described over time, and 5) mentoring models.

The Adult Learner

To fully understand the characteristics and role of adult mentors and adult

mentees, there is a need to first understand the adult learner. According to Zachary

(2000, p. 3), mentoring "is grounded in knowledge about adult learning". Educators like

Eduard Lindeman (1926) and Malcolm Knowles (1970; 1975; 1984; 1985; 1986) give

us a broad understanding of the adult learner. Coombs, Prosser, and Ahmed (1973)

discuss three contexts for adult learning: 1) formal, 2) nonformal and 3) informal

settings. Ward, Levine, Joesting and Crespo (1984) discuss the three contexts,

represented by means of Figure 1.
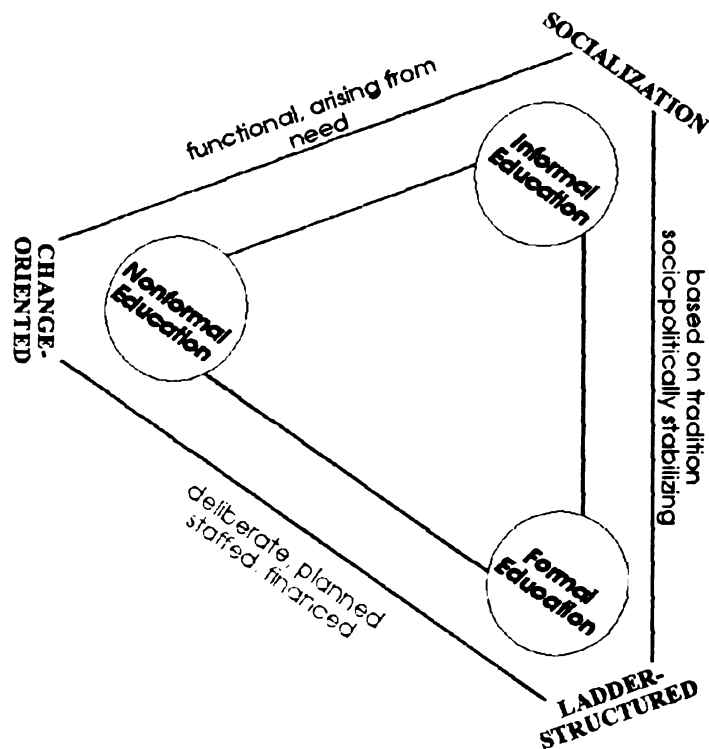
Figure 1: The Three Sides of Adult Education

Ward *et al.* (1984) call this concept the three-sector model of educational modes.

Formal education is seen as being ladder-structured. Adult learners in a formal educational mode are moving up the educational ladder rung by rung, acquiring degrees which will be recognized by others as a sign of having arrived. They use the term change-oriented to describe those adult learners in the nonformal educational mode. These adult learners are looking for information in a structured setting that will bring about change in themselves and in society. No degree awaits this adult learner at the end of his/her investigation. Informal education involves becoming a better person, a more educated person. There is no certificate to be earned; no school to attend; no specified set of outcomes to acquire. Informal education is very unstructured.

Within these three settings, the adult learner experiences the process of learning. The combination of the two words, adult + learner, provides us with a label by which to limit our literature review as well as to focus it. Neither primary school children nor adolescent learners are the subject of this review. There has been substantial adult learner research already done, a defining or describing of the adult learner. Cross (1981) reviews much of the literature through 1980 which describes learner characteristics, learner motivation, and learning preferences. In *The Literature of Adult Education: A Bibliographic Essay,* Houle (1961; 1992) reviews the literature regarding adult education and adult learners. Houle divides adults into three types of learners: 1) those who are goal-oriented learners, 2) those who are activity-oriented learners, and 3) those who are learning-oriented learners. Allen Tough (1968), himself a protégé of Houle, looks particularly at adult motivation to learn, and phases for learning. He points out that an adult learner has more than a single reason for learning. Much of an adult's learning is the result of a desire to gain and apply knowledge or skills. Tough discusses three

different learning patterns which are, themselves, a restatement of Houle's three learner orientations. In lieu of discussing goal-, learning-, and activity- oriented learners, Tough refers to 1) a learner's awareness that he/she wants to accomplish something which requires new learning, 2) the learner has a desire to learn something due to curiosity or interest, and 3) the learner determines simply to learn something new.

Paul Bergevin (1967) studies eleven problem areas for the adult learner, particularly pages 65-89 in his book. Chapter VI distinguishes succinctly the difference between the way a child and an adult learn. This chapter gives a list of caveats which the adult educator ought to take into account in order to enhance the possibility of "success" in the learning experience.

Alan Rogers (1986), contributes to the discussion on the adult learner based on his experiences in the United Kingdom and in the two-thirds world. More recently, Taylor, Marienu, and Fiddler (2000) and Merriam and Caffarella (1999) add to this knowledge base. The former look at adult learning in light of developmental theory while the latter bring together in a singular work the seminal works of Cross, Knowles, Kidd and others and also present more recent adult learning theories.

It is Malcolm Knowles, though, who best describes the adult learner in terms that have been replicated in many different forms by subsequent adult educators. Knowles was a proponent of andragogy: the art and science of helping adults learn. Knowles, in his development of his concept of andragogy, posits certain assumptions about all adult learners.

1) The adult learner has a need to know, investing time and money to do so.

2) The adult learner is self-directed. . "An essential aspect of maturing is developing the

ability to take increasing responsibilities for our own lives—to become increasingly self-directed" (Knowles, 1975), p. 15). Caffarella (1993) and Candy (1991) have more recently contributed to our understanding of self-directed learning. Caffarella (1993, p. 28) writes "the learner chooses to assume the primary responsibility for planning, carrying out, and evaluating those learning experiences". Merriam and Caffarella (1999) point out that "Participation in self-directed learning seems almost universal—in fact, an estimated 90% of the population is involved with at least one self-directed learning activity a year." Cross (1981, pp. 63-64) gives a more detailed report on the self-planned learning projects as proposed by Tough and explained by Candy and Caffarella. Galbraith and Zelenak (1991, pp. 112-118) likewise look at learning contracts and their advantages and limitations in their 1991 volume on adult learning. O'Donnell & Caffarella (1998, p. 276) define learning contracts as "a formal agreement written by a learner which details what will be learned, how the learning will be accomplished, the period of time involved, and the specific evaluation criteria to be used in judging the completion of the process." Knowles (1986) writes on the same subject in his large work *Using Learning Contracts*, regarding understanding learning contracts, developing and using them in various settings, and offering practical hints on achieving success with them.

3) The adult learner is rich in experiences. The adult learner does not come into this act of learning with an empty head to be filled with information or skills from one who has all the information.

4) The adult learner has a readiness to learn. Havighurst (1972) says that the learner has "teachable moments."

5) The adult learner is self-motivated. The learner seeks out opportunities to learn.

6) The adult learner is in a problem-centered mode. He or she is looking for immediate application of what is being learned, application to situations in which the learner finds himself or herself.

In the late '20s through the late '50s, Lindeman had written something similar to this. Knowles (1984) makes reference to this writing of Lindeman in *The Adult Learner* (p. 30). He identifies several Lindeman key assumptions about adult learners:

1) "Adults are motivated to learn as they experience needs and interests that learning will satisfy...." Learning for adults, then, is situational. They learn when there is a need.

2) "Adults' orientation to learning is life-centered...." Learning, therefore, is based on life situations and not on subjects.

3) "Experience is the richest resource for adults' learning...." Lindeman had written in 1926 that "Experience is the adult learner's living textbook."

4) "Adults have a deep need to be self-directed."

It is clear from the literature that andragogy and/or adult learning theory takes on many forms. Pratt (1993, p. 15) states, "For some, andragogy has been a prescriptive set of guidelines for the education of adults. For others, it represents a philosophical position vis-à-vis the existential nature of adults. For still others, it is an ideology based on beliefs regarding individual freedom, the relationship between individual and society, and the aims of adult education." Merriam & Caffarella (1999, pp. 250-251) enumerate the various studies that criticize Knowles' conceptual framework.

What is clear is that andragogy serves as a theory of sorts presenting assumptions

regarding adult learners that will be touched upon again as the roles of mentor and of mentee are later discussed in this review. Knowles (1984, pp. 15-18) himself refers to an "andragogical process design" which includes seven elements. Pratt (1993, p. 19) enumerates these for us as: 1) climate setting, 2) involving learners in mutual planning, 3) involving participants in diagnosing their own needs for learning, 4) involving learners in formulating their learning objectives, 5) involving learners in designing learning plans, 6) helping learners carry out their learning plans, and 7) involving learners in evaluating their learning." The andragogical assumptions about adult learners together with this andragogical process design would seem to correlate with what is good about a mentor/mentee relationship and could serve as a particular approach in developing that relationship.

Both Lindeman and Knolwes referred to the self direction of the adult learner. This is a key word in literature on adult learning. Grow (1991, pp. 134-135) points out that learners go through four stages on their way to becoming self-directed learners: 1) dependent, not self-directed, 2) moderately self-directed, 3) intermediate level of self-direction, and 4) self-directed. In the first stage the learner is completely dependent on the educator for his/her information, affirmation, when and how to do tasks, etc. The educator practically spoon-feeds the learner. The teacher functions more as a constant coach. In the second stage, the learner shows signs of self-direction, of some independence. He/she is able to do limited personal goal setting without the constant urging and instructing of the teacher. Confidence begins to build and learning skills become more fine-tuned. The teacher at this level needs to be very motivational and show great enthusiasm for teaching and for the learners. In the third stage the learner

demonstrates more involvement in the learning process than in the two earlier stages. More self-direction is evident. Greater interest is shown in understanding how their learning is occurring. The learner is more able to adapt and to apply what is being taught, and begins to strategize in ways not thought possible before. There is a greater openness to learning from others and to learn with others. The teacher at this level functions more as a facilitator. In the fourth and final stage, the learner reaches the level of being able to direct himself/herself in learning, in setting goals, in setting standards for his/her own work and involvement. The learners who reach this fourth level "thrive in an atmosphere of autonomy."

Probably the best description of the self-directed learner is bound in the classic work by Candy (1991) in *Self-direction for Lifelong Learning*. Candy provides the reader with a "Profile of the Autonomous Learner," listing more than one hundred attributes and competencies of the autonomous learner. Candy points out that justifiably educators can expect learners to become self-directed or autonomous, responsible for their own learning.

Zimmerman (1990, p. 4) in the *Educational Psychologist* writes succinctly about self-directed learners, describing them as learners who "approach educational tasks with confidence, diligence, and resourcefulness.... Self-regulated learners are aware when they know a fact or possess a skill and when they do not.... Self-regulated students proactively seek out information when needed and take steps to master it. When they encounter obstacles such as poor study conditions, confusing teachers, or abstruse text books, they find a way to succeed." This seems to second what Grow had to say about the self-directed learner at stage Four in his/her development.

Weimer (2002, p. 16) is quick to point out, though, that "development as an independent learner is not the inevitable outcome of formal educational experiences." The literature tends to discuss the need for learners to become autonomous, describes what a self-directed learner is like, and describes how a learner-centered teacher ought to be, pointing to a reality which, in many formal institutions of learning, appears, unfortunately, to be only a dream.

Closely linked to this concept of self direction is the concept of adult readiness to learn. In other words, an adult, when ready to learn, is self-directing in his/her efforts to learn something new. Guglielmino (1977) lists eight factors that need to be present if an adult learner is ready for self-directed learning: 1) openness to learning, 2) an understanding of self as an effective learner, 3) initiative and independence as an adult learner, 4) acceptance of responsibility, 5) creativity, 6) future orientation, 7) love of learning, and 8) the ability to use basic study and problem-solving skills. Based on these eight factors, Guglielmino developed a Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale (SDLRS) to determine adult readiness for self-directed learning (Guglielmino & Guglielmino 1988; Guglielmino, Long, & McCune 1989). Merriam and Caffarella (1999) report various studies based on the use of this scale. Questions, though, have been raised about the validity and reliability of this scale (Brookfield, 1984; Field, 1989; Field, 1991). Nevertheless, the author of the scale has refuted the claims. According to Merriam and Caffarella (1999, p. 217), "Only further studies on the SDLRS will put to rest these major differences of opinion."

What motivates the adult learner to learn when he/she is ready to learn? Motivation for learning is also key to an understanding of the adult learner. The adult

learner, as already seen by the various descriptions of the adult learner, is self-motivated. As mentioned before, Houle (1961) describes three self motivated learners: 1) the goal-oriented learner, 2) the activity-oriented learner, and 3) the learning-oriented learner. The goal-oriented learner becomes involved in a learning activity because of objectives he/she has set for himself/herself. This type of learner is responding to what Houle terms transitions. These transitions serve as "triggers" for new learning. Sokol and Cranton (Spring 1998) discuss "trigger events" as the catalyst for what is called transformative learning. The activity-oriented learner involves himself/herself in a learning activity for other-than-learning reasons. They may be bored, seeking friendship, or they may need to get out of the house. They become learners for the sake of the activity, not necessarily for the learning that will occur. The third learner type, the learning-oriented, is involved in a learning activity for the sheer joy of learning. Houle is referred to again because of the importance of his seminal work on adult motivation to learn.

For example, Peterson (1979) observes that the research on adult motivation points to "thirty variations on the same study." The Houlian typology on the adult learner has become, as it were, a classic. Interestingly, Lowe (1987; January-March 1991) carries out research to question if there isn't a fourth motivational taxonomy. He calls it the "institutional orientation," which approaches the subject from a sociological dimension rather than from a psychological dimension. This may have more bearing when mentoring is discussed as a means of inducting a person into a specific organizational setting. Cross (1981, p. 83) points out that eventually "Every learner has more than one reason for engaging in learning". In her cited work, she gives a more in-depth analysis of adult learner motivation (pp. 85-97).

Another popular term to describe the adult learning process is "lifelong learning." The first two appendices of Cross's work (1981) deal extensively with this theme. Dave (1976, pp. 35-36) in his book, *Lifelong Education and School Curriculum*, writes, "Lifelong education seeks to view education in its totality. It covers formal, nonformal and informal patterns of education.... It is also characterized by flexibility in time, place, content, and techniques of learning and hence calls for self-directed learning, sharing of one's enlightenment with others, and adopting varied learning styles and strategies."

Dave gives twenty characteristics of lifelong learning, of which only four are cited here:

1) Learning is a lifelong process.

2) Lifelong learning includes all three modes (formal, nonformal, informal)

3) Lifelong learning is flexible and diverse in content, in the time of learning, as well as in the learning tools used and techniques employed

4) Lifelong learning by its very nature allows for the possibility of alternative ways of learning.

Richardson (1979, p. 48) gives a very broad definition of lifelong learning, a definition that somehow describes the lack of clarity regarding lifelong learning or the broad strokes which have been used to describe this phenomenon. Richardson says, "'Lifelong education' means anything you want it to mean." Billington (1998) brings more clarity by coming up with seven key factors which he suggests encourage adult learning:

1) An environment which fostered a sense of safety in which the learner's experiences

were valued.

2) An environment which fostered intellectual freedom. Learners are encouraged to be creative and to think "outside of the box."

3) An environment in which all are learners and teachers. There is a sense in which everyone in the activity is a peer.

4) An environment in which self-directed learning is considered as a positive factor rather than a negative. Learner and teacher (instructor, facilitator) together design the learning activities. There is no cookie cutter model for the curriculum that everyone must go through.

An environment which fosters pacing. Although pacing normally refers to a person working at his or her own speed, in this context Billington refers to pacing as "challenging people just beyond their present level of ability." There is always a challenge there for the learner, but a challenge which, with a little effort, can be attained.

5) An environment in which there is mutual participation. Participatory learning takes place as both learner and facilitator dialogue. The "classroom" becomes a place where experimentation can take place.

6) An environment where there is appropriate feedback from learner to facilitator so adjustments in the activity can be made.

What Billington has said about the learning environment for the adult learner will find special significance when we look at the literature regarding the environment for the mentoring relationship. Similarities will be noted.

Deshler (1998) raises several questions which adult learners may ask themselves

as they evaluate the learning activities they are involved in. The first set of questions pertain to gaining new confidence, the ability to learn better how to learn and the ability to change in one's views.

1) Have they learned how to learn better or gain access to more knowledge?

2) Have they gained confidence and skill in presenting their ideas?

3) Have they changed their assumptions, habits of the mind, priorities?

4) Have they gained confidence in taking leadership?

5) Have they overcome self-doubts, insecurities, and learning deterrents?

6) Have they increased their commitment to take direct action?

The second set of questions which Deshler raises deal with learner evaluation, questions which deal with information and skill acquisition.

1) Have they gained factual knowledge that is useful to them?

2) Have they made use of principles, concepts or theories in relationship to their real problems?

3) Have they developed specific psychomotor manual skills?

4) Have they increased their interests in the subject or problem?

Adult learners will also want to evaluate the learning activities they are involved in. In addition to the types of questions mentioned above, one needs to consider what Deshler (1998) calls the "reference perspectives" (pp. 319-323) when the learners are about to pass judgment on the data they have collected—mentally or written—regarding a learning activity. Are they comparing their degree of learning against a pre-established standard, or criterion-referenced? Or are they comparing their learning with that of other adult learners, or cohort-referenced? Maybe they're concerned about the amount of

progress they've made in learning something new or in improving a skill, or progress-referenced. Then again, they may be approaching their learning from the perspective of how difficult the subject was or the skill gained, or difficulty-referenced. They might even be looking at this learning activity as to its value in light of the sacrifices they made in time, money, or personal gratification, or alternative-referenced. They have different ways of judging the value and worth of their learning experience. In a similar fashion, mentees as adult learners will need to evaluate perspectives on their mentoring relationship at the same time that mentors evaluate that relationship.

It is worth taking note of a publication from Jossey-Bass entitled *Learner-centered Teaching: Five Key Changes to Practice* (Weimer, 2002). As the subtitle suggests, a learner-centered approach to teaching implies a change in practice. One could also call this a paradigm shift. In the same way in which one views Knowles' characteristics of the adult learner as *andragogical assumptions*, one reads into Weimer 'sfive key components a *teaching paradigm*, or an innovative approach to the subject of "teaching" adults. Weimer suggests that the focus of this teaching ought not to be on the teacher but on the learner. Even as we talk about teaching, the limelight is on the learner and not on the faculty. "Learner-focused teaching," therefore, "focuses attention on what the student is learning, how the student is learning, the conditions under which the student is learning, whether the student is retaining and applying the learning, and how current learning positions the student for future learning." (Publisher's comment) Even though addressed to the college and university professor, the learner is seen as the subject and not the object of teaching. Weimer states that she wrote this book since most teachers tend to know a lot less about learning than about teaching. Her goal was to write

something that would explore how teaching could enhance learning. The goal is to help the learner to be ultimately responsible for his/her own learning (pp. xvi). In this approach, the teacher is never seen as the all-knowing talking head, but rather as a gardener, midwife, guide, coach, and orchestral maestro (pp. 74-76). Each one of these concepts conjures up a different image, demonstrates a different role for the learner-centered educator. Not original metaphors with Weimer, she cites various other educators who have written on the subject, like Ayers(1986), Fox (1983), Hill (1980), Dunn (1992), and Eisner (1983), from whom she borrowed these terms. This concept of the teacher as a gardener is reiterated by Grow (1991, pp. 134-135) when he writes, "[teachers do] not teach subject matter but... cultivate the student's ability to learn." In all of these metaphors the educator has a supportive role to play but is not the primary player. Gardeners may cultivate, but flowers and vegetables do the growing. Midwives merely deliver a live baby. Guides lead or show the way, but the hiker or tourist still needs to do the walking. Coaches urge the team on, but the team does the playing. And the maestro waves his baton in the air, counting out the beats, but the woodwinds play their clarinets, the percussionists beat the drums and the violinists play their instruments. As Daloz (1986, p. 232) explains, "What we model for our students is not knowledge, but our curiosity, the journey, not the destination." The destination is the learner's to pursue, not the educator's.

Although admitting that from time to time traditional teachers have also filled these roles, Weimer (2002) points out that for those involved in learner-centered teaching, these roles are not optional. "Our continued insistence on always being at the center of classroom activities directly compromises attempts we make to be learner-

centered. We must move aside, often and regularly," (Weimer, 2000, p. 74). These same concepts will come up again in this literature review as the role of the mentor is examined.

In summary, the literature review thus far has looked at the adult learner, describing the adult learner in terms understood by both Lindeman and Knowles, in terms of his/her motivation as pointed out by Houle and others, in terms of the conditions needed for self direction, or learning, to take place. The literature review also has looked at a paradigm shift from that of teacher-centered teaching to learner-centered teaching, calling on the teacher of adults to be gardener, midwife, coach, guide, or maestro.

The Mentor

Shea (1994) and many others have given *The Odyssey* as the historical origin for the word mentor. Shea also points out that the idea or concept of mentoring goes back even earlier than this classic epic. "Archeologists and anthropologists trace its origins back to the Stone Age, when especially talented flint knappers, healers, cave artists, and shamans instructed younger people in the arts and knowledge needed to perpetuate their skills" (p. 13). The concept of mentoring is an old one, and mentors wereon the scene even in pre-historic times, although the term itself may not have been used.

Description of the Mentor

The literature shows both definitions of the term as well as descriptions of the term. The word mentor has many analogous terms used to describe it. Parks and Parks (2000, p. 128), for example, see mentors as those upon whom mentees are dependent "at

the time of the development of critical thought and the formation of an informed, adult, and committed faith." They further say, "Good mentors help to anchor the promise of the future" (p. 128).

Vogel (2000) identifies mentors as adult educators. Their role is to help the mentee to grow in knowledge, skills and character. Vogel also describes the adult educators/mentors as midwives who "assist other people in giving birth to new ideas, new skills, new metaphors, and new ways of being and doing. They assist learners in giving birth to their own ideas, visions and goals" (p. 24).

Taylor *et al.* (2000) uses the metaphor of an educator-as-a-journeyman-architect for their description of a mentor (p. 328). As such, the mentor is not a master but a fellow traveller, working also towards self-improvement and bettering his/her craft. They expand on this definition by describing what a mentor does, giving rise to other nouns as well. The mentor blazes a trail (trailblazer), presenting several paths open to the mentee in any given situation. The mentor provides a map (guide or scout), whether dealing with skills, information, or developmental growth issues. The mentor allows the mentee to establish his/her own pace (coach), in determining how fast to go in one's own development, as well as determining if any development should occur at this time. Taylor further states that the mentor provides a lifeline (a lifeguard), always available to listen when needed, acknowledging the feeling of the mentee in the process of his/her development (pp. 330-333). Daloz (1999, p. 226) not only sees the mentor providing a map, but goes beyond this by seeing the mentor as helping the mentee to develop his/her own maps.

Marienu (Taylor *et al.*, 2000, p. 330) also calls the mentor a guide on the journey.

The mentor has also been called "a people grower" (Elmore, 1995). Shea (1999, p. 3) defines the mentor as "Anyone who has an important, long-lasting, beneficial life-or style-enhancing effect on another person, generally as a result of personal one-on-one contact."

