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Adult Education Principles in a Teacher Mentoring Program: A Grounded Theory

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ADULT EDUCATION PRINCIPLES IN A TEACHER MENTORING

PROGRAM: A GROUNDED THEORY

by

Debra Jean Winans

A Dissertation
Submitted to the Graduate Studies Office
of The University of Southern Mississippi
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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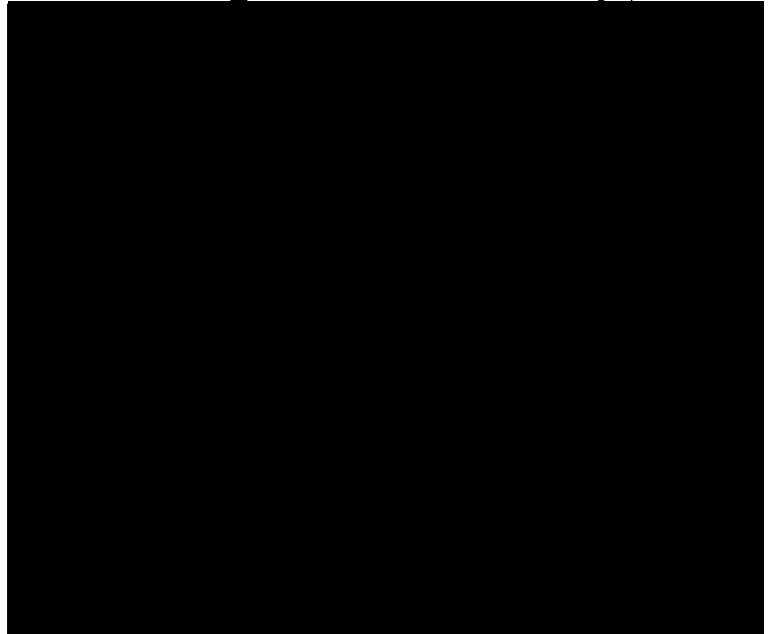
A GROUNDED THEORY

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ABSTRACT

ADULT EDUCATION PRINCIPLES IN A TEACHER MENTORING PROGRAM:

A GROUNDED THEORY

by Debra Jean Winans

May 2007

A qualitative study using grounded theory was conducted to determine the use of adult education principles in a school mentoring program. The study was conducted in a middle school in rural South Georgia during the 2006-2007 school year. Data were collected through face-to-face interviews with 25 participants: 11 protégés, nine mentors, and 5 mentor program coordinators. Insights into the dynamics of mentoring relationships and administration of the mentoring program were illustrated by stories of selected participants.

In this study, adult education principles were identified as (a) respect, (b) participation, (c) collaboration, (d) dialogue, (e) problem posing as a catalyst toward problem solving, (f) critical reflection, (g) self direction, (h) praxis or learning for action, and (i) empowerment.

By constantly sifting and sorting the data and looking at the program's data holistically, patterns and themes emerged. Patterns showed that volunteer status, level of training, and participants' readiness played an important role in the quality of mentoring relationships. Themes that emerged from the data included (a) communication and rapport between mentors and protégés, (b) readiness for the roles of mentors and protégés and (c) interrelation of rapport and readiness. Through the use of grounded theory methodology, it was

determined that the school's mentoring program was not conceptualized or administered as a form of adult education. Mentoring relationships within the school reflected no consistent awareness or use of adult education principles. Principles most likely to be used were respect, dialogue, collaboration, and participation. Least obvious were problem posing as a catalyst to problem solving, critical reflection, incorporation of previous experiences, self direction, praxis, and empowerment.

Recommendations were made for more conscientious pairing of mentors and protégés, improved participant readiness, and enhanced mentor training. Most importantly mentoring programs should be viewed as adult education and mentors should be willing and trained to accept this role. Further study was recommended regarding the concept of group or multiple mentors and the general use of adult education principles in workplace training.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

At the dawn of the twenty-first century, American education is under a
great deal of scrutiny. American schools and students are under-performing.
American citizens, the chief stakeholders in the educational system, are holding
educational leaders, politicians, and practitioners responsible for their
displeasure with the nation's schools' performance. Unfortunately teachers find
themselves at the heart of this educational turmoil, facing a daunting profession
that demands increasing accountability and results. Cochran-Smith summed up
the situation by saying that teachers are expected to "teach all students to world-
class standards, be the linchpins in educational reforms of all kinds, and produce
a well-qualified labor force to preserve the U.S. position in the global economy"
(2005, p. 3).

Borders (2004) emphasized that because student achievement is closely
tied to teacher quality, teacher quality has become a matter of grave concern
throughout the country. America's schools are faced with the issue of securing a
dedicated work force of educators who can stand up to the public's ever-
increasing inspection and demand for results (Ganser, 2002a). Wise maintains
that quality teachers are needed to lead America's youth into the twenty-first
century. He goes on to say that drastic improvements are needed that will enable
teachers to prepare America's youth for the future (1996). In recognition of this
dilemma, The No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) of 2001 mandated that states

work aggressively to ensure that all teachers are highly qualified (Aspey & Yudof, 2005).

The NCLB Act was devised with the intent of improving American schools by closing the gap in student achievement; the law's goal was to have every child performing on grade level by the 2013-2014 school year (Education Commission of the States, 2004). In a speech at Pepperdine University's Graduate School of Education commencement services, former Secretary of Education Rod Paige spoke of the NCLB Act as

> . . . a bold national goal, that no nation has ever accomplished, one that no nation has ever attempted – that is, to educate every single child so that no child is left behind. This is not just a slogan of pious sentimentality. It is a goal and an expectation that we can achieve. (Langan, 2003, ¶ 12)

Of course, any law directed at student achievement is also squarely aimed at teacher performance. It is evident that educators need support and training to meet the demanding requirements of today's classroom. The staff development system that has been the mainstay of education for decades has largely been a patchwork of workshops and conferences meant to keep teachers and personnel informed and skilled regarding the ever changing practices, laws, and theories of education. However, this system is strained to meet the needs of educational reform set forth by NCLB. Blank (2003, p. 2) reported, "NCLB sets the goal of all teachers in core academic subjects being highly qualified teachers by the 2005-06 school year." However, Barlow (1999) reported that only about 80% of public

school educators feel confident and adequately prepared to effectively perform their jobs. Giebelhaus and Bowman (2002) reported that the National Center for Education Statistics of 1999 showed that only about 20% of America's teaching force feels "very well trained" as educators (p. 246). Regarding teacher preparation, Wong (2004, p. 5) emphasized that "comprehensive, coherent professional development programs" are needed to produce and retain high quality teachers.

Concerns regarding teacher training must be addressed, because student achievement is surely jeopardized when teachers do not feel competent and adequately prepared. Going back to square one, educators need to ensure that sound models of adult education are being used to train our nation's teachers. If only 20% of the nation's teachers feel well prepared, then a hard look needs to be taken at how this group of adults is being educated, trained, and prepared for the awesome responsibility of teaching our youth.

<div align="center">Teaching Today</div>

The Question of Teacher Quality

Obviously teacher preparation and quality go hand-in-hand. Education Week (Teacher Quality, 2005) noted that pinpointing an exact definition of an effective teacher is virtually impossible and would vary depending on the circumstances of the learning situation. In lieu of assigning a numerical score or letter grade to represent the degree of a teacher's quality, teacher quality is generally based upon concrete concepts such as a teacher's level of education,

professional certification or licensure, and judgment of past performance (Lewis, Parsad, Carey, Bartfai, Farris, & Smerdon, 2001).

Because the term *highly qualified* is also so ambiguous, a definition of the term highly qualified has been developed for the various grade levels and areas of certification. The general definition of *highly qualified* as outlined by the NCLB Act is teachers who have, at minimum, a bachelor's degree, full state certification or licensure, and proof of competency in the subjects they teach (U. S. Department of Education, n.d.). According to Blank (2003), The Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) also pointed out that teachers in middle or high schools have the option of having a degree in the subject they teach or completing the equivalent course work. Furthermore, CCSSO concluded that it appeared unlikely that states would be able to fulfill the standard requiring all teachers to meet the NCLB definition of *highly qualified* by the 2005-06 school year. This conclusion was based on evidence that states were not able to meet the increased demands for teachers. Berry, Hopkins-Thompson, and Hoke (2002, p. 2) urged states to use the funding provided by the NCLB Act to address the dual issues of teacher quality and retention. They suggested that NCLB money be spent to ensure that all teachers who enter the classroom are prepared to teach today's diverse population of students and that teachers who join the ranks of the teaching force remain in the classroom once they do become highly qualified.

Teacher Concerns

The Teaching Commission (TTC) recognized that teachers in today's world are faced with providing a quality education to children with problems such as poverty, absent or ineffective parents, and a host of other social ills (2004). To shed light on challenging situations often faced by inexperienced educators, Ness (2001) explained the guilt felt by a struggling new teacher assigned to a crowded school in a low-income area and the teacher's realization that this situation is not uncommon throughout the nation. In light of the difficulties that many schools face, TTC made several recommendations aimed at creating a dedicated, talented workforce of educators: (a) improved pay for educators; (b) redesigned teacher education, certification, and licensure programs; and (c) empowered school site leadership that would enable administrators to make decisions that would benefit their particular school (2004).

America faces a struggle in the attempt to find and keep high-quality educators, especially in low-income areas. In fact, urban areas may suffer the most because as many as 50% of teachers in urban districts leave the profession during their first year ("Mentoring May Aid Teacher Retention," 2000). Zimmerman (2003) wrote of the challenges and struggles faced by a first year teacher assigned to an inner-city school. It took tenacity and the support of others to make that critical initial year successful. Darling-Hammond (2003) explained how low salaries, inadequate preparation from teacher education programs, and unpleasant working conditions are often causes for teacher attrition. For example, beginning teachers in Massachusetts reported frustration

at having little help or support in trying to navigate a new curriculum, design lessons, and develop their own materials. They felt they were left alone to re-invent the wheel (Kauffman, Johnson, Kardos, Liu, & Peske, 2002). Ruhland (2001) reported on a study of first-year secondary and technical education teachers who left the profession after their first year. They attributed their departures to job stress and an unpleasant first year as a teacher. Borders (2004) also reported that many veteran teachers feel that they are unjustly being held responsible for the woes of the American schools. Who is working on the recruitment and retention of highly qualified teachers?

Commenting on how difficult it has become to train new teachers who can survive in today's schools, Theodore Sizer, former dean of Harvard School of Education, compared it to training kamikaze pilots (Winter, 2005). The dilemma is how to prepare teachers to cope with all the realities of the modern classroom as they provide meaningful, effective instruction to students. Instead of using the kamikaze pilot approach, the profession needs to develop a realistic, comprehensive induction program that addresses the needs of teachers as adult learners.

Teacher Shortages

Due to the many obstacles teachers face, schools throughout the nation are finding it increasingly difficult not only to ensure that all teachers meet the new standards of highly qualified but to fill the growing number of vacant teaching positions. There simply are not enough classroom teachers to meet America's needs. Career Coach's Ben Wildavsky, education editor for U.S.

News, warned that educators face more accountability at a time when they also face poor pay and a lack of incentives to enter or remain in the teaching profession (Amburn & McCann, 2004). However, federal dollars were made available for states to use in providing incentives and initiatives in the quest to overcome the teacher shortage (U. S. Department of Education, 2001).

In a study conducted by the Peter Harris Research Group (2004) for *Recruiting New Teachers* (RTN), it was reported that the states are attempting to entice educators by offering incentives such as sign-on bonuses, merit pay, and loan forgiveness. Hirsch, Koppich, and Knapp (2001) also listed housing assistance and tuition reimbursement as additional incentives being offered to teachers. The question remains if these incentives will overcome the teacher stress and burn-out, low job status, and the difficulties of classroom management that drive talented educators away from the teaching profession. Without a doubt, America will need to fill many teaching vacancies in the first decade of the twenty-first century. According to *RNT's* study, it was projected that in the years beyond 2004, the nation will have to scramble to fill more than two million teaching positions. Hussar (1999) also forecasted the dire need for more teachers by saying that by the school year 2008-2009, there would be a need for two million teachers.

Since the move for reform and accountability that began in the 1970s, the complex dynamics of teachers' first years in the classroom have been of great interest to the field of education (Hulig-Austin, 1990). Overall the statistics on teacher attrition are alarming; however, this is especially true of new teachers.

Fideler and Haselkorn warned that the profession loses as many as 20% of new teachers during their first three years in the classroom. Furthermore, as many as 10% of teachers do not even complete the first year of teaching (1999). Ingersoll & Kralik (2004) reported that within the first five years of entering the profession, as many as half of the new teachers leave the profession. Many new teachers feel let-down and betrayed by veteran teachers who leave the novices to fend for themselves (Renard, 2003).

In addition to failing to retain many novice teachers, many veteran teachers who entered the profession as part of the baby boomer generation in the 1960s and 1970s have approached the age of retirement. This, along with the call for a reduced pupil-teacher ratio in the classroom and an ever-increasing student enrollment in most districts, results in a worrisome teacher shortage (Ganser, 2002c).

