Formalized Mentoring Program Model

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Formalized mentoring program model

Hall Daly, Beverly Jean, Ed.D.

University of Nevada, Las Vegas, 1987

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FORMALIZED MENTORING PROGRAM MODEL

by

Beverly Jean Hall Daly

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education

in

Educational Administration

Department of Educational Administration
and Higher Education
University of Nevada, Las Vegas
April, 1987
The dissertation of Beverly Jean Hall Daly for the degree of Doctor of Education in Educational Administration and Higher Education is approved.

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University of Nevada
Las Vegas, Nevada
April, 1987
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ABSTRACT

This study focused upon the development of a formalized mentoring program model designed to facilitate the career development of aspiring administrators. The formalized mentoring program model consisted of key components that were found within the disciplines of andragogy, training/staff development, motivation, and educational psychology. Five elements were identified within the discipline of andragogy as essential ingredients of the formalized mentoring program model: (1) Self-directed learning, (2) Accumulated experience, (3) Readiness to learn, (4) Problem-centered orientation, (5) Educative environment. The best practices for staff development within the formalized mentoring program model were listed. Within the discipline of educational psychology, change was identified as the most important feature of the formalized mentoring program model. Four career stages were also incorporated. The humanistic approach to motivation was basic to the formalized mentoring program model. The implementation chronology of the mentoring program model was outlined, and served as an integral feature of the model.
The following recommendations were offered:
that organizations should (1) sponsor and support
formalized mentoring programs as a regular component
of their career development programs; (2) encourage a
climate or organizational culture that is humanistic
in approach and attitude, as a prior condition to the
implementation of a formalized mentoring program; (3)
utilize a formalized mentoring program model, and
implementation chronology to initiate a formalized
mentoring program.

The following recommendations were offered for
further study: (1) An implementation study should be
conducted to apply the formalized mentoring program
model in a school district; (2) A validation study
should be conducted to determine the impact of the
formalized mentoring program model on large, medium,
and small sized school districts; (3) A validation
study should be conducted to determine the impact of
the formalized mentoring program upon the career
development of aspiring administrators; (4) A
longitudinal study should be conducted to determine
the impact of the formalized mentoring program model
upon effectiveness of administrators.
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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Finally, my warmest thanks go to my Parents, Melvin, and Trudy Hall for their love, for their encouragement, for teaching me to set goals, and for giving me the self-confidence to reach those goals.
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Introduction

The heart, soul, and life blood of any large organization was dependent upon the development of its human resources, and most critically its leadership. Modern management theory placed an increasing emphasis upon the role of the manager as a developer of people. (Knowles 1972) "The executive who makes the greatest contribution to his corporation is the one who is able to release and develop the potential of the human resources that are his company's principal asset" (p. 97).

The health and vitality of our educational institutions was dependent upon a renewing supply of able leaders. "The development of capable results-oriented school managers is a critical necessity" (Sample 1984 p. 1). The excellence in education challenge could not be met with status quo educational management systems. Institutionalizing effective methods and techniques for improving the performance of current and potential school managers was
essential. The obvious question was how could a consistent supply of effective school administrators be trained to assume the all important roles of school management and leadership? Some school districts trained potential principals through administrative internship programs, or through assigning principal candidates to positions as administrative assistants, or assistant principals who learned on the job from a building principal. Further, knowledge of how learning took place, and particularly of how adults learned was being refined, yet many training programs had not incorporated these new insights.

Statement Of The Problem

The purpose of this study was to develop a formalized mentoring program model designed to facilitate the career development of aspiring school administrators. This study was concerned with answering the following research question:

What formalized mentoring program model design was dictated by the theoretical and conceptual knowledge in the disciplines of human behavior, learning psychology, and management training?
Significance Of The Study

Some institutions, both in the corporate world, and in public education were looking to Greek mythology for solutions to the problem of developing capable leaders. The word mentor came from Greek mythology. Homer, the Greek epic poet of about 900 B.C. exerted enormous influence over Greek education, literature, and culture. Homer wrote of Odysseus who entrusted his son, Telemachus, to the care of valued friend Mentor, when Odysseus embarked upon his ten year journey (Merriam 1983). Webster (1975) defined mentor as a wise and trusted guide or teacher. Mentors were of tremendous value to both organizations and individuals. "There is no better method for quickly learning management skills, organizational politics and the work environment than by having a seasoned executive develop a younger, less experienced employee" (Cook 1979, p. 83).

Companies were beginning to acknowledge the need for mentoring programs which prepared employees to move into administrative positions (Cook p. 84). Companies such as the Security Pacific National Bank of Los Angeles, implemented formal mentoring programs in which senior executives were charged with the
responsibility of selecting employees to groom for executive positions. Florida's department of education and state university system also implemented formalized mentoring programs (Sample 1984). John Naisbitt (Megatrends 1982) contended that there was a need to repeatedly retrain people throughout the life span to keep up with technological change and with the information explosion. A mentoring system provided organizations with a practical method for effectively training and developing employees at varying career stages (Shapiro 1978).

Theoretical Base

A theoretical base for the concept of mentor or patron programs was found in modern management theory which acknowledged the importance of the manager as a developer of people. Malcolm Knowles' (1979) theory of adult learning or andragogy, stressed the importance of managers knowing how to teach. Knowles contended however, that most managers made poor adult educators. He attributed this unfortunate state of affairs to the probability that much of what managers know about teaching was derived from their own
experiences as children, or as teachers of children. Adult learners differed from child learners in several important ways. Adults reacted differently to specific educational environments. Adults preferred various levels of task complexity, and structure. They typically insisted upon attention to personal needs, and required continuous feedback with reference to their performance. They also reacted differently with respect to risk-taking situations. Knowles' (1979) adult learning theory research contributed considerably to the planning and implementation of staff development activities designed by educative managers. Bents (1981) cited researchers such as Howey, Santmire, Hall, and Klopf who identified frameworks "Which can be used to understand and adapt staff development environments so that human variety will be capitalized on and made productive, expanding the reach of each adult learner" (Bents 1981, p. 11).

Knowles (1972) asserted that educative managers should be trained in, and practice five basic principles of andragogy, which included promoting self-directed learning, utilizing accumulated experience, considering the readiness to learn, providing a problem-centered orientation, and creating an
educative environment. An examination of each of these principles followed.

Self-Directed Learning

Self-directed learning was distinct from teacher-directed learning. The body of theory and practice upon which teacher-directed learning was based was generally given the label, "Pedagogy," which stemmed from the Greek words "Paid," meaning child, and "Agogus," meaning guide. Hence, pedagogy was defined as the art and science of teaching children. The body of theory and practice upon which self-directed learning was based was labeled "Andragogy," which stemmed from the Greek words "Aner," meaning adult, and "Agogus," meaning guide as stated previously. Hence, andragogy was defined as the art and science of helping adults learn. The noteworthy distinction between the two disciplines was apparent. Teaching a person something, was quite different from helping someone to learn something. The definition of andragogy connoted a maturity and independence on the part of the learner (Knowles 1979). Most adults liked to think of themselves as taking full responsibility for making their own decisions and facing the consequences.
Adult learners felt a deep need to be treated as self-responsible, self-respecting, self-directing individuals. Consequently, when an adult was faced with a situation in which he felt he was being treated as a child, the tendency was to resist, or to withdraw. The implications for the educative manager were several:

1. The administrator needed to create a climate of mutual respect. The manager also needed to demonstrate that staff development was valued, and that mistakes were treated as growing and developing experiences, not occasions for punishment.

2. The administrator was to find ways to involve staff in the diagnosis of their individual needs. The needs identified by the individual were the ones to which he was highly motivated to attend.

3. Adults played an active role in the planning and implementation of learning experiences. Adults tended to feel a commitment toward that which they helped to develop.

4. Adults were involved in the evaluation process. The administrator and staff member shared data regarding performance and participated in a mutual self-evaluation.
Berman and McLaughlin (1977) contended that individuals who possessed the two characteristics of motivation, and efficacy were capable of self-direction. "Self-directed learning is rooted in the philosophical position that no one can 'know' what is 'right' for anyone else. Education consists of people helping each other discover what lies within each person, and assisting each other in making that potential manifest in living" (Della-Dora and Blanchard 1979, p.7).

Accumulated Experience

By virtue of the length of his life, the adult had an accumulation of experiences which colored his perceptions. "The adult defines who he is, to a large extent, in terms of his experiences" (Knowles 1972, p. 101). With this in mind, the educative manager was to consider the following implications.

1. Adults constituted a rich resource for one another's learning. Greater use was made of experiential techniques such as group discussion, case method, critical incident process, simulation exercises, internship, skill practice, laboratory methods. The administrator assisted staff
members to grow and develop by helping them analyze and learn from each other's experiences.

2. The attitude of employees was enhanced when they were encouraged to learn from work experiences. Work became motivational, and more self-actualizing. The experience base of the employee was extended by attendance at conferences, visitations to other schools, rotating assignments, and demonstrations by visiting experts.

Readiness To Learn

"A good deal of professional education is out of phase with students' readiness to learn. The adult comes into an educational activity largely because he is experiencing inadequacy in coping with current problems. He wants to apply tomorrow what he learns today, so his time perspective is one of immediacy of application" (1979, pp. 57-58). The learner's readiness "Develops from life tasks and problems. Adult readiness to learn, and teachable moments peak at those points where a learning opportunity is coordinated with a recognition of the need to know" (1979, p. 185). An adult's readiness to learn was also governed by his developmental tasks, which were
the things he had to be able to do in order to advance from one phase of development to the next (1972, p. 101). Implications for administrators were as follows:

1. Administrators were sensitive to the sequence of developmental tasks of employees, and scheduled educational activities correspondingly.
2. "The best way to find out what a given individual is ready to learn next is to ask him" (1972, p. 103).

Problem-Centered Orientation

Adults had a problem-centered orientation toward learning, and tended to think of it as a way to become more effective in dealing with life problems today. Implications for administrators were as follows.

1. Needs assessments were conducted to determine the immediate concerns of employees.
2. After a training session adults were provided the opportunity to practice what was learned at the earliest convenience in a non-threatening setting.

Educative Environment

An educative environment made learning on the job an enjoyable, rewarding experience. Implications for administrators were as follows.
1. Mistakes were treated as opportunities for growth, not punishment.
2. Employees were involved in planning, implementing, and evaluating learning.

Administrators who were sensitive to the needs of adults, and who implemented the principles of adult learning theory were more successful in staff development endeavors.

Assumptions

The following assumptions were made regarding this study:
1. Aspiring administrators benefited from participating in a professional relationship with a mentor.
2. Aspiring administrators were at varying levels in terms of professional maturity. Adult learning theory was to be applied in order to meet individual needs.
3. Formalized mentoring programs were to be based upon educational theory, research, and successful proven practices.
Delimitations

This study was impacted by the following delimitations:

1. The scope of this study included relevant concepts and principles from related disciplines of learning theory, andragogy, educational psychology, human growth and development, motivation, staff development, and training.

2. The parameters of this study were necessarily dictated based on the extent of man's current knowledge in the selected disciplines.

3. The formalized mentoring program model was developed for adult applications.

4. The formalized mentoring program model was designed to facilitate the career development of aspiring principals (the mentees), through participation in mentoring relationships with veteran principals (the mentors).

Method Of Research

The following methods and procedures were followed in developing, collecting, and analyzing the data in this study:

1. The literature was analyzed by using the content analysis technique of centrality, identifying training principles from four disciplines.
2. A formalized mentoring program model, and implementation timeline was developed.

**Definition Of Terms**

Definition of terms in this study included the following:

**Andragogy**

The study of adult learning and teaching methods or patterns.

**Peer Pal**

A colleague who is at the same professional level as oneself with whom information, strategy, and mutual support are shared for mutual benefit.

**Career Functions**

Those aspects of the mentoring relationship that enhance learning the ropes and preparing for advancement in an organization.

**Psychosocial Functions**

Those aspects of a mentoring relationship that enhance a sense of competence, clarity of identity, and effectiveness in a professional role.
Guide
A counselor who can explain the system, but is not usually in a position to champion a protege.

Sponsor
An individual who promotes and helps shape the career of a protege, but who enjoys only limited power.

Patron
An influential person who uses his/her power to help a protege advance in his/her career.

Mentor
An individual who assumes the role of teacher, guide, sponsor, and coach in an intense and paternalistic relationship with the protege.

Mentee
An individual who assumes the role of protege in an intense and paternalistic relationship with a mentor.
Organization Of The Study

Chapter One included the introduction of the study, a statement of the problem, significance of the study, the theoretical base, a statement of assumptions, a statement of delimitations, the method of research, definition of terms, and a summary outlining the organization of the study.