Tice (1997) describes the mentor as an inspirer of others. "We need to be around people who believe in us so that we can more fully believe in ourselves. This enduring belief in our own capabilities, more than anything else, is the gift that mentors give" (p. 145); in a sense, it is the gift that keeps on giving.

Schein (1978) identifies eight roles that mentors play similar to many already mentioned: confidant, teacher, sponsor, role model, developer of talent, opener of doors, protector, successful leader.

Stanley and Clinton (1992, p. 38) list six characteristics of a good mentor: 1) ability to readily see potential in a person; 2) tolerance with mistakes, etc.; 3) flexibility; 4) patience, knowing that time and experience are needed for development; 5) perspective; and 6) gifts and abilities to utilize and pass on.

Shea (1994, pp. 46-49) lists behaviors which mentors need to practice in order to be effective at the task: 1) listening, which allows the mentee to take ownership and to become his/her own problem-solver; 2) feedback, which tells the mentee that they also are understood; 3) providing information and ideas, which takes on greater importance not for the information given but knowing when to give it; 4) context-shifting, which allows the mentee to see himself/herself in a different situation; 5) confrontation, in which the mentor helps the mentee to anticipate the consequences to an action; 6) permission and encouragement, in which the mentor serves as a permission-giver for the

mentee to make changes; and 7) exploring options, in which the mentor does brainstorming with the mentee to see more choices, to be more creative in solving problems. Shea lists additional mentor responsibilities (p. 52). Elmore (1995, pp. 65-66) presents a list of seven ways for a mentor to improve his/her mentoring skills. A similar list of behaviors or skills was developed by Breen, Dolan and Whitaker (1975) as early as 1975. Not much appears to have changed in nearly thirty years as far as the basic skills or behaviors identified in good mentors.

Daloz (1999, pp. 203-229), in looking at mentor roles, suggests three major functions of a mentor: 1) support, 2) challenge, and 3) vision. These three functions are then subdivided as follows:

1) Support consists of listening, providing structure, expressing positive expectations, serving as advocate, sharing ourselves, and making it special. 2) Challenge consists of setting tasks, engaging in discussions, heating up dichotomies, constructing hypotheses, and setting high standards. 3) Vision consists of modeling, keeping tradition, offering a map, suggesting new language, and providing a mirror.

Zachary (2000, p. 28), describes the role of the mentor from an educational and developmental approach, "The role of the mentor is to facilitate learning in such a way that the knowledge, skills, or competencies connect to action in the present and possibly in the future. This requires building on the learner's experiences, providing a conducive environment for learning, supporting, and providing vision for the learner."

On the other hand, Shea also presents mentor behaviors to be avoided: 1) giving advice too freely; 2) criticizing; 3) rescuing; 4) sponsoring inappropriately; 5) building

barriers unnecessarily; 6) ignoring the why—the essence of education is understanding; and 7) discounting (pp. 43-46). Elmore (1995, pp. 59-61) discusses "How to spot a toxic mentor." Both point out, then, the downside of being a mentor. It is not a case of simply being a mentor. There are definitely roles a mentor plays and skills a mentor needs to have in order to be effective.

Tice (1997, p. 189) takes us in a bit of a different direction when he says that the mentor ought to be attuned to doing active listening. "Its primary purpose is to understand the meaning of the message from the speaker's point of view." Tice describes a process for active listening: A mentor should commit himself/herself to be one. Then he/she should prepare to listen. He/she needs to patiently wait until the other person finishes, and then must hold back on over-analyzing what was said. The active listener, says, Tice, should be an empathetic listener, "to understand, not to critique, analyze, advise, or argue" (p. 192). An active listener is aware of nonverbal cues, understanding body language. He/she also verifies assumptions, making sure that he/she understands what was said. Daloz (1986, p. 215) describes active listening as "actively engaging with the student's world and attempting to experience it from the inside."

Several mentions have been made about the mentor being a mirror. Daloz (1999, p. 228) speaks of the mentor providing a mirror in which the mentee may see himself/herself, a way of extending the learner's self-awareness. Daloz cites Socrates who held up his own mirror by asking a series of "if-thens" until his learners saw the implications of their logic. Galbraith and Zelenack (1991, p. 129) in discussing Daloz, suggest that Daloz is describing the mentor as an "alternative voice," one who assists the mentee in exploring alternative viewpoints. The mentor helps the mentee to look at

his/her assumptions and to gain a better understanding of where one is coming from. Mentoring is, then "about helping adults learn how to learn, not how to be taught." What the mentee is supposed to see in the mentor's mirror is not a reflection of the mentor but guidelines for the journey towards becoming a lifelong learner. Daloz (1998, p.355) also calls mentors "interpreters of the environment."

Another role of the mentor is that of being a critical thinker. According to Zachary (2000, p. 16), the mentor himself/herself needs to be a critical thinker so as to be able to model critical reflection in the mentoring relationship. Brookfield (1989; 1995) has written two volumes, one dealing with helping the adult educator, or mentor, to become a critical thinker, and one volume to help the educator, or adult mentor, to help the learner, or mentee, to become a critical thinker. Marsick (1991) cites Watkins (1989, pp. 95-99) who discusses the need for the adult facilitator, or mentor or adult educator, to live out certain skills for facilitating critical reflection. The roles of the facilitator are: 1) developer of human capital, 2) problem solver, 3) change agent/interventionist, 4) designer, and 5) empowerer.

Cohen (1995a) refers to another ability of the mentor, that of discerning the readiness of the mentee. " [T]he mentor must be aware of the extent to which the mentee is receptive to and able to benefit from legitimate challenges at any point in the relationship" (p. 13). Previous literature talked about the adult learner as ready to learn. The mentor as an adult educator must be able at times to discern when the mentee, or adult learner, is actually ready to learn something new.

Cohen also points out that the mentor must be keen on the timing of any intervention. " [A] significant aspect of mentor influence will depend on timing" (p. 12).

Timing would appear to be closely linked to readiness.

Thus far in looking at the literature regarding the mentor, many descriptions have been given and many roles have been enumerated. Many of the descriptions and roles are reflective of what the literature has already said about adult learning. What the literature fails to show is an ideal mentor. Many of the roles described, if put together, could be used for developing an ideal mentor scale.

The Ideal Mentor

Rose (1999) looks at the literature and tries to show what an ideal mentor looks like. She developed a scale as part of her Ph.D. research designed to assess graduate students' definitions of the ideal mentor. Called the Ideal Mentor Scale, the tool helped to demonstrate the relevance of personality to mentoring theory. For most of the respondents in her study, the ideal mentor was shown to be a person with sufficient experience to warrant being sought after as a mentor. This person exhibited the characteristics of reliability, intellectual curiosity, and communication skills. He/she also is available to the mentee, prepared to offer constructive criticism, and encourage the learner in his/her abilities.

Johnston (2002, p. 14) recognizes that "Though some basic factors make mentoring work... no singular model exists for defining the 'proper' mentoring relationship, just as those who are involved vary greatly in personality, motivation, workloads, and expectations." Nevertheless, in citing respondents to a survey sent out to the Michigan State University's TA Program listserv, he found that "To be a good mentor, one must:

- reach out, and not wait for the mentee to approach

- establish clear expectations

- be a good and effective listener

- model appropriate behavior

- develop mutual respect and a good rapport

- know when to influence actions

Levinson (1978, p. 98) summarizes best the nature of the mentor when he writes, "The mentor may act as a teacher to enhance the younger man's skills and intellectual development. Serving as sponsor, he may use his influence to promote the young man's entry and advancement. He may be a host and guide, welcoming the initiate into a new occupational and social world and acquainting him with its values, customs, resources, and way of life; the mentor may be an exemplar that the protégé can admire and seek to emulate. He may provide counsel and moral support in times of stress."

The mentor is someone who exhibits these and other various roles at one time or another. None of these roles alone makes a mentor. A role model alone is not descriptive of a mentor, or a sponsor or opener-of-doors alone does not make a mentor. It is the cumulative roles of counselor, teacher, sponsor, protector, guide, people-grower, encourager, critic, role model, etc. that describe the person we look to as a mentor. Each of these roles or qualities is essential for the task of mentoring another, of assisting the mentee to grow emotionally, intellectually and spiritually. Such roles or qualities are what one expects from an adult educator as he/she relates to an adult learner. The mentor's vocation is to assist the mentee in his/her developmental and professional growth. The mentor helps the mentee to be an adult learner, to experience transformative learning, to become self-directive in his/her needs and aspirations in an ever-changing

world.

The Training of Mentors

Even though much has been written describing the mentor and his/her behaviors, many mentors are not as well trained in the art of mentoring as they ought to be. Cohen (1995a, pp. 152-153) writes, "[T]he development of meaningful interaction between mentors and mentees was assumed to inherently germinate in the fertile soil of education. This expectation, of course, often proved to be based on a highly oversimplified view of context itself as capable of conferring competence, without specific mentor training, mentee orientation, or proper attention to the administration of the mentor program." Moreover, Cohen (1995b, p. 17), quotes Schlossberg, Lynch and Chickering (1989) who suggests that few professionals, especially in higher education, have had substantial training to become the mentors they need to be. They write, "[N]ew mentors may not always give high priority to the need to pursue information and specific training about the influence of the mentor.... Many... may therefore enter into the mentor role with their concerns about improving the quality of the mentoring experience essentially tilted in the direction of observing and commenting on what students do, " thus giving a one-sided view to what mentoring is all about. The result of this perception is that many mentors place the onus on the mentees when in effect, "the transactional dynamics of one-to-one mentoring assume a relationship based on active rather than passive mentor input." Theriot (1986, p. 70) suggests that "the personality of the mentor is more important than the personality of the mentee in a mentoring relationship." Gailbraith and Cohen (1995a) state that good mentoring does not "just happen." "If adult and continuing educators are going to be effective mentors and if adult learners are

going to be effective mentees, then a deliberate effort must be made to acquire appropriate training" (p. 91). Daloz (1986, p. 33) points out that, "the trip belongs, after all, to the traveller, not the guide..." and so, we turn our attention to the mentee.

The Mentee

The emphasis in this review has focused more on the mentor up to this point. Just as it "takes two to tango," it also takes two to make a mentoring relationship: a mentor and a mentee. The literature review began by looking at the adult learner. The adult learner and the mentee are very similar in characteristics and needs. While the word mentor is ancient, the word used for the person who is mentored, mentee, is a recent invention. It does not have the history that the word mentor has. In fact, this word was put forth first in 1978 by Levinson (1978). Prior to the use of these particular words, protégé and apprentice more commonly expressed what we know as the mentee. Shea (1999) defines protégé as elitist language. The protégé was protected from making mistakes; was assisted in conforming to the expectations of the organization. His/her way was paved to become a member of the inner club. The protégé gained access to those in power. "Despite its value, this elitist system has lost favor in our society because it spawned favoritism, discrimination and a form of social cloning.... The essence of an affective relationship is now led by the mentee rather than the mentor" (Shea, 1999, p. 11). Mentoring is no longer seen as a rite of passage in the corporate world. Mentoring takes on a transactional role in which mentor and mentee interactive to the benefit of both, and the role of the mentee is much more proactive than before. The mentee as an adult learner is now "someone who makes an effort to assess, internalize and use effectively the knowledge, skills, insights, perspectives or wisdom offered... who seeks

out such help and uses it appropriately for developmental purposes wherever needed" (p. 3). Shea (1999) suggests that at the same time that the mentor is expected to practice listening, the mentee is expected to be an "assertive learner" (p. 32) in keeping with the adult learner characteristic of being self-directed. He/she knows when and where to go for help. Shea puts much responsibility for the success of the mentoring relationship on the shoulders of the mentee. Through a series of questionnaires and tips, Shea attempts to help the mentee evaluate whether he/she has the required behaviors to make the mentoring relationship work (pp. 60-61). Additionally, Shea recommends procedures for the mentor/mentee meeting (p. 70).

Shea's (1999) book *Making the Most of Being Mentored,* is directed to the mentee specifically. Shea differentiates between the traditional role of the protégé and the new role of the mentee. The protégé historically was often passive in the mentoring relationship, and became a clone of the mentor, a mirror-image. The adoption of the term mentee places a greater responsibility on the mentee. He/she is expected to be more proactive in the relationship. He/she is responsible for whatever growth occurs. As Shea expresses it, "Mentors help—mentees do!" (p. 11). For example, mentees have a greater role in choosing their mentor(s) whereas traditionally protégés were usually assigned to a mentor. Mentees also have a greater role in deciding what to accept and what to reject. Mentoring becomes more than acculturation or acclimation to a specific work climate or philosophy. Mentees are more in control of their learning than before. They may even see their relationship more as a partnership of two individuals who can learn from each other rather than as a relationship of "more experienced" to "less experienced." According to Bova (May-June 1984, p. 16), mentees will see personal growth in integrity, in a

sense of purpose, and in their intellect.

Cohen (1995a, p. 23) points out that the role of the mentor is to help the mentee reach the stage of being an independent adult learner, "to take initiatives to manage change, and to negotiate constructive transitions through personal lifestyle and workplace events." The mentee determines in some respects his/her own needs or wants. He/she, as an adult learner, is intrinsically motivated and is an active learner. Daloz (1999, p. 3) writes, "Most of us have learned a good deal more out of school than in it. We have learned from our families, our work, our friends. We have learned from problems resolved and tasks achieved, but also from mistakes confronted and illusions unmasked. Intentionally or not, we have learned from the dilemmas our lives hand us daily." Such learnings make adults open to mentoring and being mentored. The goal becomes that of helping the mentee to develop a lifelong habit of learning. Slowly over time he/she moves towards self-direction and independence.

Shea (1999, pp. 9-60) clearly outlines mentee responsibilities. First, this is a partnership in which the partners often make different investments in different amounts. Mutual gain is the goal, although both do not necessarily invest as heavily in the relationship. The mentee needs to appreciate the mentor's help without holding him/her in awe. Shea (1999, p. 52) calls this the "awe factor". Shea shares a study that reported that in 80% of mentoring relationships, the mentee was usually reluctant to engage in the relationship in the beginning. He attributes this to the awe factor. He reports that the relationship usually normalizes after the initial three-four months.

The mentee also must practice self-empowering behaviors, be open to feedback, and set realistic expectations with the mentor. A good mentee will be open and sincere

regarding needs and deficiencies and communicate problems clearly. The mentee will proactively seek out ways to achieve his/her objectives. Mentees no longer wait for the mentor; they often initiate frequent and regular contact with their mentors. As active, self-directing learners, mentees will contribute ideas about options open to them for solving problems. The mentees need to choose "to develop and change themselves" (Shea, 1994, p. 19). " [I]n the newest forms of mentoring, mentors are increasingly focusing on offering information about options and paths, and mentees are playing a larger role in deciding upon goals and developing strategies for achieving them" (Shea, 1994, p. 60).

Elsewhere in this literature review mention was made of the fact that the mentor needs to take into account the mentee's particular learning style. Equally important, Brookfield (1986, p. 64) contends that the learner (mentee) also needs to become aware of his/her own learning style.

Johnston (2002, p. 15) in an open-ended survey asks respondents to mark on a Likert scale how they would answer the following statements: "For a positive mentoring relationship to develop, the protégé must..." (Responses given to this survey question follow:

- "seek helpful feedback and demonstrate appreciation for the same

- not be afraid to ask for whatever one needs to grow

- never be afraid of asking questions

- actively participate in the relationship

- take advantage of the mentor's expertise and experience."

Even though Shea and others point out the proactive role of the mentee in

effective mentoring relationships, most of the literature appears to focus more on the mentor and not on the mentee. As critical as the role of the mentee is in this relationship, it appears that the mentor still has a predominant role in making the relationship work.

In summary, it is obvious from the literature that a transformation in behavior on the part of the person being mentored has occurred. No longer simply an assigned protégé of another, the mentee is a proactive learner in his/her own development and growth. He/she has a greater role to play and certain behaviors are essential for the mentee to realize that development and growth. This more active role certainly changes the dynamics in the mentoring relationship. The next area to review in literature is that of the mentoring relationship.

The Mentoring Relationship

In this next section, the literature regarding mentoring relationships was reviewed. The literature fell into certain subsections: structures for mentoring relationships, distance mentoring, mentoring in cyberspace, healthy relationships, mentoring: uniformity or diversity, benefits of the mentoring relationship, dynamics of the mentoring relationship, and lack of clarity regarding mentoring relationships and mentoring models.

Structures of Mentoring Relationships

Cross (Daloz, 1999, p. xi) rightly calls mentoring "a slippery concept." It is not a term researchers have readily defined as much as described. In fact, Bogart and Rednar (1985, p. 851) write "One problem in the mentoring literature is the lack of any one comprehensive, yet functional definition." Five years later, Healy and Welchart (1990)

report the same phenomenon. Nevertheless, mentoring relationships, real and fictional alike, have long been valued by human society. Darwin (May 2000, pp. 197-198) relates:

> Luke Skywalker is paired up with veteran Obi-Wan Kenobi, an experienced and supportive mentor. Other well-known mentor-protégé relationships include Ernest Hemingway's mentor, Gertrude Stein; Gail Sheehy claims Margaret Mead as her mentor, who in turn was inspired by Franz Boas. In the world of adult education, Allen Tough's mentor at the University of Chicago was Cyril Houle.... For centuries... the passing of the throne by the sovereign to a successor was known as Shan Jang, stepping out of the way. Mentoring flourished in the English feudal system as favored pages and squires became knights. The apprenticeship model was practiced by the Guilds in Medieval times. During the Renaissance and Baroque periods, patron families supported talented artists. There has been a strong reproductive element attached to mentoring, well suited to societies relying on ritualized behavior to protect the status quo.

Reilly and Adams (1997) continue with this line of thought, making reference to other one-on-one models of mentoring: Freud with Jung, Socrates with Plato and Hubert Humphrey with Walter Mondale.

The mentoring relationship in the business world often means transmitting information necessary for one to be able to adapt to the work environment and to the culture of the organization. The bulk of Shea's research (1994; 1997; 1999) has this intent. Also, the studies conducted by several others (Albrecht, 1989; Boreen, 2000) focus specifically on the mentoring relationship in the business setting, or what is commonly called "the workplace." Kram's (1985) work is particularly helpful in understanding mentoring in the workplace. Beck (1989), Nathan (1990), Boston (1976) and Cox, Daniel and Boston (1985) deal specifically with career development. Reilly and Adams (1997) develop a "Mentor Program Planning Guide" for mentoring high schools students and workers, a program for uniting education with business, mentoring students for success in the workplace.

The mentoring relationship has also been viewed from the standpoint of teacher to teacher-inductee, teacher to student, as well as student to student (Allsop and Benson, 1997; Barnes and Stiasny, 1995; Becker, 1994; Bey, Holmes, and Association of Teacher Educators, 1990). Much of this literature also deals with preparing the novice teacher for his/her role in the classroom. Other portions of this literature deal with the equipping of teachers for leadership as well as the importance of ongoing mentoring for all teachers, not just novices (Boreen, 2000; Canton & James, 1999; Edwards & Collison, 1996; Fairbanks, Freedman, and Kahn, March-April 2000; Feiman-Nemser, January-February 2001; Frierson, 1997; Furlong and Maynard, 1995; Galvez-Hjornevik, January 1986; Gehrke, January 1988; Goodlad and British Petroleum Company ltd., 1998; Goodwin, Stevens, and Bellamy, November-December 1998; Gratch, May-June 1998; Haring and Freeman, 1999; Huffman and Leak, January 1986; Jaworski, Watson, and Mathematical Association., 1994; Mawer, 1996; McIntyre, Hagger, & Wilkin, 1993; Mokros, Erkut, Spichiger, and Spencer Foundation., 1981; Odell and Ferraro, May-June 1992; Pierce, Spring 1998; Portner, 1998; Reglin, 1998; Reilly and Adams, 1997; Reiman and Thies-Sprinthall, 1998; Rose, 1999; Smith, 1986; Smith and West-Burnham, 1993; Stewart, May-June 1992; Torres-Guzmán and Goodwin, 1995; Wildman, Magliaro, Niles, and Niles, May-June 1992; Wilkin, 1992).

There is also a growing body of literature regarding the particular needs of women who serve as mentors or mentees and even the issue of cross-gender mentoring. (Atcherson & Jenny, November 1983; Belenky, M., Clinchy, B., Goldberger, N. and Tarule, J., 1986; Cohen, 1995a, pp.146-148; Collins, 1983; Flannery and Hayes, 2000; Harragan, 1977; Hechinger, September 1979; Henning and Jardim, 1976; Mokros et al.,

1981; Schaller, Spring 1996; Stalker, 1996; Tisdell, 1993; and Weisbard, 1996). More recent are the works of Baker (1996), Duff (1999), Hunt (1993), Kent (1999), Lutz (1997), and Otto (1997) which all deal with women mentoring women. One particular thesis suggests that there is a way of mentoring which is unique to women (Christenson, 1999). Although, two women researchers in particular, Philipps-Jones (2000c) and Zachary (2000), have not limited their writing to women mentoring women or gender-specific mentoring.

There is an increasing body of literature on the subject of crosscultural mentoring (Cohen, 1995a; Griffin & Ervin, 1990; Rodriguez, 1995; Thomas, 2001). These studies suggest that there may be issues in mentoring or in the mentoring relationship which are peculiar to particular cultures or that need to be taken into account when one plans to mentor within another culture.

Such one-to-one mentoring relationships as described above point to a relationship which usually implies a superior and an inferior participant. The mentor is viewed as superior. As Darwin (May 2000, p. 198) points out the very name mentor comes from the root *men* which means "to remember, think, counsel." The word *protégé* comes from the French, meaning "to protect". The protective teacher, as it were, transmitted his knowledge to the younger learner, the one to be protected. "Thus traditionally, the mentoring relationship has been framed in a language of paternalism and dependency and stems from a power-dependent, hierarchical relationship, aimed at maintaining the status quo."

Daloz (1999), long a proponent of mentoring from a traditional perspective of mentor to protégé, especially in the educational setting, has broadened his understanding

of the relationship with the change in title in the second edition of *Effective Teaching and Mentoring* to *Mentor: Guiding the Journey of Adult Learners*, thus seeing mentoring as an activity proactively involving both mentor and mentee. Mentoring is now starting to be defined as a transformational journey and the mentor as a "trusted guide" (p. xiv). "Like guides, we walk at times ahead of our students, at times beside them; at times, we follow their lead" (p. 244). In other words, there appears to be a shift in the understanding of mentoring relationships from that of superior to inferior, of master to journeyman, of mentor to protégé, to one of colleague to colleague or peer to peer. It is a relationship in which both benefit from the process, both develop and grow. It is a relationship which is both transactional and transformational—both actively participate and both are changed in the process.

Galbraith and Cohen (1995b, p. 6) pick up on this language, calling mentoring a "journey of self-development." Not necessarily an easy journey, Daloz (Zachary, 2000, p. xiv) writes, "The journey of mentor and mentee runs along narrow and daunting ledges as well as high outlooks and is not for the fainthearted or indifferent."