The Use of Adult Education Principles In Mentoring Programs

Because of the mandate for highly qualified teachers issued by the NCLB Act, a great scurry has ensued to attract, train, and retain qualified teachers. As a result, such a great number and variety of organizations are providing input and recommendations that laymen and educators alike are becoming muddled about the best way to address the issue of teacher quality (Evans, Stewart, Mangin, & Bagley, 2001). Former Secretary Paige urged America to have "the courage to acknowledge that quality of teachers is born in training, in experience, and wisdom, and not in bureaucratic ticket-punching" (Langan, 2003, ¶ 25). Consequently, mentor teachers are called upon to act as adult educators as they

train, provide experiences, and share wisdom with teachers entering the profession. However, are these mentor teachers adequately prepared as adult educators, and are worthwhile programs in place to ensure that mentors learn to function as adult educators?

As broadly defined by Knowles (1980, p.25), adult education is "a set of organized activities carried on by a wide variety of institutions for the accomplishment of specific educational objectives," and Rachal (as cited in Merriam & Brockett, 1997) described the workplace as "a major force in the changing nature of adult education" (p. 151).

Adult education is being utilized throughout the work world to help America compete in the global economy. Naturally, adult education plays a powerful part in preparing today's educators. Through staff development, induction processes, and mentoring programs, many adults are educated, trained, and prepared to enter America's classrooms. But because schools are so focused on the ways of pedagogy, are today's educators being supported as adult learners? In other words, are the principles of adult education being used to develop and retain the highly qualified teachers that America so desperately seeks? As emphasized by Secretary Paige, quality teachers will come from quality training and the wisdom that is gained from experience (Langan, 2003).

Darkenwald and Merriam (1982, p. 9) defined adult education as "…systematic and sustained learning activities for the purpose of bringing about changes in knowledge, attitudes, values, and skills." Clearly, the concepts of adult education could help to develop the caliber of educators required by NCLB.

Teacher mentoring is an example of an adult providing true-to-life work experience and support to another adult. Certainly Secretary Paige's beliefs fit in beautifully with the concepts of adult education and the idea of using the wisdom and experience of mentor teachers to guide and train those new to the teaching profession or those struggling within the profession.

Because it is imperative that American schools attract and retain teachers that meet the standards of high quality as outlined in the NCLB Act, the nation must address a multi-faceted problem. The first dilemma is how to attract talented individuals into the classroom. The second part of the problem is how to train this group of adults so that they develop into capable, confident teachers. Then there is the challenge of providing continued support to teachers once they have entered the profession. The matter of teacher training and support is simply a question of effective adult education. Through training based on principals of adult education, America can develop a solid, well-prepared teaching force.

Millinger (2004) found that many new teachers could not cope with the overwhelming responsibilities and duties of being a new teacher. Unfortunately, the new teachers felt they had nobody to turn to for support and assistance during their critical first year of teaching. For example, Turner (2004) reported that North Carolina is losing teachers at an extremely alarming pace due to stress associated with being new to the field, unpleasant work environment, low morale and job satisfaction, and daily challenges of being in the classroom. According to Angelle (2002), novice teachers are expected to teach the same

number of classes and students, fulfill the same school duties, and supervise the same number of extracurricular activities as veteran teachers. Beyond this, many new teachers spend hours each week in staff development courses designed for beginning teachers. Boreen and Niday (2000) explained that new teachers enter the classroom full of idealism and energy, but far too many soon abandon the field as they become overwhelmed by feelings of despair and discouragement.

According to the American Federation of Teachers (AFT, 2001) new teachers need a supportive way to ease into transitional years from being a student to becoming a teacher. During this time of transition, new teachers should be gradually inducted into the profession rather than thrown in to make their own way. AFT also believes that formal induction programs can increase teacher retention rates and improve teacher quality. During induction, teaching loads should be reduced for novices, mentors should be trained to support and guide the novices into the field, and novices should receive summative evaluations upon completion of the induction program. Unfortunately, despite the problem with teacher attrition and concerns over teacher quality, very few states follow these recommendations. Based upon AFT recommendations, adult education could be used to train the mentors in their roles. Furthermore, concepts of adult education could be utilized to help novices as they transition from pedagogical roles as students to autonomous roles as educators.

Regarding the transition from student to teacher, Giebelhaus and Bowman found that the literature on teacher mentoring addressed the needs and concerns

of first year teachers, but noticeably missing was research on how preservice teachers were mentored as they prepared to enter the field. Preservice teachers may feel even more alone since they are not formal employees of the school district and may not form social ties as easily since they are seen as just temporarily passing through as they perform their internship (2002). Losing preservice teachers only adds to the teacher shortage problem.

Purpose of the Study

It is clear that America needs to find and keep good teachers. In light of the NCLB Act, districts are now responsible for ensuring that all students are taught by a highly qualified teacher. If the profession fails to attract new teachers while practicing teachers continue to abandon the profession or retire, districts will be hard-pressed to meet the standards set by the NCLB Act.

Hulig-Austin (as cited in Gratch, 1998) discussed the need for induction programs with strong mentoring components. In fact, Guyton, Vandershee, and Collier (n.d.) reported that Arends and Rigazio-DiGilio's meta-analysis and Serpell's literature review concluded that mentoring is a crucial component of effective induction programs. Because mentoring is so important, it is necessary to examine the actual adult-to-adult learning relationship. The purpose of this study will be to determine the awareness and use of adult educations principles and practices within the formal mentoring programs of public schools.

Research Questions

1. How are teachers prepared or trained to serve as mentors of adults?
2. What are the strengths and weaknesses of the mentoring relationship

as perceived by mentors and protégés?

3. In what ways does mentoring affect the mentors, the protégés, and the students?

4. Beyond the support they may offer each other, what other support do mentors and protégés receive?

Definitions of Terms

The terms used in this study are defined as follows:

1. Adult education: "...process whereby persons whose major social roles are characteristic of adult status undertake systematic and sustained learning activities for the purpose of bringing about changes in knowledge, attitudes, values, or life skills" (Darkenwald & Merriam, 1982, p.9).

2. Andragogy: an ideal of adult learning that respects and accommodates the learner's past experiences and present needs as the adult is encouraged and empowered to become an autonomous learner.

3. Beginning teacher: student teacher or teacher in the first three years of teaching (Boreen, Johnson, Niday, & Potts, 2000). This term is synonymous with the terms *new teacher* and *novice teacher.*

4. Experienced teacher: "A teacher with at least 3 years of teaching experience" (Troutman, 2002, p.12). This term is synonymous with the term *veteran teacher.*

5. Grounded theory: "A research methodology that is characterized by inductive fieldwork and the goal of having theory emerge from the data" (Merriam & Simpson, 2000, p.227).

6. Highly qualified teacher: teacher with: 1) a bachelor's or advanced degree, 2) full state certification or licensure , and 3) proven capabilities in subject area taught (United States Department of Education, n.d.).

7. Induction: systematic program of professional development in which the beginning teacher acquires the professional and personal skills needed as an educator (Bishop, 1997).

8. Mentor: an experienced teacher who works to nurture and facilitate professional and personal growth of beginning teachers or peers.

9. Mentoring: the act of guiding, supporting, challenging, and motivating one who is less experienced.

10. Protégé: a teacher with less than three years of teaching experience or an experienced teacher who requires support and guidance (Troutman, 2002). The term is synonymous with the term *mentee*.

11. Student teacher: Student who is currently enrolled in college courses and is in the process of fulfilling college requirements of internship in preparation to become a certified teacher. The term is synonymous with the term *preservice teacher*.

12. Teacher Support Specialist (TSS): "A mentor, who by Georgia definition, has a minimum of three years teaching experience and who has completed the training to receive the TSS endorsement on his or her teaching or service certificate" (Bishop, 1997, p.9).

Delimitations

Delimitations for the study include the following:

1. The study will only pertain to adult mentors and proteges in K-12 public education school systems.

2. Only mentors and proteges from South Georgia will be interviewed.

3. Only mentors and protégés recognized as such by the school district and individual principals will be included in the study.

Limitations

1. Information from protégés may be influenced by the fact that they are dependent upon mentors and other school personnel for grades in college coursework, career assistance, and future recommendations.

2. Mentoring may have long-term effects that protégés have not yet experienced or realized at the time of the interview.

3. The researcher's experiences as a teacher, protégé, and mentor may affect her perspective and perceptions.

Assumptions

The following assumptions will be made in the formulation of the study:

1. Mentors and protégés can correctly recall mentoring experiences.

2. Mentors and protégés will respond openly and honestly about their experience and perspectives regarding mentoring.

Justification

Because it is imperative that the United States remedies the crisis regarding the education system and the inherent problems of teacher shortages

and teacher quality, research is needed upon which sound decisions can be based. The first link a child has to the public education system is the classroom teacher. It is crucial that America creates a solid, stable population of teachers for generations to come. It is vital that research be conducted that provides insight into factors that affect teacher retention, attrition, and quality. Roehrig, Pressley, and Talotta emphasized that new teachers' problems and concerns must be fully understood before solutions can be found (2002, p. ix).

Without teachers of commitment and high quality, the education of America's youth is compromised. In fact, The Teaching Commission (TTC), an organization comprised of government, business, and education leaders, goes so far as to say that the nation's very stability is jeopardized unless America is able to establish and maintain a strong teaching force. In fact, TTC suggests that a complete overhaul be conducted to redesign teacher education programs, the certification process, and teacher induction programs (2004).

Teachers who left the classroom because they were dissatisfied with the profession (as opposed to those who left due to retirement, health, or other reasons) blamed low salaries, little or no administrative support, student apathy, and a lack of teacher empowerment in the educational system (Ingersoll, 2002). Surely, steps need to be taken to support these teachers and make it worth their while to educate America's youth. Grover Whitehurst, Assistant Secretary of Education, acknowledged the necessity of a strong, talented teaching force in fulfilling the aspirations of NCLB. Yet, he also pointed out that there is not enough solid research to guide policy-makers and educators on what constitutes

the best way to train and support teachers in their efforts to raise student achievement. Not only do new teachers need to be trained, but veteran teachers need up-to-date, high-quality staff development to keep abreast of the changes and to ensure that the needs of every student are met (Langan, 2002). Wise (1996) has advocated that the entire system that oversees the quality of America's educators be re-vamped to create a less cumbersome, more effective continuum that begins with preservice and continues throughout a teacher's entire career. This would encompass accreditation of schools of education, initial licensing requirements, and continued professional development throughout a teacher's career.

Research shows that mentoring as part of an induction program plays a role in both the retention of teachers and the quality of teacher performance (Angelle, 2002; Anzul, 2000; Ganser, 2002a; Johnson & Kardos, 2002; Wright & Wright, 1987). According to Jones and Pauley (2003, p. 23), "Congress found that teachers without a mentoring program leave the profession at a rate nearly 70% higher than those who participated in mentoring programs."

Clearly, the relationship between the experienced mentor teacher and the novice teacher is an important factor in the development and retention of new teachers. Cohen (2003, p. 4) explained, "Academic and workplace mentoring can be considered as a one-to-one relationship in which mentors are similar to adult educators and mentees to adult learners." Along the same vein, Stalker described the mentoring relationship as "a unique adult learner/adult teacher

connection which has positive implications for the learner and teacher" (1992, p.1). Daloz envisioned the mentoring process as a journey towards autonomy as a wise benefactor leads a less experienced traveler. The mentoring relationship is based upon the mentor thoughtfully guiding the protégé through the starts and stops of change and development that will lead to a difference in the way the protégé thinks (1986, p. 22). Because the dynamics of mentoring are an adult learning situation and because the mentoring relationship is so important in the support of new teachers, this study will question how schools are utilizing concepts of adult education within teacher mentoring programs.

Cochran-Smith of the American Educational Research Association identified teacher recruitment, preparation, and retention as one of "hottest topics" of public education (2005). In her dissertation, Bishop (1997) recommended that a qualitative study be conducted to examine issues related to the selection and assignment of mentors. Furthermore, Ingersoll and Kralik (2004) point out that surveys or questionnaires used in quantitative research regarding mentoring often allow only limited responses; thus, they provide limited insight in to the *why* or *how* aspects of mentoring. Additionally, Evertson and Smithey (2000) reported that further research is needed because it is vital to determine what mentors know to ensure that they are well trained, skilled, and capable of fulfilling such a crucial role.

According to Feiman-Nemser, although mentoring is wholeheartedly accepted, the actual practices and results remain to be thoroughly scrutinized (as cited in Wong, 2001). Along the same vein, Ingersoll and Kralik (2004)

recommended that research on mentoring revealed that "there is enough promise to warrant significant further investigation" (p. 15). Feiman-Nemser (1996) also reported that although the concept of mentoring is seen as beneficial to teacher retention, questions still abound about the *what* and *how* of mentoring practices and what is actually learned by the protégés. The lack of empirical research regarding academic mentoring of adults was also reported by Stalker (1992). However, Marshak and Klotz reported that mentoring in itself is not enough; it must exist as part of a more comprehensive program designed to smoothly transition new teachers into the profession. They contend that induction programs need to be studied and analyzed in order to evaluate their effectiveness (2002). In light of the need for further research into practices that may aid in teacher retention, the U.S. Department of Education has plans to sponsor a large-scale research project slated to be completed by 2008. The study will compare traditional induction programs against more comprehensive induction programs that will include mentoring for new teachers (Wayne, Youngs, & Fleischman, 2005).