Chapter Two included a review of the literature pertaining to the study. Emphasis was placed upon research in the area of adult learning, staff development programs, and formalized mentoring programs.

Chapter Three included a description of the research design used in this study. Rationale for the selection of this design, and the methodological approach used were provided.

Chapter Four included the development of a formalized mentoring program model designed to facilitate the career development of aspiring administrators. The development of this model was based upon data described in Chapter Three, and a synthesis of previously developed mentoring concepts explored in Chapter II.

Chapter Five included a summary of the study, conclusions, and recommendations for further study.
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

The importance of mentoring to career development became a major focus of attention in recent years. Best selling authors such as Gail Sheehy (1974), and John Naisbitt (1985), helped to popularize the concept. Naisbitt said, "We have to think increasingly about the manager as teacher, as mentor, as developer of human potential. The big challenge of the 1980s is not the retraining of workers, but the retraining of managers" (1985). Sheehy (1974), Levinson (1978), Schein (1978), and others described for both popular and academic audiences characteristics or qualities of the mentor that appeared to impact the social and career development of adults.

Young men and women just entering the work force, as well as older women reentering the job market had the opportunity to pick up magazines like Savvy,
New Woman, Business Week, Psychology Today, or even Harvard Business Review, and read articles which extolled the virtues of finding oneself a mentor. Some of the articles suggested that an individual was disadvantaged, and suffered slowed career growth or blockage unless he/she was privy to the advantages of a mentoring relationship. Indeed, research and empirical investigations provided evidence to support this popular perception.

Vaillant's (1977) discussion of the Grant Study (1938), in which 268 Harvard graduates were tracked during a 35 year period, suggested that mentoring played an important role in the life stages of the best and the brightest. Prior to what Vaillant called the career consolidation stage, these young men tended to have mentors. Later, as they entered middle age, and the generativity (Erikson 1968) stage, they tended to be mentors. Vaillant quoted one study participant who enjoyed a brilliant career in the State Department, "Post-age-45 my concerns are more philosophical, more long-term ... I am concerned to teach others as much as I can of what I have learned." Clawson (1980) contended that there was some evidence that most adults have had a mentor at
one time or another. He stated that "Young adults beginning their careers, and more experienced managers alike would have greater insight into the real developmental processes of their own careers if they understood better, first, the nature of mentor-protege relationships in general and, second, how to manage the developmental aspects... Researchers, educators, and writers have the responsibility of more fully addressing these issues." Clawson asserted that "We need a relatively simple... conceptual approximation of mentors and mentor-protege relationships in particular that will permit widespread, practical use of the terms in career development and in management."

**Mentor/Mentee Relationships**

A mentor was defined as a wise and trusted guide or teacher. When Odysseus of Greek Mythology ventured off to the Trojan War leaving his trusted, and faithful servant, Mentor in charge, Mentor was entrusted with the spiritual, moral, social, intellectual, and physical education of Telemachus, the son. Mentor and Telemachus enjoyed a unique relationship characterized by a great deal of trust
and affection. Telemachus challenged Mentor frequently, but Mentor possessed the wisdom and understanding necessary to redirect the youth's thinking without stifling his development or blocking his independence. Telemachus trusted Mentor implicitly, realizing that he had his best interests at heart, and would never knowingly harm him. This first mentor was an older, experienced, and trusted individual who personally participated in the full development of a younger inexperienced individual. The original mentor/mentee relationship was characterized by mutual commitment, respect, trust, and affection (Clawson 1980).

Schein (1968) described the role of the mentor as teacher, coach, trainer, positive role model, developer of talent, opener of doors, protector, successful leader. Terms found in the literature such as mentor, coach, sponsor, counselor, advisor, role model, guide, advocate, patron, protector, benefactor, champion, supporter, godfather, peer pal, and others were often spoken casually, and had been used interchangeably.

In formalized mentoring programs, the definition of mentor was greatly expanded. Distinct concepts
were delineated, and fit logically into a continuum described by Epstein (1971) and defined by Lorber (1975) as a system of professional patronage and sponsorship. Shapiro, Haseltine, and Rowe (1978) referred to a "Patron system," as being comprised of a "Range of advisory/guiding personae" (1978, p. 55). The literature suggested that all of these mentoring types of roles were the responsibility of management in developing potential leaders. One conceptual schema (Shapiro 1978) suggested that mentoring roles were best examined as "A continuum of advisory/support relationships that facilitate access to positions of leadership, authority, and power in management and professional fields" (p. 8). The peer pal relationship was found at one end of this continuum, while the mentor relationship was found at the opposite end of the continuum. Each of the mentoring roles were defined by Shapiro as follows:

**Peer Pal**  A colleague who is at the same professional level as oneself with whom information, strategy, and mutual support are shared for mutual benefit.
Guide  A counselor who can explain the system, but is not usually in a position to champion a protege.

Sponsor  An individual who promotes and helps shape the career of a protege, but who enjoys only limited power.

Patron  An influential person who uses his/her power to help a protege advance in his/her career.

Mentor  An individual who assumes the role of teacher, guide, sponsor, and coach in an intense and paternalistic relationship with the protege.

Benefits of Mentor Programs

Typically, the tendency was to regard the relationship that existed between the mentor and the protege as one of lopsided benefit to the protege. Such an analysis was short sighted. It was possible for substantial benefits to accrue to the mentor, as well as to the organization. The successful
mentor/mentee relationship was in reality a symbiotic sort of phenomenon. It was possible for the process of mentoring to be harnessed effectively to benefit the mentee, the institution, and the mentor. Enlightened organizations regarded the mentor as a valuable talent scout and trainer of potential leaders (Moore 1982, p. 23). Mentors have played a necessary role in the development of administrative talent. Organizations that implemented mentor programs have recognized that these programs have aided in the identification and development of promising administrators. The simple truth was that organizations wanted well-trained people in all positions.

Although the importance of a mentor to the career development of an individual was often emphasized, the reciprocity of this relationship has been generally ignored. "Being a mentor has positive effects on one's career development seems not to have been communicated ... with the same force as the benefits of having a mentor" (Keele 1984, p. 37). Many of the benefits that a mentor enjoyed were similar to those enjoyed by the protege. A mentor's own career development was enhanced when he focused on developing the careers of others, because this focus
built a work team loyal to the mentor. Individuals who skillfully performed the mentor's routine tasks freed the mentor to take on added responsibilities, and new challenges. Organizations rewarded administrators who got things done, with advancement opportunities. The team also served the mentor as a support system providing valued input as well as professional critique. Work team members tended to "Take care of each other." Building a supportive work team provided greater access to a variety of the organizations resources as well.

Another often overlooked advantage to the mentor was the fact that proteges talk. The protege served the mentor as a traveling advertisement testifying to the mentor's professionalism and skill. The protege also provided the mentor with a reputation as a successful developer of people. The mentor enjoyed a certain satisfaction in watching others grow. "Beginning to be concerned for others is an important stage in one's own career development. At the utilitarian level, we help our own career by helping others. At the altruistic level, we are like the man who told us, 'I sleep better at night because I do for others what I wish had been done for me" (Keele, p. 39).
Dalton, Thompson, and Price (1977) identified being a mentor as an important stage of career development. They hypothesized four career stages important to professional development: Apprentice, colleague, mentor, and sponsor. The individual in the mentor stage instructs, coaches, and protects individuals in the apprentice and colleague stages, while the individual in the sponsor stage aids the advancement of individuals at all three stages. Research findings of Graves, Dalton, and Thompson (1980) also indicated that mentoring aids one's own career.

The benefits of mentoring were of great value to the career development of the mentee. Numerous research studies have identified a range of mentoring roles or mentoring functions that enhanced career development (Levinson 1978, Schein 1978, Davis & Garrison 1979, Phillips 1982, Missirian 1982, Clawson 1979, Kram 1980). Kram (1985) synthesized these mentoring functions, grouping them under two major categories. Kram (1985) defined "Career functions" as "Those aspects of the relationship that enhance learning the ropes and preparing for advancement in an organization." Kram defined "Psychosocial functions"
as "Those aspects of a relationship that enhance a sense of competence, clarity of identity, and effectiveness in a professional role" (1985, p. 22). Kram contended that "Career functions serve ...to aid advancement up the hierarchy of an organization. Psychosocial functions affect each individual on a personal level by building self-worth both inside and outside the organization. Together these functions enable individuals to address the challenges of each career stage." Career functions were the aspects of the mentoring relationship that provided the sponsorship, coaching, exposure and visibility necessary to help the mentee navigate effectively through organizational waters. The psychosocial functions, by contrast, fostered mutual trust, and an increasing intimacy in the mentor/mentee relationship. Kram asserted that "The quality of this interpersonal bond enables the younger to identify with the older and to find a model whom the younger would like to become. In addition to providing a role model, the senior colleague counsels the younger one on dilemmas that surface as the novice launches a career. Each individual experiences acceptance and confirmation through interaction with
the other; mutual liking and respect support the young adult's views of self in the new work role, and simultaneously support the senior adult's view of self as someone with valuable wisdom and experience to share" (1985, p. 22).

Phillips (1982) described two classifications of mentors, the primary and the secondary. "Primary mentors are individuals who are labeled as mentors and who are considered unselfish, altruistic, and caring. Secondary mentors are individuals who are part of a more businesslike relationship where an exchange benefits both individuals' career advancement." According to Phillips' definition, primary mentors provided both psychosocial and career functions. The primary mentor relationship was exclusive, parental, and intense. Secondary mentors provided only the career function.

Kram's (1985) major category of career functions included several subcategories which were sponsorship, exposure-and-visibility, coaching, protection, and challenging work assignments:
Sponsorship  The most frequently observed career function Involved actively nominating an individual for desirable lateral moves and promotions. "Good press" concerning potential was provided. Benefited the sponsor who was viewed as having excellent judgment and enhanced credibility. Benefited mentee who enjoyed career advancement.


Coaching  Enhanced understanding and knowledge of organization. Provided strategies for accomplishing work objectives, achieving recognition, achieving career aspirations.
Protection  Mentor took credit and blame protecting mentee in controversial situations.
Mentor intervened when mentee ill-equipped to achieve satisfactory resolution.

Challenging Assignments  Provided important learning opportunities for mentee. Relieved mentor of some responsibilities.
Eqipped the mentee with necessary skills.

Kram's (1985) major category of psychosocial functions included several subcategories which were role modeling, acceptance-and-confirmation, counseling, friendship.

Role Modeling  Mentor attitudes, values, and behavior provided model for mentee to emulate.
Emotional attachment was formed.

Acceptance-and-Confirmation  Mentor and mentee derived sense of self from positive regard conveyed by the other.
Positive feedback on performance, mutual liking, mutual respect helped mentor and mentee.
Counseling  Mentee enjoyed a forum to talk about anxieties, fears, and ambivalence that detracted from productive work. Mentor provided sounding board, feedback, active listening.

Friendship  Social interaction that resulted in mutual liking, understanding, and enjoyable informal exchanges about work and outside experiences.

Mentees also experienced psychosocial functions in relationships with one another. "In the process of sharing their resources and learning, the novices develop a sense of colleagueship that they carry with them as they build their careers...The bonds of this colleagueship are cemented with feelings of friendship and loyalty even though the colleagues may be competing professionally" (Moore 1982, p. 25). This was helpful to the mentees in developing their own healthy competitive styles.