One of the most stimulating thoughts on mentoring as transformation, although one-sided, comes from Yamamoto (1988, p. 187):

> Mentoring involves an experience of transcendence for the mentor and one of transformation for the protégé. The latter represents a shift in perspective, a restructuring of Weltanschauung. It follows that one of the critical functions of a mentor is iconoclastic in nature, so as to throw the person under guidance off his or her comfortable and customary perch. In other words, the mentor must make the familiar unfamiliar, thus inducing in the protégé a reexamination of the known world, a broadening of the perspective, and a bearing of the attendant sense of ambiguity and uncertainty. In this embodiment of the very spirit of human inquiry and development lies the perennial challenge for any mentor.

Yamamoto presents the reader, therefore, with a view that most adult educators

can applaud as educator helps the learner, or mentor helps the mentee, on the path towards a lifetime of transformational or transformative learning. To "become a human being, they (protégés) need to transcend the mundane realm of profane experience to attain the broader and deeper reality of the sacred" (p. 188). The mentoring relationship has become transactional and interactive with both mentor and mentee benefiting from this relationship.

Galbraith (1991a) discusses in depth this transactional process. He encapsulates this thought, writing, "When facilitators and adult learners are engaged in an active, challenging, collaborative, critically reflective, and transforming educational encounter, a transactional process is occurring" (p. 1). From the literature review thus far on both mentor and mentee, all of these adjectives have come into play. The relationship of mentor to mentee and vice versa has been an active encounter in which the mentor challenges the mentee, works collaboratively, in which both critically reflect, and one's learning context becomes transformed.

So far in this literature review of the mentoring relationship, only one-to-one mentoring has been examined. Zachary (2000) points out that mentoring can also take on other forms, such as peer mentoring or mentoring circles. Daloz, Parks, Keen and Keen (1996) suggest that this traditional view of one-to-one mentoring might better be replaced by a mentoring community if it is to be truly transformational. "Ecologists tell us that a tree planted in a clearing of an old forest will grow more successfully than one planted in an open field. The reason, it seems, is that the roots of the forest tree are able to follow the intricate pathways created by former trees and thus embed themselves more deeply. Indeed, over time, the roots of many trees may actually graft themselves to one

another, creating an interdependent mat of life hidden beneath the earth. This literally

enables the stronger trees to share resources with the weaker so the whole forest

becomes stronger" (p. xiii). Little literature exists to support this position or to promote

it.

Distance Mentoring

Not only has the literature dealt with one-to-one, and to a more limited degree,

group mentoring, but it has also dealt with the issue of on-site and /or long distance

mentoring. For Daloz (1999) a mentoring relationship is not something which can be

developed across the miles. "Thus entangled in the Internet, spun about at hyperspeed,

drowning in information, starved by virtual reality, should we wonder that we hunger for

real reality? Can such technology nourish our need for community, intimacy,

contemplative time, wisdom? ...Even though our work might be augmented, I do not

believe that the kind of mentoring I have experienced and written about here can or

should take place over the Internet" (p. xxv). Zachary (2000), on the other hand, does not

agree with Daloz's assumption. She sees long distance mentoring to be more common

than it used to be. She cites examples of chat room meetings, e-mail exchanges as

commonplace today (p. 4). There appears to be agreement, though, that long distance

mentoring requires a previously established relationship between the proposed mentor

and mentee.

Mentoring in Cyberspace

Until now, the focus has been on the personal, human side of one-to-one or group

mentoring relationships, sometimes long distance mentoring over the phone or e-mail if

not face to face. No mention has been made of mentoring as it it is presently developing over the Internet. Several examples of this type of mentoring will now be reviewed.

Several universities and other academic institutions have begun serious mentoring programs, and made their mentoring material available in one form or another via the World Wide Web. For example, the University of Missouri, St. Louis has a website with reference to its mentoring of college students. The University of Michigan, Rackham School of Graduate Studies has downloadable .pdf files on mentoring dealing with How to Get the Mentoring You Want" and "How to Mentor Graduate Students."

In addition to these academic sites, several mentoring organizations also have their own websites, such as the MentorLink.org (http://www.mentorlink.org,) a website for mentoring persons in ministry. Many mentoring resources are available on line at this site for downloading. For example, the site offers articles on 13 different relational areas as well as articles on five growth areas. This site also has what it calls "Web Assisted Mentoring (WAM)" which uses the Internet to connect mentors and mentees, as well as provide mentoring resources online.

Dr. Robert Logan, a religious consultant on church planting and church growth, has a widely-used site called CoachNet (http://www.coachnet.org) where subscribers can refer to an interactive file called Compucoach as well as participate in mentoring conversations via threaded discussion group forums in English and Spanish. Coachnet.com (http://www.coachnet.com) is another site, featuring Judith W. Fields, who offers one-on-one coaching, telecoaching (live teleconferencing) and cybercoaching (by the Internet.) She is a certified coach and professor of the virtual university called Coach University (http://www.coachuniversity.com).

Additionally, the United States Coast Guard has its own site which features its mentoring program (http://www.uscg.mil/hq/g-w/g-wt/g-wtl/mentoring.htm). Online PowerPoint presentations and/or onscreen written summaries cover the following subjects: "So you Want to be a Mentor (or Find a Mentor)", Tips for Mentors/Tips for Mentees," "How to be an Effective Mentor," "What to Look for in a Mentor," "How to be an Effective Mentee," "Getting Started in a Mentoring Partnership," "Four Types of Mentoring Relationships," as well as other very useful information. Additionally, the site presents an interactive survey that gives the participant feedback on whether he or she has the profile for being a mentor. This site tends to agree with previously established research already discussed on the roles of mentor and mentee and stages of mentoring. The site states that an effective mentor is supportive, patient, respected, people-oriented, a good motivator, respectful of others, an effective teacher, and a self-confident person.

Another key mentoring resource on the Internet is the Mentoring Group (http://www.mentoringgroup.com), the site of Dr. Linda Phillips-Jones (2000a; 2000b; 2000c; 2000d; 2000e; 2001a; 2001b; 2001c) of the Coalition of Counseling Centers.

Peer Resources (http://www.peer.ca/peer.html,) located in Victoria, British Columbia, is a Canadian site on peer training and resourcing. This site also has a mentoring section with an extensive listing of resources, as well as a Canada-wide survey of best practices among 2,000 different corporations and institutions.

Additionally, Denver Seminary, a Protestant academic institution whose motto is "Equipping Leaders," annually sponsors a National Conference on Mentoring. Denver Seminary has a very active student mentoring program (peer, professor/learner) with mentoring contracts and academic credit for participation in the mentoring program. All

seminarians at Denver must be involved in at least two mentoring relationships, one with a professional pastor and one with a layman in order to receive feedback from different perspectives on ministry, "from the pulpit and from the pew." In addition to these two mentoring relationships, seminarians also participate in a mentoring cohort with other seminarians and a lead professor. One professor at Denver Seminary is under contract with several U.S. Armed Forces in helping them develop mentoring programs for their officers (e.g., U.S. Air Force and U.S. Army). Another professor serves as Professor of Mentoring on behalf of the seminary, working with pastors and church staffs, seminary alumni, seminary mentors, in the whole area of mentoring techniques and philosophy of mentoring.

Healthy Relationships

Within a mentoring relationship, whether in the workplace, in education, or in the church; whether one-to-one or communal; whether on-site, long distance or in cyberspace; the relationship needs to be healthy if it is to be effective. De Vries (1987, p. 77) writes, "Each party assigned to or entering the relationship must have a commitment both to the relationship and to the other person involved in that relationship. This commitment will be evident by the amount of intentionality the person brings to the relationship, the intensity of involvement, and the level of care for the person or interest in the relationship that the party evidences." Parks and Parks (2000, p. 127) describe this healthy relationship as "an intentional, mutually demanding, and meaningful relationship between two individuals." They go on to describe this healthy relationship as a recognition of the mentee as someone to be supported, as a challenge and inspiration for the mentor (pp. 128-131). Daloz *et al.* (1996) calls this a "passionate and fertile

relationship" (p. xxiv). Shea (1994, p. 13) sees this relationship as a "developmental, caring, sharing, and helping relationship" in which the mentor "invests time, know-how, and effort in enhancing another person's growth, knowledge, and skills, and responds to critical needs in the life of that person in ways that prepare the individual for greater productivity or achievement in the future." The key words are developmental, caring, sharing, and helping. This relationship implies an investment on the part of the mentor, no less than it does on the part of the mentee.

Hendricks and Hendricks (1999, pp. 158-160) describe the relationship by listing a series of key ways in which the mentor helps the mentee:

- By serving as a source of information for the mentee.

- By providing wisdom.

- By promoting skills development and certain appropriate behaviors.

- By providing the mentee with feeback.

- By coaching, with coaching defined as preparing the mentee to win at life.

- By serving the mentee at times as a sounding board.

- By always being available to the mentee in times of personal need.

- By helping the mentee to plan, to chart his/her own growth, etc.

- By "nurturing curiosity," showing possibilities, opening new doors, giving the mentee a peek at different perspectives and opportunities.

Tice (1997) sees the mentoring relationship as a series of affirmations (pp. 121-136) to promote self-esteem, as well as a time for self-examination (pp. 149-151).

Mentoring: Uniformity or Diversity

In most of the cases the mentoring relationship is discussed in the context of

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"likeness." In other words, there is some kind of homogeneity between the mentor and mentee. Oftentimes men are assigned to men and women to women. An Hispanic mentee may ask for an Hispanic mentor. For many, this homogeneity sets the stage for a "successful" mentoring relationship. The "relating" is based on commonality. Shea (1999) differs from many in the field when he suggests that there is value gained in a mentoring relationship where diversity exists. "You can learn more from someone who is quite different from you in background, culture, religion, life experience... than you may from a person who is quite similar" (p. 90). Daresh (1992) also concludes that success in mentoring is not based on the mentor and mentee sharing similar leadership styles. Success is based on their ability to build on their sameness and/or difference. At the same time, Shea points out the importance of understanding learning styles (p. 87). In any educational setting—and mentoring is such a setting—it is important to understand one's own learning style and that of the other person.

Benefits of the Mentoring Relationship

Schulz (1995) decribes three benefits of the mentoring relationship for both mentor and mentee: learning, growth, and development. For the mentor, he/she has the opportunity to learn new skills and ideas. Their ability to coach and to lead become fine-tuned. They begin to think more critically before responding and begin to analyze their own techniques for teaching and sharing ideas. They have the opportunity to grow personally and professionally. They may even be forced to re-examine their decision-making and their past performance. Especially for teachers and business people, mentoring may open new doors to them as well as promotions. From a developmental standpoint, the benefits to the mentor are found in the life stages. As the mentor works

with the mentee, this gives the mentor the opportunity in middle adult life to move from Erikson's stagnation to generativity (Erikson, 1959). Their self worth is enhanced, and they have a feeling they are passing something on to the next generation of leaders. Tice (1997) suggests that the mentor will find this relationship rewarding and beneficial in ways he/she may not have considered. "In a vital, active, ongoing mentoring relationship, you may find your assumptions and beliefs challenged, your energy renewed, your mind doing fresh work with old ideas" (p. 149). Additionally, he/she will probably experience greater self-esteem and the fulfillment of his/her own developmental needs.

The mentee, says Schulz (1995), also has the opportunity to learn, grow and develop. They learn skills which will stay them well in their new positions, whether in the workplace, in schools, or in the church. They learn something of the institutional culture. They may even learn the unwritten rules of the institution. Schulz suggests that there may be "creative and intellectual growth" as a result of this mentoring. Through the relationship the mentee will grow in self-confidence, in self-identify, in taking ownership of the tasks at hand. He/she begins to be aware of his/her own decision-making skills. From a developmental standpoint, the mentee eventually moves on to autonomy or to another mentoring relationship. They begin to work independently or interdependently. "Maturity and development ultimately come from the ability to give up the previous and perhaps dependent relationship and establish a new one. When the separation is complete, both the mentor and the protégé are equipped to mentor someone new" (p. 62).

Structures and Phases of the Mentoring Relationship

Mentoring relationships may be highly structured or informal. Mentoring relationships also may be long-term or short-term. Shea (1997) presents a working diagram describing structured/short-term, structured/long-term, informal/short-term and informal/long-term relationships (p. 8). A similar 4-quadrant matrix is presented by Shea dealing with the intensity of the relationship (Shea, 1997, p. 20). According to Shea, the mentor and mentee need to take into account the amount of mentoring required and the resources at the fingertips of the mentor. In other words, the format of the relationship and time involvement of the mentor and mentee will have a lot to say about the eventual outcomes and success of the relationship.

Whether highly structured or informal events, mentoring relationships go through at least four different phases. Kram (1985) identifies these phases as: preparation, negotiation, enabling, and coming to closure. Zachary (2000) describes these four phases in more detail, and compares Kram's preparing to Zachary's tilling the soil, Kram's negotiating to Zachary's planting seeds, Kram's enabling to Zachary's nurturing growth, and Kram's coming to closure to Zachary's reaping the harvest (pp. 65-160). Cohen (1995a) identifies these same phases as early, middle, later and last. Whatever these phases may be called, "Simply being aware of them provides significant signposts" (Zachary, 2000, p. 50). They assist both the mentor and mentee in initiating, designing, developing and ending a mentoring relationship. Even informal mentoring relationships don't "just happen." There is some intentionality to them and by nature they go through the four phases.

Mentoring relationships can "go bad" (Shea, 1997). It may be due to a shortcoming on either the mentor's or mentee's part. It may be due to a lack of

confidentiality, a misplaced trust, or lack of integrity on the part of one of the participants in the relationship. Strong disagreements may be the culprit. The reasons why the mentoring relationship sours are many and varied. Shea, (1997) suggests that a mentoring relationship ought to have a "no-fault divorce provision" in which either party may end the relationship. The mentor and mentee can then walk away from the failed mentoring relationship with as little damage to either party as possible.

Also, many mentoring relationships simply seem to "run their course" (Shea, 1999). Taylor et al. (2000, p. 332) calls this a movement towards "self-agency" or "self-authorship." When goals have been met, it may be time for the mentee to move on, either to self actualization or to another mentoring relationship with yet another mentor. Therefore, a good mentoring relationship knows when to call it quits. Ending well a mentoring relationship is as important as knowing how to initiate one. The title of Peddy's (1999) book, *The Art of Mentoring: Lead, Follow, and Get out of the Way*, also points to the eventual termination of mentoring relationships.

Levinson (1978) suggests that a mentor usually comes into a mentee's life during moments of transition. It is usually in such moments that adult learners are best able to learn new ideas, to think new thoughts, to perceive in new ways. Mentoring during such moments is both reactive and proactive. This is Havighurst's (1972) "teachable moment," Sheehy's (1976) "passages" and Aslanian and Brickell's "trigger events" (1980). The mentoring relationship takes into account adult development theory: life phases (Levinson, 1978) and life cycles and developmental stages (Erikson, 1950;1959; Kohlberg & Mayer, 1972). During such life phases mentoring relationships can flourish and produce lasting changes. Personal, professional and character goals may be

established, requiring a mentoring relationship to accomplish these goals. Since structured mentoring relationships are goal-centered, this suggests a temporalness to these relationships. Whether long-term or short-term, a mentoring relationship will either naturally, forcefully or by design, end. Mentoring relationships may even be renegotiated, extending the relationship but only as new goals are set.

Dynamics of the Mentoring Relationship

Zachary (2000, p.xviii), contributes to this discussion by putting forth a series of assumptions about the mentoring relationship. For her, mentoring is a powerful growth experience for both mentor and mentee. It is a process of engagement of both mentor and mentee to each other. It requires reflection, preparation and dedication. At its best, mentoring focuses on the learner, the learning process, and the learning which occurs. Zachary developed her book to serve as a workbook alongside of Daloz's book (1999). In fact, Taylor *et al.* (2000, p. 329) consider Daloz's book *Mentor: Guiding the Journey of Adult Learners* to be "the closest thing educators have to a 'text' on this subject" (of "attending to and caring for another's experience of growth").

Since adult education and the mentoring process have much in common, how we view education determines how we view mentoring. For Daloz (1999) education needs to be understood as the development of the whole person—more than simple knowledge transmission or teaching of skills. Mentoring becomes more inclusive and less narrow when viewed from this perspective. Hendricks (1996, p. 127), on the other hand, sees mentoring as "managing a person whose performance is standard or average" and defines mentoring as instructing. Even the use of the word instructing is narrowing the definition of mentoring, and speaks of traditional pedagogy over against the more

liberating concept of Knowles's (1970; 1985) andragogy. Hendricks (1996, p. 132) goes

on to describe the mentee as "your child." Even the mentoring session is described in

terms of rewards, extrinsic rather than intrinsic motivation, another sign of traditional

pedagogy. Zachary (2000, p. 3) decries this concept, what she calls a subservient

mentoring relationship found in the workplace and even in professor/student exchanges.

Such relationships, she concludes, can quickly destroy a mentoring relationship. Instead,

she encourages a learner-centered relationship, promoting a "learning partnership."

Picking up on other terms used in this section, Zachary explains, "The learner... plays a

more active role in the learning than in the former mentor-driven paradigm.... The

mentor's role has been replaced from 'sage on the stage to guide on the side' (King,

1993). When the mentor's work is solidly grounded in principles of adult learning,

mentor and mentee are viewed as co-learners who both benefit and grow from the

relationship, " (pp. 3, 28). This is in keeping with the best concepts of andragogy.

Mentoring becomes facilitation. Brookfield (1986, p. 63) states, "Facilitators of learning

see themselves as resources of learning rather than as didactic instructors who have all

the answers." For Tough (1979, p. 183) this implies a relationship in which the

mentor/facilitator is "warm, loving, caring, and accepting of the learners." Repeating

what others have also said about this relationship, Tough goes on to explain how

mentors see themselves in dialogue with equals, not subordinates and are open to

learning from the mentee/learner. Zachary (2000, p. 23) echoes these thoughts when she

writes of facilitation as "listening, empowering, coaching, challenging, teaching,

collaborating, aiding, assisting, supporting, expediting, easing, simplifying, advancing,

and encouraging."

The mentoring relationship as described thus far, is very distant from what one used to conceive of as mentoring. It has moved far beyond a traditional pedagogy and its banking education (Freire, 1973) to a liberating facilitation, applying andragogical assumptions. Rather than "telling," a mentoring relationship is based on questioning and self-discovery. Zachary (2000) suggests five strategies for facilitating learning in the mentoring relationship: 1) ask questions; 2) reformulate statements; 3) summarize; 4) listen for the silence; and 5) listen reflectively. Brookfield (1986, pp. 87-91) writes on this subject in-depth. He deals with types of questions, as well as ways of listening and responding (pp. 92-107). Vella (1997) writes on the subject of listening and responding in her first book on adult education. The subtitle explains her approach: "The Power of Dialogue in Educating Adults". In describing her "Twelve Principles for Effective Adult Learning", Vella demonstrates her respect for the adult learner, the mentee. Others referred to this as the dignity of the learner. In her second book (Vella, 1995), she reflects on the role of the adult learner in the educational process, insights which can be applied to the mentoring relationship. One chapter in particular is quite poignant: "Honoring the Role of the Learner." In a similar vein, Daloz (1999, p. 205) goes on to say, "Listening… is a powerful intervention, perhaps the most powerful we have as mentors."

Lack of Clarity Regarding Mentoring Relationships

Jacobi (1991) wrote a literature review on mentoring relationships, looking at the literature between the mid-1970's and up to 1990. This comprehensive review points to many interesting facts. For example, Jacobi reiterates what Merriam says about the nebulousness of the term mentoring. Jacobi describes this as "definitional vagueness,"

(p. 505). Jacobi cites Wrightsman (1981, pp. 3-4) who affirms "There is a false sense of consensus, because at a superficial level everyone 'knows' what mentoring is. But closer examination indicates wide variation in operational definitions, leading to conclusions that are limited to the use of particular procedures.... The result is that the concept is devalued, because everyone is using it loosely, without precision...."

Jacobi (1991, pp. 510-513) points out that researchers tend to disagree in their understanding of mentoring relationships. There are disagreements regarding the age differential between mentor and mentee, the frequency and duration of the mentoring relationship, the level of intimacy or intensity of the relationship, whether mentoring should be same gender or cross gender, whether women have as many opportunities for mentoring as men do; whether mentors and mentees should be of the same race or ethnicity, whether non-whites have the same opportunities for mentoring as whites do, and whether formal, assigned mentoring relationships are as valuable as nonformal, non-assigned mentoring relationships. Jacobi reaches what she calls the lowest common denominator when she writes:

1. Mentoring relationships are helping relationships usually focused on achievement...

2. Whereas the specific functions provided to the protegés by mentors vary, mentoring includes any or all of three broad components: (a) emotional and psychological support., (b) direct assistance with career and professional development, and (c) role modeling.

3. Mentoring relationships are reciprocal relationships. The mentor as well as the protégé derives benefit from the relationship...

4.   Mentoring relationships are personal...

5.   Relative to their protégés, mentors show greater experience, influence,

and achievement within a particular organization or environment (p. 513).

The presentation of the literature thus far has shown the mentoring relationship as one built on trust, caring, and sharing. It is a learner-centered relationship in which both mentee and mentor learn. Although at times conceived of as a superior/inferior type of relationship, much of the literature points toward a change in perception to a relationship of equals. At one time seen merely as a transmission of information and skills, the mentoring relationship is now seen as a sharing of rich experiences, of mutual learnings and discoveries and of role modeling. It is described as a transformational journey with a guide who sometimes leads, sometimes walks beside, and sometimes follows. Mentoring relationships may be long-term or short-term. They may be structured or informal. They may be highly intensive or more passive. They may end when the need no longer exists. A learner may go through many mentoring relationships throughout his/her lifetime. The behaviors of both mentor and mentee to a large degree will determine the success or failure of the mentoring relationship.

Mentoring Models

Successful mentoring programs need an underlying theoretical framework that supports the programs. The literature shows several theoretical frameworks, or mentoring models, worth mentioning. Four of these models are discussed in this literature review. They are 1) Zachary's Learner-centered Mentoring Paradigm, 2) Schmoll's research into the relationships between mentor and mentee, 3) Rose's Ideal Mentor Scale and 4) Cohen's Principles of Adult Mentoring Scale.

Learner-centered Mentoring Paradigm

Zachary (2000) contributes to the building of a mentoring theoretical framework

in her paradigm (p. 6). Figure 2 shows Zachary's paradigm.

Mentoring element	Changing Paradigm	Adult Learning Principle
Mentee role	From: Passive To: Active partner	Adults learn best when they are involved in diagnosing, planning, implementing, and evaluating their own learning.
Mentor role	From: Authority To: Facilitator	The role of the facilitator is to create and maintain a supportive climate that promotes the conditions necessary for learning to take place.
Learning process	From: Mentor directed and responsible for mentee's learning To: Self-directed and mentee responsible for own learning	Adult learners have a need to be self-directing.
Length of relationship	From: Calendar-focused To: Goal determined	Readiness for learning increases when there is a specific need to know.
Mentoring relationship	From: One Life = one mentor = one mentee To: Multiple mentors over a lifetime and multiple models for mentoring: individual, group, peer models	Life's reservoir of experience is a primary learning resource: the life experiences of others add enrichment to the learning process.
Setting	From: Face-to-face To: Multiple and varied venues and opportunities	Adult learners have an inherent need for immediacy of application.
Focus	From: Product oriented: knowledge transfer and acquisition To: Process oriented: Critical reflection and application	Adults respond best to learning when they are internally motivated to learn.