The teaching profession has been said to be a profession that leaves teachers feeling isolated, too intimidated to frankly discuss their concerns or doubts, and unwilling to honestly critique another's performance (Gratch, 1998). If this is the case, then surely a qualitative study is warranted that will question how concepts of adult education are used in mentoring programs that are designed to assuage America's need to develop and retain highly qualified teachers.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RESEARCH AND RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

A preliminary literature review in grounded theory research is quite different than the literature review in quantitative research. In grounded theory research, the purpose of a preliminary literature review is to "justify the need for the study, develop sensitising concepts, and provide a background for the study" (McCann & Clark, 2003, p. 15). Glaser and Strauss (as cited in Taylor & Bogdan, 1984, p. 135) proposed that "qualitative researchers begin their studies with minimal commitment to a priori assumptions and theory." The literature review that follows is meant to "set the scene" by providing a detailed explanation of the circumstances of teachers today and the ways in which mentoring is meant to impact these circumstances.

Lewis (1995, p. 4) observed that mentoring is usually discussed within adult education literature in the context of higher education. However, the purpose of this chapter is to review the literature regarding mentoring that occurs during teacher induction and to explore both the pedagogical and andragogical aspects of this mentoring experience. The research is presented with emphasis on the effects that mentoring has on teacher retention, attitude, and performance. The literature review is divided into four sections.

Because it is important to know what issues are playing a part in teacher attrition and quality, the first section focuses on the needs and concerns of teachers. The challenges that face all teachers are discussed, but special

emphasis is placed on new teachers. If mentoring is to be offered as a way to assist a profession in trouble, then a clear understanding of the problem must first be established.

The second section discusses quality induction and mentoring programs as a way to assist and support teachers as they transition through the pedagogy of being a student toward the autonomy of becoming a self-directed learner and teacher. Next, the third section discusses the role and responsibilities of mentors. This is followed by a fourth section that explores adult learning theory and how mentoring relates to adult education. Finally, the fifth section concludes the literature review with a discussion of how this study seeks to develop grounded theory regarding the use of adult education concepts within school mentoring programs.

<div align="center">New Teacher Concerns and Attrition</div>

There is a constant flow of new teachers in and out of school districts across the nation. O'Brien reported that the U. S. Department of Education estimates that well over half of new teachers leave the profession within five to six years after they first enter the profession (2003). Halford (1998, p. 33) proclaimed education as "the only profession that eats its young." Because of the alarmingly high rates of attrition among beginning teachers, a close look at the needs and concerns of new teachers is warranted. Hoerr (2005, p.8) echoed the lament of many new teachers, "I gave those students my best, but it wasn't enough." What teachers experience in their first year in the classroom is the greatest factor affecting teacher retention (Chapman & Green, 1986). Similarly,

Gratch (1998) explained that a teacher's first year in the classroom impacts the remainder of the teacher's career and that being assigned an experienced mentor can be a powerful tool in grooming new teachers.

Furthermore, Boston Public Schools found that teachers who felt ill-prepared or unsupported by a school that did not respond to their needs were the teachers most likely to leave a district (Education Week, 2004). Wong and Asquith (2002) warned that each teacher who leaves a school district within three years of being hired costs that district more than $50,000 in reduced productivity and lost expenses related to recruitment, personnel and administrative services. Furthermore, Boser (as cited in McCarthy & Guiney, 2004) has stated that it is the brightest teachers who are abandoning the profession; those who ranked the highest on college entrance exams were most likely to leave the field. In addition to losing some of the most academically gifted, the profession that once was considered a traditional career path for females may no longer be able to count on females as a source of manpower. Morey, Bezuk, and Chiero (1997) cautioned that the teaching profession may suffer as females shun traditional careers that offer limited growth opportunities, inadequate wages, adverse working conditions, and a lack of prestige.

From Know, a publication of the Georgia Association of Educators (GAE), statistics showed that 8,303 Georgia educators left the profession in 2001. However, only 1,786 of these left due to retirement. In the same publication, Lucinda Chance, Dean of the College of Education at Georgia Southern University, went on to explain that adequate numbers of teachers were being

produced, but these new teachers were not remaining in the profession (New standards by the PSC, 2004). North Carolina is an example of a state faced with a severe teacher shortage. Based on a report from the North Carolina Center for Public Policy Research, about 10,000 new teachers will be needed annually until the end of the 2009-2010 school year (Manzo, 2004). In an article in The Corpus Christi Caller, Wolfson (2004) reported that a Dallas, Texas school district experienced a 94% turnover rate for teachers within three years. Wolfson further noted that Texas's Education Committee suggested enhancement of existing mentoring programs, recruitment of more experienced personnel, and an increase in teacher pay in order to prevent such disastrous losses in the future.

In a survey conducted by Recruiting New Teachers (RNT), school administrators cited new teachers' lack of instructional and classroom management skills as a chief concern regarding newly hired teachers. The administrators acknowledged the stresses facing novice teachers and added that new teachers need to be trained to deal with the adverse circumstances they often face. The administrators went on to say that these problems and the accompanying high stress could be avoided through improved teacher preparation that include more effective mentoring and induction programs (2004). Slaybaugh, Evans, and Byrd had earlier posited that teacher preparation and induction programs needed to be enhanced (1998-1999). Stuart, speaking as an administrator in a Cambridge, Massachusetts school and as a commissioner on the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future, gave warning that the task of finding, preparing, and keeping good teachers has become a serious

issue. She added that a network of experienced personnel from every echelon of education must work to provide ongoing support and guidance to new teachers (2002). Slaybaugh, Evans, and Byrd cited lack of support as one of the major reasons new teachers abandon the profession. They also report a lack of mentoring as one of the reasons new teachers simply give up on teaching (1995-1996). Hunt (as cited in Bishop, 1997) reported that education is the least conscientious profession regarding the orientation of its new members. Ganser (1999) reminded educators that mentors were not the only ones who should be responsible for supporting new teachers; administrators, department heads, curriculum directors, and peers should be available and willing to assist novices.

To further complicate a new teacher's dilemma is the fact that novices are often dealt a difficult hand during their initial years. Glickman, Gordon, and Ross-Gordon found that new teachers were often saddled with the least desirable teaching assignments and the most difficult duties (1998). According to Patterson, new teachers go through a form of educational hazing. They are commonly given the most challenging classes, the least resources, and countless extracurricular duties. However, the inadequate pay, the rigorous hours, or the tough duties are not what drive the teachers from the classrooms. Instead, it is the feelings of hopelessness that spikes the attrition rates. New teachers often do not envision their careers as becoming satisfying nor successful so they leave the profession (2005). Echoing this phenomenon, Johnson reported that veteran teachers are often given preferential teaching assignments and duties. This leaves new teachers with less desirable classes

and duties. To add insult to injury, new teachers can often expect little support or feedback from administrators; this is one of the major reasons cited for new teacher attrition (2001). Van Zant, Razska, and Kutzner discussed how teachers with as little as one semester of student teaching are often left alone with little supervision or support. Although they are left to their own devices, they are expected to perform as well a seasoned veteran and are evaluated by the same standards as their experienced colleagues (2001).

In a live online chat sponsored by Education Week, Sara Rogers of the Urban Teacher Academy of Broward County, Florida explained a new program that was developed as a proactive effort against the county's severe teacher shortage. Broward County started the program to cultivate its own pool of potential teachers from promising high school students. The students are groomed by receiving four years of teaching instruction, assistance with college tuition, and a guarantee of a teaching position once they earn their degree and teaching certificate. Surprisingly the program does not have a mentoring component as an essential element; mentoring does not appear to be a key part of the support offered to the potential teachers. However, the program does offer mentoring as an option that teachers may choose to perform as a way to meet the requirements to earn the stipend associated with the program (Education Week, July 13, 2005).

In the same vein, Neu (2000) pointed out that in the midst of a severe teacher shortage there are many teachers with emergency credentials. These teachers may not have completed the traditional period of student teaching and

may lack practical knowledge on how to manage a classroom. They may also lack the basic pedagogical skills needed to prepare, present, and assess quality lessons. These factors and the lack of a supportive mentor scare the newcomers away from the profession. In fact, Neu went on to report that as many as 40% of teachers with emergency credentials leave the profession within the first five years of service (p. 38).

Teachers say they leave the profession mainly because of unsupportive and adverse working conditions (Alliance for Excellent Education, 2005). According to Millinger, those new to the field of education often feel alone and abandoned. With nobody to turn to for help, they become overwhelmed and soon join the ranks of those who give up and quit (2004). Certo and Fox brought to light many teachers' reasons for abandoning the profession. They cited disappointment in the way teachers are regarded as one of the major reasons teachers leave. The lack of respect offered to the profession, too few resources, responsibility for too many students, the inability to meet each child's needs, and a lack of autonomy were among the explanations offered for attrition (2002). Of course, the issue of low wages plays a role in the difficulty of attracting and retaining quality educators. Trotter (2005) reported that when inflation was taken into account, teacher pay only increased by 2.9% from the school years 1993-1994 to 2003-2004. However, Guyton and Hidalgo (1995) proposed that with the help of a supportive mentor, new teachers could more easily learn to overcome the many negative aspects and challenges of the profession.

Ligon (as cited in Henley, 1995) discussed the problems new teachers in Illinois faced. Their concerns included inadequate wages, a lack of supplies and equipment, and being expected to teach too many classes. In fact, some first-year teachers were burdened with planning as many as 900 lessons during their first year on the job. These are the types of factors that build stress and destroy morale.

According to Education Week's *Quality Counts 2004: Count Me In* (as cited in Alliance for Excellent Education, 2004), more than 30 states have induction programs for new teachers, but only 15 states actually *require* and *fund* induction programs for new teachers. Moreover, Morey, Bezuk, and Chiero observed that teacher preparation programs are inadequate and do not prepare teachers to manage what faces them in modern classrooms. Teachers are not given a smooth transition into the profession (1997). To remedy such problems, Bullough and Baughman have suggested that the length of induction programs should be extended. Traditional programs generally range from one to three years; Bullough and Baughman contend that induction should range from five to seven years (1997). Mohr and Townsend discussed induction and new teachers' tendencies to operate in a survival mode as they discovered what had been taught in teacher preparation programs did not work in actual practice (2001). School districts throughout the nation are realizing that the old ways of doing things are no longer working, and as a result schools are now reconsidering the ways in which new teachers are inducted into the profession.

Hope reminded school administrators that time needs to be taken to allow

newcomers to the profession to become successful. Administrators must be proactive in initiating supportive contact, enabling positive mentoring conditions, and creating favorable circumstances so that new teachers will not feel alone and neglected (1999). Kern's study of induction practices showed that enhanced professional development; improved communication among administrators, teachers, and staff; and synchronizing the induction program's components were seen as ways to retain quality teachers. Most importantly, the induction program needed to be tailored to fit the needs of the individual teachers (2004). Veenman (1984) alluded to the same idea by saying that the concerns of each new teacher are unique to that particular teacher's needs, personality, and circumstance. Differentiated induction is vital. As Scherer pointed out, America's new teaching force is comprised of people from various backgrounds and stages of life. New teachers may be recent graduates, or middle-aged people looking for a career change, or veteran educators changing subject areas or grade levels (2005).

Newly hired personnel bring into a school district unique life experiences, educational backgrounds, and induction needs. The results of surveys given to teachers and administrators in North Carolina and South Carolina in 2004 by the Southeastern Center for Teaching Quality Teacher showed that teacher retention and satisfaction are closely related. More importantly, both issues are closely linked to student performance. Furthermore, teachers' opportunities for staff development and feelings about working conditions are closely tied to student performance (Jacobson, 2005b).

Poor working conditions can hinder even the best teacher's ability to perform well, and when asked what they needed to perform their job satisfactorily, teachers listed many conditions:

1. Adequate time to plan, teach, and complete necessary paperwork

2. Time for staff development

3. Positive working environment

4. Trust and support of administration

5. Ability to be flexible and autonomous in classroom

6. Updated buildings

7. More visible, accessible administration and central office personnel (Jacobson, 2005b).

Teacher stress is a reality of the profession, and new teachers may not have the coping skills needed to withstand such stress. Lingon (1998, p. 50) suggested four ways in which stress could be reduced for new teachers:

1. Provide new teachers with adequate resources.

2. Assign new teachers to classes that are less challenging.

3. Allow new and veteran teachers to work together on extra duties.

4. Ensure a supportive mentor is available.

Along the same vein, Renard suggested that new teachers should be excused from some of the everyday activities that take a toll on teachers' time and energy. These include routine and extracurricular duties, staff development obligations, and faculty committees. Time could be more wisely used as novices watched veteran teachers model lessons and as veteran teachers observed novices

present lessons. The feedback and reflections that could be shared would be invaluable growing experiences for both (2003).