Senior Editor of the Harvard Business Review, Eliza G. Collins (1978) wrote, "One of the things that often characterizes successful mentor relationships is a strong emotion interchange between the younger
and older person, where the younger person feels encouraged to challenge directly the older person's ideas, and the older person has enough confidence in himself to take it." It was sound management practice to treat human capital as a valuable resource of a school district. Intellectual vigor and leadership were strengthened by "Granting access to the upward mobility ladder to all of its human capital. Equal opportunity is not an institutional handout, but a way of assuring excellence" (Ernst 1982). Formalized mentoring programs, as reported in the literature, facilitated the search for excellence in school leadership. From the mentee's viewpoint, the process involved a special kind of socialization for leadership roles. From the mentor's viewpoint, the process was one of extending and expanding personal efficacy and influence. From the school district's viewpoint, the process was one of organizing and controlling old and new talent for optimum use by the District (Moore 1982). The bottom line was that results equaled benefits to all.
ADULT LEARNING THEORY AND STAFF DEVELOPMENT MODELS

As discussed in Chapter I, Malcolm Knowles' (1979) theory of andragogy, or adult learning, stressed the importance of managers knowing how to teach. Adult learning theory was used as the foundation for building effective staff development programs. Unfortunately, basic tenants of this theory have generally been ignored, and the foundations of many staff development programs have been based on a leader's gut determination that it felt right (Berman 1982). The central focus of staff development was to be its goal which was to "Generate an environment which meets organizational and individual needs, and has the ability to modify itself as perceived needs and conditions change. Thus, staff development cannot be 'In place' and static. It needs to pulse gently in tune with the lives of professionals, and the organizations in which they work" (Sparks 1985, p. 59). An examination of how adults learn, and the role that change played in adult learning appeared to be elementary to planning effective staff development programs as reflected in the literature, and mentoring, specifically career mentoring, was viewed as a unique classification of staff development.
Hunt (1966) emphasized that adult learning styles were not fixed in his application of conceptual systems theory. Research by Knowles (1979) supported the notion that attention to the principles of andragogy contributed positively to the design of sound staff development practices and procedures. Knowles discussed the role of experience in andragogy. Knowles (1979) stated that "In the technology of andragogy, there is decreasing emphasis on the transmitted techniques of traditional teaching, and increasing emphasis on experimental techniques which tap the experience of the learners, and involve them in analyzing their experience. The use of lectures, canned audio-visual presentations, and assigned reading tend to fade in favor of discussion, laboratory, simulation, field experience, team projects, and other action learning techniques."

Knowles emphasized that pedagogical or andragogical models could not arbitrarily be assigned to an individual on the basis of age, but rather on the basis of maturity within the constraints of a specific situation. For example, pedagogical strategies were entirely appropriate for an adult
learner who was entering into a totally foreign content area. In this instance, the adult was dependent upon the teacher until sufficient content mastery enabled the adult to begin self-directed learning. In another situation, because of past experience, the same adult would profit from the use of andragogical strategies used by the instructor.

The following was a synthesis of the pedagogical and andragogical models presented by Knowles (1979).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ELEMENTS</th>
<th>PEDAGOGICAL</th>
<th>ANDRAGOGICAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Climate</td>
<td>Tense, low trust</td>
<td>Relaxed, trusting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>formal, cold, aloof</td>
<td>Mutually respectful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Authority-oriented</td>
<td>Informal, warm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Competitive, Judgmental</td>
<td>Collaborative, supportive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning</td>
<td>Primarily by teacher</td>
<td>Mutually by learners and facilitator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diagnosis of needs</td>
<td>Primarily by teacher</td>
<td>By mutual assessment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Setting of objectives</td>
<td>Primarily by teacher</td>
<td>By mutual negotiation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Designing learning plans</td>
<td>Teachers' content plans</td>
<td>Learning contracts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Course syllabus</td>
<td>Learner projects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Logical sequence</td>
<td>Sequenced by readiness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning activities</td>
<td>Transmittal techniques</td>
<td>Inquiry projects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Assigned readings</td>
<td>Independent study</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>by teacher</td>
<td>Experiential techniques</td>
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<tr>
<td>Evaluation</td>
<td>Norm-referenced (On a curve)</td>
<td>By learner-collected</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>With grades</td>
<td>evidence validated by</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>peers, facilitators, experts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Criterion-referenced</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FIGURE 1
In stressing the importance of "Readiness to learn," and an "Orientation to learning," Knowles asserted that "A good deal of professional education is out of phase with the students' readiness to learn. The adult comes into an educational activity largely because he is experiencing inadequacy in coping with current problems. He wants to apply tomorrow what he learns today, so his time perspective is one of immediacy of application. Therefore, he enters into education with a problem-centered orientation to learning. This assumption has major implications regarding the organization of the curriculum and its learning experiences" (1979 pp. 57-58).

Research by Joyce (1980), and Brophy (1979), indicated that adults learned from their own, and from one another's experiences. Adults provided concrete practical advice to other adults, coaching them and assisting them in learning how to solve problems for themselves. Knowles asserted that the learner's readiness "Develops from life tasks and problems. Adult readiness-to-learn and teachable moments peak at those points where a learning opportunity is coordinated with a recognition of the need-to-know" (Knowles p. 185). Knowles went on to explain that,
"Youth think of education as the accumulation of knowledge for use in the future. Adults tend to think of learning as a way to be more effective in problem-solving today" (Knowles p. 185).

Hutson (1979) contended that there was substantial agreement about what constituted the best practices for staff development training programs:
1. Participants were involved in planning their own training programs.
2. Incentives for participating in the training emphasized intrinsic professional rewards.
3. The work site was the focus of training activities.
4. Training followed a developmental model in which participants were seen as being skilled professionals who brought unique abilities and positive attitudes to the training experience.

The content, organization, and delivery of staff development programs took into account the differences that existed in adult learners. Research by Hunt indicated that "While individuals differ in conceptual development, and these differences require differentiated learning environments for optimal development, it must be noted that adult learning is continuous" (1974). Hunt contended that the
The developmental level of an individual was not considered a permanent classification, but rather a current mode of functioning.

The Conceptual Systems Theory, developed by Havey, Hunt, and Schroder (1961) described adult development as a progression through four identifiable levels. Santmire (1979) specified a sequence for these conceptual levels. He asserted that the majority of adults would be assessed at Level I, and Level II conceptual levels. Level I learners had a practical orientation. They did not perceive a need for new knowledge unless what they were currently doing was not effective. Level I learners were typically threatened by change because of this right-wrong orientation. They felt that if a new strategy were correct, then whatever they were doing must be incorrect. Level I learners did not adapt ideas to meet their particular needs, but instead required that materials be designed to their specific situation. Level II learners were just beginning to demonstrate some degree of adaptability when faced with change. The behaviors of adult learners were critical considerations for the design of staff development programs.
Developmental differences existed in adult learners, and were manifested in characteristics which affected what they learned in staff development programs (Bents, 1978). Staff development programs were responsive not only in content or teaching strategy, but in terms of personal and professional development of the adult learner as well. The developmental theory of learner readiness interfaced with the Hersey and Blanchard (1980) theory of situational leadership. The developmental stage of the adult learner was considered in conjunction with the specific situation, the task behavior, the relationship behavior, and the maturity level. Situational leadership factors when considered in conjunction with development of the adult learner, impacted upon the effectiveness of the staff development program. The level of maturity or willingness (psychological maturity) and ability (job maturity) of an adult to take responsibility for directing his/her own behavior in relation to a specific task was one of the three factors stressed by Hersey as affecting situational leadership.

The level of maturity of adult learners, as well as the developmental level advanced by learning theorists were factors which received attention in the
planning of staff development programs. Level of maturity, developmental level, and learner readiness were components of theory that stressed the importance of looking at the individual in terms of specific needs in a particular situation. Staff development research in the field consistently underscored the importance of individualization in effective staff development (Joyce 1980).

**TRAINING MODELS FOR STAFF DEVELOPMENT**

This survey of the literature identified several research based models for staff development design. The message from the research indicated that most adults could learn new skills to add to their professional repertoires, but that "In order to improve their skills, and learn new approaches... need certain conditions that are not common in most... (training) settings" (Joyce and Showers 1980). The information revealed by the research was to be used to design the training components of formalized mentoring programs.

Joyce contended that there were two purposes for staff development. The first was to fine tune existing skills, and the second was to learn and
implement new ones. Joyce's model dealt with the levels of impact that were the outcomes of training. Joyce (1980) identified four levels of impact as summarized below:

1. Awareness - At the awareness level of impact an individual or a group of adults have been introduced to a concept, and have come to realize its importance.

2. Concepts and Organized Knowledge - At this level of impact, an individual or group not only was aware of the importance of the concept, but had mastered a basic understanding, and knowledge of the concept.

3. Principles and Skills - At this level of impact the adult possessed the tools for action. The adult learner was not only aware of the importance of the concept, but had a knowledge of the concept, and possessed the skills to act.

4. Application and Problem Solving - This fourth level of impact was responsible for effecting positive change.

The adult learner was aware of the importance of the concept, had the knowledge and the skill, and knew how to apply all three effectively in the appropriate manner.
After an analysis of more than 200 studies investigating the effectiveness of training methods, Joyce designed his model for effective staff development. Joyce (1980) identified the five major components of training as follows:

1. Presentation of theory or description of skill or strategy.
2. Modeling or demonstration of skill or strategy.
3. Practice in simulated settings.
4. Structured and open-ended feedback (providing information regarding performance).
5. Coaching for application (hands-on on-site assistance with the transfer of skills and strategies to the work place).

During his investigations Joyce found that in many instances, presentation of theory was the single training component used. Readings, lectures, films, or descriptive discussions were the typical method of delivery. The presentation of theory corresponded with the awareness level of impact. Joyce found that in studies of school teachers, few of these adults acquired the skills necessary to have effect in the classroom, simply through presentation of theory. When combined with modeling or demonstration of the
strategy, Joyce found a slightly higher degree of transfer to the classroom setting. When teachers also practiced a new skill or strategy under simulated conditions, the classroom transfer increased. Joyce found that under these conditions, a sizable number of teachers transferred new skills to the classroom. Structured feedback, providing information about performance in conjunction with theory, modeling, and practice, were powerful forces in achieving skill development and transfer. Coaching for application involved helping the teacher analyze the strategy, and make specific plans to adapt the new approach to a particular situation. Joyce found that when all five elements of training were used, the successful degree of transfer to the classroom was the greatest.

**Self-Directed Staff Development**

The Self-Directed Staff Development Model (Bailey 1983) was a training model that provided educators with a framework for analyzing their instructional behaviors in a highly objective fashion. The Self-Directed Staff Development Model allowed participants to determine their own strengths and weaknesses by self-examination. Training was offered in the nine steps of self-assessment outlined below:
1. Orientation to Self-Assessment
Awareness of the multifaceted nature of self-examination, and the overall self-help philosophy.

2. Media
Introduction to objective measures for approaching self-examination via audiotape, and videotape playback.

3. Set and Closure
Introduction to basic skills which were analyzed via audiotape and videotape playback.

4. Verbal Cues
Familiarization with essential verbal behaviors which were analyzed via audiotape and videotape playback.

5. Nonverbal Clues
Familiarization with essential nonverbal behaviors which were analyzed via audiotape and videotape playback.

6. Means-Referenced Objectives
Instruction regarding how to plan and evaluate methodology behaviors.

7. Observation Forms
Instruction regarding how to create and use checklists to assess effectiveness via audiotape and videotape playback.
8. Student Feedback
Strategies for dealing with student input regarding teacher instructional performance.

9. Mental Rehearsal
Instruction regarding the use of mental imagery as a method of preparation.

A major shortcoming of the Self-Directed Staff Development Model was reported to be the lack of structured supervision necessary to sustain participant energy for an extended period (Bailey 1983).

AAIM Model

Orlich (1979) contended that both teachers and administrators tended to have a negative attitude toward staff development activities because they were generally one-shot presentations, or crash courses planned without needs assessments, and conducted without follow-up. Orlich asserted that the AAIM Model for successful training programs contained the four essential elements necessary in effective staff development programs, as outlined below:

1. Awareness
Awareness presentations were important for keeping up-to-date and professionally well informed. Awareness sessions were critical to the diffusion of innovation.
2. Application
The participant had the opportunity to try out the innovative behavior in a protective or supportive environment. For example microteaching was a preferred technique of application with teachers. A participant tried out the new instructional behavior in a controlled setting, without fear of evaluation, or failure. The microteaching setting varied from the usual classroom setting in that it allowed the teacher to gain experience prior to using the innovation in her own classroom. In this protected setting, unanticipated occurrences were handled easily without discomfort to teacher or students.

3. Implementation
A needs assessment indicated for whom the training was appropriate. Only those identified participants were included in the implementation portion of the model. Implementation occurred when participants demonstrated the new behaviors.

4. Maintenance
The final phase of this staff development model addressed a continued and longitudinal "low level visibility," set of training activities following the major implementation effort. Maintenance phase led to institutionalization of the innovation.
The AAIM model was successfully demonstrated in Washington State through projects sponsored by the National Science Foundation, the Teacher Corps, the U.S. Office of Education, and Washington State University. Orlich reported that school districts who have used this model have improved teacher and administrator attitudes with respect to inservice training programs, and that "The real pay-off is better instruction for the child in the classroom" (Orlich 1979, p.55).