Note: From *The Mentor's Guide* (p. 6), by Lois Zachary, 2000, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, a subsidiary of John Wiley & Sons, reprinted with permission.

Figure 2: Elements in the Learner-Centered Mentoring Paradigm.

The paradigm demonstrates that the mentee moves from being a passive person to an active participant. This coincides with what is understood about the adult learner, namely that adults learn best when they are involved in the learning process. This also follows from what Daloz and Shea have said about the changing role of the mentee. At the same time, the mentor moves from being authoritative to facilitative. The mentor works hard to create an environment which will promote learning. In the learning process, the relationship moves from mentor-directed to the mentee showing greater responsibility for what happens in the relationship. Adult learners are self-directed as has been pointed out previously in the literature review. Formerly such relationships were for a specific length of time. Now what determines the cessation of such relationships is when the pre-determined goals have been met. The goal-focused relationship parallels what we know about adult learners in their need to be ready to learn. We cannot force feed any adult learner. Mentoring relationships were previously seen as one over a lifetime. Zachary points out that one may now experience several mentoring relationships over the course of one's life. We learn from our own experiences and from those of others. The setting for mentoring relationships was usually face-to-face, but now can be multiple settings and various opportunities for learning. This parallels what has been said previously about the adult learner's need for immediate application. The focus of a mentoring relationship was product oriented such as the transfer of knowledge or of skills. More important to the relationship today is the process, also allowing for critical reflection and application to occur. This is based on the adult learning principle of intrinsic motivation of the adult learner. Zachary's paradigm encapsulates much of what this literature review up to this point has revealed.

Schmoll's Doctoral Research

Schmoll (1981) also contributes to the shaping of mentoring models. She describes various relationships between mentor and mentee in her study. She points out that researchers could not get an overall picture of this relationship by studying individual features or aspects of mentor/mentee relationships. On the contrary, these relationships needed to be studied holistically. To do this, she asks significant questions (pp. 2-3):

1) How do mentors and mentees describe the overall qualities of their relationship?

2) How do mentors and mentees describe themselves and each other?

3) How do mentors and mentees describe the development of their relationship?

4) How do mentors and mentees describe the significance of their relationships for themselves and for their mentor or mentee?

Rose's Ideal Mentor Scale

Rose (1999) studies the issue of the "ideal mentor" in her doctoral dissertation at the University of Iowa. Finding fault with existing measures (pp. 44-51), Rose goes on to develop the framework for her Ideal Mentor Scale. The context for her study was Ph.D. students in Research I Universities. She developed a 76-item survey measuring ideal mentor characteristics and followed this survey with a factor analysis of the characteristics. The results of her study suggest that intellectual curiosity, reliability, research ethics, and good communication skills are essential in an ideal mentor. The ideal mentor likewise is available to his/her mentee and provides constructive criticism, challenges the mentee, and expresses belief in the mentee as an adult learner.

Cohen's Principles of Adult Mentoring Scale (PAMS)

Cohen developed the Principles of Adult Mentoring Scale, also known as PAMS (Cohen, 1993, 1995a; 1995b), as a way of assessing what he considered good mentoring. Cohen explains that the theoretical foundation for this scale is found in Galbraith's (1991b) understanding of the relationship of mentoring and the transactional framework of adult education. Cohen affirms Galbraith's premise that the mentoring relationship is "a transaction between the mentor and the adult learner." (Cohen, 1995a, p. 21). A substantial part of the literature reviewed has already pointed out the transactional nature, or transactional process, of mentoring. This transaction is reflected in the aforementioned scale as "six essential behavioral functions of the mentoring role" (Cohen, 1995a, p. 15): 1) relationship emphasis, 2) information emphasis, 3) facilitative focus, 4) confrontive focus, 5) mentor model, and 6) student vision. These are also called "mentor functions."

The intent of the first function or subscale, relationship emphasis, is the development of trust between mentor and mentee. This is seen first and foremost as a function of the mentor. Cohen identifies five mentor behaviors that contribute to a positive, evolving relationship between mentor and mentee: (Cohen, 1995a, p. 29). These are quoted verbatim:

1) "Practice responsive listening (verbal and nonverbal behaviors that signal sincere interest.

2) Ask open-ended questions related to expressed immediate concerns about actual situations.

3) Provide descriptive feedback based on observations rather than inferences of

motives.

4) Use perception checks to ensure comprehension of feelings.

5) Offer nonjudgmental sensitive responses to assist in clarification of emotional states and reactions."

Cohen continues to describe the ins and outs of each behavior. For example, in practicing responsive listening, Cohen emphasizes eye contact, facial expression, voice tone, gestures and posture as nonverbal communicators that tell a mentee if his/her mentor is truly interested in him/her. The use of open-ended questions, for example, can truly open up a dialogue between mentor and mentee whereas close-ended questions require little response on the part of the mentor. Open-ended questions, and the use of "right" questions, will open rather than narrow the conversation and are seen as less accusatory. As another example, descriptive feedback reiterates what the mentee has already shared. It seeks to build on what has been stated rather than asking "Why" questions that tend to seek out the motives for a mentee's actions. A mentor would do a perception check in order to attempt to understand how a mentee feels about a certain action, idea, or issue. This feeling is not always obvious or easily interpreted without doing a perception check. Conducting a perception check is another way of developing a rapport and establishing a mentoring relationship that is positive and constructive. The use of nonjudgmental responses allows for an acknowledgement of what was said without trivializing the remark by giving approval or dissent too soon (Cohen, 1995a, p. 44.)

By information emphasis Cohen describes the role of the mentor in obtaining the needed information about the mentee, his/her goals and plans, in order to make sure that

what he/she (the mentor) offers, fills a need of the mentee. Questions are framed to elicit: 1) facts regarding the mentee's reasons for entering into this relationship, and 2) facts about what the mentee already knows (Cohen, 1995a, p. 49).

By facilitative focus, Cohen is attempting to examine how the mentor guides the mentee in an exploration of possibilities, looking at options and alternative views which will help the adult learner (the mentee) to arrive at his/her own conclusions (Cohen, 1995a, pp. 61-74).

Confrontive focus are those items in the instrument which account for the mentor's challenging the mentee in order that the mentee may make the necessary changes in direction or behavior in order to continue in his/her personal, professional and intellectual development.

In the mentor model subscale Cohen examines if the mentor shares from his/her own experiences in life "to motivate mentees to take necessary risks, make decisions without certainty of successful results, and continue to overcome difficulties in their own journey toward educational and career goals" (Cohen, 1995a, p. 22).

In the student vision subscale Cohen examines if the mentor helps the mentee to develop his/her critical thinking ability, to cast a vision for a preferred future, to help the mentee become an independent adult learner (pp. 108-120).

Cohen used a five-stage methodology in the development of PAMS: 1) the development of the preliminary scale, 2) a jury assessment of experts for initial construct validity, 3) the presentation of the scale at a major adult education conference for further refinement of the scale for construct validity, 4) the selection of the criterion group who added their suggestions regarding the mentor functions, and 5) a final validation of the

scale.

Within this first stage, development of the preliminary scale, it was important to determine what are the critical mentor functions for establishing a mentor role framework. Cohen came up with two types of mentor actions: content and affect, or factual and emotional domains. Cohen also established working definitions for such terms as transactional process of learning, mentoring, faculty mentor role, and adult learner. The two major categories previously defined, factual and emotional, were further subdivided into the six functions or behavioral dimensions previously enumerated. These functions were seen to be "interpersonal behaviors." These have also been described in brief form above. Cohen further looked at phases of a mentoring relationship as part of this first stage in the development of the scale. Two key issues came out of a discussion of phases: trust and timing. Trust must be developed between mentor and mentee for an effective mentoring relationship. The timing of the relationship is also important, especially in the beginning of the relationship development. Mentoring was seen as a dynamic and developmental process rather than a single event. This developmental process is comprised of four specific phases: 1) early phase, in which trust is developed at the beginning of the relationship; 2) middle phase, during which information is gathered and exchanged in order to better understand the mentee's needs, goals and concerns; 3) later phase, at which time the mentee is assisted to explore his/her beliefs, interests, reasons for decisions; and 4) last phase, in which the mentor is more a role model and the mentee is encouraged to reflect critically, to pursue challenges, to become more one's own person as a lifelong learner. These four phases are reflected specifically in the six behaviors or mentor functions which Cohen puts

forth. The early phase deals with the relationship behaviors, the middle phase deals with

the information behaviors, the later phase deals with the facilitative and confrontive

behaviors, and the last phase with the role model and student vision behaviors.

Cohen developed a self assessment instrument that was "subject-centered,

forced-choice, five point Likert-type, behaviorally summated rating scale." (Cohen,

1993, p. 87). Scoring sheets were also created for the mentors, as well as instructions

regarding the scoring process. The population samples in this first stage consisted of four

groups: 1) "nationally recognized scholars" who were involved in higher education

mentoring and had published on the same; 2) a representative sampling of educators

nation-wide who were professionally committed to mentoring, 3) Community College of

Philadelphia administrators, counselors and faculty mentors, and 4) community college

mentors who participated in the final version of PAMS in order to establish the

normative scores. "The development and testing of the scale proceeded in carefully

planned stages."(Cohen, 1993, p. 90).

In stage two, jury assessment, Laurent Daloz and Nancy Schlossberg, prominent

scholars in the field of adult education, reviewed the Scale for construct validity. Ten

additional scholars and twelve educators participated in the content validity.

In stage three, the adult education conference, the construct validity was refined.

Cohen submitted his work to an adult education conference, the Pennsylviania

Association of Adult and Continuing Education (PAACE.) By consensus the participants

at the conference concurred that the six discrete factors of the construct "were a realistic

and valid explanation of behaviors relevant to the development of significant mentoring

relationships..."(Cohen, 1993, p. 94). Agreement was also made on the mentoring

phases which Cohen had suggested. The scale was then further refined based on the

input of the Conference, by a representative selection of Community College of

Philadelphia mentoring program administrators and others. An item analysis was then

conducted. Additionally, several personal interviews regarding content validity were also

conducted.

In stage four, selection of the criterion group, demographic information on 46

mentors was collected from mentors at the Community College of Philadelphia and the

PAMS survey was administered in order to establish the normative scoring of the

PAMS.

In stage five, Cohen describes the process used for the final validation of the

scale:

> To validate (test for construct validity) the original set of item statements
> as truly representative of discrete factors, a "back translation"... had been
> conducted with experts in the field. The data resulting from this approach
> was analyzed to ensure that specific items could be correlated to the six
> factor categories. Any discrepancies between the proposed correlation
> and the matches completed by the experts were revised as indicated. The
> data from the evaluation panels was then formulated into a table that
> differentiated factors (mentor general functions) and clustered item
> statements (mentor specific behaviors)(Cohen, 1993, p. 98).

The purpose of the scale once developed and validated, was to assist mentors in

evaluating their effectiveness in the mentoring relationship through this self assessment

tool and to reflect on the results for improvement. Cohen developed this scale for use

with both post-secondary education as well as for the business world. Cohen suggests

that this scale could be used in other settings with this proviso: "The scale was

developed to incorporate the mentor functions and behaviors experts agreed were most

likely to be of significance in mentoring relationships between faculty mentors and adult

learners, with a special orientation to the realities of mentors and commuter students at a community college. If the results of this study are generalized for use in other educational environments with this caution, the scale also can be utilized with a reasonable degree of confidence by many education professionals."(Cohen, 1993, p. 196).

Given that word of caution, others have since adapted the PAMS for their own use. For example, Cohen's scale has been adapted and used by the Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA) in its disaster field training organization. The 55 questions have been adapted to meet the needs of the agency in its mentor training in workshop materials published January 2000 by FEMA.

Additionally, Hallesky (2001) studies faculty member behavior at a two-year technical school to see if they fulfill the mentor expectations identified in the literature. Cohen's scale was used for mentor self-assessment. Hallesky also develops a modified PAMS for use by the mentees in assessing their mentors. Such a scale proves valuable as it helps to determine if mentors and mentees alike perceive the relationship in the same way. In Hallesky's study, mentors tend to rate their performance higher than do the mentees.

Another study which makes use of PAMS is a doctoral dissertation by Jones (1999). Jones surveys student teachers, classroom supervising teachers and teacher education university supervisors at four different schools in the six behaviors, or competencies, identified by Cohen. The post-secondary PAMS is used. Jones finds that mentoring in the context of teacher education is a dynamic process, not a one-time event or program. She also finds that the relationship and information emphasis elements of

PAMS were both significant competencies in her study population.

Coffman (1998) also makes use of PAMS in her dissertation as she studies 83 mentors in a community college. Likewise, PAMS is utilized in the Ed. D. study by Jadwick (1997) in which she analyzes mentoring perceptions of mentors and mentees in the 1995-96 Mentor Program, Office of Minority Student Services. Stoner(1996) also utilizes the scale in his research. The sample for his study comes from members of the Pennsylvania Association of Adult and Continuing Education.

The reliability of Cohen's Principles of Adult Mentoring Scale permitted its use in at least five other doctoral dissertations and one federal mentor training program in evaluating mentor behaviors that contribute to an effective mentoring relationship.

In addition to assisting mentors in a self evaluation of their mentoring skills, Cohen in his findings states that PAMS could be used as a diagnostic tool for identifying areas of deficiency around which a mentoring training program could be developed.

PAMS would appear to be crosscultural in nature. The Université du Québec in Montreal (Douville, 1998) makes available a French version of the post-secondary Scale, "Échelle des Principes du Mentorat Adulte."

Summary

This review has examined literature relevant to the adult learner, the mentor, the mentee, and the mentoring relationship. Four models of mentoring were also examined: Zachary's Learner-centered Mentoring Paradigm, Schmoll's research on relationships, Rose's Ideal Mentor Scale, and Cohen's Principles of Adult Mentoring Scale (PAMS).

This review has produced a basic understanding of the mentoring relationship and characteristics thus far identified as essential for effective mentoring relationships to

occur whether in the business world, in academia, or in religious circles. The following

chapter, methodology, will deal with the research to be conducted in order to gain

valuable feedback on mentoring effectiveness from the actual field of mentoring in a

nonformal setting.

CHAPTER 3-- METHODOLOGY

Instrumentation

Merriam and Simpson (1989, p. 127) write, "The technique and procedures for conducting research are to the researcher as the chisel and hammer are to the stone sculptor: their careful and consistent use brings new images of reality." The choosing of the particular research design to be used in this study is important in helping to bring an understanding of mentor/mentee relationships.

Care was taken in selecting procedures for the research instrument, resulting in the decision to develop two quantitative surveys, one for mentors and one for mentees. The surveys were reviewed in light of the work of Ary, Jacobs and Razavieh (1995) and Salant and Dillman (1994).

LDN Mentor Survey

A survey was developed to measure the LDN mentors' perceptions of the mentoring relationship. This survey consisted first of information pertinent to the mentor such as age, present position in the church, ordination status, number of mentees one has had in the past prior to this particular relationship, length of present mentoring relationship, orientation received as a mentor, number of times he/she met with mentee over a six-month period, a rating of trust level in the relationship, a rating of the degree of mutual benefit perceived in the relationship, and the highest educational level attained.

The LDN Mentor Survey also included within it a modified version of Cohen's post-secondary version of the Principles of Adult Mentoring Scale (PAMS). Cohen's

scale follows the six subscales outlined in the theoretical framework, testing for

behaviors in the following areas: relationship emphasis, information emphasis,

facilitative focus, confrontive focus, mentor model, and student vision. The respondents

give responses to 55 statements. The 55 statements cover the six subscales in this way:

ten items for relationship emphasis, ten items for information emphasis, six items for

facilitation focus, twelve items for confrontive focus, six items for mentor model, and

eleven items for student vision. The respondent is instructed to choose the response on

the Likert-type scale which is "most representative of your actual behavior as a mentor."

The five possible responses are "never," "infrequently," "sometimes," "frequently," and

"always." Each answer on the scale has a point value. Each statement is one of a series

of statements testing for a particular subscale. The point values for statements which

pertain to each subscale are totaled. An overall score based on the sum total of the six

subscales gives an overall effectiveness rating for the mentor.

The LDN Mentor Survey reflects the LDN focus instead of Cohen's post-

secondary focus. For instance, the statement, "I discuss students' general reasons for

attending college and then focus on helping them identify concrete educational

objectives, degrees, curricula, and courses" was adjusted to read "I discuss mentees'

general reasons for becoming involved in the LDN and then focus on helping them

identify concrete learning and spiritual formation objectives." The statement "I

encourage students to express their honest feelings (positive and negative) about their

academic and social experiences as adult learners in college," was adjusted on the LDN

Mentor Survey by eliminating the words "in college." The LDN Survey adjusted a

statement like "I discuss my own work-related experience as a way of helping students

think about and carefully examine their career options" to "I discuss my own ministry-related experiences as a way of helping mentees think about and carefully examine their ministry options." Also, the word *mentee* was always substituted for the word *student* throughout the LDN Mentor Survey.

The LDN Mentor Survey included an identification number to maintain public anonymity within the study while allowing a later comparison of mentor responses to mentee responses. Each mentor was assigned a numbered LDN Mentor Survey, beginning with #1, in order to later match the mentor with his/her mentees but also to be able to identify who did or did not return the initial survey.

Reliability and validity of the LDN Mentor Survey

In order to build content validity the LDN Mentor Survey was examined by a panel of four experts (See Appendix D) in the field of mentoring who were individually asked to identify problem items. A technician versed in developing interview instruments as well as literature on survey development (Salant & Dillman, 1994) were consulted regarding the LDN Mentor Survey. Two mentor/mentee pairs similar to the population were asked to review the survey and identify items that needed improvement or clarity. This served as the pilot study for further refinement of the survey questions and procedures for establishing validity of the instrument. According to Merriam and Simpson (1989, p. 131): "Pretesting an instrument works out problems that may arise after the data has been collected. Also, previewing the questionnaire for leading and threatening items guarded against bias and weak reliability of results." The reliability of the original Cohen PAMS has already been demonstrated (Cohen, 1995a; 1995b; 1993).

The researcher administered all surveys, thus increasing the reliability of the

study. All attempts to minimize generous bias were observed. All attempts were also taken to minimize the four types of survey errors identifed by Salant and Dillman (1994, pp. 13-23): coverage error, sampling error, measurement error, and non response error. Each of these can affect the accuracy of the survey.

LDN Mentee Survey

A survey was developed to measure the LDN mentees' perceptions of their mentors in the mentoring relationship. This survey consisted first of information pertinent to the mentee such as age, present position in the church, ordination status, length of present mentoring relationship, orientation received as a mentee, number of times he/she met with mentor over a six-month period, a rating of trust level in the relationship, a rating of the degree of mutual benefit perceived in the relationship, and the highest educational level attained.

The LDN Mentee Survey also included within it a modified version of Cohen's post-secondary scale from the perspective of the mentee.

Cohen's scale follows the six subscales outlined in the theoretical framework, testing for behaviors in the following areas: relationship emphasis, information emphasis, facilitative focus, confrontive focus, mentor model, and student vision by the respondent giving responses to 55 statements. The 55 statements cover the six subscales in this way: ten items for relationship emphasis, ten items for information emphasis, six items for facilitative focus, twelve items for confrontive focus, six items for mentor model, and eleven items for student vision. The respondent was instructed to choose the response on the Likert scale which was "most representative of their mentor's behavior." The five possible responses were "never," "infrequently," "sometimes," "frequently,"

and "always." Each item response had a point value. Statements test for one of the six subscales. All statements referring to, for example, the mentor role, are added together to get a sum total for that particular subscale. This provides data regarding the mentee's perception of the mentor's behavior for that subscale. The total number of points for a subscale determines the mentee's perception of the effectiveness of that particular behavior in the mentor. An overall score based on the sum total of the six subscales gives an overall rating of the mentee's perception of the effectiveness of the mentor.

The LDN Mentee Survey was adjusted to reflect the LDN focus and not the post-secondary context of the scale. In addition, the statements were rephrased to represent the mentee's perception of the mentor's behaviors for each of the 55 statements. For example, the following statement on the Cohen's Scale "I make a good deal of eye contact with students," becomes "My mentor makes a good deal of eye contact with me" on the LDN Mentee Survey. All of the 55 statements were re-written from the perspective of the mentee and his/her perception of the relationship.

A third section was added to the LDN Mentee Survey. The statements in this section used a Likert-type scale and measured the mentee's level of satisfaction with the mentoring experience.

The LDN Mentee Survey included an identification number to maintain public anonymity within the study while allowing the researcher to match mentor responses to mentee responses. Mentees were assigned a number corresponding to their mentor, and a letter. For example, #1a signified that he/she served as the mentee in relationship with mentor #1. If mentor #1 has additional mentees, these mentees in turn were assigned #1b, #1c as appropriate. These numbers also helped o identify who had returned or had

not returned the initial survey.

<u>Reliability and validity of the LDN Mentee Survey</u>

In order to build content validity into the LDN Mentee Survey, the instrument was reviewed individually by a panel of four experts (See Appendix D) who normally work with mentees. A technician versed in developing interview instruments as well as literature on survey development (Salant & Dillman, 1994) were consulted regarding the adjustments made to the PAMS. Two mentor/mentee pairs similar to the population were asked to review the survey that had been developed. This served as the pilot study for further refinement of the survey questions and procedures by the researcher and his adviser for establishing validity of the modified instrument. According to Merriam and Simpson (1989, p. 131), "Pretesting an instrument works out problems that may arise after the data has been collected. Also, previewing the questionnaire for leading and threatening items will guard against bias and weak reliability of results." Cohen's PAMS has already been demonstrated to be reliable (Cohen, 1995a; 1995b; 1993), and the Mentee Survey for the behavior analysis is a modified version of this same instrument.

The researcher administered all surveys thus increasing the reliability of the study. The surveys only measure present mentoring relationships and are not part of a longitudinal study of any given mentoring relationship. Care was taken to avoid generosity bias and to minimize the four types of survey errors reported by Salant and Dillman (1994, pp. 13-23): coverage error, sampling error, measurement error, and non response error. Each of these can affect the accuracy of the survey.

Survey Procedure

The study used a basic surveying procedure outlined by Salant and Dillman (1994), consisting of 1) sending an advance-notice letter which included information regarding informed consent (See Appendix A), 2) sending a questionnaire with cover letter (See Appendices B, E, and F), 3) sending a follow-up postcard to non-respondents (See Appendix C), and 4) sending new questionnaires to non-respondents.

The advance-notice letter, sent two weeks prior to the initial survey, advised participants that they were being invited to participate in a research project on mentoring and also informed them that their participation was completely voluntary. They were informed that a questionnaire would follow within 15 days. In the follow-up letter with the questionnaire they were again advised that their participation was voluntary and that their survey would be considered confidential. They were asked to complete the survey and to return it if they consented to participating in the research project.