Induction and Mentoring

It is clear that teachers new to the profession, to a district, or to a school will need a way to make a smooth transition into their new roles. The principal purpose of induction and mentoring programs is to provide a smooth transition as the new teacher moves from the pedagogy associated with coursework toward the role of autonomous teacher. Steffy and Wolfe (1997) explained that with support and guidance, teachers will progress through a six-phase career cycle that moves from novice to emeritus. Growth is based upon reflection and renewal throughout the learning process.

According to Drafall and Grant (1994), a mentor can help as the university student leaves college life behind and enters the professional world. Wong, Britton, and Ganser explained that induction programs are employed universally within the field of education as a means to initiate newcomers to the concept of lifelong learning. They added that induction programs should be well organized, cover a wide scope of staff development topics, and include a mentoring component (2005, p. 379-380). Ganser (2002b, p. 6) suggests that mentoring is "the most visible form of support for new teachers today." The National Education Association Foundation for the Improvement of Education (NFIE) purported that mentoring offers clear advantages to school districts. Mentoring can be a used as a recruitment tool, it can help improve retention rates, and it can improve the skills of novice and veteran teachers (1999, p. 2).

Young and Wright (2001) went even further when they said that the fields of industry and education should both employ mentoring as a means to ensure the success of newly hired personnel.

However, despite the high expectations and demands placed upon induction and mentoring programs, Smith and Ingersoll analyzed the data collected from over 50,000 public and private school teachers from the 1999-2000 Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS). They found that over 80% of the respondents had participated in an induction program, more than 65% had access to a mentor, and yet 15% of the new teachers changed schools while 14% of the new teachers left the profession altogether (2004).

How, then, can educators make an induction program effective? Wong (2004) stated that keeping quality teachers is dependent upon an ongoing, comprehensive induction program. This includes time to visit other teachers' classrooms in order to observe and later reflect upon and discuss their observations.

According to McCarthy and Guiney, in 2002 the Boston Public Schools (BPS) closely scrutinized its induction methods. The study found that teacher retention was closely linked to the level of support that teachers felt were offered to them. New teachers were not being provided a supportive, comprehensive induction to the system or profession. Novices reported that they needed mentors who were housed within the same school as they were and who taught the same subject and grade level as they did. Additionally they needed more input from experienced educators. The new teachers wanted to be observed by

mentors and needed to receive meaningful criticism and advice. As a result of the study, BPS devised several strategies to improve teacher support and retention. These included an improved mentoring program, school-based support for new teachers, increased assistance to new teachers regarding student behavioral issues, and community support for new teachers (2004).

The need for support for new teachers is being acknowledged throughout the nation. Odell stated that the overall purpose of mentoring programs is to improve teacher performance which will ultimately improve student performance. Odell went on to add that mentoring programs are a strategy designed to have long-term effects; the goal is to develop a capable, dedicated teaching force (1992).

Williams and Bowman (2000) reported that interest in mentoring grew from education's need to reshape itself and to attract and retain quality educators. School districts throughout the nation have begun to realize that without support and assistance new teachers will not stay and that retention issues do affect teacher quality. According to Kiger, one Kansas district developed an Alliance for Educational Excellence in order to retain quality teachers. Six days of seminars were held to assimilate teachers into the district. Mentors received training and were then matched with protégés of the same grade level or subject matter. More importantly, the stigma associated with being new and asking for help was removed. Protégés were encouraged and enabled to seek assistance with anything they needed. In an effort to encourage newcomers to become self-directed, lifelong learners, the protégés could receive

graduate credit for research topics related to their classroom (2002).

In a similar effort to attract and retain teachers, Philadelphia schools restructured their application process and induction program. They organized an aggressive media campaign, created a less cumbersome application process, gave new teachers sign-on bonuses, and offered money to teachers who were able to recruit other candidates. New teachers attended orientation during the summer in addition to follow-up training throughout the school year. Curriculum was revamped so newcomers more easily navigated it, facilities were updated, the number of pupils in earlier grades was reduced, and teachers received more support on discipline issues. Beyond these efforts, 61 mentors were released from regular duties so they could be available to assist new teachers. The Philadephia schools improved working and learning conditions and increased teachers' and students' chances for success while aggressively seeking to improve teacher retention rates (Useem & Neild, 2005).

Similarly, Michigan schools are required to pair new teachers with a mentor. However, Trimer-Hartley of the Michigan Education Association criticized Michigan's mandatory mentoring program by saying that mentors do not have the time to act as true mentors to the protégés entrusted to them (Higgins, 2005). Likewise, Indiana's Mentoring and Assessment Program was a required two-year induction program for new teachers; the purpose of the program was to develop and retain quality teachers. Although more than 800 teachers were participating in the program in 2005, funding for the mentoring portion of the program was eliminated (Kraly, 2005).

States have taken steps to incorporate mentoring into their induction programs. In 2004, Governor Warner of Virginia took part in a seminar that focused on ways to maintain a quality teaching force at schools of low academic achievement. Mentoring was the most prominent strategy advocated in developing and retaining high quality teachers in challenging schools (Hoff, 2004). Likewise, Kentucky has made it mandatory for all new teachers to receive the support and assistance of a mentor as part of the induction process. This is the key part of Kentucky's effort to improve retention rates and ensure teacher quality (Brennan, Thames, & Roberts, 1999). New York was faced with as many as 20% of its new teachers leaving within their first 14 months on the job. In an effort to improve the retention rate of new teachers, New York spent $35,000,000 to provide each new teacher with a mentor. The state provided training to 300 mentors who were each responsible for approximately 17 new teachers. The program allowed mentors to be released from regular duties and to receive their normal salaries (Williams, 2004). In 2005, Georgia Governor Sonny Perdue announced that Georgia will recognize master teachers and will use these veteran teachers to mentor and coach other teachers in an effort to improve the quality of Georgia's teachers (State of Georgia, 2005). As reported in *Education Week* (Jacobson, 2005a), Georgia's Superintendent of State Schools, Kathy Cox, implemented the new program in which accomplished master teachers are used to train fellow teachers. Cox said, "Sometimes, the best training for teachers is one classroom over" (p. 29).

Along the same vein, schools in Lowell, Massachusetts received a $1.5 million grant aimed at supporting, training, and retaining teachers new to the system. A major aspect of the program is a mentoring component that requires that all new teachers to be under the guidance of a mentor for their first three years. For their services, mentors will receive a stipend of $3,400 annually. Although there are great costs associated with the program, the ultimate goal is to improve teacher quality and improve student performance (Piro, 2005).

According to a report from Utah State University, Utah is also feeling the pinch of having too few teachers to man the classrooms due to increased enrollment and the growing rate of teacher attrition. Utah forecasts the need for more than 44,000 new teachers in the next ten years. The state also estimates that as many as 13,000 licensed teachers in Utah chose not to return to the classroom. In order to improve teacher retention rates, Representative Menlove has proposed a $4.2 million program that would provide mentoring and support for new teachers. Other proposed measured aimed at attracting and retaining teachers include enhanced salaries, incentive money for math and science teachers, reduced class sizes for early grades, merit pay for teachers in Title 1 schools, and sign-on bonuses (Baker, 2006).

On the other hand, Illinois devised a mentoring program that will not strain school budgets and will allow new teachers to seek help outside the normal administrative loop. Their program uses retired teachers as mentors. The Illinois Education Association, a state affiliate of the National Education Association, paired retired teachers with new teachers so that novice educators could freely

seek advice and share concerns with veteran teachers without the intrusion or judgment of a university supervisor or administrator (Nordby, 2001).

Beyond the United States, other countries are facing similar problems regarding teacher quality and retention. Rippon and Martin reported that schools in Scotland revamped their outdated induction programs. Their old programs had been in place for over 40 years and were no longer considered effective. They were replaced with programs that featured a mentoring component that allowed mentors routine release from duty in order to observe protégés. From these observations, mentors were able to provide input and support to guide and assist the protégés. Protégés were also released from regular duties throughout the week so that they could work on professional development issues (2003). In a similar effort, New Zealand protégés are granted release time from their regular duties each week as part of their induction program. The purpose of release time is to allow protégés to work on staff development issues (Clement, 2000).

According to Johnson and Kardos, new teachers want someone who is easily accessible and can respond to their unique situation and immediate needs. They want someone to guide them through the day-to-day challenges by observing them as they teach, by modeling lessons for them, and by providing input to them about their performance. The ability to plan appropriate lessons, create meaningful activities, and understand the complexities of working with children is an acquired wisdom that requires the expert guidance of a veteran educator (2002). New teachers need a mentor to help them through the first few years as they are inducted into the role of educator. The National Commission

on Teaching and America's Future (NCTAF) has recommended that teacher preparation programs be redesigned to enable all teachers to reach the status of highly qualified. In an effort to enhance teacher quality, NCTAF has suggested that all novice teachers be mentored by experienced educators (NCTAF, 1996).

While a plethora of research exists about the many aspects of teacher induction and mentoring, there are relatively few empirical studies that provide insight into the complex mentoring phenomenon. Interestingly, many of the empirical studies related to mentoring are dissertations written by doctoral candidates. Furthermore, Feiman-Nemser (1996) lamented the lack of empirical evidence needed to support the ideals of mentoring. She called for more direct studies of mentoring's effect on the teaching profession.

Existing empirical studies on teacher mentoring often point toward the inconsistencies related to the concept and practices of mentoring. This is due to the variety found in programs' settings, purposes, and implementation. At times, the mentoring concept is unclear to those involved in the process. Dunne and Bennett (1997) reported that although mentoring is viewed as important, participants often do not understand or are not prepared for their role in the process.

Role and Responsibilities of Mentors

If mentoring is to be considered a keystone of effective induction programs, then what traits define an effective mentor, how are mentors selected, and exactly what do mentors do? According to Daloz (1986; 1999), the crux of any mentoring program is the relationships that form between mentors and protégés.

To illustrate the dynamics of mentoring relationships in which he acted as mentor to adult learners, Daloz used engaging vignettes. The portrayal of each unique mentoring relationship was described as a metaphorical journey traveled by the protégé on the way to some type of change or transformation.

Daloz (1999) explained that the point of a mentoring relationship is to help the protégé grow and become wiser. He believed that the mentor must first establish trust by providing empathy and support to the protégé. After a trusting relationship is established, the mentor can then challenge the protégé in order to stimulate growth, reflection, and new ideas within the protégé. This will then lead to a vision, an eventual transformation, and wisdom for the protégé. Daloz explained that the question should not be *if* the protégés grew and changed. Instead the focus should be on *how* the mentoring relationship affected change in the participants (p. 15) He went on to emphasize and illustrate that as adult learners protégés will have different needs and expectations, come from unique circumstances, and will have achieved different levels of self-awareness and development. Daloz emphasized adult educators' need "to care for what happens to our students, ourselves, and the space between us" (p.244).

Likewise, Cohen reported that the concept of mentoring in contemporary times refers to "a nonparental, competent, and trustworthy figure who consciously accepts personal responsibility for the significant developmental growth of another individual" (1995, p.1). However, Merriam (1983) posited that mentors in the educational world are not the same as the classical role models that molded early protégés. Educational mentors impact academia whereas

classical mentors as described by Daloz tend to have more far-reaching, life-changing influence. Merriam went on to say that the field of adult education should consider how mentoring impacts adult learning and development without placing major emphasis on financial outcomes (p.171).

Darwin (2000) found that much of the research pertaining to mentoring in education was conducted in the late 1970s. Breeding (1998) reported that literature that discusses mentoring in education is plentiful, but very little of the literature actually details the daily activities and actions of mentors. Peters (1990) observed that adult education in the workplace has traditionally meant job training, but adult education in the world of academia has had a different purpose and meaning (1990). However, in the case of educational mentoring, the workplace and academia meet head-to-head.

Young and Wright (2001) reminded educators that being a mentor is not good enough; there must be a commitment to being a good mentor. Effective mentors enjoy other people, are confident, trust their protégé, and feel a personal commitment to their protégé (Gray & Gray, 1985). Rowley (1999) defined a good mentor in the field of education as having six necessary characteristics:

1. Desire to fulfill the role of mentor

2. Acceptance of the protégé

3. Ability to provide pedagogical support

4. Ability to effectively communicate

5. Active model for lifelong learning

6. Positive outlook

Rowley went on to explain that because mentoring is now such an important part of educational induction, it is imperative that schools identify those who are willing to be good mentors and then provide them with the proper training needed to become effective mentors. Rowley also explained that college supervisors and school administrators often select those who will act as mentors and pair these mentors with protégés without any input from either the mentors or protégés. In the same vein, Otto cautioned that although some people are kind-hearted and willing, they do not perform well as mentors. On the other hand, many who are successful and effective as professionals may lack the needed interpersonal skills or willingness to act as mentors (1994).