The MIRID Model

The MIRID Staff Development Model (Yoder 1981) provided a means for successful staff development through a five phase design:

1. Motivation
2. Instruction
3. Reinforcement
4. Implementation
5. Dissemination

The MIRID Model was based upon a philosophy of respect for professional competence, and willingness to make change. Participants identified individual professional needs, and were then provided time for self-directed activities, instructional resources,
and specific support environments through which strategies for change were carefully planned and implemented. The MIRID Model was based upon the six following assumptions:
1. Generating change was viewed as an evolutionary process.
2. Generating change was viewed as a perpetual process.
3. Change was perpetuated through successful involvement.
4. Change was perpetuated through commitment.
5. Change was perpetuated through dissemination.
6. Change was perpetuated through opportunities for continued involvement with the MIRID staff development model.

Staff Development For School Improvement Model

"Wayne State University has created a six-step model that improves teachers' skills while increasing their feelings of professionalism" (Sparks 1985). The college of education at Wayne State University initiated a "Building-level staff development program that would combine the resources of the university with those of the local schools to encourage teacher-directed school improvement" (Sparks 1985, p. 59).
The Wayne State project provided each of the thirty-six schools that participated with a minimum of $5,000 over a three year period to spend on staff development. Wayne State University provided each school with a university facilitator who assisted the schools through the six step staff development model described below:

1. Development of Readiness, Awareness, and Commitment

The program began in a staff meeting where the university facilitator explained the purpose of the staff development process. The staff then voted upon whether to follow the process. If at least 70% of the staff members agreed, then the staff development process was begun.

2. Needs Assessment

The facilitator led the staff through diagnosis, brainstorming, and prioritizing activities to select a school goal. After consensus was reached, at least five planning team members were elected to develop the school's staff development plan for the year.

3. Planning

With guidance from the university facilitator, the staff wrote the staff development plan for the school. Included were specific goal related
objectives, activities, and a designated responsible person for each. An evaluation plan for assessment of objectives was outlined, and a cost analysis was included. The plan was then approved by the staff and the facilitator.

4. Implementation
The plan was put into action. It was coordinated by staff committee members. School visitations, workshops, classroom observations, curriculum development, conferences, and materials development were among the staff development activities.

5. Evaluation
The school, and the facilitator used formative and summative data collected to monitor progress toward the goal.

6. Reassessment and Continuation
The planning team examined the results of the year's efforts, and developed a plan for the following year. The cycle continued.

Participants in this project reported, "Improved communication among staff members, higher staff morale, and greater interest in trying new teaching techniques...The project created a sense of ownership of the school and its programs" (Sparks 1985, p. 60).
The Five Stage Model

Wood, Thompson, and Russell (1981) described a training model having five distinct stages including Readiness, Planning, Training, Implementation, and Maintenance, as outlined below:

1. Readiness

The focus of the readiness stage was the mobilizing of broad-based support for changes in behaviors, and for the staff development that was instrumental in bringing about the changes. A work climate that supported professional behaviors was to be developed and nurtured during the readiness stage. Rand Corporation research findings indicated that in order for changes in behaviors to occur, and last, broad-based involvement was essential (Berman and McLaughlin 1978, p. 65).

Three elements of the readiness stage were

a. Written set of training goals that specified the desired changes in behaviors.

b. The description of staff selected programs and activities designed to achieve these goals.

c. A general four to five year plan for the implementation of these changes into the ongoing program.
2. Planning
During the second stage, specific plans for training programs were developed to accomplish the desired changes identified in Stage I. Goals and programs were translated into a detailed, long-range plan for staff development. A needs assessment was conducted, and training activities were planned. The who, how, what, when, where of training and implementation were identified.

3. Training
The training plans were put into action in the third stage of staff development. The skills, strategies, and attitudes necessary for implementation were learned during this stage. Workshops, graduate courses, participant exchanges, and independent study were examples of training activities.

4. Implementation
During the fourth stage, the skills that were learned during the training stage were put into practice on the job. Participants received assistance from peers, administrators, and outside facilitators. "Lasting change was unlikely unless the principal and other administrators legitimized these changes through formal and informal recognition" (Wood 1981, p. 85).
5. Maintenance

The goal of the maintenance stage was to assure that the change in behavior continued over time. Monitoring and feedback were needed in the maintenance stage. The staff remained focused and committed to the continued improvement of the identified behaviors. This focus was maintained through self-monitoring, peer-monitoring, and as part of the supervision process.

The Concerns-Based Adoption Model

The Concerns-Based Adoption Model (Hall, Wallace, Dossett, 1973) was developed in order to examine the interaction between the individual and the large change effort known as the inservice project. This research based model revolved around two basic assumptions:

1. Staff development allowed for individual differences from the onset.

2. Staff development was a well planned process, not isolated events.

The focus of this model was change. Staff development activities were implemented with the intent of bringing about some innovation with respect to instructional behaviors, specific performance, or a
particular desired outcome. Additional assumptions of the CBAM model were

a. The change (innovation) was appropriate, and had the potential for positive outcomes.

b. Change was a process, not an event. Inherent in the change process was the passage of time. Innovation necessitated careful planning and follow through as a prerequisite to successful implementation.

c. Change was a personal experience. All attempts at innovation attended to the personal dimension of change. Individual feelings, frustrations, and perceptions were important elements in the change process.

d. The individual was the focal point. The design of appropriate staff development programs and activities demanded that the needs of the individual, both specifically, and collectively be considered.

e. Change entailed growth. Within the growth process, there existed identifiable steps that individuals passed through during the change process. These stages of concern about the innovation were defined by Hall (1979).
In summary, the Concerns-Based Adoption Model focused upon the interaction of individuals with major changes over time.

Judith Warren Little (1982) suggested with reference to public education that in order for continuous staff development and professional growth to be realized, four conditions necessarily existed in the schools. First, educators were encouraged to "Engage in frequent, continuous, and increasingly concrete, and precise talk about teaching practice." Through this activity, educators developed a shared professional language and worked in an atmosphere of collegiality and experimentation. A second condition was that "Teachers are frequently observed, and provided with useful critiques of their teaching." This feedback provided shared referents of the shared language of teaching. The third condition was that "Teachers plan, design, research, evaluate, and prepare teaching materials together." The shared development of plans and materials translated theory into practice, and long-term improvement. The fourth condition was that "Teachers teach other teachers the practice of teaching." When teachers were encouraged to teach teachers within their building, the school
maximized the use of its human resources (Little 1982).

The literature suggested that models of staff development needed to be carefully analyzed, and that common criteria among models needed to be identified. Terminology needed to be consolidated and standardized so that a model which reflected the strengths of previously designed models could be synthesized. The implications for application to mentoring programs were tremendous. "The work ahead of us is to build flowing systems of staff development which help educators enrich their lives and competence, faculties improve their schools, and school systems initiate curricular and organizational changes" (Wood 1981, p. 59). This labor was to be carefully initiated so that our aspiring leaders could thrive in the changing world of the future, where we all have taken up residence today: the information age.

CAREER STAGES

Levinson (1978) was credited with focusing a considerable amount of attention on mentoring relationships in the corporate world, in academic settings, and in the popular press as a result of his
important research in the area of the stages of adult development. Just as children pass through predictable stages of human development as described by Piaget, Levinson asserted in his landmark work, *The Seasons In A Man's Life* (1978) that human development continues in predictable stages throughout the life cycle. Levinson found that young adults tended to enhance their personal development through the formation of mentoring relationships with older adults. Levinson found that mentors performed the important functions of role model, exemplar, teacher, counselor, guide, and sponsor. The mentor took a personal interest in fostering the younger person's growth and development. Levinson also found that the mentor exemplified certain qualities that the younger person was striving to achieve. These specific accomplishments and values were internalized by the mentee, and reinforced by the mutual affection, admiration, and encouragement the mentor offered.

Most notably, Author Gail Sheehy served to popularize the notion of adult developmental stages in her best selling novel *Passages* (1976). Roche (1979) found in his study of more than twelve hundred successful business executives that
"Nearly two thirds of the respondents had a mentor or sponsor, and one third of them has had two or more mentors" (p. 14). Roche found that these executives derived greater satisfaction from their work, and were generally happier with their chosen career path than the individuals who had not experienced mentor relationships. Roche also found that those executives who were the beneficiaries of mentoring relationships enjoyed the additional benefits of having had more extensive formal educations, earned more money at a younger age, and were happier deriving greater pleasure from work. In the Hennig/Jardim (1977) study of professional business women, the women tended to attribute much of their success and achievement to the mentoring relationships they enjoyed. The business and corporate world responded to these research findings by instituting formalized mentoring programs in which experienced employees were assigned to perform the mentoring function for younger inexperienced employees.

The stages of adult development were examined specifically in the context of mentoring relationships by Dalton, Thompson, and Price (1977). This research team developed a model that identified four sequential
career stages that an individual passed through on his or her career path. These four career stages were defined as apprentice, colleague, mentor, and sponsor. A description and synthesis of the four career stages was provided below.

Stage I: Apprentice

The stage I adult, the apprentice, was characterized as a young, inexperienced, dependent individual. A good mentoring relationship during the apprentice stage of adult development included a preponderance of learning and helping activities. The mentee typically was a follower of directions given by the mentor. The mentor served as role model for the mentee. The mentee looked to the mentor as an example for appropriate action, during this stage when the mentee most likely felt tentative, untried, and lacking in the confidence that comes with experience. During the apprentice stage the mentee was "Taken care of" by the mentor.

Stage II: Colleague

The stage II adult, the colleague, was characterized as independent, and more mature. During this stage, the adult enjoyed the confidence that comes with experience. A good mentoring relationship
during the colleague stage of adult development involved much less reliance on the mentor for guidance and direction. During the colleague stage the mentee tended to "Take care of himself."

Stage III: Mentor

The stage III adult, the mentor, provided guidance and counseling to individuals who were at the apprentice stage I level of development. During this stage the adult enjoyed personal and professional confidence to the extent that he/she assisted adults at the stage I level to gain confidence. During the mentor stage of development the adult had the ability to "Take care of others."

Stage IV: Sponsor

The stage IV adult, the sponsor, participated in activities that were characteristic of the manager, the entrepreneur, the innovator. The sponsor became involved in facilitating the development of adults who were passing through stages II, and III. The sponsor offered opportunity, as well as pertinent feedback to adults who had already attained certain levels of personal and professional confidence. The stage IV adult described in the Dalton model had reached what Erikson (1968) called generativity. He defined
generativity as "The concern for establishing and guiding the next generation" (p. 138). Erikson asserted that in order to reach the stage of generativity, a human being had first successfully completed the psychosocial tasks which mark the passage through stages of infancy, early childhood, prepuberty, puberty, adolescence, and early adulthood. Browning (1973) described the adult who had reached generativity as an individual who was capable of sustaining healthy mentoring relationships. "Generative man contains within himself a fund of basic trust in the world and hope for the future... Generative man also has the capacity for autonomy and the virtue of will. This is to say, he trusts those deeper forces within himself which propel him toward growth and indviduation" (p. 183). Browning went on to suggest that "Generative man seeks a union of mutual recognition and not a union of self-obliteration and self-absorption. Generative man seeks a union of reciprocal patterns of regulation and mutual activation. It is a union that protects his individuality as much as it overcomes his loneliness. It is a union that seeks to 'know even as we are known.' Generative man seeks a wider and more
inclusive union which can give recognition, regulation, and communion to his own inevitable uniqueness" (p. 184). An adult who had begun the generativity stage could benefit from a self renewal process. Adults who had reached career plateaus, and who might otherwise feel blocked in development could be channeled into mentoring and developing the careers of young less experienced employees. Kram (1984) suggested that "Mentoring offers a valuable alternative to further advancement for those who are at midcareer with no further prospects for movement; creative energies can be directed towards teaching and advising younger employees" (p. 52). In order for this to be a possibility, organizations needed to consider the conditions necessary for creating a work environment that naturally enhanced the development of mentoring relationships.

CREATING A MENTORING CLIMATE

The literature suggested that certain conditions and prerequisite contingencies must be in place in order for the implementation of a formalized mentoring program to be successful (Phillips 1983, Kram 1983). Conditions were to be created which facilitated the
socialization, as well as the psychosocial and functional development of aspiring administrators. These same conditions allowed for the creative expression and growth of the potential mentor. This was accomplished through the sharing of wisdom and experience of individuals who had reached the midpoint of their careers, and were entering the generativity stage in the career development process. (Kram 1985).