Fifteen days later the survey and its cover letter were placed in the mail. The letter described the need for a study which would gather data regarding existing mentorships from which recommendations for more effective mentoring would be developed. The importance of both mentee and mentor participating in this process was explained. The letter guaranteed confidentiality of the results, explaining that coding would be required for the purpose of identifying specific mentors with their specific mentees as well as identifying non-respondents. The right to privacy was also explained. Procedures and policies as outlined and required by the MSU University Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects (UCRIHS) also were adhered to in the letter.

The participants were told that a final summary of the results of the study would be provided to them. The participants were told how long the survey should normally

take to fill out. A self-addressed stamped envelope for returning the survey also was included. The letter explained that by returning the questionnaire, the participants were agreeing to participate in the survey.

Non-respondents to the survey, after 14 days, were contacted by a postcard, encouraging their cooperation with the project in order to increase the number of actual responses. A new questionnaire and self-addressed stamped envelope were then sent to those who were still non-respondents ten days later. A determination of any difference between early and later respondents (Salant & Dillman, 1994, pp. 460-462) was conducted in order to determine if non-respondents would affect the validity of the surveys. Salant and Dillman point out that non-respondents would normally respond the same way as late respondents do, so it was important to compare early and late respondents to see if there was any measurable difference. None was observed.

Forty-seven percent of the mentees returned the mentee LDN survey and seventy-two percent of the mentors returned their mentor LDN survey. Out of a total response by 34 mentors, 18 of these responded with the first mailing. Out of a total response by 36 mentees, 12 responded with the first mailing as well. The second mailing netted an additional response of 16 mentors and 25 mentees.

Operational Procedures

A process for dealing with item non-response was established before reviewing the returns. Non-response was defined in two ways: 1) items for which the respondent left an item blank, giving no response and 2) items where the respondent had handwritten N/A, not applicable, by an item on the survey.

Each question from the modified Cohen scale related to one of six factors. A

non-response to any of these questions within the LDN Mentor or Mentee Surveys required that the study determine a way of allowing for the possibility of each item being answered. For a particular mentor function in which one or two responses were not given, an average of the answered items for that mentor function was calculated. That averaged number or rating was assigned to the non-response item. This became the operational procedure for dealing with most non-responses.

It was pre-determined that if a respondent did not answer three or more items related to any particular mentor function to allow for a valid average, then that survey would be discarded in order to avoid skewing the results. Five LDN Mentee Surveys required discarding based on this pre-determined process.

Several questions required that the respondents give a time-related response. For example, the respondents were asked how long their orientation had been. It had been pre-determined that such responses would be recorded as hours. Where a respondent might answer "1 day," a day was pre-determined to represent 8 hours. A response of "1 month" or "weekly" would equate to 8 hours per day for 4 days a month, or 32 hours. The length of being a mentor or mentee would be pre-determined as months. A response of "1 year" would therefore translate to 12 months.

Certain responses would be reviewed to see if mentors and mentees agreed in their responses by comparing mentor and mentee mean scores as well as sum total scores for each of the six mentor functions. Time was spent analyzing other selected variables or factors to see how they influenced a mentor's or mentee's perception of mentoring effectiveness, first individually and then for each specific mentor function. Such factors that were examined were length of orientation, length of time in the relationship, age of

mentee, etc.

Statistical Procedures

It is understood that this study was not generalizable to other populations. It was also understood that this was a census survey or whole population survey, and not a samples survey. Nevertheless, one of the statistical procedures used was an independent samples t-test when analyzing the role that age, for example, might play in the effectiveness ratings of the mentor functions or in one of the quality factors such as degree of mutual benefit perceived in the relationship. The use of the t-test helped to derive better understanding or meaning from the data. Inferential statistics are descriptive, which suited the purposes of this study. Sriram (1999) states that "inferential statistics are used primarily as descriptive landmarks when negotiating uncertain terrain.... Research advances both by magnifying and isolating effects, and p values are valuable benchmarks in this endeavor."

Much of the data being analyzed is ordinal where respondents are rating effectiveness on a Likert-type scale, examining central tendency or the average. Ordinal data is normally measured by the median since this is not affected by extreme cases. Nevertheless it can still be appropriate to measure using the means value. For over thirty years, statisticians have been treating ordinal numbers like intervals because of the work of Labovitz (1970), thus making the use of means an optional statistical operation for use with ordinal data.

Once the data had been gathered and entered into SPSS, the first computations dealt with descriptive statistics. All mentors were examined regarding age, number of times serving as a mentor, length of the present mentoring relationship, amount of time

spent in orientation, number of times over a six-month period that the mentor met with his/her respective mentee, highest level of academic achievement, position within the church, and ordination status. In addition to these items, the mentor also was described regarding his/her perception of the trust level in the relationship and his/her perception of the degree of mutual benefit in the present mentoring relationship. Mentees were also analyzed as a group regarding their answers to the descriptive factors as well as to trust level and mutual benefit. Then overall scores for all mentees were compared and their scores for each of the six mentor functions were analyzed, using a t-test.

CHAPTER 4—DATA ANALYSIS

Introduction

In the previous chapter the methodology for the study was explained in detail,

from instrumentation to statistical procedures. Responses were received to both the LDN

Mentor Survey and the LDN Mentee Survey. This chapter focuses on analyzing the data

collected through these surveys.

Statistical software for tabulation

Responses to the LDN Mentor Survey and LDN Mentee Survey were for the

most part tabulated using a Windows version of SPSS™ statistical software and

supplemented with VassarStats™.

Mentor/Mentee Demographics

Respondents

Table 1shows the number of LDN Mentor Surveys and LDN Mentee Surveys

sent out, the number of surveys, returned, the response rate in percentages, the number

of surveys discarded, and the total number by percentages of surveys used in the data

analysis.

Table 1: Respondents

	Sent out	Returned	Discarded	# Used
LDN Mentor Survey	47	34 (72%)	0	34 (72%)
LDN Mentee Survey	68	37 (54%)	5	32 (47%)

The survey instruments were sent out to a total population of forty-seven mentors

and sixty-eight mentees. Thirty-four mentors (72%) returned the LDN Mentor Survey

and thirty-seven mentees (54%) returned the LDN Mentee Survey. Five LDN Mentee

Surveys were discarded according to the protocol established in the previous chapter, i.e.

three or more non-responses in any one factor. Thirty-four LDN Mentor Surveys (72%)

and thirty-two LDN Mentee Surveys (47%) were used for data analysis

Age of Respondents

The survey instruments asked the mentors and mentees their age. The data are

shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Mentor/Mentee Age

	Mentor (n=34)	Mentee (n=32)
Mean	49.2 years	39.3 years
SD	8.4 years	11.8 years

As could be expected, the mentors were older than the mentees. The mean

difference in age between the two groups was 9.9 years. It is interesting to note that the

mentor group was slightly more age-homogeneous with a standard deviation of 8.4 years

which was 3.4 years less variant than the standard deviation of the mentees. As a group

the mentors are not only older than the mentees but they appear to be more similar in age

to each other than the mentees.

Education

Mentors and mentees were asked on the survey to indicate their highest level of

education attained. Options given on the survey were "grade school certificate," "some

college," "college degree," "graduate study," and "graduate degree." The data are shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Mentor/Mentee Level of Education Attained

	Mentor (n=34)	Mentee (n=32)
Grade school certificate	1 (2.9%)	6 (18.8%)
Some college	1 (2.9%)	12 (37.5%)
College degree	2 (5.9%)	8 (25%)
Graduate study	4 (11.8%)	2 (6.3%)
Graduate degree	26 (76.5%)	3 (9.4%)

In comparing the educational levels of mentors with mentees, the data show that mentors had attained a higher level than mentees on the average. Combining the college degree, graduate study and graduate degree categories, the data show that thirty-two mentors (94.2%) of the total mentor respondents, have a college degree compared to thirteen mentees (40.7%) of the total mentee respondents. Twenty-six mentors (76.5%) hold a graduate degree whereas only three mentees (9.4%) have a graduate degree. A larger number of mentees, eighteen persons (56.3%) have only a grade school certificate or some college than is the case for the mentors, where only two persons (5.8%) of the total number of mentor respondents.

Ordination

Mentors and mentees were asked on the surveys to indicate their ordination status. The two options on both surveys were "ordained" and "not ordained." The data are shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Mentor/Mentee Ordination Status

	Mentor (n=34)	Mentee (n=32)
Ordained	30 (88.2)	5 (15.6%)
Not ordained	4 (11.8%)	27 (84.4%)

More mentors indicated they were ordained than mentees. The numbers are almost the exact opposite of each other. As skilled practitioners, the mentors necessarily were mostly ordained pastors and evangelists while the mentees were future evangelists in training. The four unordained mentors were either elders in local churches or spouses of pastors.

In summary, the mentors in the LDN tend to be older and more educated than the mentees. More mentors were ordained than mentees. As experienced practitioners they were training future practitioners who for the most part were in the process of becoming ordained.

Qualities of the Mentoring Relationship

Descriptive statistics were drawn on three quality areas in the mentoring relationship: length of time served as a mentor or mentee, frequency of meetings, and length of orientation in the present relationship. The data are shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Mean Scores for Three Qualities of Mentoring

	Length of time served as Mentor/Mentee		Frequency of Meetings over a 6-month Period		Length of Orientation	
	Mentor	Mentee	Mentor	Mentee	Mentor	Mentee
N	34	32	32	32	32	30
Mean	40.1 months	39.3 months	10.9 times	10.5 times	14.8 hours	2.4 hours
SD	51.8	11.8	7.0	6.5	20.6	2.9

The standard deviation for the mentor was higher than the mean. This can be explained due to two extreme cases. Twenty-three of the thirty-four mentors, or 67.6%, reported thirty-six months or less. Two of the mentors indicated 180 and 264 months respectively. These are considered "extreme values" or "extreme cases." According to DiLeonardi and Curtis (1992: 50), "the mean is susceptible to extreme cases." They also

stated, "The standard deviation, like the mean, is very sensitive to extreme values," (p. 52.) Removing the two extreme cases, 180 and 264, from the mentor database gives us a more accurate reading of the length of time. The data are shown in Table 6.

Table 6: Recoded Data for Length of Time Served as Mentor/Mentee

	Mentor	Mentee
N	32	32
Mean	28.8 months	39.3 months
SD	21.8	11.8

Removing the two extreme cases, the mentees have more experience in being mentees than mentors have in being mentors even though previous data show that mentors have more orientation to being a mentor than mentees have to being mentees.

The mentor group for the frequency of meeting over a six-month period was 10.9 times with a standard deviation of 7.0 and the mean for the mentee group was 10.5 times with a standard deviation of 6.5. Both mentor and mentee groups showed similar responses regarding the frequency of meeting over a six-month period. The means for these two groups was very close. Both groups perceived the same number of times meeting in a mentoring relationship, namely about ten times over a six-month period.

The data regarding length of orientation are interesting because mentors received more orientation to become a mentor than the mentees did to become mentees. This difference could be significant in effectiveness perceptions of the mentoring relationship. Extreme values were noted in the standard deviations for both mentor and mentee groups, again accounted for due to extreme cases.

In summary, mentors received a longer period of orientation to the task of being a mentor than mentees had received to the task of being a mentee. The mentors and

mentees met 10+ times together over a six-month period. Mentees, according to the recoded data, had been mentees longer than mentors had been mentors.

<div align="center">Perceptions of the Mentoring Relationship</div>

Mentors and mentees were asked to rate the level of trust and degree of mutual benefit they perceived in the mentoring relationship. In both trust and benefit, the perceptions were rated by means of a Likert-type scale with 1 representing "no trust" and 5 representing a "high level of trust". Means were calculated for both mentors and mentees. The data are shown in Table 7.

Table 7: Mean Scores for Level of Trust and Mutual Benefit

	Level of Trust				Mutual Benefit			
	Mentor (n=32)	Mentee (n=32)	t-value	p-value	Mentor (n=31)	Mentee (n=31)	t-value	p-value
Mean	4.3	4.5	-1.365	.182	3.9	3.7	.745	.462
SD	.7	.8			.8	1.1		

In both mentor and mentee groups, the perception of the level of trust was above the midpoint (3). A t-test showed no significant difference between the means for mentor and mentee groups.

In both mentor and mentee groups the means regarding the degree of mutual benefit in the relationship were quite similar. There was agreement between the mentor and mentee groups that there is a degree of mutual benefit in the present mentoring relationships. In other words, both mentors and mentees indicated that they benefited from this relationship. A t-test showed no significant difference between the means for mentor and mentee groups.

In summary, mentors and mentees perceived an above average level of trust and

an above average degree of mutual benefit through the mentoring relationship.

Effectiveness of the Mentoring Relationship

How effective did the mentors and mentees perceive the mentoring relationship? Both the LDN Mentor Survey and the LDN Mentee Survey were designed specifically to measure mentor and mentee perceptions of the effectiveness of the existing mentoring relationships. Cohen's six effectiveness "mentor functions" or subscales: relationship emphasis, information emphasis, facilitative focus, confrontive focus, mentor model and student vision, were analyzed for both the mentor and mentee groups. Both the LDN Mentor Survey and the LDN Mentee Survey measured effectiveness within the six mentor functions using a Likert-type scale for each item: 1= "not effective," 2= "less effective," 3= "effective," 4= "very effective," and 5="highly effective." The first tabulations were made for an overall effectiveness score, combining the six mentor function totals and tabulating an overall mean score. This gave a composite view of overall effectiveness in the LDN mentoring relationships in Table 8. Second, effectiveness ratings for the individual six mentor functions were then tabulated for both the mentor and mentee groups. The operations for the individual mentor functions are described in more detail in Tables 9-14.

A decision regarding the interpretation of Likert-type scores was taken based on the advice of two research specialists: 1) scores between 1 and 1.4 were to be rated "not effective," 2) scores between 1.5 and 2.4 were to be rated "less effective," 3) scores between 2.5 and 3.4 were to be rated "effective," 4) scores between 3.5 and 4.4 were to be rated "very effective," and 5) scores between 4.5 and 5 were to be rated "highly effective." This served as the guide for the interpretation of scores in the following

tables.

Overall Effectiveness Score

Combining all six effectiveness mentor functions together, a score for overall

effectiveness in the mentoring relationships was recorded. The data are shown in Table

8.

Table 8: Overall Effectiveness Score

	Mentor (n=34)	Mentee (n=32)	t-value	p-value
Mean	2.6	2.2	1.171	.245
SD	1.4	1.4		

The mean for the mentors' overall score on effectiveness of the relationship

translated to an "effective" rating whereas the mean for the mentees' overall score

translated to a "less effective" rating. Overall, mentors rated the mentoring relationship

more effective than did the mentees. A t-test showed no significant difference between

the means of the two groups.

Comparing the Means of the Mentor Functions

A comparison of the means for both mentor and mentee groups was then tested

for each of the six mentor functions to see if there was a significant difference in the

perception ratings between the mentor group and the mentee group. The data are shown

below in Tables 9-14.

Relationship Emphasis mentor function.

According to Cohen (Cohen, 1993:75) the relationship emphasis is one in which

the mentor "conveys through active, empathetic listening a genuine understanding and

acceptance of student's feelings." This is the first of six mentor functions identified by Cohen that allow for developing an overall understanding of the "mentor role." A comparison of the means for the relationship emphasis mentor function is shown in Table 9.

Table 9: Mean Score for Relationship Emphasis Mentor Function

	Mentor (n=34)	Mentee (n=32)	t-value	p-value
Mean	2.7	1.8	3.043	.003*
SD	1.4	1.2		

Mentors perceived the mentoring in regards to the relationship emphasis mentor function as "effective" whereas the mentees perceived it to be "less effective." Mentors saw themselves as more effective in this first mentor function than did the mentees. A t-test showed that there was significant difference between the means of the two groups at .05 or less.

Information Emphasis mentor function.

According to Cohen ([Cohen, 1993:75) the information emphasis is one in which the mentor "directly requests detailed information from and offers specific suggestions to students about their current plans and progress in achieving personal, educational, and career goals." The mentor in this case is an informartion-gatherer, information which helps him/her to be able to evaluate how to help the mentee in his/her learning. A comparison of the means for the information emphasis mentor function is shown below in Table 10.

Table 10: Mean Score for Information Emphasis Mentor Function

	Mentor (n=34)	Mentee (n=32)	t-value	p-value
Mean	3.0	2.6	.934	.177
SD	1.5	1.5		

Both mentors and mentees perceived the mentor to be "effective" in this mentor function. A t-test showed no significant difference between the means of the two groups.

Facilitative Focus mentor function.

According to Cohen (Cohen, 1993:75) the facilitative focus is one in which the mentor "guides students through a reasonably in-depth review of and exploration of their interests, abilities, ideas, and beliefs." In other words, the mentor demonstrates facilitation skills when using this particular function.

The data are shown in Table 11.

Table 11: Mean Score for Facilitative Focus Mentor Function

	Mentor (n=34)	Mentee (n=32)	t-value	p-value
Mean	3.5	3.1	1.151	.254
SD	1.4	1.7		

Mentors perceived themselves to be "very effective" and mentees perceived the mentors to be "effective" in the skills accompanying the use of the facilitative focus mentor function. A t-test showed no significant difference between the means of the two groups.

Confrontive Focus mentor function.

According to Cohen (Cohen, 1993:75) the confrontive focus is one in which the mentor "respectfully challenges students' explanations for or avoidance of decisions and actions relevant to their development as adult learners." The effectiveness of the confrontive focus was analyzed in Table 12.

Table 12: Mean Score for Confrontive Focus Mentor Function

	Mentor (n=34)	Mentee (n=32)	t-value	p-value
Mean	2.3	1.9	1.111	.271
SD	1.4	1.4		

Both mentors and mentees perceived the mentor to be "less effective" in utilizing

the behaviors and skills that correspond to confrontive focus. This was the lowest score

recorded in the data regarding any one of the six mentor functions. A critical mentor

function, this one appears to be the least utilized or least developed of the six functions.

A t-test showed no significant difference between the means of the two groups.

Mentor Model mentor function.

According to Cohen (Cohen, 1993:76) the mentor model is one in which the

mentor "shares (self-discloses) life experiences and feelings as a 'role model' to students

in order to personalize and enrich the relationship." The effectiveness of this mentor

function is shown in Table 13.

Table 13: Mean Score for Mentor Model Mentor Function

	Mentor (n=34)	Mentee (n=32)	t-value	p-value
Mean	3.2	2.8	1.054	.296
SD	1.3	1.3		

The mean scores show that both mentors and mentees perceived the relationship

by this mentor function to be "effective." Both mentors and mentees saw the mentor as

an effective role model, one capable of sharing from his/her life experiences, making the

necessary self-disclosures. A t-test showed no significant difference between the means

of the two groups.

Student Vision mentor function.

According to Cohen (Cohen, 1993:76) the student vision is one in which the

mentor "stimulates students' critical thinking with regard to envisioning their own future

and to developing their personal and professional potential." The effectiveness of student

vision was analyzed. The data are shown in Table 14.

Table 14: Mean Score for Student Vision Mentor Function

	Mentor (n=34)	Mentee (n=32)	t-value	p-value
Mean	2.8	2.5	.929	.357
SD	1.3	1.5		

Both groups, mentor and mentee, perceived the mentor to be "effective" in

his/her use of the behaviors and skills in the student vision mentor function.. such as

stimulating students' critical thinking. A t-test showed no significant difference between

the means of the two groups.

A summary table with the effectiveness ratings of the six subscales follows. The

data are shown in Table 15.

Table 15: Summary of Effectiveness Mean Scores for all Six Mentor Functions

		Relationship Emphasis	Information Focus	Facilitative Focus	Confrontive Focus	Mentor Model	Student Vision
Mentor	Mean	2.7*	3.0	3.5	2.3	3.2	2.8
	SD	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.3
Mentee	Mean	1.8*	2.6	3.1	1.9	2.8	2.5
	SD	1.2	1.5	1.7	1.4	1.3	1.5

*Significant at .05 or less

In summary, mentors perceived themselves to be "effective" or higher in five of

the six mentor functions. Mentees perceived the mentors to be "effective" in four of the

six mentor functions. Mentors rated themselves more effective than did the mentees.

There was no significant difference in the mean scores of mentors and mentees in

five of the six mentor functions. The only mentor function that showed any significant

difference between the mean scores of the mentor and mentee groups was relationship

emphasis at .05 or less on the t-test.

Differences in Effectiveness Scores Using Factors

Six selected variables were also examined in order to rate the mentors' and mentees' perceptions of the mentor functions when these selected variables were taken into consideration. In the statistical operations that followed, data were classified as either dependent or independent variables. The overall effectiveness score and the six mentor functions served as dependent variables and the selected variables served as the independent variables. An analysis was conducted to compare the mean score of the high rating group with the mean score of the low rating group of each of the independent variables for all six mentor function scores to see if there was a significant difference in those ratings. Second, an independent samples t-test was conducted in order to test the degree of significance.

Age.

The means of the mentor functions and overall scale were compared by age. The data are shown in Table 16.

Table 16: Age as a Factor in Effectiveness

	Mentors (n=34)				Mentees (n=32)			
	Less than 49.2 years	49.2 years or older	t-value	p-value	Less than 39.3 years	39.3 years or older	t-value	p-value
Overall score	2.8	2.3	.984	.332	1.8	2.4	-1.435	.164
Relationship	2.8	2.7	.185	.854	1.3	2.1	-2.178	.039*
Information	3.3	2.6	1.255	.219	2.1	3.0	-1.677	.104
Facilitative	3.7	3.3	.850	.402	2.9	3.3	-.700	.489
Confrontive	2.7	1.9	1.513	.140	1.6	2.2	-1.405	.171
Mentor model	3.3	3.0	.761	.452	2.4	3.2	-2.060	.048*
Student vision	2.8	2.8	-.074	.941	1.9	2.9	-2.006	.055

*Significant at .05 or less

The data showed that older mentees rated effectiveness higher in two mentor functions than did the younger mentees.

Age played no significant difference in the effectiveness ratings of any of the six mentor functions for the mentor groups.

Age played a significant difference in the effectiveness ratings in the relationship emphasis and mentor model mentor functions for the mentee groups. There was a significant difference in how mentees perceived effectiveness in the relationship emphasis mentor function and the mentor model mentor function.

Degree of mutual benefit.

The means of the mentor functions and overall scale were compared by degree of mutual benefit. The data are shown in Table 17.