Darwin warned that mentoring involves much more than one adult just offering advice to another adult. She went on the say that the literature on mentoring clearly lacks contributions by those who are schooled in adult education (2000). According to Ralph, mentors need to be able to gauge the developmental levels of protégés and to be able to foresee the needs of the protégés (2002). Drafall and Grant described the content and technique in which a mentor conducts a one-on-one conference with a novice as an essential part of the novice's transformation from student to autonomous professional. They went on to explain that effective conferencing should include four essential components: pre-conference, observation, data analysis, and post-conference observation. As the protégé grows and becomes more competent, the mentor's role is to guide the protégé toward becoming a self-directed learner (1994). Protégés should feel free to take risks, develop trust, and share concerns with

mentors. According to Williams and Bowman (2000), mentors should work with protégés to assess and critically examine their performance, but mentors should not formally evaluate protégés. Odell suggests that a summative evaluation be performed by a qualified individual other than the mentor. She also points out that by the end of the mentoring relationship, the protégé should be a self-directed practitioner able to reflect and self-analyze (1992).

Young and Wright discussed the need for basic ground rules within a successful mentorship. As with any other adult education situation, mentoring should include mutual respect, agreed-upon objectives, and an overview of the process that is developed at the onset of the relationship. The mentor should assume the responsibility for foreseeing problems and developing solutions. The protégé must accept that there will be an unequal balance of power with the mentor wielding the most influence in the relationship. However, the protégé should appreciate that the relationship will lead to professional improvement. Both parties should keep personal issues separate from professional issues and never confuse mentorship with friendship (2001).

Bainer and Didham pointed out several weaknesses of education's formal mentoring programs. They suggested that the needs of new teachers may be met through mentoring, but that the needs of veteran teachers are neglected. They also explained that budget reductions often cut mentoring programs so severely that they become ineffective or nonexistent. Another weakness they brought to light was that schools often rely on a mentoring model meant for business, but that schools and business are fundamentally different and

therefore function in different ways. Bainer and Didham went on to suggest that instead of depending upon a single mentor, a protégé might have a group of mentors each with a unique talent, strength, and responsibility to the protégé (1994).

Gold (1992) discussed an area of need often overlooked. New teachers get assistance with issues of curriculum and pedagogy, but often need help juggling the psychological and personal demands of the profession. Hopkins questioned the ability of teacher preparation programs to keep up with the demands of the 21st century. He asked whether preparation programs produce reflective, responsive teachers capable of solving challenging new problems that develop in today's classroom (1995). This raises the question of mentors' capabilities and willingness to support novices in these areas of need. In the same vein, Head, Reiman, and Thies-Sprinthall also addressed the personal and psychological needs of first-year teachers. They pointed out that new teachers may be facing many new roles and changes in their lives such as a new career, role switch from student to teacher, possibly a move to a new community, and a host of other changes. Because of these sensitive issues, great care should be taken when matching mentors with protégés. Each protégé will have unique needs and be at a unique stage professionally, psychologically, and developmentally; this is true of the mentors as well. A mentoring program that does not acknowledge and accommodate for these differences may do more harm than good (1992).

Furthermore, Feiman-Nemser (1996) also cautioned educators about

shortcomings related to mentoring. She warned that mentors often have little experience at observing and discussing the art of teaching. However, being able to observe a protégé teach and then providing meaningful feedback is a key component of educational mentoring; a lack of this skill makes for a poor mentor. She further explained that teachers are often accustomed to working alone. From the first day on the job, teachers work in solitude in their class with their students. Working as a mentor and thus having to offer support, advice, and time may interfere with the established routine of one's career. Feiman-Nemser also pointed out that another difficulty with mentoring is that mentors and new teachers are treated no differently within schools. They are equals and this grants a protégé the same standing as a veteran teacher. Among teachers there is no system of rank or seniority; the only advantages a mentor might have are experience and reputation as a good teacher. This could lead to potentially awkward situations. To further complicate the mentoring relationship is the question of evaluation and assessment. Is there a conflict of interest when a mentor assists and then evaluates the same protégé? Feiman-Nemser went so far as to question if something as complex and personal as mentoring can be formalized.

Mentors are responsible for facilitating growth in protégés; they are charged with assisting the protégés through the synthesis of personal and professional learning experiences. In this light, Otto (1994) spoke of adulthood as a continual developmental process in which changes, learning, and crisis occurs. She continued by saying that one cannot learn all one needs through vicarious

means. Instead, one must combine advice and guidance from others along with personal experience within the system or institution (p.15-16). If mentors are tasked with the responsibility to provide the advice and guidance to protégés within the educational system, who, then, are these mentors who are entrusted with a generation of rising teachers? Do they possess the will, the knowledge, and the ability to guide their protégés from the role of student to teacher? Rowley said if educational systems are dependent upon mentoring, then there needs to be a system in place to identify and train those willing to become competent, effective mentors (1999). Holloway (2001) echoed this concern and explained that *well- trained* mentors are key components to effective induction programs. However, Petersen reported that existing studies regarding induction and mentoring did not reveal much about the selection and training of mentors (1990). If mentors are asked to assume the monumental responsibilities associated with induction, retention, and teacher quality, then great care should be taken to assure that each mentor is willing, capable, and well trained.

Mentoring: An Adult Learning Relationship

Whether knowingly or not, mentors assume a high-stakes role. With teacher retention and quality being so problematic throughout the nation, a mentor's attitude, capability, and performance could have far-reaching effects. Although mentor teacher have degrees, certifications, and experience in the ways of pedagogy, questions arise regarding mentors' abilities to work with adult protégés. In other words, are mentors prepared and willing to take on the roles of adult educators? To further complicate matters, Fletcher (1998) posited that

while new teachers are adults, they are also child-like in their need to be nurtured and challenged. Certainly, negotiating the delicate balance between adult and child-like needs of each protégé requires great deftness and sensitivity.

The concept of adult learning is always open to interpretation. As researchers and educators explore the complexities of the phenomenon, new facets continue to be added to the understanding of adult learning (Lawler, 2003). Adult learning is concerned with the learner's internal cognitive role in the learning process (Merriam & Brockett, 1997, pp. 5-6). Adult learning theory is based on the dynamics of adulthood. "The notion of development as change over time or change with age is fundamental to adult learning theory and practice; furthermore, the direction of this change is almost always presented as positive and growth oriented" (Merriam, 2004, p.60). Zepke and Leach liken adult education to "a mosaic of many ideas" (p. 205) as they enumerate the many theories of adult learning. They further explain that learning is a complex, integrated process that combines all experiences from every realm of one's being (2002). Amstutz (1999) categorized adult learning theories into several groups and went on to explain that adults are very diverse and therefore their needs vary tremendously. Her contention was that adult educators must take into account their own teaching and learning styles and at the same time remain aware of each student's unique needs and background. Again, the nagging question remains regarding mentor teachers' awareness of the unique needs of adult learners.

Adult learning theory is concerned with cognitive issues while adult education refers to the "process whereby persons whose major social roles are characteristic of adult status undertake systematic and sustained learning activities for the purpose of bringing about changes in knowledge, attitudes, values, or life skills" (Darkenwald & Merriam, 1982, p.9). As noted by Merriam and Brockett, adult education offers little distinction between living and learning (1997, p. 88).

Regarding the purpose of adult education, Lindeman (as cited in Merriam & Cafarella, 1999) wrote that the co-existing purposes of adult education are improvement of the individual and the improvement of society. Surely, an educational mentor's purpose is to facilitate the protégé's personal growth and professional growth in hopes of bettering society's educational system. The process of the mentoring and induction programs used in schools is also clearly in line with the changes in the adult learner as outlined in Darkenwald and Merriam's purpose of adult education. To further strengthen the link between mentoring and adult education, Stalker cited numerous studies in which the field of adult education "expressed interest in the mentoring process" (1992, p.1).

As novice teachers take on their new roles and responsibilities, they are caught in a gray area. On one hand, they are expected to meet the same performance standards as veteran teachers. On the other hand, it is recognized that they have had little opportunity to transform theory into practice (Angelle, 2002). For this reason, they may be assigned a mentor to guide them through their first few years. Yet, questions arise regarding the best way to provide

instruction and guidance to new teachers. Williams (2001) reinforced the idea that mentors need training before they can effectively facilitate an adult-to-adult learning situation.

Knowles (as cited in Merriam & Brockett, 1997, p. 136) recognized that adult learning situations often differ from typical pedagogical learning situations. Therefore, he developed a set of assumptions associated with andragogy that have become a hallmark of adult education:

1. Adults want to see the importance of learning a certain thing.

2. Adults have the ability to be self-directed learners.

3. Adults bring a lifetime of experiences to the learning situation.

4. Adult learning is based on a need related to a task, problem, or life skill.

5. Adult learning is based on real-life situations.

6. Adults are intrinsically motivated.

Furthermore, Cross posited that adult learning situations should consider the participant's chronological age, developmental stage, life experiences and circumstances. She went on to say that adult learning should allow the participants to have input and choices related to *what* and *how* matter is learned and that the learning situation should enhance personal growth (1981). Similarly, Billington's study of adult learners found that adults learn best when they feel (a) secure and respected; (b) free to experiment and create; (c) self-directed in their learning programs; (d) intellectually stimulated, (d) actively involved; and (e) able to provide input about what and how they want to learn (1996). However, it must be pointed out that the idea of self-directed learning is fraught with ambiguity.

Peters (1990) explained that although the concept of self-directedness has a somewhat elusive meaning, it is accepted as a fundamental concept of adult education.

According to Levinson (as cited in Tennant & Pogson,1995), many new teachers are in the developmental phase called early adulthood; there is a "changing nature of the relationships between self and others, such as mentor relationships, love and family relationships, and occupational relationships" (p. 72). New teachers often step straight from a college campus right into a classroom for which they assume total responsibility. In order to bridge this gap from student to teacher, new teachers participate in induction programs. Mezirow (1991) posited that the purpose of adult learning is growth; adult learning is meant to develop and transform the learner. Certainly, induction and mentoring program are meant to assist in this transformation. Regarding teacher transformation and development, Brown and Irby (1995) discussed new teachers' need "to step away from the past and to develop their own identity as an adult and as a teacher" (p. 90). This raises the crucial question of how to address the needs of novices that are caught in the nether regions of trying to assume adult roles in society and establish professional identities as teachers as they simultaneously undertake one of the most challenging learning opportunities of their careers – their first few years as a teacher. Are mentors and others involved with administering the induction programs trained, prepared, or even willing to help new teachers make the transition from that of student to teacher?

Regarding mentor preparation, Kyle, Moore, and Sanders (1999) noted that mentoring programs must provide training that clarifies the process, roles, and duties of all participants before the mentorship begins. Evertson and Smithey found that trained mentors provided more skillful support than untrained mentors provided to protégés (2000). However, Krull (2005) reported that little or no preparation was provided on how to support or supervise new teachers. Will the mentor's knowledge base and skills that were honed from years of pedagogical instruction suffice when working with adult protégés? Peters (1990) explained that adult educators must understand the content area as well as theories and principles related to adult learning, adult developmental stages, and stages of moral development.

Peters (1990, p. 83) cited 10 principles that should be incorporated into adult education situations:

1. Respect for the learner

2. Collaboration between learner and facilitator

3. Life experiences as a learning tool

4. Critical thinking and reflection

5. Problem-posing followed by problem-solving

6. Purposeful learning

7. Active participation

8. Learner empowerment

9. Self-directed learning

10. Exchange of ideas; dialogue

The principles cited by Peters were developed by a joint dissertation group enrolled in Columbia University's Adult Education Guided Independent Study (AEGIS) program (1990). The principles are referred frequently throughout this study. However, the definitions and applications of the terms were adjusted to fit the needs of this study. Fuller explanations and definitions of the terms are provided.

Principal 1: Respect.

Operational definition: Respect was demonstrated by regard for other's needs, feelings, and circumstance.

Rogers (1983, p.121) wrote that the key element in a learning environment is the personal relationship between the learner and facilitator. Because the essence of mentoring is the relationship between the mentor and protégé, professional respect between the mentor and protégé is central to a successful relationship.

Principal 2: Collaboration.

Operational definition: Collaboration was demonstrated when both teacher and learner had an open exchange of ideas and information. Collaboration allows the learner to have more than a passive role in the learning process and involves a joint learning experience shared between learner and teacher.

Collaboration denotes a more democratic ideal in which both parties share responsibility and reap benefits from the relationship. Tennant & Pogson (1995, p.173) explained the Freire-like problem-posing approach in which the learner

and teacher develop goals and objectives, discuss issues, make joint decisions, and create new realities. Dewey (as cited in Gutek, 1988) also advocated a learning situation in which the teacher assumes an indirect control of the learning situation that engages the "learner's internal dispositions" and encourages learner self-directedness (p. 104).

Principal 3: Incorporation of Previous Experiences.

Operational definition: The learner's experiences in life were used holistically throughout the learning process.

All learning occurs through a filter of what one has experienced throughout life; these experiences shape one's perspective and center of reference. New learning is based upon past experiences. Respected adult educators such as Lindeman (1926), Knowles (1970), and Schön (1987) considered experience to be the bedrock of adult learning. Caffarella and Barnett (1994) submitted five reasons why experiential learning is fundamental to adult learning:

1. Adults reflect upon and create meaning and learning from life experiences. These meanings are fluid and can change with time.

2. Each individual creates a unique meaning from an experience; knowledge is subjective.

3. Learning is typically an active process; learning is not passively attained.

4. People want to be connected or involved with others and others' learning.

5. People's unique life experiences and situations form the foundation for all meaning and all learning in their lives.

Principal 4: Critical Reflection.