Kram (1984) identified three fundamental conditions that existed in the organizational or corporate culture in order for effective mentoring to thrive. The first condition named by Kram emphasized the importance of interactions among organizational members at various hierarchical levels. The organizational culture encouraged frequent opportunities for open interactions. The second condition named by Kram dealt with personal attitudes and skills. Individuals needed to have positive feelings about mentoring itself. These same individuals needed to possess interpersonal skills necessary to initiate, and to cultivate mentoring relationships. The third condition identified by Kram dealt with the corporate culture. Kram defined
the corporate culture as the shared values of the organization (p. 52). The corporate culture included the organization's reward system, the nature of task design, and the performance management systems. All of these encouraged the building of mentoring relationships. It was essential that the organization communicated the shared value that mentoring was important to the achieving of organizational goals and objectives (Kram 1984). Kram contended that "Only when managers are rewarded and promoted for developing subordinates as well as for achieving financial results, will mentoring be considered an important responsibility" (p. 52). Further Kram suggested, "Project teams that bring juniors and seniors together on common work tasks, and jobs which incorporate coaching and teaching as primary responsibilities are more likely to create on going opportunities for mentoring to occur" (p. 53).

Organizations implemented specific intervention strategies designed to minimize obstacles to building effective mentoring relationships. Kram identified two general classifications of intervention strategy: educational interventions, and structural interventions. Both types of interventions were
generally to be implemented simultaneously or sequentially to maximize positive impact. Educational interventions were incorporated within existing professional development programs of the organization. Specific training courses, staff development activities, or workshops were planned and tailored to reinforce and nurture mentoring relationships within the organization. A logical workshop design targeted groups at various career stages, and increased knowledge, skills, and positive attitudes toward mentoring. Kram (1984) emphasized repeatedly the important role that senior management plays in this process. It was imperative to the success of any mentoring program that senior management believe, and be viewed as believing in mentoring as a legitimate and very important process of the organization.

While educational interventions focused on modifying attitudes, and increasing skills and knowledge, structural interventions focused on modifying management systems or introducing formal mentoring programs. An example of a structural change was the modification of the organizations reward system. Explicit rewards were provided to midcareer
employees who serve as mentors to junior colleagues. The outcome was the perception, that mentoring was valued by the organization as an alternative to seeking further advancement. Kram suggested that "If relevant rewards can be identified, and if procedures are set in place for evaluating people's development activities, effective mentoring will evolve when individuals have the appropriate knowledge and skills" (p. 54).

FORMAL MENTORING PROGRAMS

Government agencies, professional associations, and business organizations were using formalized mentoring programs to enhance the career development of potential leaders. Evidence reported in the literature suggested that formalized mentoring programs were successful both in the public and private sectors. Formalized mentoring programs provided a more efficient vehicle than the luck of the draw for the linking of prospective mentors and mentees.

A number of successful mentoring programs were implemented within agencies of the federal government such as the Internal Revenue Service, the Federal
Executive Development Program, the Presidential Management Intern Program, and the Science and Education Administration within the U.S. Department of Agriculture (Phillips-Jones 1983). Companies in the private sector such as American Telephone and Telegraph Bell Laboratories, Glendale Federal Savings and Loan, Hughes Aircraft, Jewel Companies, and Security Pacific National Bank found that formalized mentoring programs were advantageous ventures for both the organizations and the employees (Price 1981, Phillips-Jones 1983). Formal mentor systems supplemented or replaced the traditionally invisible mentor systems that have always existed for the benefit of a few. Formalized mentoring programs extended the benefits of mentoring to the many.

Although formal mentoring programs were structured, and involved a process by which volunteer mentors were matched with volunteer mentees, companies have not typically documented the process in written form. Kathy Kram, author of *Mentoring At Work* (1985) and acknowledged authority on the subject of mentoring stated that to her knowledge no company had developed a written plan or model for a formalized mentoring program. Kram suggested that a written model was
needed and was important (1987). Donald Kuhn, Director of the Executive Continuity Program for AT&T said that basically three mentoring models were used within the organization. The models were philosophical in nature and reflected company policy, but did not appear in written form. The formalized mentoring program was initiated in response to affirmative action concerns. In order to give minority employees and women employees access to the benefits of mentoring in terms of enhanced career opportunities, the formalized mentoring program was implemented. Volunteer minority and women mentees were matched with mentors who volunteered to serve the mentoring function for them.

The Bell Laboratories division of AT&T was characterized by an emphasis on research and development, and therefore had an R&D atmosphere. Experts were recruited internationally to work at Bell Laboratories, and this type of climate lent itself to the implementation of a second model for formalized mentoring. Volunteer mentors signed up to coach the new recruits. These volunteer mentors helped entry level employees to learn the ropes, and the routines for operating successfully within the R&D
establishment at Bell Laboratories. A third model for mentoring at AT&T was more reminiscent of traditional mentoring. High level managers volunteered to search out and sponsor fast trackers who were perceived as strong managerial candidates. High level managers introduced mentees into the networking system, advocating for and promoting their careers. (Kuhn 1987).

Arno Kracat, of Bank of America's Management Development Program, described their formalized mentoring program as one in which mentors taught managers how to teach management candidates. According to Kracat (1987) the formal mentoring program was not terribly codified, but was an unofficial policy that grew as a result of an overall philosophy which favored mentoring.

Jewel Companies Inc. was cited repeatedly in the literature for its highly successful formalized mentoring program (Price 1981, Phillips-Jones 1983). Fast-trackers from Harvard, Northwestern, and the University of Chicago business schools were openly wooed as a result of the Jewel Company formal mentoring system. Mentoring was an important part of the companies training program since the early
1960's. A Jewel Company spokesperson confirmed that the company had subscribed to an unwritten philosophy of sponsorship in which mentors helped other employees along. The spokesperson reported that Jewel had recently changed hands and that the corporate philosophy had changed. The long standing formal mentoring program was discontinued (Jewel 1987).

A content analysis of the literature revealed a number of critical elements or strategies that effective formalized mentoring programs had in common. These elements were summarized below:

1. Top management supported and endorsed the formalized mentoring program.
2. The formalized mentoring program was a component of the recognized management training or career development program.
3. Participation of mentors and mentees was voluntary.
4. A careful selection process was used to identify mentors and mentees.
5. An orientation session/workshop was provided for mentors and mentees.
6. Individual creative styles and flexibility were allowed for within the formalized mentoring structure.
7. Progress of the mentoring relationships was monitored (Phillips-Jones 1983).

8. A formal commitment was made to the mentor program.

9. Mentors and mentees were selected from a diverse pool of talented employees.

10. Frequent interaction and ready accessibility between mentor and mentee were provided.

11. Successful mentors were acknowledged and rewarded (Moore 1982).

Interestingly, the literature suggested that a written model (Phillips-Jones 1983) was important to the success of a formalized mentoring program. This review of the literature revealed no evidence of written models. Kathy Kram stated that the development of a written formalized mentoring program model was of considerable value to organizations interested in implementing and finetuning mentoring programs. This model also facilitated further investigations and research in the area of formalized mentoring (Kram 1987).
EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

The discipline of educational psychology offered important contributions for consideration. One such contribution was the general definition of learning, as "The process whereby an organism changes its behavior as a result of experience" (Gage 1984, p. 252). Desired changes in human behavior were engineered through specific, planned, learning experiences. Two key components of learning theory were experience and maturity. Gage (1984, p. 253) stated that "The term experience limits the kinds of changes in behavior that can be considered to represent learning... Another process that produces change in behavior... is maturation."

Swiss psychologist Jean Piaget began conducting in the 1920's, observations and interviews of children which led him to the coherent description of the developmental changes that occur in the intellectual functioning of the child. "Piaget's theories have helped us to understand how one behavior must develop in order that another can follow; how a child incorporates experience into his or her own very personal conceptions of the world; how the child's moral values develop sequentially; how imagination is
formed and how it changes; how the logical thought of science develops; how the ability to categorize, generalize, and discriminate grows with the child's experience." Piaget's theory identified four stages of cognitive development that occur sequentially at various chronological age ranges. The stages included sensorimotor, preoperational, concrete operational, and formal operational.

Researchers such as Erikson (1968); Sheehy (1976); Dalton, Thompson, Price (1977); Levinson (1978); Bents (1978); Knowles (1979); Hersey and Blanchard (1980); and others built upon the developmental foundations conceptualized by Piaget and found that human development continued in predictable stages throughout the life cycle.
Chapter III focused on explicating the method of research used. This study utilized the developmental/descriptive research design methodology. As defined by Borg and Gall (1983), the descriptive study was primarily concerned with discovering "what is."

According to Van Dalen, and Meyer (1966), "Descriptive research is used in the literal sense of describing situations or events...It does not necessarily seek or explain relationships, test hypotheses, make predictions, or get at meanings and implications." Van Dalen, and Meyer stated that a purpose of the descriptive study was "To determine what others are doing with similar problems or situations and benefit from their experience in making future plans and decisions." Isaac (1971) stated that the purpose was "To describe systematically a situation or area of interest factually and accurately." William Gephart (1966) stated that
"While historical, descriptive, and case studies may not be considered as fashionable as controlled studies modeled after experiments in physics or behavioral psychology, within their capabilities, these methods ...yield information of different kinds but of no less utility."

Within the scope of this study it was the intent to review the literature investigating relevant concepts and principles from the various disciplines of learning theory, andragogy, motivation, educational psychology, human growth and development, leadership, training, and staff development. Contributions from this literature were analyzed through a process of content analysis and then synthesized into a listing of imperatives for the subsequent formalized mentoring program model. The purpose of this approach was to harmonize those principles of training, laws of learning, and theories of motivation particularly relevant to adult learners in a mentoring program model.

Common elements or concepts relevant to the design of a formalized mentoring model were identified through the process of content analysis. The detailed specificity of these elements and their great
diversity, suggested their inclusion in this chapter for clarity of the research procedure. Accordingly, principles of training, laws of learning, and theories of motivation were examined, and the following structure for the model was indicated.

**Adult Training and Learning**

Adult learning theory suggested that adults were helped to learn relevant concepts in an independent fashion, rather than being taught concepts selected for them in a manner connoting learner dependence. It was reported that the trainer of adults helped each adult learner to manifest his or her ability to learn through sensitivity to such considerations as differences in pacing, and preferences for varying learning modalities (Lewis 1977). The sensitive leader assisted the adult learner to recover a possibly misplaced sense of discovery, and assisted the learner in the setting of new goals. Naisbitt (1982) suggested that in today's society, learning has become a life long occupation. Lewis (1977) outlined important characteristics of adult learners as listed below.
1. The need and capacity for self-direction.
2. Large reservoirs of experience used for learning.
3. The need and ability to assess one's own readiness to learn.
4. A diverse array of cognitive styles within any adult group.
5. A problem centered orientation to learning.

Havelock (1973) offered a series of summary statements that reflected the research with respect to learning and training of adults. These statements were condensed, and reported below.

1. Structure - It was essential that training was structured in an orderly and rational manner. Important aspects of structuring design included (a) planning, (b) defining objectives, (c) specifying learnings that met objectives, (d) specifying the sequence of training activities that lead to the desired learnings.

2. Relevance - Training was relevant in four areas: relevance to objectives, relevance to social need, relevance to the trainees "back home situation," relevance to the individual learner's needs, wishes, background.
3. Specificity - Goals, learnings, and training were specific and stated in behavioral terms. Specificity facilitated flexibility in that conscious alternate choice became possible.

4. Generality - Training was general as well as specific. "It is easy to provide trainees with experiences and problems to solve. It is more difficult to think through the learning and adaptation processes that must take place in this experience, to help trainees devise ways of collecting data on them, and to aid trainees in conceptualizing the processes so that they may be applied in overseas situations which on the surface may seem to be radically different from the projects assigned during training. This form of elaboration requires the trainee to take account of the training experience, to dig into it rather than float on its surface, to formulate hypotheses and questions. Without such elaboration, experiences are not converted into learning. Trainees should receive assistance in conceptualizing and generalizing their experience. It is impossible to reproduce or simulate or even to know precisely what conditions will be faced by trainees in an overseas situation. Crude simulations may be the best
available. The processes of diagnosing and taking action on a problem are similar in the training and application situations, but the content of the problems are different. Unless the trainee has help in abstracting the process from the particular events he experiences, he will face difficulty in translating what he has learned into usable form" (Bennis 1969).

Learning was internalized only when the learner was able to move easily back and forth from the specific to the general.

5. Reinforcement - Appropriate responses were positively reinforced. The learner must have perceived the training experience as beneficial, worthwhile, and enjoyable.

6. In-Process Evaluation and Feedback - To insure that the training experience was relevant to participants, evaluation took place during the experience. This immediate feedback allowed leaders to shift gears when training was not relevant.
7. Openness and Flexibility - Training was responsive to the unanticipated needs and circumstances of individual participants. Leaders involved participants as active resources in the training experience expressing an openness to the varied backgrounds of those participating.

8. Linkage - All aspects of training were linked so that components were coordinated to complement each other. Sharing and a feeling of mutual commitment established the prevailing climate.