Table 17: Mutual Benefit as a Factor of Effectiveness

	Mentors (n=33)				Mentees (n=32)			
	Low benefit (below 3.9)	High benefit (3.9 or above)	t-value	p-value	Low benefit (below 3.7)	High benefit (3.7 or above)	t-value	p-value
Overall score	1.8	2.8	-2.074	.047*	1.4	2.5	-2.512	.019*
Relationship	1.9	3.0	-2.290	.029*	1.1	2.1	-3.079	.005*
Information	2.0	3.3	-2.452	.020*	1.6	3.1	-2.963	.006*
Facilitative	3.2	3.7	-.839	.408	2.0	3.6	-2.744	.010*
Confrontive	1.6	2.6	-1.862	.072	1.5	2.1	-1.210	.236
Mentor model	2.4	3.4	-2.346	.026*	2.0	3.2	-3.231	.003*
Student vision	1.8	2.6	-3.014	.005*	1.5	2.9	-2.687	.011*

* Significant at .05 or less

Mentors and mentees were divided into two groups each: those who responded on the survey with a low degree of mutual benefit to the question regarding mutual benefit and those who responded on the survey with a high degree of mutual benefit in the relationship. Group division was based on the mean for this item. For example, the

mean for mentors was 3.9. Those who responded with a rating less than 3.9 were placed in the low degree of mutual benefit category and those with a mean of 3.9 or above were placed in the high(er) degree of mutual benefit category.

The data show that mentors who rated mutual benefit higher, or perceived a higher degree of mutual benefit from the relationship, also perceived higher effectiveness in four mentor functions than their colleagues in the lower mutual benefit group. These four mentor functions were relationship emphasis, information emphasis, mentor model and student vision.

Likewise, the mentees who rated mutual benefit higher also rated effectiveness higher in these four mentor functions, relationship emphasis, information emphasis, mentor model and student vision. They also rated effectiveness higher in one additional mentor function, the facilitative focus mentor function.

Mutual benefit appears to have played an important role in how mentors and mentees perceived effectiveness in the mentor functions.

Although mutual benefit played an important role in most of the mentor functions, the one mentor function where this was not the case was the confrontive focus mentor function. The data did not show any significant difference in how mentors or mentees in higher or lower groups rated the confrontive focus mentor function based on mutual benefit. Neither higher mentor or mentee group rated confrontive focus higher in effectiveness than did the lower mentor or mentee group.

Level of trust.

The means of the mentor functions and overall scale were compared by level of trust. The data are shown in Table 18.

Table 18: Level of Trust as a Factor of Effectiveness

	Mentors (n=32)				Mentees (n=32)			
	Low level of trust (below 4.2)	High level of trust (4.2 or above)	t-value	p-value	Low level of trust (below 4.5)	High level of trust (4.5 or above)	t-value	p-value
Overall score	2.4	2.8	-.801	.429	1.9	2.3	-.736	.468
Relationship	2.5	3.1	-1.179	.242	1.5	1.9	-.896	.377
Information	2.8	3.3	-1.007	.322	2.5	2.7	-.366	.717
Facilitative	3.3	3.8	-1.149	.259	2.6	3.4	-1.355	.185
Confrontive	2.4	2.1	.368	.715	1.9	2.0	-.065	.949
Mentor model	3.1	3.4	-.690	.495	2.6	3.0	-.876	.388
Student vision	2.6	3.1	-1.007	.321	2.2	2.7	-.878	.387

Two groupings again were established for both mentor and mentee groups. The first groups consisted of those mentors or mentees who perceived a low level of trust in the relationship. The second groups consisted of those mentors or mentees who perceived a higher level of trust in the relationship. For mentors the dividing point was the 4.2 mean and for mentees it was the 4.5 mean.

Level of trust played no significant difference in the effectiveness ratings of the six mentor functions for the mentor groupings.

Level of trust played no significant difference in the effectiveness ratings of the six mentor functions for mentee groupings either.

Frequency of meeting.

The means of the mentor functions and overall scale were compared by frequency of meeting. The data are shown in Table 19.

Table 19: Frequency of Meeting as a Factor of Effectiveness

	Mentors (n=33)				Mentees (n=32)			
	Less than 10.9 times	10.9 times or more	t-value	p-value	Less than 10.5 times	10.5 times or more	t-value	p-value
Overall score	2.6	2.4	.381	.706	2.5	1.8	1.171	.251
Relationship	2.9	2.4	1.075	.291	2.1	1.5	1.403	.171
Information	2.9	2.9	.014	.989	2.9	2.4	.867	.393
Facilitative	3.7	3.3	.873	.389	3.3	2.9	.543	591
Confrontive	2.4	2.2	.310	.759	2.1	1.8	.743	.463
Mentor model	3.2	2.9	.558	.581	3.2	2.5	1.487	.148
Student vision	2.8	2.7	.331	.743	2.9	2.1	1.431	.163

Two groupings for both mentor and mentee groups were established. The low mentor/mentee groups represented those who perceived that they had met less than 10.9 or 10.7 times respectively over a six-month period. The high mentor/mentee groups were those mentors and mentees who perceived that they had met 10.9 or more times or 10.7 or more times respectively over a six-month period.

No significant difference in the effectiveness ratings of the six mentor functions within either of the two mentor groupings was demonstrated when compared to the frequency of meeting.

No significant difference in the effectiveness ratings of the six mentor functions within either of the two mentee grouping was demonstrated when compared to the frequency of meeting.

Length of orientation.

The means of the mentor functions and overall scale were compared by length of orientation. The data are shown in Table 20.

Table 20: Length of Orientation as a Factor of Effectiveness

	Mentors (n=32)				Mentees (n=32)			
	Low orienta-tion (below 14.8)	High orienta-tion (14.8 or above)	t-value	p-value	Low orienta-tion (below 2.4)	High orienta-tion (2.4 or above)	t-value	p-value
Overall score	2.8	2.2	1.204	.238	2.2	2.1	.136	.893
Relationship	3.0	2.4	1.204	.238	1.8	1.7	.191	.850
Information	3.2	2.4	.949	.350	2.8	2.6	430	.670
Facilitative	3.6	3.3	.561	.579	2.9	3.4	-.744	.463
Confrontive	2.5	2.2	.538	.595	1.8	2.0	-.334	.741
Mentor model	3.3	2.9	.869	.392	2.8	2.9	-.149	.883
Student vision	3.1	2.5	1.170	.251	2.5	2.4	.128	.899

The mentor low group consisted of those who reported having less than 14.8 hours of orientation. The high mentor group consisted of those who reported having 14.8 hours or more of mentor orientation.

The low mentee group consisted of those who reported less than 2.4 hours of orientation; the high mentee group consisted of those who reported 2.4 or more hours of orientation.

The analysis showed that length of orientation played no significant difference in the effectiveness ratings of the six mentor functions within either the mentor groupings or the mentee groupings.

Level of education attained.

The last variable tested in this analysis of differences was the level of education attained. The means of the mentor functions and overall scale were compared by level of education attained. The mentors were divided into two groups at the mean of 5.5. The mentees were also divided into two groups with a mean of 3.5. The data are shown in Table 21.

Table 21: Level of Education Attained as a Factor of Effectiveness

	Mentors (n=32)				Mentees (n=32)			
	Low education group (below 5.5)	High education group (5.5 or above)	t-value	p-value	Low education group (below 3.5)	High education group (3.5 or above)	t-value	p-value
Overall score	3.0	2.4	1.039	.307	2.6	1.8	1.329	.195
Relationship	3.1	2.6	.898	.376	1.8	1.9	-.131	.897
Information	3.5	2.8	1.126	.269	2.8	2.3	.871	.391
Facilitative	3.5	3.5	-.670	.947	3.3	3.1	.340	.737
Confrontive	2.9	2.2	1.259	.217	2.2	1.6	1.192	.244
Mentor model	3.6	3.0	1.151	.250	3.1	2.6	.875	.390
Student vision	3.1	2.7	.792	.434	2.7	2.2	.836	.411

Level of education attained played no significant difference in the effectiveness ratings of the six mentor functions within either the mentor group or the mentee group.

In summary, only two factors made a difference in the effectiveness ratings of the six mentor functions. These were age and mutual benefit. Older mentees perceived higher effectiveness in the relationship emphasis and mentor model mentor functions than the younger mentees did. Mentors who perceived higher mutual benefit than their colleagues also perceived higher effectiveness in four of the mentor functions: relationship emphasis, information emphasis, mentor model and student vision. Mentees who perceived higher mutual benefit than their colleagues also perceived higher effectiveness in five of the mentor functions: relationship emphasis, information emphasis, facilitative focus, mentor model and student vision.

CHAPTER 5—DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Discussion

Introduction

The research has served to provide a clearer understanding of effective mentoring

relationships. Effective mentoring relationships are those relationships which have above

average scores in the six mentor functions identified by Cohen (1993) in his Principles

of Adult Mentoring Scale (PAMS). Implications for future design of mentor training

have become clearer. This chapter discusses in summary form the findings from the

gathered data and concludes with specific recommendations for the LDN mentoring

program as well as recommendations for future research.

The discussion that follows is divided into the following sections: 1)

mentor/mentee demographics, 2) qualities of the mentoring relationship, 3) perceptions

of the mentoring relationship, and 4) differences in effectiveness scores using factors.

Mentor/mentee Demographics

The mentor/mentee demographics comprise Tables 1-4 of the previous chapter.

These tables presented data regarding the number of respondents, their age, their level of

education attained, and their ordination status.

Age, Education, and Ordination Status.

Tables 2-4 reported that mentors were older than mentees, had more education,

and that more mentors than mentees were ordained, facts that were to be expected. The

literature confirmed that in a mentoring relationship, mentors are usually older, more experienced and in positions of leadership or authority that make them sought after by younger, less experienced mentees rising on the corporate, educational, or religious ladder. Mentoring relationships traditionally have been older/younger, more experienced/less experienced arrangements. In these arrangements either the mentor seeks out someone to train or, as is more common today, the mentee seeks out an older person in their particular field who can advocate their case, giving them access to training and advancement which they could not realize by themselves. It should be noted, though, that there are times when the mentee may be more knowledgeable than the mentor. Younger persons often have a greater knowledge of and facility in using computers and other technologically-focused tools. In such cases, older persons could find themselves being mentored by younger people.

In mentoring relationships within a church setting, such as in the LDN program, age may or may not play a factor. What qualifies a person to serve as a mentor, or discipler, of another is oftentimes the length of being a spiritual leader. He/she may have journeyed for a longer period of time on the spiritual road and therefore is sought out for spiritual guidance. Data, though, show more older mentors than mentees. It can be concluded that these older persons probably also have had more experience, then, on this spiritual journey.

Table 4 shows that more mentors were ordained than mentees. Since the LDN program was developed to train men and women so that they could become ordained evangelists, it naturally follows that fewer of them have an ordination status already. Their mentors logically would be men and women who have already attained this status.

The majority of mentors in the LDN program are ordained, though four of them are not.

In summary, the findings in Tables 2-4 are consistent with what was expected from the data since mentees would be expected to be younger than their mentors, in the beginning of their professional careers, and would have less education, or experience, than those who were mentoring them.

Qualities of the Mentoring Relationship

Three qualities of the mentoring relationship were examined in Table 5. These were length of time served as a mentor or mentee, the frequency of meeting over a six-month period, and the length of orientation.

Length of time served as a mentor or mentee.

The data showed that the mentees perceived a longer time serving as mentee than the mentors did as mentors. It can be concluded that the mentoring experience places greater time demands on the LDN mentee than it does on the LDN mentor. This may be a reflection of the mentors' being more familiar with the situation and therefore able to be more efficient in the time that they spend. Also, the data suggests that the mentee, as the learner in the situation, has a larger agenda to be achieved. The mentee could possibly be putting more time and energy into the relationship than the mentor since he/she sees himself/herself as the partner in the relationship who has more to learn. It could also be concluded that the mentee's perception is the result of the mentee having a lower knowledge base or experiential base to call upon and therefore he/she indeed exerts more effort and time into the relationship.

Frequency of Meeting.

The responses from both mentor and mentee groups were similar for the frequency of mentoring meetings over a six-month period. It can be concluded that both groups perceived meeting the same number of times meeting in the mentoring relationship over a six-month period. This data do not assist us in any way in evaluating the quality of those meetings nor the content of those mentoring sessions. The only fact we can deduce from the data is that both mentors and mentees perceive that they have met the same number of times over a six-month period.

<u>Length of orientation.</u>

Mentors and mentees were asked to report on the length of orientation they had received prior to going into their mentoring relationships. The mentor group reported many more hours of orientation than the mentee group. This finding is consistent with the literature which shows that more emphasis in the past has been placed on training the mentor for his/her task than for the mentee for his/her task. Most books and articles on the topic of mentoring focus on the mentor. This phenomenon can be explained in several ways.

1)   Historically it was assumed that mentors played the pivotal role in the mentoring relationship. Mentors were seen as the experts who shared from their wisdom. Knowles states, "the behavior of the teacher probably influences the character of the learning climate more than any other single factor," (Knowles, 1970, p. 41) A statement like this reinforces the pivotal role given to the mentor in a mentoring relationship, which is seen as a form of learning. This reinforces the premise that mentors require more mentoring for their role than mentees do since their role is oftentimes seen to be more critical in the relationship. Early forms of mentoring,

such as the various forms of apprenticeship, point to the mentor as the "expert."
It can be concluded, then, that the mentor would be expected to need more
orientation than the mentee in order for him/her to fulfill the expert role.

2) The mentee was known as a protégé, from the French meaning "one who needs
to be protected." As long as some mentoring programs think of the mentee in
terms of protégé, then the length of orientation could continue to be minimal
compared to the length of orientation given the mentor. Oftentimes even the
beginning parts of the actual mentoring program are considered as a form of
orientation for the mentor while the same perception does not hold for the
mentee. The mentee traditionally would not see the mentoring relationship
necessarily as orientationally-focused.

3) It is only within the last fifty years that greater emphasis has been placed on the
mentee. Previously the mentee was seen as a passive participant in the mentoring
process while the mentor was the "doer." The mentee was merely the object of
the mentoring relationship, someone to be acted upon. Only in recent times has
he/she been seen as the subject- not object- of the mentoring relationship, just as
much a proactive participant as the mentor, both being involved in a dialogical
transaction. As this recognition of the active role of the mentee becomes more
readily accepted, the amount of orientation may likewise increase for the mentee.

4) Within the LDN program itself, mentors received training for their task, but little
training was given to their mentees. Mentor training took two forms: 1) training
conducted by the researcher and one of his colleagues at mentor training
workshops, and 2) mentor training conducted by LDN regional coordinators, if

any. Not all coordinators necessarily trained mentors in addition to training given by the researcher. The researcher was not involved in the training of all mentors. Also, the researcher did no training of mentees to their task. Any reporting of mentee training, then, is the result of training offered in the region. Even as designers of the program, then, the researcher and his colleague had focused only on mentor development. This could account for the reported difference in length of orientation between the two groups.

Perceptions of the Mentoring Relationship

Table 7 focused on two perceptions of the mentoring relationship, one dealing with the level of trust in the relationship and the other with a perception of mutual benefit in the relationship.

Level of trust.

Both groups, mentors and mentees, have similar perceptions of the level of trust in the mentoring relationship. They trust the relationship to a high degree. Mentor perception of the level of trust showed a mean of 4.3 and mentee perception showed a mean of 4.5. Both of these are high ratings. Trust would appear to be the first step, a foundational step, in mentoring relationships. Without trust in the relationship, you have nothing to build on. It is important that both mentors and mentees perceive a high level of trust in the relationship if this relationship is to flourish and mature over time. Either mentors were effectively trained in trust-building or they were innately skilled in this area. The literature earlier showed the importance of trust-building in the early phase(s) of a mentoring relationship. Without this, the relationship could not mature to where

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frank dialogue could be carried out nor to the point where the mentor would feel comfortable in challenging the mentee to greater productivity.

Mutual benefit.

Both groups, mentors and mentees, have similar perceptions of the degree of mutual benefit in the mentoring relationship. Not quite as high a perception as in the level of trust, nevertheless mentors had a mean score of 3.9 and mentees had a mean score of 3.7. For a mentoring relationship to be sustainable over time, both parties in the relationship need to perceive a benefit to the relationship. Both ask themselves, "What's in it for me?" Without seeing the benefit, there would be less interest in seeing the mentoring continue. The mentee, for one, would want to see benefit because of his/her role as an adult learner. One of the assumptions which Knowles makes about adult learners is that they are desirous of immediate application. Also, he noted that adult learners come to a learning experience for the purpose of solving or focusing on problems. There must be some tangible result from this relationship, some benefit, for the mentee to continue. Likewise, for a mentor to expend time and energy in the relationship, he/she must see some benefit accrued to himself/herself. It may originate with the idea of generativity, of passing the baton to a new generation. Or the benefit may be seen as something very personal in which the mentor for once in his/her life has the opportunity to share with one who is willing to listen, a form of self-affirmation, a sense that "I have something worth sharing with others." To the extent that both mentor and mentee see benefit in the relationship, the mentoring has rhyme and reason, has purpose, has validation in their eyes.

In summary, regarding both level of trust and mutual benefit, the study has

demonstrated that both mentors and mentees had moderate to high perceptions of the relationship. Both appear to be important for effective mentoring relationships. Without trust in the relationship and without a sense of personal benefit, the relationship could be short-lived and its value questioned by both parties.

Effectiveness of the Relationship

The next section of this chapter is concerned with the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship. Two questions are posed:

1) Overall, how effective did mentors and mentees perceive the relationship?

2) How effective did mentors and mentees perceive the relationship in light of the six mentor functions identified by Cohen?

The first question gives us an overall perception concerning the effectiveness issue. The second examines specific mentor functions in light of mentor/mentee perceptions of effectiveness.

Overall effectiveness.

As was earlier reported, the data showed a mean of 2.6 for mentors in overall effectiveness and 2.2 for mentees. It was also noted that there was no significant difference between the means of the mentor and mentee groups; both groups saw them similarly; they saw the overall effectiveness of their relationships as low. This is certainly disconcerting for those who have designed the LDN mentoring program. This could reflect on the length or quality of mentor training that was given or it could reflect on the mentors' ability to exercise the mentor role, defined by the skills and behaviors found in the six mentor functions. It can be concluded that mentors may enter the

relationship with a lowerer expectation level than the mentees or that the mentees enter with a higher expectation level than doe the mentors.

An apparent incongruity comes to light when you consider that the data showed that both mentor and mentee groups gave a moderate to high rating for level of trust in the relationship and for the degree of mutual benefit while the perception of overall effectiveness in the relationship was, nevertheless, strikingly low.

One would not expect to see such a low overall rating, given the recorded high level of trust and mutual benefit in the relationship. It could be explained that skill in the mentoring relationship has nothing to do with how mentors and mentees ultimately judged the relationship. On a relational level, both groups were able to give moderate to high ratings on trust and mutual benefit while giving low ratings for the skills that go into the mentoring, namely the six mentor functions. The mentors, although apparently not skilful in the mentor functions, had enough personality to be able to create a sense of trust and a feeling of mutual benefit.

To interpret this overall effectiveness score, it is important to also look, then, at the effectiveness scores for each of the six mentor functions. What follows next is a discussion on the mentor/mentee effectiveness ratings for each of the six mentor functions.

<u>Relationship Emphasis mentor function.</u>

According to Table 9, mentors perceived the Relationship Emphasis mentor function as "effective" with a mean rating of 2.7, although this rating is not strikingly high. Mentees perceived the Relationship Emphasis mentor function lower than mentors and rated it "less effective" with a mean rating of 1.8. Reflecting on Cohen's description

of the relationship emphasis as a mentor function which "conveys through active, empathetic listening a genuine understanding and acceptance of student's feelings," (Cohen, 1993:75), one would question if mentors generally understand the behaviors essential for effectiveness in establishing a strong relationship with the mentee. Cohen has identified these behaviors as responsive listening, the use of open-ended questions, the giving of descriptive feedback, and nonjudgmental, sensitive responses. This finding suggests that mentors, as a group, do not spend sufficient time in developing relationship behaviors. Again, it could also suggest that sufficient training in this mentor function was not given to the would-be mentors before they began their mentoring relationship with a mentee. Also, if this survey was answered at the beginning of a mentoring relationship, mentor and mentee may not have had sufficient time to establish a workable mentoring arrangement.

Although both mentors and mentees rated the relationship emphasis very low, mentors perceived themselves more effective in this function than did the mentees. It could be suggested that mentors may not be very open to feedback from their mentees. Through such feedback, growth could occur and the mentoring relationship could become more effective. Given the reported perception of a high level of trust, though, it would not seem consistent with the data to attribute the low scores in this first mentor function to a lack of honest feedback-giving or honest feedback-receiving.

Information Emphasis mentor function.

According to Table 10, both mentors and mentees perceived the Information Emphasis mentor function as "effective." Analysis of these data showed no significant difference between the ratings of mentors and the ratings of mentees. Again these are not

strikingly high scores. They are rather neutral, non-confrontive, "safe" scores. Cohen (1993, p. 80) describes the specific behaviors which make up the Information Emphasis mentor function. These are behaviors to help the mentor gain an understanding of the mentee through the collection of information about the mentee. The mentor wants to know the present learning situation of the mentee. He/she asks questions in order to understand the background of the mentee. He/she asks probing questions as well as offers direct-type statements regarding mentee problems to solve or solutions which the mentee could try. Another behavior mentioned by Cohen is that of restating mentee comments to assist in helping to clarify an understanding of the facts. Cohen also encourages the mentor to rely on facts in the decision-making process - hence a concern for information. The data showed that the mentors perceive that they are using an Information Emphasis, but not very effectively. This is supported by the mentees' rating of their mentors.

It can be concluded that the mentors have not cultivated the Information Emphasis mentor function behaviors to warrant higher effectiveness scores. Mentors in their orientation may need more understanding about the Information Emphasis mentor function. Mentors may need to practice developing the particular skills that relate to the Information Emphasis mentor function if these mean scores are to rise dramatically.

Facilitative Focus mentor function.

According to Table 11, in the Facilitative Focus mentor function, mentors perceive a "very effective" rating whereas the mentees perceived an "effective" rating for their mentors. The Facilitative Focus mentor functions described by Cohen include those where the mentor is seen as a guide who poses hypothetical questions to help the

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mentee expand his/her views. The mentor helps the mentee to uncover underlying assumptions for statements which he/she makes. The mentor presents various viewpoints to an issue, measures the mentee's level of commitment to established goals, and helps the mentee in analyzing reasons for his/her goals and preferences. The mentor, therefore, needs practice in exercising these behaviors. Perhaps the mentor has not taken the time necessary to fully understand the mentee in order to understand the questions that need to be asked or to help the mentee uncover his/her underlying assumptions for statements made. Possibly the mentor is incapable of seeing several sides to an issue and therefore cannot help the mentee to see various viewpoints.

It can be concluded that the mentors need more knowledge about the Facilitative Focus mentor function and need more practice in utilizing the corresponding skills for this mentor function. The orientation that the mentors receive should include this knowledge base and exercises using the appropriate skills.

Confrontive Focus mentor function.

The confrontive focus mentor function is one in which the mentor "respectfully challenges students' explanations for or avoidance of decisions and actions relevant to their development as adult learners," (Cohen, 1993, p. 75). Cohen lists the accompanying behaviors as:

"Careful probing to assess psychological readiness to benefit from different points of view.