Operational definition: The process by which the learner critically reflected upon ideas, beliefs, practices, and experiences in a way that impacts future actions.

The literature on critical reflection in education provides a plethora of definitions and explanations. Brookfield described critical reflection as a process in which adults think about and question the "truths" accepted earlier in their lives. He went on to describe critical reflection as the process of using an adult perspective to reconsider childhood assumptions and beliefs (2000). However, Brookfield credits Mezirow with the most important work regarding the concept of critical reflection (1995). Mezirow divided the concept into three separate processes. Content reflection involves thinking back upon an experience. Process reflection is the use of one's imagination to consciously think and plan on how to respond to the experience, whereas premise reflection involves thinking about and questioning basic beliefs and accepted truths (Merriam & Caffarella, 1999, p. 328).

Richardson (as cited in Imel, 2000, p. 2) explained that teachers' growth stems from the process of reflection upon "their beliefs, goals, and results of changing approaches to their work." Many others (e.g., Farrell, 2001; Gay and

Kirkland, 2003; Schön, 1987; the Metro Atlanta Beginning Teacher Induction and Support Consortium, n.d.) have supported the belief that an educator's professional growth should stem from changes based on critical reflection. Because teaching and learning are such dynamic processes on the part of the educators and students involved, critical reflection should constantly drive the processes.

Principal 5: Problem-posing as a Catalyst for Problem-solving.

Operational definition: Posing problems is a way to provoke critical thinking necessary for analysis and resolution of a problem situation.

Socrates is known for his method of provocative questioning or problem posing. His method of questioning was meant to serve as a genesis for critical thinking as one searched for a plausible response to the question posed (Ross, 1996). In essence, Socrates believed that probing questions would act as a catalyst to trigger the learner to discover truths through self-examination and self-analysis (Gutek, 1988).

Likewise, Freire (1970) utilized the problem-posing method as a way to teach literacy skills to Brazilian peasants in an effort to assist them as they empowered themselves within the colonial society of Brazil. According to Williamson (1999), Freire created a dialogue between the facilitator and the learners as part of an effort to encourage the learners to reflect upon their experiences and interactions within society as part of the change process. Furthermore, Freire believed that the dialogue created through problem-posing

would create a more balanced relationship between student and teacher (Bruenig, 2005).

Lindeman (1926) offered that education is coterminous with life and that adult education should be based upon situations or problems rather than abstract academic subjects. This approach to adult education provides a sense of reality to the learning process as the learner seeks a remedy for a situation or problem. Likewise, Schön viewed professional problem solving as reflection-in-action and as a process in which reactions are based upon prior experience, tacit knowledge, and present circumstances (1987). Similarly, Ferry and Ross-Gordon (1998) found that problem definition plays a significant role in the reflective educators' problem-solving processes.

Principal 6: Praxis: Learning for Action

Operational definition: Praxis is the cycle of experience, reflection upon the experience, and change based upon the experience and reflection.

Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary shows that *praxis* is derived from Medieval Latin and Greek words that mean *to do.* Praxis denotes action as opposed to theory (1960). Imel (2000, p. 3) pointed out that reflection and change are fundamental to adult learning and that "any change will not be complete unless it involves action."

According to Rogers (as cited in Kelly, 1997), in the 1980s adult educators such as Mezirow and Freire emphasized that learning is based upon the way individuals process and critically reflect upon experience. Praxis is related to how the learner processes experience and the reflection upon that experience

that leads to action. The action outcome then leads to further reflection; hence, the cyclical process continues. The purpose of learning is to be able to foster action.

Freire's *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* (1970) demonstrated that problem-posing and reflection are integral components of praxis. Freire stressed that praxis begins with an idea or experience followed by reflection that leads to purposeful action. Praxis is "reflective, active, creative, contextual, purposeful, and socially constructed" (Bruenig, 2005, p.111). Likewise, Mezirow (1998, p.70-71) deemed that the purpose of critical reflection is to lead to "awareness so that appropriate action – including social action –can be taken."

Marsick (1988) applied the concept of praxis within the workplace. Learning situations at work should focus on growth and change that occurs through critical reflection and praxis rather than the change related to behaviorism. According to Bailey (2003), true praxis exists when "there is no artificial distinction between theory and practice, parts and whole" (p.145).

Principal 7: Participation

Operational definition: Participation is active involvement and interaction between learner and facilitator throughout the learning experience.

The term *participation* in this study does not refer to the global concept of adult education participation that may be dependent upon socioeconomic, cultural, or demographic conditions. Instead, participation refers to the learner's ability to be involved and interactive within established adult education learning situations such as the workplace or other institutions.

Billington's study of adult learners (1996) found that adults learn best when they feel (a) secure and respected; (b) free to experiment and create; (c) self-directed in their learning programs; (d) intellectually stimulated; (e) actively involved; and (f) able to provide input about what and how they want to learn. Beyond the call for adults' active involvement in the learning situations, active participation is also implied in Billington's remaining criteria for adult learning.

Likewise, Knowles's concepts of andragogy are based on the idea of adults being active participants of their learning experiences. Furthermore, Knowles (1975) utilized learning contracts by which the learner proposes his own course of learning. Cranton (1994) posited that adult learning outcomes should include empowerment and autonomy. However, in order to become empowered and autonomous, adult learners must first actively participate in all aspects of their learning situation. Lindeman (1926) discussed the teacher's participation in adult education situations. He saw the teacher as a guide in the learning situation as opposed to the all-knowing authority. Mezirow (1997, p. 10) described adult learning as an active process that involves "thought, feelings, and disposition. The learner may also need help to transform his or her frame of reference to fully understand the experience." Rogers (1969, 1983) believed that the learner should maintain control and fully participate in all aspects of the learning process, and the teacher should facilitate the process by providing support and resources. This belief is demonstrated by the Metro Atlanta Beginning Teacher Induction and Support Consortium (n.d.) as the consortium calls for "full participation among novice teachers, trained mentors, and all others

who will provide support and induction services." It is important to recall that feelings of trust, acceptance, and security are essential elements that greatly affect participation (Brookfield, 1990; Merriam & Brockett, 1997).

Principal 8: Empowerment

Operational definition: "Empowerment is the awareness or acquisition of skills, abilities and attitudes that enable the learner to influence or change his or her environment" (Peters, 1990, p. 96).

Peters (1990) went on to explain that self-direction and empowerment are separate issues. Self-direction refers to the learner's ability to have control of the learning situation; empowerment refers to the learner's enhanced ability to change or control personal or social circumstances (p. 97).

As stated in the preceding discussion on *participation,* Cranton (1994) posited that adult learning outcomes should include empowerment and autonomy. Imel (1998) explained that Mezirow's theory of transformative learning describes a process that empowers individuals to make choices or take action. Mezirow himself (1998) described the process of critical reflection and transformative learning as the basis of personal, cultural, social, and political action. He went on to say, "Adult educators are never neutral. They are activists committed to support and extend the cultural canon, social practices, institutions, and systems that foster fuller, freer participation in reflective discourse" (p. 72).

Arguably, the purpose of all education is some sort of empowerment. Freire's *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* taught that the purpose of adult education is to raise critical consciousness so that oppressed cultures could become

empowered to change their circumstances (1970). Freire was adamant that education must lead to action, and the purpose of education is to empower man to be free. Giddens (1990) explained that insights gained through critical reflection enable society to change social practices. The concepts of critical reflection and praxis imply action and empowerment.

Principal 9: Self-directed Learning

Operational definition: Self- directed learning: the process in which the learner first identifies his own learning needs, goals, and resources and then implements his own strategies and evaluation of the learning experience (Knowles, 1975, p.18).

Self- directed learning is a keystone concept of adult learning. Merriam and Brockett (1997, p. 137) declared the concept of self-directed learning to be "as old as history." However, they credit the modern focus on self-directed learning to adult educators such as Houle, Knowles, and Tough. In fact, many adult educators (e. g., Brookfield, 1995; Hiemstra, 1994) provide definitions of self-directed learning that are very similar to the definition provided by Knowles.

Houle's *The Inquiring Mind* is often credited with the resurgence of research regarding self-direction in adult education. In the 1960s, he studied 22 adults who were engaged in learning activities. He found that their projects were either goal-oriented, activity-oriented, or learning-oriented (Brockett & Hiemstra, 1991). Later, Tough (1971) studied the self-directed learning projects of adults. He found that adults participated in learning projects associated with career goals, personal responsibilities, family needs, and leisure activities. Interestingly,

he also discovered that about two-thirds of the projects were planned and initiated by the learners themselves. Similarly, Kilpatrick believed that the learning situation should be project oriented. He advocated learning projects in which students engaged in real-life problem-solving. Students were able to "choose, plan, direct, and execute" purposeful projects (Gutek, 1988, p. 292). Assessment focused on pragmatic results and effective problem-solving.

In defining andragogy, Knowles focused on the contrasts between the ways in which adults and children learn. As previously discussed, Knowles's assumptions of andragogy included the concept of self-direction. Knowles (as cited in Merriam & Brockett, 1997, p. 136) posited that the need to be recognized as capable of self-direction is part the adult psyche. Closely linked to the concept of self-direction are the motivating factors that incline an adult to become involved in a learning situation. Knowles acknowledged extrinsic rewards, but he felt that intrinsic rewards provided more powerful motivation for adults.

As discussed in the section on *participation*, Rogers (1969, 1983) also advocated for learner self-direction. He believed that the learner should fully participate in the nature and direction of the learning process and that an adult's learning environment should be unstructured with the teacher acting as a facilitator to assist the adult student's pursuit of learning.

Principal 10: Dialogue

Operational definition: Dialogue is the free exchange of ideas among learners and facilitators. The purpose of dialogue is to share information,

promote critical thinking and problem-solving, and broaden participants' perspectives.

Although not explicitly stated, dialogue is implied throughout the criteria for good practices of adult education used in this study. Dialogue is clearly germane to the concepts of respect, collaboration, problem-posing, participation, empowerment, and self-direction. Additionally, the inclusion of life experiences, the promotion of critical thinking, and learning for action will involve dialogue in this study of teachers' mentoring relationships.

Despite guidelines and principles, adult educators often find that the line between pedagogy and andragogy becomes blurred. As an example, Thomka (2005) in her review of Herman and Mandell's *From Teaching to Mentoring: Principle and Practice, Dialogue and Life in Adult Education* found that the authors likened a certain adult student's needs to the needs of a child and furthermore went on to describe that particular student as an *adolescent intellectual.* Colley (2005) also reviewed Herman and Mandell's book and made reference to a less rushed *pedagogy* being used in adult education.

Adult educators (e.g., Holmes & Abington-Cooper, 2000; Rachal, 1983; Rachal, 2002) continue to address the differences between pedagogical and andragogical learning situations. Rachal alluded to compromises to the established assumptions of andragogy when he used the terms "quasi-andragogical methods" and "degrees of andragogy-ness" that could allow for flexibility of the assumptions in some adult learning situations (2002, p. 224).

Because of the role transition from student to teacher that new teachers face, a semi-andragogical learning partnership with a mentor might be more appropriate than the type of adult learning situation associated with Knowles's assumptions. As Williams (2001, p. 9) related, new teachers are often in "the stage of beginning adulthood, involving transition from schooling to work."

Furthermore, most novice teachers' lack the "lifetime" of teaching experience and life experiences that many veteran teachers possess. However, Merriam and Brockett (1997) explained that many well-known theorists (e.g., Lindeman, Knowles, Kolb, and Boud) consider adults' interpretations of their life experiences as an integral part of adult education. Without vast experience to reflect upon and learn from, novices are disadvantaged. Therefore, one of the major roles of mentors is to bridge the gap from *inexperience* to *experience*. In fact, Williams (2001) concluded that effective teacher mentoring programs must incorporate an adult learning theory component. Hence, concerns arise regarding mentors' awareness of how adults learn.

The statistics show that attrition rates are on the rise; as many as 50% of new teachers leave the profession within five years (Ingersoll, 2002; Ingersoll & Kralik, 2004). Clearly, a problem exists in a process that allows hopeful, enthusiastic teacher candidates to give up and walk away from a profession that so desperately needs them. Indisputably, induction and mentoring are aspects of adult education and both are being relied upon to help the profession retain teachers. Without doubt, the ways in which these programs employ adult education concepts needs to be determined.

Grounded Theory

The American Society for Training and Development (as cited in Peters, 1990) pointed out the discrepancy between the billions of dollars spent annually on workplace training and the paucity of knowledge related to how the principles of adult education are applied in workplace training. Likewise, there is little existing literature that links adult education concepts with concepts of teacher mentoring and induction, and there are no existing theories in this field of inquiry. In fact, Darwin pointed out that mentoring relationships between adults were not written about by people who were involved in adult education (2000). However, it is important – both to the field of adult education and to general education - to understand in what ways adult education concepts impact teacher mentoring. Therefore it is essential that groundwork be laid to explore the connections between adult education and teacher mentoring. Theory developed in this way is referred to as grounded theory. Grounded theory is created when interpretive researchers using systematic data analysis find plausible relationships between differing concepts. The procedures of grounded theory are a way to systematically and rigorously study qualitative data (Piantanida, Tananis, & Grubs, 2002, p. 3). This way of looking at concepts can help researchers to organize and make meaning of what is already known about an organization (Martin & Turner, 1986).