9. Involvement - Workshops involved a wide variety of activities including reading, writing, listening, telling, small group, and large group experiences so that participants were actively involved in the training.

10. Redundancy - Key points were presented numerous times through various media, and in different contexts. If something was important, participants were to hear it, read it, watch it, recite it, write it, do it. Summarization was an important feature of training. Trainers were to "Tell them what you're going to tell them, tell them, and tell them what you told them."
11. Synergy - Learning experiences had the greatest impact when numerous inputs from multiple sources converged on one point. Synergy tended to validate training experiences for the learner.

12. Train For Psychological Wholeness of Learning - As observed by Jung (1970), "Neither the learning of new knowledge nor changes in attitude are necessarily related to changes in behavior. One study showed no significant relationship between what teachers honestly believed in and thought they were doing in their classrooms as compared to what either trained research observers or their children saw them doing." Jung went on to say that "A major false assumption implicit in many training events is that people learn simply by doing. It is rather, being able to see oneself attempting to do that is the feedback which provides learning. Experience without feedback guarantees nothing."

13. Train For Transferability - The training was designed so that what was learned was applied at a later date. "Unless there is some chance for trying out and practicing behavior under back home conditions, literally or by simulation training, an
individual who may show change at the training site will not be likely to transfer it to his back home setting" (Jung 1970).

14. Compatibility - Trainings were compatible with the learner's personal history, expectations, prior learnings, and probable future work situation. A wise practice was to "dry run" training elements with representatives of the training population.

Schainker (1981) presented the following outline for effective training. He suggested that The Asset Model was the appropriate training mode to be used when designing learning experiences for adults.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Deficit Model</th>
<th>The Asset Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Usually determined by the superordinates of the participants.</td>
<td>Needs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Usually designed for role-specific groups.</td>
<td>Usually determined by the participants.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Usually attend because they have been told to be there.</td>
<td>Target population</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Usually emphasizes organizational priorities.</td>
<td>Usually designed for individuals regardless of role.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Usually based upon past, anticipated, or hypothetical problems.</td>
<td>Reason for attendance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Usually comes from external experts.</td>
<td>Usually attend because they have volunteered and want to be there.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Usually serves as a catalyst or truth giver.</td>
<td>Content emphasis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Usually occurs in a well-defined period.</td>
<td>Usually emphasizes individual priorities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Usually determined on a group basis by an external expert or the superordinates of the participants.</td>
<td>Problem orientation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIGNS</td>
<td>SOURCE OF EXPERTISE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCOPE</td>
<td>ROLE OF LEADER</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TIME FRAME</td>
<td>Usually serves as a facilitator or linker.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASSESSMENT OF SUCCESS</td>
<td>Usually occurs on an ongoing basis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCHINKER 1981</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**FIGURE 2**
Motivation

Content analysis of works on motivation revealed that theories of motivation within the work place were fundamentally concerned with the relationship between motivation and job performance. According to Herzberg's theory, motivation needs were related to unique human characteristics such as the ability to achieve and experience psychological growth. Motivation factors related to the job were achievement, recognition, work, responsibility, growth, and advancement. Motivators were the primary cause of job satisfaction. Herzberg discussed three general philosophies of personnel management which related to motivation.

1. Organizational Theory (Work Flow) - Due to varied and irrational human needs, it was necessary for organization and structure to create favorable job attitudes.

2. Industrial Engineering (Jobs) - Man was mechanistically and economically motivated. His needs were best met by attuning the individual to the most efficient work process. Incentive systems worked well with the human machine.
3. Behavioral Scientist (Attitudes) - Focus was on the social and psychological climate of the organization. Human relations, the fostering of proper attitudes, led to efficient job and organization structure. Herzberg referred to Kita, as attempts made to motivate workers. Kita caused the worker to move, but the results were only short term. Examples offered by Herzberg were reducing time spent at work, spiraling wages, fringe benefits, human relations training, sensitivity training, communications, two-way communications, job participation, employee counseling. All of the above resulted in short term movement, not motivation. The hygiene theory of motivation suggested that work was enriched to bring about effective utilization of personnel. This did not mean job loading, or use of Kita. It meant application of principles of motivation which were job satisfaction factors (Herzberg 1968).

According to Vroom (1972) individuals within organizations were motivated to perform as a function of their expectations. Job performance was tied directly to what the individual expected in terms of rewards, and this factor served as the motivation.
Degree of motivation and level of job performance figured into Vroom's equation. Vroom identified "valence" as the worker's perception of the degree of performance required, and what the worker got from the job. "Expectancy" was the first level outcome a worker expected. In other words, if I did this, then this happened as a direct result. "Instrumentality" was the correlation between first and second level outcomes. Second level outcomes were the more personal indirect results of performance that a worker expected. Second level outcomes were tied to first level outcomes. For example, a worker expected that if he wrote a very comprehensive report for his supervisor, the supervisor would assign him additional reports and more responsibility (first level outcome). Having more job responsibility and being recognized as a competent writer of reports established a level of competence power for the worker which was personally rewarding (second level outcome). Porter and Lawler (1980) agreed with theorists such as Herzberg who believed that job satisfaction resulted in good job performance. In Porter and Lawler's discussion of motivation expectancy theory, they stated that it was exactly the
reverse. Good job performance resulted in job satisfaction. Porter and Lawler contended that a worker anticipated or expected certain outcomes, and these perceptions or expectancies motivated the worker which led to job satisfaction. According to Porter and Lawler, a worker had specific perceptions regarding outcomes of performance. The worker then performed in accord with these expectations. The worker's performance was then rewarded as expected. The worker had achieved a goal which resulted in job satisfaction. Having expectations met as anticipated was motivating to the worker who continued to form perceptions regarding performance, reward, and reaching a goal which reinforced his job satisfaction. The expectancy in itself was an element in this motivation process.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs comprised a dynamic theory of human motivation. Motivation was the study of "How behavior gets started, is energized, is sustained, is directed, is stopped, and what kind of subjective reaction is present in the organism while all this is going on" (Maslow 1955). Until the 1950's management theorists contended that job satisfaction was significantly correlated with job performance.
Research by Lawler (1980) demonstrated the opposite to be true; that effective job performance led to job satisfaction. The question of how to motivate workers was asked by managers on a daily basis. Abraham Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs provided a theoretical classic among theories of motivation. Maslow's hierarchy was presented as a pyramid of human needs:
Managers were concerned with human motivation as it related to job performance. As stated, Abraham Maslow's classic theory of motivation was based on a hierarchy of needs. The prudent manager applied Maslow's theory to enhance his leadership effectiveness, and to maximize employee job performance.

Maslow's hierarchy or pyramid of human needs, presented categories of needs as sequentially dependent. Lower order needs were satisfied before the higher order needs became motivating to the individual. Physical needs, for example, were at the lowest level of Maslow's hierarchy. Included within this category were those biological drives that stem from the animal nature. Food, water, air, rest, sex, and protection from the elements were examples of physical needs. According to Maslow's theory, these needs were not considered motivators of behavior. If physical needs were not satisfied, the individual was preoccupied by them, and motivational attempts directed at the higher level needs were ineffectual.

Maslow stated that the four remaining levels of needs became increasingly motivating as one moved up the hierarchy. Safety needs included protection from
danger, and security from threat or deprivation. The manager who understood the security needs of his/her workers used this knowledge to positively motivate them. Social needs were at the next level of the hierarchy and included the need to belong, to associate with others, to feel acceptance, and to give and receive love and friendship. Social needs were strong motivators of behavior. The effective manager provided opportunities for workers to fulfill these needs thus making it possible for workers to move to the higher levels of need realization. Next on the hierarchy were the self-esteem needs. These ego involved needs were very strong motivators of behavior. The effective manager used extrinsic, and intrinsic rewards in motivating employees at this level. Self-confidence, independence, achievement, competence, knowledge, reputation, status, recognition, appreciation, and respect were needs included in the self-esteem category. The highest level on the hierarchy was the need for self-actualization. Only after the lower level needs were satisfied did individuals become self-actualized. Self-fulfillment, realizing one's potential, continuous self-development and creativity were examples of self-actualizing behaviors.
The effective manager was wise to consider his/her employees in terms of Maslow's hierarchy. Motivational strategies used with various employees differed depending upon how their needs in personal and business life were being met. People were obviously at varying levels of the hierarchy, and were treated accordingly. The manager who ignored this reality had a difficult time effectively motivating employees. Maslow's hierarchy offered a humanistic approach to motivation. He expressed his thoughts regarding human interaction in this message. "Let people realize clearly that every time they threaten someone or humiliate or hurt unnecessarily or dominate or reject another human being, they become forces for the creation of psychopathology, even if these be small forces. Let them recognize that every man who is kind, helpful, decent, psychologically democratic, affectionate, and warm, is a psychotherapeutic force, even though a small one."

**Motivation / Expectancy Theories**

The following outline summarized key features of motivation theory that were reviewed with respect to this study.
I. Introduction - Expectancy theory was a theory of motivation determined by two variables.

A. Effort-Reward was an individual's perception of the probability that a given amount of effort resulted in an appropriate reward.

B. Reward-Value was an individual's perception of the value of the reward obtained by performing effectively.

II. Basic Principles of Motivation Theory.

A. People invested themselves in work.

1. Time
2. Physical energy
3. Mental energy
4. Creativity
5. Knowledge
6. Skill
7. Enthusiasm
8. Effort

B. Pay-off was the desired return or rewards: tangible and intangible.

1. Money
2. Respect
3. Comfort
4. Sense of accomplishment
5. Social acceptance
6. Security

C. Motivated behavior was goal-directed (Bindra 1959).

D. "The study of motivation had to do with the analysis of the various factors which incite and direct individual's actions" (Atkinson 1964).

E. Motivation concerned "How behavior gets started, is energized, is sustained, is directed, is stopped, and what kind of subjective reaction is present in the organism while all this is going on." (Jones 1955).

III. Herzberg - Hygene Theory of Motivation.

A. Motivation Factors
1. Related to unique human characteristics.
   a. Ability to achieve.
   b. Ability to experience psychological growth.

2. Related to job
   a. Achievement
   b. Recognition
   c. Work
d. Responsibility

e. Growth

f. Advancement

3. Primary cause of job satisfaction.

4. Job satisfaction was not the opposite of job dissatisfaction.

B. Hygiene Factors

1. Stem from animal nature.

a. Biological drives

b. Avoidance of pain, safety needs, etc.

2. Related to job

a. Company policy

b. Administration

c. Supervision

d. Interpersonal relationships

e. Working conditions

f. Salary

g. Status

h. Security

3. Involved in producing job dissatisfaction.

4. Primary cause of job unhappiness.

5. The opposite of job dissatisfaction was the absence of job dissatisfaction.
C. Herzberg Philosophies of Personnel Management.

1. Organizational Theory (Work flow) - Due to varied and irrational human needs. It was necessary for organization and structure to create favorable job attitudes.

2. Industrial Engineering (Jobs) - Man was mechanistically and economically motivated. His needs were best met by attuning the individual to the most efficient work process. Incentive systems worked well with the human machine.

3. Behavioral Scientist (Attitudes) - Focus was on social and psychological climate of the organization. Human relations, the fostering of proper attitudes, led to efficient job and organization structure.

D. Kita

1. Attempts made to motivate workers.

2. Resulted in short term movement, not real motivation.
   a. spiraling wages, fringe benefits.
b. human relations training, sensitivity training.
c. job participation, employee counseling


A. Physiological Needs - (not motivators of behavior).
1. Air
2. Food
3. Rest
4. Exercise
5. Protection from the elements
6. Shelter

B. Safety Needs - (motivators of behavior).
1. Protection from danger
2. Threat
3. Deprivation
4. Security

C. Social Needs - (important motivators of behavior).
1. Belonging
2. Association
3.Acceptance
4. Giving and receiving friendship, and love.

D. Ego Needs — (great significance in motivating behavior).

1. Self-esteem
   a. Self-confidence
   b. Independence
   c. Achievement
   d. Competence
   e. Knowledge

2. Reputation
   a. Status
   b. Recognition
   c. Appreciation
   d. Deserved respect

E. Self-fulfillment Needs; Self-Actualization.

1. Realizing potentialities
2. Continued self-development
3. Creativity


A. Control over work environment.
B. Control over destiny, self-government, self-determination, self-control.
VI. Vroom, Identified Approaches to Motivation.