Open acknowledgment of concerns about negative consequences of constructive criticism on relationship

Confrontive verbal stance aimed at primary goal of promoting self-assessment of

apparent discrepancies

Selective focus on most likely behaviors for meaningful change

Attention to using least amount of carefully stated criticism necessary for impact

Comments (offered before and after confrontive remarks) to reinforce belief in

positive potential for growth beyond current situation," (Cohen, 1993: 81)

According to Table 12, the mean rating for both mentors and mentees showed

that the mentoring relationship was "less effective." This was the lowest rated mentor

function among the LDN mentors and mentees discussed so far in this section. It can be

concluded that this is far from being the "safest" function of an effective mentor. Its very

label, "confrontive focus" can be understood very negatively. Mentors probably find this

function to be the least desirable to exercise in the mentoring relationship. Mentors

prefer to be liked. Confrontation, or challenge, would scare most mentors away for fear

of diminishing what they hope to be a meaningful and positive relationship. Also, these

behaviors for many mentors do not come naturally. They appear conflictive or

judgmental. They appear to put up walls between mentor and mentee. Or the mentor

could perceive that the mentee is not ready to be confronted and therefore, growth would

not result from this confrontation. The mentor might be concerned that the use of these

behaviors could be counterproductive for the relationship and for the mentee.

Part of the low scores in this function could be attributed to the ethos of the

Christian Reformed Church itself which could mitigate against a healthy exercise of this

function. The confrontive focus could be perceived from its most negative view, as high

criticism of the mentee by his/her mentor. In the Christian Reformed Church, pastors are

taught not to "lord it over another." The mentor sees the mentee as a pastor-in-training,

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and therefore, could find criticizing him/her to be a prohibition, a taboo, therefore subconsciously forcing the mentor to limit his/her use of this particular mentor function. This would occur only when the most negative aspects of this mentor function are exercised, when constructive criticism turns to a negative form.

Whatever may be the reason(s) for the low score in the confrontive focus mentor function, it can be concluded, though, that the mentor fails to exercise this function fully and, as a result, this relationship will be difficult to develop and that the mentee will have difficulty in growing through this relationship as it is presently practiced.

Mentor Model mentor function.

For the Mentor Model mentor function, both the mentors and mentees registered ratings showing this mentor function as "effective." This mentor function rating was only moderate or average in effectiveness. The mentor in the Mentor Model mentor function serves as a role model for the mentee. Cohen says that the Mentor Model mentor function is demonstrated by the mentor sharing from his/her own experiences of success and failure and demonstrating that both success and failure contribute to a person's learning. He also states that the mentor has a "direct, realistic assessment of positive belief in ability to pursue stated objectives." In other words, the mentor has much to offer the mentee through sharing how he/she overcame difficulties and ultimately grew through those difficulties. The mentors need to exude a passion in the mentoring relationship. They need to communicate their desire to see the mentees grow through this role model relationship.

It can be concluded that the LDN mentors fall short of being very or highly effective role models, and the mentees are very well aware of this. Either the mentors do

not have enough training in being a role model, in how to self-disclose, or the mentors have little to offer and are improperly positioned as mentors. A serious examination of the present mentors is called for to determine if they have adequate training in knowledge and skills pertinent to the Mentor Model mentor function or if the reason for the low ratings results from mentors who really are inadequate to the task.

Student Vision mentor function.

Both groups rated the Student Vision mentor function as "effective." Neither score, though, was very high. The purpose of the Student Vision mentor function is to stimulate "students' critical thinking with regard to envisioning their own future and to develop their personal and professional potential." (Cohen, 1993, p. 76). The mentor demonstrates the corresponding following behaviors: 1) making statements which require the mentee to reflect on his/her present and future learning goals; 2) asking questions that help the mentee clarify his/her ability to manage change; 3) reviewing with the mentee his/her choices based on an assessment of options and available resources; 4) commenting related to analyzing the problem solving strategies of the mentee; 5) demonstrating verbally confidence in the positive decisions which the mentee has made; 6) showing respect for the mentee's ability to determine his/her preferred future; and 7) encouraging the mentee in developing his/her talents, and in pursuing his/her dreams for the future.

It can be concluded from the ratings for the Student Vision mentor function that the mentor exercises behaviors that correspond with this mentor function. The mentor understands the goals of the mentee and is capable of assisting the mentee in accomplishing those goals, but not to a high degree. In any educational experience,

change is inevitable. How a mentee handles change has a lot to do with his/her growth from that change. What a mentor understands or does not understand about the process of critical thinking and transformational learning will either enhance the mentee's positive change or hamper it. The mentor probably does not fully understand change process and therefore is of only some assistance to the mentee in this critical stage of learning in the LDN.

Summary

Neither the overall effectiveness score nor the ratings in the six individual mentor functions rated the mentor as highly effective in the mentoring relationship. The mentors and mentees both usually perceived the mentor as average, or "effective," in his/her mentoring relationship. It can be concluded that more training by mentor trainers or more skills development by the mentors themselves is called for, particularly in the six mentor functions. Additionally, much more attention needs to be given to developing the skills base for exercising the confrontive focus mentor function, even if only to raise the score to "effective." This was the lowest rated mentor function of the six and therefore requires even more attention than the others.

Differences in Effectiveness Scores Using Factors

In this next section, differences in the reported effectiveness scores using selected variables will be discussed. These selected variables were age, degree of mutual benefit, level of trust, frequency of meeting, length of orientation, and level of education attained. The first to be discussed will be mutual benefit because of the findings reported.

Mutual benefit as a variable in effectiveness.

This variable was by far the most striking of the six factors in effectiveness that were analyzed. Mutual benefit as a factor in effectiveness strikingly affected how the mentors and mentees perceived the mentor functions. There was significant difference in ratings in four of the six mentor functions between the mentor group who perceived low benefit and the group that perceived higher benefit. These four mentor functions were the relationship emphasis function, the information emphasis function, the mentor model function, and the student vision function. The p-values for the difference in these four functions were respectively .029, .020, .026, and .005. The most significant difference was in student vision. The higher mutual benefit mentor group rated effectiveness in these four mentor functions higher than did the lower mutual benefit mentor group.

Mutual benefit as a factor in effectiveness affected how mentees perceived five of the six functions: the relationship emphasis function, the information emphasis function, the facilitative focus function, the mentor model function, and the student vision function. The p-values for the difference in these five functions were respectively .005, .006, .010, .003, and .011. Mentees with a high perception of benefit rated the effectiveness in these five functions higher than did their counterparts in the lower mutual level group.

The confrontive focus emphasis function was not one of the functions affected by mutual benefit. Mentors were obviously avoiding confrontive behaviors in their relationships.

As was discussed earlier in this chapter, mutual benefit plays an important role in setting the stage for an effective mentoring relationship. This was further affirmed in this

section as it was noted how mutual benefit as a factor of effectiveness affected how mentors and mentees both perceived the mentor functions. For the LDN mentors and mentees, mutual benefit as a factor of effectiveness was very important. The following paragraphs show how mutual benefit played an effective role in the above named mentor functions.

In terms of the Relationship Emphasis mentor function, Cohen (1993, p. 75) explains that the purpose of this function is "to create a psychological climate of trust which allows students (who perceive mentoring as listening and not judging) to honestly share and reflect upon their personal experiences (positive and negative) as adult learners." In this study, where both mentor and mentee sensed open dialogue and the sharing of personal experiences, both mentor and mentee perceived some degree of mutual benefit in the relationship.

In terms of the Information Emphasis mentor function, Cohen (1993, p. 75) states that the purpose of this function is "to ensure that advice offered is based on accurate and sufficient knowledge of individual differences." Both mentor and mentee, involved in a sharing of information, and the giving of advice in personal as well as professional areas, saw a mutual benefit. The mentor possibly sees the relationship as an opportunity to share from his/her wide range of experiences and offer suggestions to one who shows great promise. The concept of generativity, of the mentor investing in the life of another, may also be a factor in this relationship while the mentee possibly sees the relationship as an opportunity to learn from one who has already walked the path.

In terms of the Facilitative Focus mentor function, Cohen (1993, p. 75) describes the purpose of this function as "to guide students through a reasonably in-depth review

and explanation of their interests, abilities, ideas, and beliefs." The benefit to the mentee is his/her reflection on those interests, abilities, ideas and beliefs under the guidance of a caring mentor. Such a reflection or review might not naturally occur without this initial nudging by a facilitating mentor. At the very least, that review or reflection might not be in-depth, only superficial, were it not for an insistent mentor.

In terms of the Mentor Model mentor function, Cohen (1993, p. 76) describes the purpose of this function as "to motivate students to take necessary risks (make decisions without certainty of successful results) and to continue to overcome difficulties in their own journey toward academic and career goals." The mentor could perceive this relationship as an opportunity to experience the joy of serving as a role model for one who has begun the journey. The mentor may even project on the mentee some of the goals and dreams which remain unfulfilled in his/her own life. The mentor has already discovered for himself/herself that life is full of risks, but necessary in order to reach one's goals and is desirous of sharing that truth. For the mentee, the benefit comes in the receiving of permission from an older, wiser mentor to risk it all for a preferred future.

In terms of the Student Vision mentor function, Cohen (1993, p. 76) says that the purpose of this function is "to encourage students as they manage personal change to take initiatives in their transition(s) through life events as independent adult learners." This purpose is based on critical reflection, reflection on the past and reflection on the future. For the mentor, the benefit comes in the equipping of the young mentee to think critically. For the mentee the benefit comes in learning how to think critically and envision the future.

Shea (1994, 1997, 1999) discusses in detail in his works the importance of both

mentor and mentee seeing a benefit to the relationship, that for many this function is the driving force behind the relationship. Phillips-Jones (2000e) specifically emphasizes the benefits of mentoring for the mentor. Mentors often ask "What's in it for me?" Mentoring relationships like any relationship that require the investment of time and energy, prove to be more effective when there is a perception of benefit for both parties.

In summary, both mentors and mentees who perceived a higher degree of mutual benefit from the relationship also give higher effectiveness ratings for most of the mentor functions.

Age as a variable in effectiveness.

The study showed that older mentees saw higher effectiveness in the Relationship Emphasis and Mentor model mentor functions than did the younger mentees. How to account for this? Concerning the Relationship emphasis mentor function, older mentees, as adult learners, perhaps had more experience in the practice of learning and projected this on their mentoring relationship. They were more willing to be pliable, to learn from their mentors, than were the younger mentees. They entered into the relationship with a maturity which allowed them to be more open to the leading of their mentors.

Concerning the Mentor Model mentor function, the older mentees were more willing to listen and learn from their mentors' self disclosures. In spite of any mentor deficiencies, the older mentees more often looked to their mentors as role models than did the younger mentees.

Older, more mature mentees could be responding more positively in the relationship and be more willing to take advantage of whatever the mentor has to offer.

With age often comes more tolerance and a respect for those who appear to have learned much in the course of their journeying.

LDN mentees, particularly older ones, would see in the mentor a spiritual guide who has much to offer. Since the mentors are predominantly ordained pastors and evangelists, they serve as role models in ways which nonordained mentors could not. Younger LDN mentees might be less apt to "follow the lead" of a mentor simply for lack of maturity, while older mentees see the significance of following those who have been credentialled, who have arrived, and are willing to share from their vast treasure house of experience.

The data showed that the age of the mentor did not have an effect on the ratings of the six mentor functions. It can be concluded that mentors in general saw themselves the same, and this attributed to similar effectiveness ratings in the mentor functions.

Level of trust as a variable of effectiveness.

As a factor in effectiveness, level of trust had no effect on the mentor or mentee perceptions of the mentor functions. Mentors in both levels of trust, high and low groups, had very similar ratings in all of the functions. Mentees in both levels of trust, high and low groups, also had very similar ratings in all of the functions. The level of trust made no significant difference on how mentor groups perceived the functions nor on how the mentee groups perceived those functions. In other words, scores in the six functions for both high and low mentor and mentee groups were relatively similar.

Even though trust was earlier identified as "very effective" to "highly effective" in mentoring relationships, it is not a factor that appears to strongly influence perceptions of the mentor functions. This appears to be a contradiction. It can only be

explained in these terms: As a stand-alone factor, for the respondents to the two surveys, the level of trust was important and effective in the relationship. As an influencing factor affecting perceptions in the six functions, trust does not seem to play an important role. It certainly does not have the affect that mutual benefit does. Perhaps trust was not as fully developed as it could have been, and thus was not reflected in the perceptions of the six functions.

Frequency of meeting as a variable of effectiveness.

Frequency of meeting as a factor in effectiveness did not significantly affect how the mentors or mentees perceived the mentor functions. Perception scores for both mentors and mentees were quite low. There was no significant difference between the low frequency of meeting group compared to the higher frequency of meeting group for either mentors or mentees in the six mentor functions.

The quality of the meeting time, then, is called into question. It could be assumed that the more one met, the better the mentoring relationship would be reflected in the six functions. This, however, was not the case. It can be concluded that the mentoring sessions were perhaps ineffective so that the frequency of the sessions had little affect on how mentors and mentees perceived the six mentor functions. Frequency of the sessions would only contribute to effectiveness to the degree that the mentoring sessions themselves were effective. Greater care must be taken in the design of the mentoring sessions so that greater effectiveness is perceived. Mentoring sessions need a format and cannot be left to spontaneous actions by the mentors or spontaneous responses by the mentees. Each mentoring session needs to have a purpose and a plan of action.

Length of orientation as a variable of effectiveness.

As a factor of effectiveness, the length of orientation did not appear to have much affect on mentor and mentee perceptions in the mentor functions. There was no significant difference between those with less orientation and those with more orientation in how the mentors or mentees perceived the six functions. It can be concluded that the orientation received was of poor quality, or that it was not meaningful, since the length of orientation had no visible affect on mentor and mentee perceptions in the six functions. Greater care in designing an orientation program needs to be taken. The components of a mentoring orientation for mentors need to be well thought out and need to reflect the skills and behaviors of the six mentor functions. The orientation program for mentees also needs to be well designed, taking into account the appropriate behaviors expected of mentees in effective mentoring relationships.

Level of education attained as a variable of effectiveness.

As a factor of effectiveness, the level of education attained did not affect how mentors or mentees perceived the mentor functions. How much or little education one has does not seem to affect how mentors or mentees perceive the effectiveness of mentors in the six mentor functions. It ca be concluded that mentees do not rate their mentors' effectiveness on the level of education he/she has attained as much as on other factors and variables. Education alone does not necessarily make one an effective mentor.

Summary

The only variable which significantly affected how mentors and mentees perceived the mentor functions was mutual benefit. Where both mentor and mentee perceived a higher benefit to the relationship, this was reflected in their perceptions in

most of the mentor functions, in four for the mentor and five for the mentee.

Concluding Observations

Cohen's Principles of Adult Mentoring Scale (PAMS) was found to be a useful tool for partially measuring a mentor's perception of effectiveness in mentoring relationships.

PAMS proved to be useful in giving an overall effectiveness rating for the mentoring relationships as well as individual effectiveness ratings in the six subscales which Cohen had identified in his research. An adaptation of this scale for use with mentees gave an additional second-sided perception for a more holistic view of the mentoring relationship, seeing the relationship not only through the eyes of the mentor but also through the eyes of the mentee. Combining this measurement tool with questions regarding other variables that could play a difference in the effectiveness of the relationship gave the researcher a much wider angle lens through which to evaluate the effectiveness of the mentoring. In order to enhance the success or effectiveness of mentoring relationships, all possible tools should be utilized through as many angles as possible.

Recommendations

Recommendations for the LDN Mentoring Program

The findings of the research and data analysis point toward the need for more effort in the training of mentors and mentees for their specific tasks within the relationship. The findings also point toward the need for some form of accountability in

the relationship. Designers of mentoring programs will need to concentrate, then, on these two specific areas: training and accountability.

Training.

Both mentors and mentees need to receive better and more orientation to their particular tasks. Since mentors in the LDN program reported having received more orientation to their task than mentees received to theirs, the LDN program in the future should emphasize training for both mentors and mentees. In order for mentees to "come into their own" in the mentoring relationship, it is important for them to understand their role. It is important for mentees to see themselves as proactive participants in an ongoing, transactional process.

Present orientation did not prove to be effective and leaves much to be desired. Mentors would benefit from reading material not only about mentors but also mentees. The more the mentor understands the mind of the mentee and his/her role in the relationship, the better the mentor is equipped to facilitate the relationship. LDN mentors need to become mentee-focused instead of just mentor-focused.

Mentors and mentees should read about Cohen's six mentor functions in order to understand what they are experiencing. As they come to understand these functions, their purposes and respective behaviors, the better they are able to function effectively in their respective roles in the mentoring relationship. Scores of "effective" or "less effective" in the mentor functions present the mentors with a challenge to improve their mentoring skills in most of the six mentor functions. This will also help mentors and mentees to have the same expectations for the relationship.

Role-playing a mentoring session could be employed to increase a mentor's

potential effectiveness with respect to the behaviors reflected in the six mentor functions. This needs to be followed by appropriate evaluation of the role-play so that mentors can learn from this experience. Evaluations can be verbal or by means of a checklist enumerating the six mentor functions and giving effectiveness score for the mentor's role-play in each of these functions. Mentors could also be asked to give a self-evaluation of their performance within the role-play. If combined with the former, it is best if the mentor first evaluates himself or herself before others give their evaluation.

To better understand the specific function of Student Vision mentor function, the mentor should become better acquainted with Schon's (1984) "Reflection-in-Action" model of critical reflection, or Mezirow's (1991) "Perspective Transformation" model, or versed in Brookfield's (1984, 1986, 1989, 1995) writings on the process of critical reflection. Any combination of these teachings would benefit the mentor and further equip him/her for living out the behaviors essential to this mentor function

Mentors and mentees both need more training in the skills and behaviors relevant to the Confrontive Focus mentor function. This mentor function was consistently rated low in effectiveness by both mentors and mentees. Mentors will need more orientation regarding the Confrontive Focus mentor function. Mentors will also need hands-on practice in using the skills that accompany this mentor function. The behaviors will need to be second nature. Rather than think about the possible negative consequences of confrontation, mentors will need to respond automatically with the appropriate actions and words. When the skills are used effectively, this mentor function can only enhance the mentoring relationship. In essense, there needs to be practice in "truth telling." Mentors need to learn how to challenge, how to exercise the behaviors which Cohen

described for this mentor function. Mentees need to learn how to respond appropriately and to grow from the use of this mentor function. Additional practice in the use of appropriate skills will enhance the rising of effective scores for this mentor function. LDN mentors will need to overcome the fear that their actions in the confrontive focus are misconstrued as "lording it over another." Rather, they need to explain to the mentee why these behaviors are being carried out so that the mentee can see how he/she will grow as the mentor challenges appropriately.

Part of the training should center on the importance of trust and mutual benefit in any mentoring relationship. As the data have shown, both of these factors by themselves were rated moderately high to high by both mentors and mentees. There is always room for improvement.

The data also showed how the degree of mutual benefit influenced how mentors and mentees perceived effectiveness in the mentor functions. Training needs to emphasis that there are some benefits to both mentor and mentee in a mentoring relationship, thus setting the groundwork for a positive beginning.

Accountability.

Both mentors and mentees need to be held accountable for their roles in a mentoring relationship. One way of realizing this is through the writing of a mentoring contract in which the specifics of the relationship are stipulated. Such specifics could include the purpose of the mentoring relationship, the date when the mentoring will begin, the specific day or time of the week when mentor and mentee will meet, an understanding of the roles of both mentor and mentee, and what is acceptable and not acceptable within the relationship.

Regular coaching sessions for mentors should be scheduled by a "mentor of mentors." This coach would help the mentor to think critically about the relationship and to offer suggestions regarding direction and next steps in the relationship. Qualifications for a mentor's mentor need to be established and training to be a mentor's mentor is essential. In essence, the mentor's mentor should be an effective mentor himself or herself, exercising effectively the six mentor functions.

Overall, the mentors rated themselves higher than the mentees did in effectiveness. They may have felt that their years of experience equipped them for mentoring while the mentees saw areas in which the mentors could improve. Honest ongoing evaluations of the relationship, therefore, are called for if both mentor and mentee are to see the mentoring relationship in its true light. Such evaluations could be a combination of self-evaluations, peer evaluations and mentee evaluations. Periodic self-evaluations will serve to correct errant behaviors or to affirm positive mentoring behaviors. These can be either verbal or written. Periodic peer evaluations for mentors allow for fellow mentors to observe and recommend since mentors can mentor each other. Mentee evaluations of their mentors in the six mentor functions identified by Cohen allow for mentors to have a better understanding of how the mentee rates the mentor's effectiveness.

Those who train mentors also need to be held accountable, in this case, for the quality and duration of the training they give to the mentors and mentees. The data showed that length of orientation did not effect how mentors and mentees perceived the effectiveness of the relationship. This suggests that the quality of the orientation needs to improve. The LDN Mentor and Mentee Surveys serve not only to rate the mentor in

his/her mentor role, but also serve as benchmarks for rating the effectiveness of the training received to their role.

The data showed that frequency of meeting did not influence the quality of the mentoring relationship either. This suggests that greater care in designing the mentoring sessions needs to be implemented. Mentors, therefore, need to be held accountable regarding the content of the mentoring sessions and trainers need to be held accountable for their role in equipping the mentors for this task.

Recommendations for Further Research

The size of the respondent pool, thirty mentors and thirty-two mentees, turned out to be too small for as rigorous an analysis as the researcher would have liked. If this study were to be repeated, it would be important to find a larger population to use for a similar analysis or to consider ways of encouraging a higher response rate of the present census.

Future research could ask how a mentee's overall satisfaction in the relationship influences the effectiveness ratings for the six mentor functions. The LDN Mentee Survey also measured for mentee satisfaction in the mentoring relationship by means of four questions, but data were not included for use in this analysis.

Future research could be conducted on the mutual benefit factor by means of a qualitative analysis to understand why this particular factor proved significant among the test population in overall effectiveness and in many of the mentor functions.

Knowles (1984, pp. 62-63) states that the assumptions one makes about adult learners can affect how we interact with them. Research could be conducted to determine how a mentor's assumptions about the mentee as an adult learner affects a

mentor's interactions with his/her mentee.

Would mentors and mentees respond differently to the LDN surveys if the surveys were given to them at different times? Zachary (2000, p. 49) reports that all mentoring relationships occur in several phases, often in three or four. It would be useful to determine to what extent the perceptions of the mentoring relationship change or do not change over time. One could further determine if relationships appear to mature or to be more effective over time or not by means of a longitudinal study of those perceptions.

A study could be conducted on the mentee population to determine to what extent a mentee's readiness to be mentored makes a difference in the effectiveness ratings of the relationship. Little research has been conducted which shows if this readiness makes a difference or not in effectiveness perceptions.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

ADVANCE NOTICE LETTER

Date

Address

City, State, ZIP

Recipient

Address

City, State, ZIP

Dear Name

Within the next 15 days you will be receiving a survey regarding your role as mentor or mentee in a Leadership Development Network (LDN). You have the right to not participate in this survey if you so choose. If you decide to do so, your participation in filling out this survey and returning it promptly will help Gary Teja, the investigator, in completing his Ph.D. research into the area of characteristics of effective mentoring. It is hoped that the findings in turn will help make the mentoring component of LDNs stronger and more effective.