Glaser and Strauss (1967) explained grounded theory as a way of discovering and developing theory from data that has been observed and methodically analyzed. According to Strauss and Corbin (1998), grounded

theory does not attempt to prove a pre-existing theory; instead, grounded theory allows a theory to emerge from what is studied. Becker (as cited by Chatfield, 2000) described grounded theory's concept development as dialogue with the data. Similarly, Egnew referred to the "reciprocal relationship" that is created as the researcher weaves through the research processes of data collection, data analysis, and theory development (1994, p. 4).

According to Parry (1998), grounded theory attempts to "utilize a breadth and depth of data such that the variety and range of variables are incorporated" p.85). Similarly, Parry went on to explain that grounded theory spawns ideas that are generated from collected data; these ideas then prompt more focused data collection which leads to further theoretical ideas (p. 98).

Strauss and Corbin (1998) asserted that grounded theory is appropriate for use in practitioner fields such as education. McCann and Clark described grounded theory as "a useful style of research when there is little prior information about a topic" (2003, p. 7). According to Babchuk (1997), the use of grounded theory is particularly well suited to the field of adult education because adult education lacks a well-developed theoretical framework and because "the theory of data in the field seems ideally suited for furthering the link between research and practice in adult education through systematic development of participant-centered interventionist strategies" (p. 4). Chapter III will take a more detailed look at grounded theory. The concept will be further defined and the methodology will be explained.

Summary

The literature revealed that new teachers have a laundry list of concerns and challenges as they enter a profession that makes increasing demands on them. Slaybaugh, Evans, and Byrd (1998-1999) explained that a lack of support and mentoring leads to new teacher attrition. Similarly, Guyton and Hidalgo (1995) suggested that a supportive mentor could help new teachers overcome the many adversities they face. However, Morey, Bezuk, and Chiero reported that existing new teacher preparation programs do not prepare novices for the realities of the classroom (1997). In fact, Smith and Ingersoll (2004) found that even with the use of induction and mentoring programs during the 1999-2000 school year, 29% of 50,000 new private and public teachers either changed schools or left the profession altogether.

The dismal statistics of teacher attrition beg one to question the effectiveness of mentoring programs. The body of research indicates a need for mentors who are devoted, sensitive to the needs of novices, and trained to facilitate growth and self-directedness within protégés (e.g., Rowley, 1999; Drafall & Grant, 1994; Odell, 1992). Petersen voiced concerns about the gap in the literature regarding mentor selection and preparation (1990). The literature also showed that there exists a need for mentors who are schooled in the ways of working with adult learners (e.g., Feiman-Nemser, 1996; Gold, 1992; Ralph, 2002; Rowley, 1999). However, Darwin (2000) pointed out that the literature on mentoring lacked contributions from adult educators.

Adult educators (e.g., Billington, 1996; Cross, 1981; Knowles, 1970, 1975, 1980; Peters, 1990) acknowledge that adult learning situations should incorporate self-directedness, respect, opportunity for experimentation, active involvement, and intellectual stimulation, as well as consideration of the learner's age, experiences, and developmental stage. However, Krull reported that little or no preparation is provided for those who supervise and support new teachers (2005). This leads to concerns regarding mentors' abilities to fulfill the role of adult educators as they support and facilitate the personal and professional growth of their protégés.

The purpose of this study is to address how adult education principles are used within school mentoring programs. Because there is no prevailing theory that directly addresses this issue, a grounded theory approach will be used. Using information and insights gleaned from interviews with mentors and protégés, the researcher will allow a theory to emerge through the repetition of data collection, analysis, and further collection (Egnew, 1994). Researchers (e.g., Babchuk, 1997; McCann & Clark, 2003; Strauss & Corbin; 1998) have stated that grounded theory is useful and appropriate for use in studies related to education and particularly well-suited to areas in which little prior research exists.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine the awareness and use of principles and practices of adult education within the context of a public school's mentoring program. The research was conducted using a qualitative case study approach in an attempt to create grounded theory based upon the mentoring experiences of teachers and their protégés. The study focused on a formal mentoring program housed within a specific middle school in southern Georgia. After receiving the dissertation committee's approval of the research proposal, the reseacher received permission from the school district in which the study was conducted and approval by the USM Human Subjects Review Board. The Human Subjects Review Board approval form is found in Appendix A, and Appendix B contains the consent form that was explained and given to each participant prior to their interviews.

Overview of Information Needed

In order to conduct the study, the researcher needed pertinent information: (a) operational definitions related to the principles and practices of adult education, (b) background and demographic information about the school district (c), and demographic information related to the participants of the study. The following pages address these areas of information. Background and demographic information is provided so that the reader can understand the context in which the study was conducted and so that accurate comparisons can

be made for possible future studies. The research instrument is based upon criteria established from definitions related to adult education.

Principles and Practices of Adult Education

Because of the vast diversity in the settings, goals, and participants of adult education programs, there is no set of principles or standards accepted as *the* ultimate adult education criteria. The principles that were used in this study were developed by graduate students of the Adult Education Guided Independent Study program (AEGIS) of Teachers College at Columbia University. The AEGIS students were "a joint dissertation group composed of five adult education practitioners having a broad range of backgrounds, training, and experience" (Peters, 1990, p. 83). The AEGIS group developed a set of criteria of good practice of adult education that included (a) respect, (b) dialogue, (c) participation, (d) collaboration, (e) problem posing as a catalyst for problem solving, (f) critical reflection, (g) self direction, (h) praxis, (i) empowerment, and (i) incorporation of previous experiences. Although the principles identified by the AEGIS group were used, they were modified to meet the circumstances and needs of this study. Definitions and explanations of the AEGIS principles as used in this study were provided in Chapter II.

The Setting

The study was conducted during the 2006-2007 school year. The mentoring program described in this study is housed within a fast-growing rural school district in South Georgia. The district gains about 400 new students per year and projects a need for one additional school every two years. According to

the district's annual report of the fiscal year, student enrollment was over 9,800 during the 2005-2006 school year. During the 2006-2007 school year, the district operated one Pre-K center, eight elementary schools, three middle schools, and two high schools, and was in the process of planning for new growth as this is a very desirable school district located in an area that is seeing unprecedented growth. The district cited $1,795.00 as the "per student education cost" for 2005-2006. The specific middle school in which the study was conducted had 988 students enrolled during the first quarter of the 2006-2007 school year. The student population included students in sixth through eighth grade. The racial breakdown of the student population was 82% White, 17% Black, and about 2% of the students were classified as Other. There were 108 staff members, and 69 of these were certified teachers. There were also 49 auxiliary staff members that included administrators, media specialists, clerical personnel, and paraprofessionals. It should be noted that the majority of the school's personnel are White females and this impacted the demographics of the pool of possible participants.

The District's Mentoring Program

Two separate mentoring programs existed within the school in which the research took place. Each program had its own coordinator and the coordinators usually change each year. The first program was designed for preservice teachers from local universities to be placed with mentors. This school-based coordinator for this program basically just matched mentors with student teachers and provided the mentor with preliminary forms for basic record-keeping. This

program coordinator for this program worked closely with university coordinators who placed preservice teachers in schools so that they could gain exposure and experience in a classroom under the supervision of a mentor teacher.

The second mentoring program was an in-house program designed for new teachers to be matched with a mentor. The protégé might have been new to the school or the profession. If the protégé is new to the profession, the mentor was assigned for the entire school year. If the protégé was new to the school and had previous teaching experience, the mentor was assigned for the first semester of school only.

In either program, the mentor may have been certified as a Teacher Support Specialist (TSS) and trained as a mentor through a local university or regional staff development (RESA). A third option for mentor training is through the county's High Performance Mentoring Workshop. A final option was that the mentor teacher had no formal training as a mentor but was regarded by the program coordinator or school administrator as an experienced teacher who was qualified to act as a mentor.

Many institutions develop and use manuals associated with training procedures or processes. However, the newly designed manual used within the in-house mentoring program was very informal and was basically a log in which the mentor recorded meetings times and activities of mentors and protégés. This log also provided very brief information about the expectations and duties associated with acting as a mentor and an evaluation form that the mentor

completed at the end of the school year. The 2006-2007 school year was the first year this log and form had been used so there was no history to report on its use.

The mentoring program that placed preservice teachers within the school had no manual available. Questions, problems, or concerns were directed to the school's program coordinator.

Participants

The sample consisted of 25 participants. This included 5 mentor program coordinators, 9 mentors, and 11 protégés. The program coordinators included two from the in-house program for new teachers, one from the preservice teacher program, one from the county's mentoring program, and one university coordinator for preservice teachers. There were one male and four female program coordinators; all were White. Of the coordinators, three were trained as teacher support specialists (TSS), and two had other education and training related to leadership roles. Program coordinators' years of experience ranged from 2 – 34 years.

Of the nine mentors, four were male and five were females; all of the mentors were White. Two were trained as mentors; one had leadership training. Mentors' years of experience ranged from 6 – 23 years.

Of the eleven protégés, two were new to the school; five were new to the profession, and four were preservice teachers. Two were male; nine were female. There were two Black and nine White protégés.

All participants were selected through a combination of recruitment efforts to include recommendation by school administrators, mentor program

coordinators, and university supervisors; personal contacts with the researcher; and a call for volunteers at the first faculty meeting of the school year. Efforts were made to have approximately the same number of protégés as mentors so that the perspectives and experiences of both groups were included. Furthermore coordinators were selected so that both mentoring programs were well-represented. All participants were given a copy of the consent form and the consent form was explained to them before the interview began. Also, all participants were assigned a pseudonym in order to protect their identity.

Design

The researcher employed qualitative methods of data collection in an attempt to create grounded theory. Grounded theory is an inductive form of research in which a theory is developed from what the researcher divines from the analysis of collected data (Merriam & Simpson, 2000, p. 112). In the present study, the theory emerged from information collected through individual face-to-face interviews with each participant. The interviews were audio taped and then transcribed verbatim by the researcher. As explained by Cutcliffe, the researcher began data collection with purposeful sampling in order to gain the rich initial data needed to begin the coding process (2000). Later in the process, a theoretical sampling process was used to select participants, and selection was based on a participant's ability to add to the developing theory (Creswell, 1998).Theoretical sampling (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) is the selection of participants based on their ability to add new insights or information to the study.

Theoretical sampling gave the researcher the freedom to choose participants based on what the researcher was interested in finding out (Gilgun, 2005).

Through individual interviews with the participants, the researcher collected data on the dynamics of mentoring relationships and the participants' perceptions and attitudes regarding the mentoring experiences and outcomes. As suggested by Creswell, brief, open-ended questions were used to interview the participants. The questions were fairly general and few so that the interviewer elicited the participants' own line of thinking and interpretation of the mentoring experience without having the researcher influence the responses (2005, p. 221). Although an interview guide was used, the questions were open-ended and loose to provoke participant response and to encourage respondents to define and discuss issues from their unique vantage point. As information was gathered, the interviewer was then able to pose further questions based upon participants' responses. As recommended by Price (2002), the researcher also used laddered questions while interviewing the study participants. This entailed questioning and problem-posing in a way that went from least invasive toward more probing questioning as the participant relaxed, engaged, and developed a more open, trusting rapport with the researcher. Using an informal form of shorthand, the researcher took brief notes during the interview. These were used to note any body language, facial expressions, or added information that might have provide insight or meaning to the interview.

Appendices C, D, and E contain the interview guides to be used by the researcher, and Appendix F is a form to collect participants' demographic data.

As needed, probes were used to encourage the participants to provide elaboration or explanation as needed for clear understanding. Pilot interview sessions were conducted with a program coordinator and a protégé to ensure that the interview questions were appropriate to the study and easily understood by participants. Based on the pilot study, the researcher realized that each interview would be based upon the participant's frame of reference as well as his or her willingness and ability to communicate openly.

Chatfield (2000) described grounded theory as a repetitive, fluid and flexible process that can accommodate the dynamics of social interactions. As data was collected, the researcher began to systematically analyze the data in a constant comparative method. A back- and -forth process of gathering data, analyzing data, and then gathering more data was employed until the categories of information became saturated. Keeping detailed notes, even of seemingly minor or unrelated phenomena, gave the researcher a rich source of data to use to formulate hypotheses. The notes were kept in the form of a log and were continually updated as the researcher progressed through the interviewing process. Also the researcher kept a summary of each interview that emphasized the salient points of the interview and recorded the researcher's thoughts and impressions.

Participants often feel the need to provide socially acceptable responses. Several factors worked together in this study to help prevent this from happening. First, the fact that the researcher was a peer – instead of an evaluator or supervisor – helped to assure that the participant's responses were not

motivated by the desire to protect or enhance their professional standing. The participants knew they were participating voluntarily and were not being professionally judged or evaluated. Also, the tendency to provide socially acceptable responses was curbed by the assurances of confidentiality and the use of pseudonyms. The participants could speak freely without the fear of exposure. Finally, the researcher conducted the interviews with a tone that conveyed empathy and understanding. Having years of experience that included the roles of mentor, student teacher protégé , and new teacher protégé, the researcher was able to acknowledge and affirm the realities, doubts, concerns the participants often faced.