A. Paternalistic or gratuity approach.
   1. People were motivated to perform their jobs effectively to the extent they were satisfied with these jobs. The more rewards workers received, the harder they worked.
   2. The greater the extent to which an employee's needs were satisfied in his job, the greater the extent to which he responded with gratitude or loyalty by producing effectively on that job.
   3. Rewards were unconditional; based on organization membership.
   4. Key assumption was that satisfaction led to performance.
   5. Turn-over and absenteeism were reduced when high job satisfaction existed.

B. Scientific Management approach.
   1. People were motivated to work if rewards and penalties were tied directly to their performance.
   2. Rewards were conditional; contingent upon effective performance.
      a. Merit pay
b. Wage-incentive plans that tie pay to performance; piece-work.

c. Extrinsic rewards


1. Individuals derived satisfaction from doing an effective job.

2. Emphasis was on creating conditions under which effective performance was a goal itself rather than a means to the attainment of some other goal.

VII. Lawler, Critique of Motivation Approaches.

A. Paternalistic approach

1. Not supported by research.

2. Incorrectly assumed that satisfaction caused good job performance because satisfied employees were more motivated.

3. Research supported the reverse: Good job performance was positively related to job satisfaction.

B. Scientific Management approach.

1. Extrinsic rewards were not highly important to everyone. Not everyone was motivated by extrinsic reward systems.
2. Individual and situational differences were ignored.

C. Participative approach
   1. Failed to give extrinsic rewards a significant role in motivating people.
   2. Not all workers wanted to participate in decision making.

D. Individualized approach
   1. The motivation system was fit to the individual.
   2. Paternalistic, Scientific Management, and Participative approaches were used as appropriate to fit the situation, and the individual.

VIII. Expectancy Theory Of Motivation

A. Contingency Theory - motivation viewed as response in person's needs to specific goal person seeks.

B. Assumed performance was a means to satisfaction.

C. Individual motivation was a function of person's perception.

D. Rewards were individualized to match person's goals.
E. Numerous theorists developed motivation theories within the expectancy framework: Expectancy X Valence Theories of Motivation

1. Tolman - Expectancy of goal, demand for goal.
2. Lewin - Potency X valence
3. Edwards - Subjective probability X utility
4. Atkinson - Expectancy X (motive X incentive)
5. Rotter - Expectancy, reinforcement value
6. Vroom - Expectancy X valence; where valence was (instrumentality X valence).
7. Peak - Instrumentality X attitude (affect)

F. Expectancy Valence Theories included

1. Concept of valence- The attractiveness of an outcome.
2. Concept of expectancy- Likelihood that an action led to a certain outcome or goal.
3. Multiplicative combining of valence and expectance to determine behavior.
G. Vroom's Expectancy Theory

1. Generalizations
   a. People had preferences among the various outcomes that were potentially available to them.
   b. People had expectancies about the likelihood that an action (effort) on their part led to the intended behavior or performance.
   c. People had expectancies (instrumentalities) about the likelihood that certain outcomes followed their behavior.
   d. In any situation, the actions a person chose to take were determined by the expectancies and the preferences that person had at the time.

2. Assumptions
   a. People did not just respond to events after they occurred. They anticipated or expected that things occurred and that certain behaviors in response to those events probably produced predictable consequences. Individuals were highly proactive.
   b. Humans usually confronted possible alternative behaviors, and their probable consequences in rational ways.
c. Through experience individuals learned to anticipate the likely consequences of alternative ways of dealing with events, and through learning to modify their responses.

3. Basic Principles

a. Motivations were experienced in varying intensities depending upon the complex interplay of valence-expectance-instrumentality relationships.

(1) Valence - The degree of preference for a potential outcome. What an individual wanted from a job. People assigned varying valence values to income, working conditions, status, security, etc. Valence was positive (desired) or negative (not desired).

(2) Expectancy - The belief that a behavior resulted in a predictable first-level outcome.

(3) Instrumentality - Strength of correlation between first-level outcome and second-level outcome.

b. People usually chose to behave in response to the motivational forces that were strongest.
c. Individuals were motivated by expected events and likely outcomes of alternative ways of dealing with them.

   (1) Outcome - The consequence of one's behavior.

   (2) First-level outcome - The direct or immediate consequence of one's behavior.

   (3) Second-level outcome - The personal impact first-level outcomes had on the individual.

H. Porter - Lawler Expectancy Model

1. Worker assigned some value to the possible reward for performing work.

2. Worker had subjective judgment regarding likelihood that proposed effort on the job actually resulted in receiving the reward.

3. The level of effort was determined by the sum of the desire for the reward, plus the perceived chances of actually receiving the reward.

4. Effort was mediated by a combination of the worker's abilities and traits, and the worker's perception of his/her role on the job.

5. Effort, abilities, and role perception yielded results: actual accomplishment from performed behavior.
6. Rewards were intrinsic, or extrinsic.
7. Worker expected to receive a fair reward.
8. The worker's perception that rewards were equitable in terms of his/her subjective values and expectations resulted in satisfaction.

IX. Conclusions
A. Expectancy Theory was one among many motivation theories.
B. Expectancy theory was concerned with the perceptions and the resulting behaviors of the individual worker.
C. Research demonstrated that good performance leads to job satisfaction. Research refuted the reverse: that job satisfaction leads to good performance.
D. Motivation was a function of a person's perception that increased rewards helped attain personal goals.

Common elements from the disciplines of andragogy, learning theory, training, staff development, motivation, educational psychology, and human development, relevant to the design of a
formalized mentoring model were identified through the process of content analysis as indicated below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ELEMENTS</th>
<th>DISCIPLINE:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Action Learning</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Change</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Experiential Learning</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Learning Environment</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Maturity Level</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Learning Orientation</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Immediacy of Application</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Problem Centered Orientation</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Differentiated Learning</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Environments</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Adult Development Levels</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Stages in Adult Learning</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Career Stages</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Practical Orientation</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Learning Adaptibility</td>
<td>X</td>
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<tr>
<td>16. Learner Readiness</td>
<td>X</td>
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<tr>
<td>17. Individualization</td>
<td>X</td>
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<tr>
<td>18. Self-Direction</td>
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<tr>
<td>19. Self-Assessment</td>
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<tr>
<td>20. Relevance</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Rewards</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Openness and Flexibility</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FIGURE 4
CHAPTER IV

A FORMALIZED MENTORING PROGRAM MODEL

Chapter IV presented the findings of the study which focused on the development of a formalized mentoring program model designed to facilitate the career development of aspiring administrators. The development of this model was the result of the content analysis of the literature described in Chapter III, and a synthesis of strategies discussed in the review of the literature in Chapter II. The content analysis identified four components that provided the foundation for the formalized mentoring program model. Those components were discussed in Chapter IV.

Formalized Mentoring Program Model

The formalized mentoring program model consisted of key components that were found within the disciplines of andragogy, training/staff development, motivation, and educational psychology. The following was a discussion of those components.
Within the discipline of andragogy five basic elements were identified as essential ingredients of the formalized mentoring program model (Knowles 1972). These five features were studied by management prior to initiating a mentoring program. The organizational culture reflected these elements. Each manager assumed the attitude of an educator, who provided an educative environment for staff members. Within the educative environment the manager was perceived as an enabler, a catalyst, a facilitator, a nurturer who empowered others to realize their growth and development potential.

The first of the five elements identified within the discipline of andragogy was self-directed learning (Knowles 1972). Self-directed learning was rooted in the principle that each adult knows better than anyone else what was appropriate for him to learn, and when. The adult learner gained a sense of self-respect, and self-responsibility through the process of becoming a self-directed learner. The educative manager who implemented the formalized mentoring program model provided for an organizational culture
that involved staff members in the following:

1. A climate of mutual respect.
2. Personal self diagnosis of individual needs.
3. Active participation in the planning and implementation of learning experiences.
4. Involvement in the evaluation process.

The second of the five elements was accumulated experience (Knowles 1972). The adult learner represented the sum total of his life experiences. These experiences were utilized to facilitate learning for the adult. The educative manager who implemented the formalized mentoring program model provided an organizational culture that included the following:

1. Group discussion, case study, simulation, internship, were experiential techniques that were used to assist staff members to grow and develop.
2. Attendance at conferences, visitations to other schools, rotating assignments, demonstrations by visiting experts were learning experiences that enhanced employee attitudes. These experiences were motivational and aided individual self-actualization.
The third element was readiness to learn (Knowles 1972). The adult learner's readiness to learn developed from a need to know. He saw educational opportunity as a method for dealing with immediate problems that he encountered today. The adult learner was concerned with the application of learned solutions to help him cope with currently existing problems, circumstances, or situations. The educative manager who implemented the formalized mentoring program model was concerned with the following:
1. Sensitivity to the sequence of developmental tasks of employees and the corresponding scheduling of educational activities.
2. The wisdom to ask the adult what he was ready to learn next.

The fourth element was problem-centered orientation (Knowles 1972). Adults perceived learning as an effective tool used to deal with life's problems. The educative manager who implemented the formalized mentoring program model provided for the following:
1. Needs assessments were conducted to determine employee concerns.
2. Practice opportunities provided as soon as possible following training sessions.

The fifth element was the educative environment (Knowles 1972). An educative environment assured that learning on the job was a pleasant, rewarding experience. The educative manager who implemented the formalized mentoring program model attended to the following:

1. Mistakes were treated as opportunities for growth.
2. Employees were involved in planning, implementing, and evaluating learning.

**Training/Staff Development**

Action learning techniques such as simulation, field experience, and team projects were staff development activities that were part of the formalized mentoring program model. The following was a listing of what constituted the best practices for staff development within the formalized mentoring program model (Hall, Wallace, Dossett, 1973):

1. Participants were involved in planning their own training programs.
2. Incentives for participating in the training emphasized intrinsic professional rewards.
3. The focus of training was the work site.
4. Training followed a developmental model in which participants were seen as skilled professionals who bring unique qualities and positive attitudes to the training experience.
5. Training allowed for individual differences from the onset.
6. Change was viewed as a process and not an event.
7. All attempts at innovation attended to the personal dimension of change.
8. Four levels of training impact were structured within the formalized mentoring program model as follows:
   a. Awareness - Introduction to a concept and its importance.
   b. Concepts and Organized Knowledge - Basic understanding of the concept.
   c. Principles and Skills - The adult learner understands the concept and has acquired its companion skill.
   d. Application and Problem Solving - Understanding, and skill were applied to solve specific problems.
9. The five major components of training were as follows (Joyce 1980):
   a. Presentation of theory or description of skill.
   b. Demonstration of skill.
   c. Practice in simulated settings.
   d. Feedback regarding performance.
   e. Coaching for application.

**Educational Psychology**

The educative manager included elements from the discipline of educational psychology within the format of the formalized mentoring program model. As defined by Gage (1984) learning was a change in behavior that resulted from human experience. The formalized mentoring program model provided experiences that were engineered to maximize learning potential through the positive change/experience process.

Change was a most important feature of the formalized mentoring program model. Developmental changes were natural occurrences that resulted from intellectual functioning (Piaget). This human development continued throughout the life cycle (Erikson 1968, Sheehy 1976, Dalton, Thompson, Bents 1978, Knowles 1979, Hersey and Blanchard 1980). Such
Developmental changes were important considerations for the manager who implemented the formalized mentoring program model.

Levinson (1978) called these adult developmental changes, career stages. The four career stages identified by Dalton, Thompson, and Price (1977) were incorporated within the formalized mentoring program model. The director and participants of formalized mentoring programs were made aware of the particular stage at which they were presently functioning. This information made it possible to make a more appropriate assignment of mentor to mentee. These stages, defined in Chapter II, provided a rational basis of understanding for a manager who implemented the formalized mentoring program model.

Motivation

Motivation needs were related to unique human characteristics such as the ability to achieve and experience psychological growth. Motivation factors related to the job were achievement, recognition, work, responsibility, growth, and advancement (Herzberg 1968). The formalized mentoring program model took these factors into account. Herzberg (1968) focused attention on the social and
psychological climate of the organization. Thus human relations, and the fostering of proper attitudes were important features of the formalized mentoring program model. These features were incorporated within the organizational culture prior to implementation of the model. As discussed in Chapter III, Herzberg's (1968) hygiene theory of motivation suggested that work must be enriched in order to cause the effective utilization of personnel. The formalized mentoring program model called for just such enrichment.

Maslow's (1955) Hierarchy of Needs, depicted in the classic pyramid, (Chapter III) was a dynamic theory of motivation that was also an integral feature of the formalized mentoring program model. The educative manager who implemented the model addressed the human needs of mentees as well as mentors. The lower order physical, safety, and social needs were satisfied prior to those of self-esteem, and self-actualization. These higher order needs were confronted in the formalized mentoring program model. Social needs and self-actualization needs were strong motivators within the formalized mentoring program model. Motivational strategies were used with various employees depending upon how their needs in personal
and business life were being met. This humanistic approach to motivation was basic to the formalized mentoring program model. The model focused upon concepts encountered along the career path such as effort-reward, reward-value, and the employee desired pay-off (Porter, Lawler, 1975).