At all times the responses you make to the survey will be kept confidential. Reports of research findings will not permit associating you by name with specific responses or findings. Although your identity will be known to me since each survey is numbered, at no time will you as an individual be highlighted or cited by name. Data gathered will be reported only in the aggregate so that individual subjects may not be identified or associated with the data provided.

A good response rate is needed from those who receive the survey in order to make this research as reliable as possible. Please look for the survey in the mail. Thank you for considering participating in this study.

Gary Teja, the researcher

Christian Reformed Home Missions

APPENDIX B

COVER LETTER

Date
Address
City, State, ZIP

Recipient
Address
City, State, ZIP

Dear Name

About two weeks ago you received an advanced notice that a survey on mentoring would be in the mail. You now have in your hands the promised survey. If you agree to participate, the survey should only take about 15 minutes to complete.

The survey is part of a doctoral research project on mentoring. Your participation in this survey is completely voluntary. There is no penalty for not participating. By returning a completed survey, you will be indicating your consent to participate in this research project. This is a **one-time** participation. You will not be contacted for any further information beyond this survey.

The information you provide will be confidential. At no time will you be identified by name with your survey responses. The surveys will be used by the researcher only for purposes of the study. Where it is necessary to identify a particular respondent, this will be done by using terms such as Mentee #1 or Mentor #1.The surveys are numbered (coded) in order for the researcher to match mentor with mentee(s) since matched mentor/mentee analysis is part of the study. All returned surveys will be kept in a secure location. Your privacy will be protected to the fullest extent allowable by law.

A self-addressed stamped envelope is provided for you to return the survey. Please return the completed survey within the next 10 days.

If you have any questions about this study, please contact the researcher, Gary Teja, Christian Reformed Home Missions, 2850 Kalamazoo Ave SE, Grand Rapids, MI 49560, e-mail: tejag@crcna.org., (616) 224-0825.

If you have questions or concerns regarding your rights as a study participant, or are dissatisfied at any time with any aspect of this study, you may contact—anonymously, if you wish—Ashir Kumar, M.D., Chair of the University Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects (UCRIHS) by phone: (517) 355-

2180, fax: (517) 432-4503, e-mail: ucrihs@msu.edu, or regular mail: 202 Olds Hall, East Lansing, MI 48824.

   At the completion of the research a copy of the findings from the cumulative surveys will be sent out to all participants.

Thank you for considering participating in this study.

Sincerely,

Gary Teja, the researcher

APPENDIX C

FOLLOW-UP CARD

Date

Address

City, State, ZIP

Recipient

Address

City, State, ZIP

Dear Name

You recently received an LDN mentor or mentee survey in the mail. The due date has passed and a completed survey from you has not yet been received. In the event that you do want to participate, another copy of the survey is enclosed as well as a self-addressed stamped envelope.

Please consider taking fifteen minutes to fill out this important survey. Again, your participation is completely voluntary. Since matched mentor/mentee analysis is part of the study, without your participation, the researcher will not be able to do a matched mentor/mentee analysis on your particular mentor/mentee pair.

Thank you for considering participating in this study.

Sincerely,

Gary Teja, the researcher

APPENDIX D

PANEL OF EXPERTS

The following persons served as the panel of experts in the field of mentoring:

1) James Osterhouse, M.Div., Lombard, Illinois.

   Rev. Osterhouse is the Leadership Development Specialist for Christian Reformed Home Missions. Rev. Osterhouse oversees the Leadership Development Networks (LDNs) and conducted mentor training workshops throughout the U.S. and Canada.

2) Joel Hogan, B.A., Grand Rapids, Michigan

   Mr. Hogan is the Director of Leadership Development and Training for Christian Reformed World Missions, overseeing mentoring for Christian Reformed missionaries around the world.

3) Jeffrey Stam, D. Missiology, Hudsonville, Michigan.

   Dr. Stam is founder and former director of Set Free Ministries and presently pastor of Friendship Chapel. Dr. Stam has spent a decade in mentoring relationships.

4) Robert deVries, D. Min., Ph. D., Grand Rapids, Michigan.

   Dr. deVries is professor of church education at Calvin Theological Seminary. He is also director of the Master of Arts programs at the seminary and former director of field education, involving placing seminarians in mentoring relationships with pastors.

APPENDIX E

LDN Mentor Survey

This survey should take you no more than 15 minutes to fill out. Please fill out

each item. Section One asks for basic information and Section Two asks for your

perceptions regarding your mentoring.

SECTION ONE

1. *How long have you been a mentor?* ___ _____

2. *Have you previously participated in a mentoring relationship?*

   ___Yes

   ___No

   2a. If yes, please describe.

3. *Regarding your present mentoring relationship, what orientation did you receive about being a mentor?*

   ___None

   or

   ___hours

   or

_____days

4. *In a 6-month period, how many times would you typically meet with your mentee in your present mentoring relationship?*

    ___times

    4a. Thinking about those times, were they:

    __too few

    __about right

    __too many

5. *On a scale from 1 to 5, with 5 being the highest, how would you rate your present mentoring relationship in terms of trust?*

    No trust   High trust

       1   2   3   4   5

6. *On a scale from 1 to 5, with 5 being the highest, how would you rate your present mentoring relationship in terms of mutual benefit?*

    No mutual benefit   High mutual benefit

       1   2   3   4   5

7. *Your age* ____

8. *What is your highest level of education?*

    __Grade school certificate

    __High school diploma

__Some college

__College degree

__Graduate study

__Graduate degree

9.   *What role do you have in your local church?* _____

10.   *Are you an ordained minister or evangelist?* ___Yes___ No.

SECTION TWO

For each of the statements (below) circle one of the following choices:

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

Choose the one that is *most representative of your actual behavior as a mentor.* * Your answers should be based on your current mentoring experience in the LDN and should reflect your views on yourself as a mentor. If you have very little experience as a mentor, your answers should be based on how you would *probably* interact at this time with a mentee.

11.   *I encourage mentees to express their honest feelings (positive and negative) about their academic and social experiences as adult learners.*

      Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

12.   *I discuss with mentees who are discouraged (due to poor learning performance or other difficulties) the importance of developing a realistic view of learning that can include both successes and disappointments, mentioning other mentees who have been frustrated as learners but still continue their learning.*

      Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

13.   *I ask mentees for detailed information about their progress in learning.*

      Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

14.   *I refer mentees to others to obtain information they need in order to advance their learning.*

Never   Infrequently   Sometimes   Frequently   Always

15.   *I attempt to be verbally supportive when mentees are emotionally upset.*

Never   Infrequently   Sometimes   Frequently   Always

16.   *I suggest to mentees that we establish a regular schedule of meeting times.*

Never   Infrequently   Sometimes   Frequently   Always

17.   *I make a good deal of eye contact with mentees.*

Never   Infrequently   Sometimes   Frequently   Always

18.   *I suggest that mentees who indicate concerns about serious emotional or psychological problems meet with a professional counselor.*

Never   Infrequently   Sometimes   Frequently   Always

19.   *I ask mentees to explain (in some detail) the reasons for their study plans and ministry choices.*

Never   Infrequently   Sometimes   Frequently   Always

20.   *I encourage mentees to provide a good deal of background information about themselves—their former studies, successes and problems in learning, and spiritual formation up to this point.*

Never   Infrequently   Sometimes   Frequently   Always

21.   *I inquire in some depth about the mentee's study strategies and, if necessary, offers practical suggestions or refer them for help to improve their learning performance.*

Never   Infrequently   Sometimes   Frequently   Always

22.   *I explain to mentees that I really want to know what they as individuals honestly think about issues such as balancing study commitments and other commitments so I can offer advice specific to them.*

Never   Infrequently   Sometimes   Frequently   Always

23.   *I arrange my meetings when possible with mentees at times when I will probably not be interrupted very much by telephone calls or other people.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

24. *I explain the need to explore learning options and methods to mentees who have insufficient information about their possibilities.*
Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

25. *I encourage mentees to consider different forms of training that they have not yet explored to develop their personal interests.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

26. *I point out inconsistencies in mentees' explanations of why their learning goals (both academic and spiritual) were not achieved if I believe my comments will help them develop better coping strategies to deal with their problems.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

27. *I try to stimulate mentees to do more rigorous critical thinking about the long-range implications (time commitments and lifestyle changes) their ministry choices may have for increasing the complexity of their lives.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

28. *I explain to mentees why they should discuss (even with someone else) significant learning or spiritual problems they are presently confronted with even if they prefer not to deal with these issues.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

29. *I offer recommendations to mentees about their personal learning needs based on specific information provided by them during our meetings.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

30. *I follow up on mentees' decisions to develop better personal learning and spiritual strategies by asking questions (and offering comments, if appropriate) about their actual progress at later meetings.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

31. *I tell mentees when I think their ideas about ministry choices or learning concerns are very clearly based on incomplete or inaccurate information.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

32.   I attempt to guide mentees in exploring their own personal commitment to career or learning interests by posing alternative views for them to consider.

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

33.   I verbally communicate my concerns to mentees when their negative attitudes and emotions are expressed to me through such nonverbal behaviors as eye contact, facial expressions, and voice tone.

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

34.   I discuss mentees' general reasons for being involved in the LDN and then focus on helping them identify concrete learning and spiritual formation objectives.

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

35.   I provide a reasonable amount of guidance in our discussions so that mentees will explore realistic options and attainable learning goals.

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

36.   I ask mentees to review their strategies for managing the changes in their lives (such as impact of increased time pressures on personal relationships or ability to handle current ministry role) while they pursue their "dreams" regarding learning goals.

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

37.   I question learners' assumptions (especially about ministry options and the value of education) as a way of guiding them through a realistic appraisal of the extent to which their important ideas and beliefs are based on adequate personal experiences and facts.

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

38.   I discuss my own ministry-related experience as a way of helping mentees think about and carefully examine their ministry options.

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

39.   I share with mentees personal examples of difficulties I have overcome in my own individual and professional growth if these experiences might provide insights for them.

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

40.   *I engage mentees in discussions which require them to reflect on the new competencies they will need to achieve their future goals.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

41.   *I point out (using personal examples as well as stories about mentees) that achievement in the LDN is primarily based on personal commitment (rather than just "luck") to mentees who are having problems completing the work but appear unrealistic about the amount of discipline and energy needed to cope with the pressures of the work and study load.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

42.   *I express my personal confidence in the ability of mentees to succeed if they persevere in the pursuit of their learning and ministry goals.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

43.   *I confront mentees with the reality of continued or probable negative consequences in a direct but supportive manner when they repeatedly do not follow through on their stated intentions to deal with personal or spiritual issues or studies.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

44.   *I encourage mentees to use me as a sounding board to explore their hopes, ideas, feelings, and plans.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

45.   *I engage mentees in discussions aimed at motivating them to develop a positive view of their ability to function now and in the future as independent, competent adult learners.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

46.   *I use my own experience (personal as well as references to other mentees I have mentored) to explain how the LDN courses and ministry activities they believe will be boring, too demanding, or not relevant, could be valuable learning experiences for them.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

47.   *I offer mentees constructive criticism if I believe their avoidance of problems and decisions is clearly limiting their growth as adult learners, both academically and spiritually.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

48. *I encourage mentees to make well-informed personal choices as they plan their own learning and ministry goals.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

49. *I explore with mentees who express a lack of confidence in themselves the ways in which their own life experiences and faith walk might be a valuable resource to help them devise strategies to succeed as learners within the LDN environment.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

50. *I assist mentees in using facts to carefully map out realistic, step-by-step strategies to achieve their learning and ministry goals.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

51. *I share my own views and feelings when they are relevant to the situations and issues I am discussing with mentees.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

52. *I listen to criticism from mentees about LDN policies, regulations, requirements, and even colleagues without immediately attempting to offer justifications.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

53. *I offer comments to mentees about their inappropriate behavior if I have a reasonable expectation that they are prepared to work on positive change and will most likely experience some success as a result.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

54. *I inform mentees that they discuss "negative" emotions such as anxiety, self-doubt, fear, and anger in our meetings.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

55. *I express confidence in mentees' abilities to achieve their educational goal, especially when they are having personal difficulties in fulfilling their learning responsibilities due to outside pressures (work, family, relationships).*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

56. *I question mentees' decisions and actions regarding their learning-related issues and problems as well as spiritual concerns when they do not appear to be appropriate solutions.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

57. *I discuss the positive and negative feelings mentees have about their ability to succeed as adult learners.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

58. *I offer as few carefully chosen criticisms as possible when I try to get mentees to understand the often-difficult-to-accept connection between their own self-limiting (defeating) behaviors and their inability to solve a particular problem.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

59. *I ask probing questions that require more than a "yes" or "no" answer so that mentees will explain (in some detail) their views regarding their learning progress and plans.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

60. *I explore with mentees the extent of their commitment (such as willingness to spend time and energy) as adult learners in achieving their educational and spiritual goals.*
Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

61. *I base the timing of my "confrontive" questions and comments to mentees on my knowledge of their individual readiness (often related to the stage of our relationship) to benefit from discussions about clearly sensitive issues.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

62. *I discuss my role as a mentor with mentees so that their individual expectations of me are appropriate and realistic.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

63. *I try to clarify the problems mentees are explaining to me by verbally expressing my understanding of their feelings and then asking if my views are accurate.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

64.   *I ask mentees to reflect on the resources available to them to help them manage their lives effectively while they pursue their LDN goals.*

Never   Infrequently   Sometimes   Frequently   Always

65.   *I emphasize to mentees, especially those who appear uncertain about what to expect from our meetings, that one of my important goals is to assist them in reaching their own decisions about spiritual, academic and ministry goals.*

Never   Infrequently   Sometimes   Frequently   Always

APPENDIX F

LDN Mentee Survey

This survey should take you no more than 15 minutes to fill out. Please fill out each item. Section One asks for basic information about the mentoring relationship; Section Two asks for your perceptions of the mentor; Section Three asks for your level of satisfaction in the relationship.

SECTION ONE

1.   *How long have you been a mentee?*

        __years __months

2.   *Have you previously participated in a mentoring relationship as a mentee?*

        ___yes

        ___no

        2a. If yes, how many times? _____

3.   *Regarding your present mentoring relationship, what orientation did you receive regarding being a mentee?*

        __None

        or

        ___hours

        or

        ___days

4. *In a 6-month period, how many times would you typically meet with your mentor in your present mentoring relationship?*

_____ times

4a. Thinking back to those times, were they:

__too few

__about right

__too many

5. *On a scale from 1 to 5 being the highest, how would you rate your present mentoring relationship in terms of trust?*

No trust   High trust

1   2   3   4   5

6. *On a scale from 1 to 5, with 5 being the highest, how would you rate your present mentoring relationship in terms of mutual benefit?*

No mutual benefit   High mutual benefit

1   2   3   4   5

7. *How was your mentor assigned to you?*

___My choice.

___Shared decision.

___Someone else' choice.

8. *Your age*

9. *What is your highest level of education?*

__Grade school certificate

___High school diploma

___Some college

___College degree

___Graduate study

___Graduate degree

10.   *Are you already an ordained evangelist or minister?*

___Yes

___No

SECTION TWO

For each of the following statements (below) circle one of the following choices:

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

Choose the one that is *most representative of your mentor.* * Your answers should be

based on your current mentoring experience in the LDN and should reflect your views of

your mentor.

11.   *My mentor encourages me to express my honest feelings (positive and negative) about my academic and social experiences as an adult learner.*

    Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

12.   *When I am discouraged (due to poor learning performance or other difficulties), my mentor discusses with me the importance of developing a realistic view of learning that can include both successes and disappointments, mentioning other mentees who have been frustrated as learners but still continue their learning.*

    Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

13.   *My mentor asks me for detailed information about my progress in learning.*

    Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

14.   *My mentor refers me to others to obtain information I need in order to advance my learning.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

15. *My mentor attempts to be verbally supportive when I am emotionally upset.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

16. *My mentor suggests that we establish a regular schedule of meetings times.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

17. *My mentor makes a good deal of eye contact with me.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

18. *If I indicate concerns about serious emotional or psychological problems my mentor suggests I meet with a professional counselor.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

19. *My mentor asks me to explain (in some detail) the reasons for my study plans and ministry choices.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

20. *My mentor encourages me to provide a good deal of background information about myself—my former studies, successes and problems in learning, and spiritual formation up to this point.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

21. *My mentor inquires in some depth about my study strategies and, if necessary, offers practical suggestions or refers me for help to improve my learning performance.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

22. *My mentor explains to me that he really wants to know what I honestly think about issues such as balancing study commitments and other commitments so that he/she can offer advice specific to me.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

23. *My mentor seems to arrange our meetings when possible at times when he/she will not be interrupted very much by telephone calls or other people.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

24. *My mentor explains the need to explore learning options and methods to me if I have insufficient information about my possibilities.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

25. *My mentor encourages me to consider different forms of training that I have not already explored to develop my personal interests.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

26. *My mentor points out inconsistencies in my explanations of why my learning goals (both academic and spiritual) were not achieved if he/she believes his/her comments will help me develop better coping strategies to deal with my problems.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

27. *My mentor tries to stimulate me to do more rigorous critical thinking about the long-range implications (time commitments and lifestyle changes) my ministry choices may have for increasing the complexity of my life.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

28. *My mentor explains to me why I should discuss (even with someone else) significant learning or spiritual problems I are presently confronted with even if I prefer not to deal with these issues.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

29. *My mentor offers me recommendations about my personal learning needs based on specific information provided by me during our meetings.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

30. *My mentor follows up on my decisions to develop better personal and learning strategies by asking questions (and offering comments, if appropriate) about my actual progress at later meetings.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

31. *My mentor tells me when he/she thinks my ideas about ministry choices or learning concerns are very clearly based on incomplete or inaccurate information.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

32. *My mentor attempts to guide me in exploring my own personal commitment to career or learning interests by posing alternative views for me to consider.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

33. *My mentor verbally communicates his/her concerns to me when negative attitudes and emotions are expressed to him/her through such nonverbal behaviors as eye contact, facial expressions, and voice tone.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

34. *My mentor discusses my general reasons for being involved in the LDN and then focuses on helping me identify concrete learning and spiritual formation objectives.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

35. *My mentor provides a reasonable amount of guidance in our discussions so that I will explore realistic options and attainable goals.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

36. *My mentor asks me to review my strategies for managing the changes in my life (such as impact of increased time pressures on personal relationships or ability to handle current ministry role) while I pursue my "dreams" regarding learning goals.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

37. *My mentor questions my assumptions (especially about ministry options and the value of education) as a way of guiding me through a realistic appraisal of the extent to which my important ideas and beliefs are based on adequate personal experiences and facts.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

38. *My mentor discusses his/her own ministry-related experience as a way of helping me think about and carefully explore my ministry options.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

39. *My mentor shares with me personal examples of difficulties he/she has overcome in his/her own individual and professional growth if these experiences might provide insights for me.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

40.   My mentor engages me in discussions which require me to reflect on the new
       competencies I will need to achieve my future goals.

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

41.   My mentor points out (using personal examples as well as stories about mentees)
       that achievement in the LDN is primarily based on personal commitment (rather
       than just on "luck") if he she notices that I am having problems completing the
       work but appear unrealistic about the amount of discipline and energy needed to
       cope with the pressure of the work and study load.

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

42.   My mentor expresses his her personal confidence in my ability to succeed if I
       persevere in the pursuit of my learning and ministry goals.

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

43.   My mentor confronts me with the reality of continued or probable negative
       consequences in a direct but supportive manner when I repeatedly do not follow
       through on my stated intentions to deal with personal or spiritual issues or
       studies.

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

44.   My mentor encourages me to use him her as a sounding board to explore my
       hopes, ideas, feelings, and plans.

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

45.   My mentor engages me in discussions aimed at motivating me to develop a
       positive view of my ability to function now and in the future as an independent,
       competent adult learner.

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

46.   My mentor uses his her own experience (personal as well as references to other
       mentees he she has mentored) to explain how the LDN courses and ministry
       activities I believe will be boring, too demanding, or not relevant, could be
       valuable learning experiences for me.

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

47.   *My mentor offers me constructive criticism if he/she believes my avoidance of problems and decisions is clearly limiting my growth as an adult learner, both academically and spiritually.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

48.   *My mentor encourages me to make well-informed personal choices as I plan my own learning and ministry goals.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

49.   *When I express a lack of confidence in myself, my mentor explores with me the ways in which my own life experiences and faith walk might be a valuable resource to help me devise strategies to succeed as a learner within the LDN environment.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

50.   *My mentor assists me in using facts to carefully map out realistic, step-by-step strategies to achieve my learning and ministry goals.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

51.   *My mentor shares his/her own views and feelings when they are relevant to the situations he/she is discussing with me.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

52.   *My mentor listens to my criticism about LDN policies, regulations, requirements, and even colleagues without immediately attempting to offer justifications.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

53.   *My mentor offers me comments about inappropriate behavior if he/she has a reasonable expectation that I am prepared to work on positive change and will most likely experience some success as a result.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

54.   *My mentor informs me that I may discuss "negative" emotions such as anxiety, self-doubt, fear, and anger in our meetings.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

55. *My mentor expresses confidence in my abilities to achieve my educational goals, especially when I am having personal difficulties in fulfilling my responsibilities due to outside pressures (work, family, relationships).*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

56. *My mentor questions my decisions and actions regarding my learning-related issues and problems as well as spiritual concerns when they do not appear to be appropriate solutions.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

57. *My mentor discusses the positive and negative feelings I have about my ability to succeed as an adult learner.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

58. *My mentor offers as few carefully chosen criticisms as possible when he/she tries to get me to understand the often-difficult-to-accept connection between my own self-limiting (defeating) behaviors and my inability to solve a particular problem or issue.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

59. *My mentor asks probing questions that require more than a "yes" or "no" answer so that I will explain (in some detail) my views regarding my learning progress and plans.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

60. *My mentor explores with me the extent of my commitment (such as willingness to spend time and energy) as an adult learner in achieving my educational and spiritual goals.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

61. *My mentor bases the timing of his/her "confrontive" questions and comments on his/her knowledge of my readiness (often related to the stage of our relationship) to benefit from discussions about clearly sensitive issues.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

62. *My mentor discusses his/her role as a mentor with me so that my expectations of him/her are appropriate and realistic.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

63. *My mentor tries to clarify the problems I am explaining to him/her by verbally expressing his/her understanding of my feelings and then asking if his/her views are accurate.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

64. *My mentor asks me to reflect on the resources available to me to help me manage my life effectively while I pursue my LDN goals.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

65. *If I appear uncertain about what to expect from oour meetings, my mentor emphasizes that one of his/her important goals is to assist me in reaching my own decisions and about spiritual, academic and ministry goals.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

SECTION THREE

66. *I feel satisfied in the mentoring relationship.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

67. *My mentoring relationship has been a successful experience for me.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

68. *Due to my experience in mentoring, I would recommend it to others.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

69. *I had a positive outlook in my mentoring relationship.*

Never Infrequently Sometimes Frequently Always

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