The key components that provided the foundation for the formalized mentoring program model were reflected on the next page.
GENESIS OF A FORMALIZED MENTORING PROGRAM MODEL

ANDRAGOGY
- Self-Directed Learning
- Accumulated Experience
- Readiness to Learn
- Problem-Centered Orientation
- Educative Environment

MOTIVATION
- Social / Psychological Climate
- Human Relations
- Attitudes
- Needs

STAFF DEVELOPMENT / TRAINING
- Components Of Training
- Best Training Practices
- Levels Of Training Impact

EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY
- Learning
- Change Process
- Career Stages

"the model"
Implementation Chronology Of The Mentoring Program Model

The following chronology was outlined for the implementation of the Mentoring Program Model:

1. A central office level administrator directed the mentoring program.

2. Principals were notified of the opportunity to volunteer for participation as a mentor in the formalized mentoring program. Nominations, as well as applications were accepted for mentoring program openings. Screening and selection were completed.

3. Possible mentee candidates were notified of the opportunity to participate in the formalized mentoring program. Mentee screening and selection were completed.

4. A mentor inservice was scheduled to explain the mentor's role in the program. Mentor responsibilities, as well as benefits were discussed. Strategies for avoiding possible pitfalls, as well as for maximizing the benefits of this learning experience were stressed. Mentors were told that their selection was based upon their demonstrated skill as an educational leader and manager, as well as a developer of people. Principal/mentors were given a
listing of mentee candidates. They had an opportunity to indicate a preference for three names if they so desired. If a principal felt a special affinity for any one candidate, this was indicated. (The mentoring program encouraged any mentoring relationships that may have already begun developing.)

5. The director of the mentoring program matched the mentees with mentors. The group of mentees represented a diverse pool of talents and skills. The match took this fact into account, and therefore homogeneous pairings were avoided.

6. An orientation to the mentoring program was scheduled. At this meeting mentors and mentees teamed up. The expected benefits, and responsibilities of the mentoring program were described. Cautions, as well as suggestions for avoiding possible pitfalls were discussed. A needs assessment survey was administered to mentees regarding their preferences for workshop topics. Six workshops were planned for mentees based on the results of the needs assessment. The mentoring program timeline for the year was distributed. The following Mentor Responsibilities were discussed during orientation:

1. Accessibility - Daily professional interaction in the discussion of actual work problems was
provided. The mentee was treated as a colleague.

2. Visibility - The mentee was encouraged, and provided opportunities to work with other administrators, and to serve in leadership roles. Work on school district committees and projects, as well as work on committees of professional organizations was suggested. Mentors arranged for the mentee to accompany the mentor, or to represent him/her at meetings.

3. Feedback - Mentors provided continual feedback regarding strengths and weaknesses. Positive correction, and praise were equally important. Mistakes were considered valuable opportunities for growth and development. McGregor's Theory Y, management style was practiced.

4. Training - Mentors encouraged the mentee to take advantage of every educational opportunity offered by university and the school district. Individual training and coaching sessions were offered as appropriate. A wide variety of on the job experiences were provided.

5. Commitment - Time, commitment, and skill were required. The school district acknowledged and supported the special contributions of the mentor.
The following responsibilities of mentees were discussed during orientation:

1. Mentees reflected upon their hierarchy of values, sense of direction, and leadership style. Strengths, and weaknesses were analyzed.

2. Mentees met with their mentors to agree upon a development plan for the year.

3. Mentees wrote a "Professional development contract," listing priorities and timelines, to be signed by the mentee, their mentor, and the director of the mentoring program.

4. Attending at least four workshops designed and tailored specifically for mentees was required.

5. Mentees read extensively from the professional bibliography provided, and were able to use information gained to enhance discussion during workshops.

6. Mentees observed, participated, initiated, researched, studied, consulted, acted, and preserved confidentiality, trust, and loyalty. The mentoring program was a serious professional commitment requiring time, and dedication.

The preceding chronology was implemented in order to initiate the formalized mentoring program model.
The figure pictured on the next page was a graphic representation of key elements of the formalized mentoring program model as gleaned from the literature reported in Chapter II, and as reported in the content analysis in Chapter III.
CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The health and vitality of our educational institutions was dependent upon a renewing supply of able leaders. Sample (1984) stated that the development of capable results-oriented school managers was a critical necessity. Institutionalizing effective methods and techniques for improving the performance of current and potential school managers was essential. The obvious question was how could a consistent supply of effective school administrators be trained to assume the role of school leadership? "There is no better method for quickly learning management skills, organizational politics, and the work environment than by having a seasoned executive develop a younger, less experienced employee" (Cook 1979 p. 83).

The importance of mentoring to career development became a major focus of attention in recent years. Companies were beginning to acknowledge the need for mentoring programs which prepared employees to move
into administrative positions. A mentoring system provided organizations with a practical method for effectively training and developing employees at varying career stages (Shapiro 1978).

Therefore this study was initiated in order to develop a formalized mentoring program model designed to facilitate the career development of aspiring administrators.

Statement Of The Problem

The purpose of this study was to develop a formalized mentoring program model designed to facilitate the career development of aspiring administrators. This study was concerned with answering the following research question: What formalized mentoring program model design was dictated by the theoretical and conceptual knowledge in the disciplines of human behavior, learning psychology, and management training?

Review Of The Literature

A review of the literature revealed that modern management theory placed an increasing emphasis upon the role of the manager as a developer of people (Knowles 1972). Popular as well as academic publications extolled the virtues of having a mentor,
and some authors suggested that an individual was disadvantaged and suffered slowed career growth or blockage unless he/she enjoyed the advantages of a mentoring relationship.

Sheehy (1974), Levinson (1978), Schein (1978), and others described qualities of the mentor that appeared to impact the social and career development of adults. Vaillant (1977) reported that mentoring played an important role in the life stages of the best and the brightest. Clawson asserted that "We need a relatively simple... conceptual approximation of mentors and mentor-protege relationships in particular that will permit widespread, practical use of the terms in career development and in management."

The term mentor, was borrowed from Greek Mythology, and was defined as a wise and trusted guide or teacher. The original mentor/mentee relationship was characterized by mutual commitment, respect, trust, and affection (Clawson 1980). In formalized mentoring programs, the definition of mentor was greatly expanded to include a continuum of roles. The literature suggested that all of these mentoring types of roles were the responsibility of management in developing potential leaders. The process of mentoring was harnessed effectively to benefit the
mentee, the institution, and the mentor. Enlightened organizations regarded the mentor as a valuable talent scout and trainer of potential leaders (Moore 1982).

Numerous research studies identified a range of mentoring roles or mentoring functions that enhanced career development (Levinson, 1978; Schein, 1978; Davis & Garrison, 1979; Kram, 1980). Kram (1985) synthesized these mentoring functions grouping them under two major categories: "Career Functions," and "Psychosocial functions." Kram contended that "Career functions serve... to aid advancement up the hierarchy of an organization. Psychosocial functions affect each individual on a personal level by building self-worth both inside and outside the organization. Together these functions enable individuals to address the challenges of each career stage."

Malcolm Knowles' (1979) theory of andragogy, or adult learning, stressed the importance of managers knowing how to teach. An examination of how adults learn, and the role that change plays in adult learning appeared to be elementary to planning effective staff development programs as reflected in the literature. Career mentoring was viewed as a unique classification of staff development.
The content, organization, and delivery of staff development programs took into account the differences that existed in adult learners. Models of staff development were analyzed, and common criteria among models were identified. The implications for application to mentoring programs were extensive.

The research team of Dalton, Thompson, and Price (1977) identified four sequential career stages that an individual passed through on his or her career path: apprentice, colleague, mentor, sponsor. The literature suggested that certain conditions and prerequisite contingencies were in place in order for the implementation of a formalized mentoring program to be successful (Phillips 1983, Kram 1983). Three fundamental conditions that existed in the organizational or corporate culture in order for effective mentoring to thrive were identified by Kram (1984):

1. Interactions among organizational members at various hierarchical levels.
2. Positive attitudes and feelings about mentoring itself.
3. Corporate culture that encouraged the building of mentoring relationships.

Specific training courses, and staff development
activities were planned and tailored to reinforce and nurture mentoring relationships within the organization.

Evidence reported in the literature suggested that formalized mentoring programs had been successful both in the public and private sectors. Formalized mentoring programs provided a more efficient vehicle than the luck of the draw for the linking of prospective mentors and mentees. Successful mentoring programs were implemented within agencies of the federal government, as well as within private sector companies. Formalized mentoring programs extended the benefits of mentoring to greater numbers of employees.

Kathy Kram (1987), acknowledged authority on the subject of mentoring, stated that a written model for a formalized mentoring program was needed, and would be of considerable value in implementing and finetuning mentoring programs. This review of the literature revealed no evidence of written models.

Procedures

This study utilized the developmental/descriptive research design methodology. Within the scope of this study the review of the literature investigated relevant concepts and principles from the various disciplines of learning theory, andragogy, motivation,
educational psychology, human growth and development, leadership, training, and staff development. Contributions from this literature were analyzed through a process of content analysis and then synthesized into a listing of imperatives for the subsequent formalized mentoring program model. The purpose of this approach was to harmonize those principles of training, laws of learning, and theories of motivation particularly relevant to adult learners in the mentoring program model.

Common elements or concepts relevant to the design of the formalized mentoring model including the disciplines of andragogy, learning theory, training, staff development, motivation, educational psychology, and human development were identified through the process of content analysis. Principles of training, laws of learning, and theories of motivation were examined in this context.

Findings

The findings of this study were focused upon the development of a formalized mentoring program model designed to facilitate the career development of aspiring administrators. The development of this model was the result of the content analysis of the
literature, and the synthesis of strategies discussed in the review of the literature. The content analysis identified four components that provided the foundation for the formalized mentoring program model.

The formalized mentoring program model consisted of key components that were found within the disciplines of andragogy, training/staff development, motivation, and educational psychology. Five elements were identified within the discipline of andragogy as essential ingredients of the formalized mentoring program model:

1. Self-directed learning
2. Accumulated experience
3. Readiness to learn
4. Problem-centered orientation
5. Educative environment

The best practices for staff development within the formalized mentoring program model were listed. Within the discipline of educational psychology, change was identified as the most important feature of the formalized mentoring program model. Four career stages identified by Dalton, Thompson, and Price (1977) were also incorporated. The humanistic approach to motivation was basic to the formalized mentoring program model.
The implementation chronology of the mentoring program model was outlined. A figure presented a graphic representation of key elements of the formalized mentoring program model.

Conclusions

This study utilized the developmental/descriptive research design methodology. This type of research was not intended to seek or explain relationships, test hypotheses, or make predictions. The purpose of this study was to develop a formalized mentoring program model designed to facilitate the career development of aspiring administrators. This study answered the following research question: What formalized mentoring program model design was dictated by the theoretical and conceptual knowledge in the disciplines of human behavior, learning psychology, and management training?

Private companies, as well as public organizations acknowledged the need for mentoring programs which prepared employees to move into administrative positions. Shapiro (1978) reported that mentoring systems provided organizations with a practical method for effectively training and developing employees at varying career stages.
The review of the literature and the subsequent content analysis revealed that the foundations of the formalized mentoring program were dependent upon particular elements within the disciplines of andragogy, staff development/training, educational psychology, and motivation. It was also necessary that the organizational culture provided a climate that supported the formalized mentoring program. The implementation chronology was an integral feature of the formalized mentoring program model.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are made to organizations regarding the career development of aspiring administrators.

1. Organizations should sponsor and support formalized mentoring programs as a regular component of their career development programs.

2. Organizations should encourage a climate or organizational culture that is humanistic in approach and attitude, as a prior condition to the implementation of a formalized mentoring program.

3. Organizations should utilize a formalized mentoring program model, and implementation chronology to initiate a formalized mentoring program.
Recommendations for Further Study

The following recommendations have emerged from the study:

1. An implementation study should be conducted to apply the formalized mentoring program model in a school district.

2. A validation study should be conducted to determine the impact of the formalized mentoring program model on large, medium, and small sized school districts.

3. A validation study should be conducted to determine the impact of the formalized mentoring program upon the career development of aspiring administrators.

4. A longitudinal study should be conducted to determine the impact of the formalized mentoring program model upon effectiveness of administrators.
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