It is important here for the researcher to clarify which form or design of grounded theory was used within this study. Although Glaser and Strauss are names closely associated with each other and grounded theory, the two came to disagreement on the design of grounded theory. Creswell (2005, p. 401) explained that Glaser felt that Strauss "overly emphasized rules and procedures, a preconceived framework for categories, and theory verification rather than theory generation." Gilgun explained that Strauss's version of grounded theory uses three levels of data or text analysis. During the first level of coding, the researcher labels or provides a code name for phenomena. This is followed by selective coding in which the researcher uses chosen or selected concepts from the open coding. Next, axial coding more closely examines facets of the selected concepts; axial coding determines which selected concepts will or will

not be of use in the study. Those that are retained are considered to be core concepts (2005).

Creswell explained that during Strauss's stage of open coding, the researcher forms initial categories and subcategories of information "by segmenting information" (p. 57). Then, the information is re-evaluated and organized into central or core categories. From there, the researcher seeks to locate causal conditions, strategies, context and intervening conditions, and consequences related to the phenomena (Creswell, 1998). In a later publication, Creswell (2005) explained that Glaser envisions grounded theory in a rather different way. From Glaser's perspective, the purpose of grounded theory is to provide an explanation of a social process. Glaser felt that Strauss's rigid coding and predetermined categories do not allow the theory to take form and emerge from the data. Instead, Glaser utilizes the back and forth coding and comparisons that move from "incident to incident, incident to category, and category to category" (p. 401).

Piantanida, Tananis, and Grubs (2004) described Glaser's insistence that the foundation of grounded theory is the theoretical memos that are written throughout the coding process as the researcher analyzes the relationships among the data. Piantanida et al. added that Strauss and Corbin concurred with the idea that the researcher must strive to see the data in a variety of ways and must seek the interconnectedness of the relationships that may exist among the data. Piantanida et al. emphasized that sensitive, insightful coding will give the

researcher the tools to portray the ground in such a way that others can share the data in the same way as the researcher experienced it.

In this study, the researcher utilized the flexible, fluid Glaserian approach to develop grounded theory because the researcher did not want the data "to be forced into categories" (Creswell, 2005, p. 402). As further described by Creswell, the researcher analyzed the data and thereby discovered relationships that existed among the categories. From these relationships, a theory emerged. Creswell (1998, p. 140) described the process in this way:

1. Conduct a general review to gain a feel for the data provided by the interviewees; write notes, memos, or summaries as you review.

2. Solicit feedback from the interviewees regarding notes and summaries of the data. Verify and clarify meaning.

3, Begin to reduce the data. Look for relationships and common words, phrases, and ideas.

4. Develop codes for the relationships and commonalities found among the data. Continue to hone the data down to five or six categories.

5. Continue to review and *see* the data. Continue to re-group, compare, and contrast the data to create as many as 25-30 categories.

6. Reduce the data back to five or six categories.

7. Create a narrative that provides a substantive grounded theory based upon the data.

By using this process of making meaning from the data provided by the participants, the researcher in this study utilized the emerging design of

grounded theory. Piantanida et al. (2004, p.341) explained this process in the following way:

> The act of generating a substantive theory is inevitably an act of meaning-making. Meanings do not lie dormant in our 'data' waiting to be discovered. We create meanings by interpreting – with participatory consciousness – the texts that we accumulate throughout the inquiry. In claiming the stance of interpretivists, we take on an obligation of *portraying the experiential ground of the substantive theory.* It is the verisimilitude with which the grounded theory is portrayed that serves as the starting point for warranting a substantive grounded theory.

In earlier work, Piantanida, Tananis and Grubs (2002) pointed out that "the persuasiveness of the researcher's argument lies in its utility for guiding practice" (p. 3). In other words, the meaning the researcher finds within the data must be pragmatic to those who might use it.

Data Analysis

Data analysis was an ongoing process throughout the study. As interviews were completed, the researcher first studied them and looked for broad concepts or ideas. These were labeled as open codes in the text of the transcripts. A summary of each interview was kept that highlighted the topics or ideas that seemed most pervasive in the interview. Additionally an interview log recorded summaries with impressions and reflections garnered from the transcribed interviews. In this way the researcher had the text of participants' exact words, a refinement of the text that included the most outstanding topics,

and the researcher's reaction to the text. Compartmentalizing the data in this way proved to be an invaluable resource to the researcher.

Participant checking helped to verify facts and clarify meaning. Interestingly, besides the formal participant checking, there were instances of informal checking that occurred when participants gave unsolicited feedback after the initial interview. For example, the protégé Faith approached the researcher several weeks after her interview and related that things were improving between her and her mentor because the stress of the first few weeks of school had eased up. In another instance, a program coordinator went to the researcher a few days after the interview and explained her disappointment in the current mentoring program by saying that it "was a shame that the mentoring program wasn't what it used to be." She went on to say that "we just don't have time to get everything done that we need to get done these days." In another instance, shortly after protégé Ilene was interviewed, she took the opportunity to speak to the researcher when they met at a staff meeting. She said she was "ripped off" by not having a helpful mentor the previous year. This type of feedback was invaluable, because it reinforced what the participants had said in interviews, and it revealed that talking about mentoring experiences had caused participants to reflect on these experiences.

Next each transcript was looked at more holistically. What was the overall experience of each participant? The log and the summaries helped to shed light on the meaning of each participant's story. From this, the transcripts were then coded into new categories:

1. The objectives of the mentoring experience or incident included process and procedures; relationship negotiations; content and academics; pedagogy; and emotional support.

2. The modes of mentoring were the ways in which the mentoring were delivered, and these included oral and written communication; emotional interactions; modeling of behaviors; provision of an experience; informal mentoring; and formal mentoring.

From there, the data from each interview was analyzed and coded based on the use of adult education principles as they were defined earlier in this chapter. The use of a large wall chart was maintained so that adhesive notes could be added and moved about as the data evolved. Since the data gathering process, analysis, and interpretation was a dynamic, fluid process, the wall chart proved an invaluable way for the researcher to manipulate the notes and memos throughout the process. The wall chart also provided a visual way for the theory to emerge. The wall chart was eventually honed down to a coded matrix which the researcher did not include as part of the study because it contained data that could possibly identify participants and jeopardize confidentiality.

Fidelity and Trustworthiness in Qualitative Studies

Because grounded theory is a form of qualitative research, it did not follow many of the familiar approaches used in quantitative research. Of course, this brings to mind the question of how validity and reliability might be accounted for in a qualitative study. Piantanida, Tananis, and Grubs (2004, p. 341) explained that because grounded theory is "a heuristic rendering of our interpretations, the

scientific warrants of verifiability, reliability, validity, and generalizability are not applicable criteria for evaluating the credibility of the theory." According to Gilgun (2005), in qualitative studies *validity* and *reliability* could be more accurately described as *fidelity* and *trustworthiness.* Gilgun emphasized the importance of understanding the informant's perspective and using this information to create theory. She went on to explain that *fidelity* is the researcher's ability to understand the informant's meaning and to accurately report and analyze the informant's experiences or story. According to Strauss and Corbin (1990), an important factor of fidelity is theoretical sensitivity. They explained that the researcher must be able to navigate through the nuances and subtleties of informant's words and actions, focus upon what matters, and discard what is not relevant. The researcher found that being a part of the setting offered untold advantages regarding theoretical sensitivity because the researcher understood the climate and culture of the setting.

Gilgun (2005) went on to explain that *trustworthiness* is the researcher's clear explanation of the methods and steps used to gather, analyze, and interpret the data provided by the participants so it will be of use to other researchers or practitioners. As other researchers look at the findings of a grounded theory, will the information provided allow them to test for suitability or fit?

In the same vein, Hoepfl (1997) addressed the lack of internal validity within qualitative studies and offered that *credibility* is a more appropriate term to describe the findings' accurate portrayal of the informant's reality. Hoepfl further

explained that credibility is established through the provision of complete information with many rich details and an apt analysis of the data. Hoepfl also addressed external validity and concerns about the inability to generalize qualitative findings. Instead of generalizability she suggested that qualitative researchers should consider transferability. In other words, are the informants, settings, or scenarios of the proposed study enough like that of the original study so that the original findings would be meaningful to the new study? Parry (1998) suggested that diversity and heterogeneity within the sample could enhance transferability of findings. To create a diverse and heterogeneous sample, the researcher included participants from three categories: protégés, mentors, and program coordinators. Also, to allow for maximum diversity, an attempt was made to represent both genders and racial diversity. However, the study's setting provided little racial diversity and this is reflected in the sample.

Glaser (1992) believed that a solid grounded theory should have four critical attributes: fit, work, relevance, and modifiability. Glaser went on to the define the terms by explaining that *fit* means that the participants, practitioners, and researcher find the theory consistent with reality, and *work* means that the theory provides an explanation for "variations in behavior of participant." If the theory is useful in explaining some social process, it works. To be considered relevant, a theory must fit and work. The final criterion states that the theory must change as the data changes; the theory should remain dynamic and modifiable. As Jacelon and O'Dell pointed out, a grounded theory should be

"accessible and understandable" to practitioners and participants of the study (2005, p. 5).

In the same vein, Lomborg and Kirkevold (2003) explained that a valid grounded theory will correspond to what is being studied. They went on to say that "the concept *fit* is a simple way to express the correspondence to social reality, and *fit* serves the central function of enabling external validation of research in social processes to take place" (pp.198-199).

In hopes of ensuring fidelity in this study, the researcher incorporated several measures as suggested by Jacelon and O'Dell (2005). First, multiple data sources were used. The researcher interviewed mentors, protégés, and mentor program coordinators from the two separate mentoring programs within the school in order to gain insight into a variety of perspectives. This increased the range of the data and allowed for more instances of comparison and contrasts. Throughout the process, the information given by the three categories of participants was consistent and affirmed information from the other participant categories. In other words, data from each participant category verified data from other participant categories. Furthermore, the researcher utilized participant checking by having select participants review transcripts to offer clarification or additions as needed (Creswell, 2005, p. 421). Because the interview might have caused the participant to later think and recall things they would like included in their interview, the researcher ended each interview with the offer for the participant to make additions or amendments to their interview. Interestingly, several participants did approach the researcher to further discuss some aspect

of the interview or their experience in the mentoring program. These unsolicited, informal encounters initiated by participants were logged into the notes that the researcher kept on each interview and were considered part of the data.

Steps were also taken to ensure the trustworthiness of this study. As explained earlier, purposeful and theoretical sampling were used to portray a variety of perspectives. Interviews were audio-taped and then transcribed into typed notes. Also, a log of the researcher's thoughts, impressions, and observations were made throughout the interview. As Guba and Lincoln (1981) explained, an audit trail documented how the data were used to develop theory. Through participants' stories, this study's researcher allowed the reader to see the logic by which conclusions were reached because "generating a theory is in essence an interpretive act" and it is the researcher's responsibility to persuade the reader that the researcher's interpretations and conclusions make sense (Piantanada et al., 2004, p. 341).

The researcher conducting this study has prior knowledge and experience in the realm of education as a public school teacher, protégé, mentor, and adult education graduate student. The researcher has more than 15 years of teaching experience in elementary and middle schools in California, Louisiana, Alabama, and Georgia. Presently, the researcher holds certification by the State of Georgia in elementary grades, middle grades language arts and social studies, and gifted education as well as Teacher Support Specialist. During the course of the research, the researcher was also a graduate student in the field of adult education. Furthermore, the researcher has experienced the role of protégé and

mentor many times throughout her career. While conducting the study, the researcher was employed as a middle grades teacher at the school in which the research was conducted. However, strict confidentiality was observed at all times. In fact, nobody - participant or not - ever inquired about who had or had not participated or about the content of any of the interviews. It was made clear that participation and all responses were strictly confidential. Being a part of the school permitted the interviewer to gain easy access to the participants, enabled the researcher to understand the dynamics of the workplace, allowed the reseacher the opportunity to observe the actual interactions among participants, and provided the serendipitous opportunities for participants to spontaneously initiate conversations with the researcher.

As others who have used grounded theory (e.g., Gilgun, 2005; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Piantanada et al., 2004) have observed, one does not approach the research as a *tabula rasa*. Instead, prior knowledge and experience enabled the researcher to enter the study with "a participatory mode of consciousness" that allowed the researcher a way of "*being* in the inquiry" (Piantanida et al., 2004, p. 336). Furthermore, Gilgun (2005) explained that there are ways to ensure that that the researcher does not collect and interpret data in ways that support the researcher's values and beliefs. As previously explained, peer review, participant checking, and triangulation through the use of three categories of participants were used. So, rather than being a hindrance to this study, the researcher's background and placement was used as a tool to enhance theoretical sensitivity.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

The purpose of this study was to determine the awareness and use of principles and practices of adult education within the context of a public school's mentoring program. The study was conducted using the qualitative method of grounded theory. Data were collected through personal interviews with 25 participants that included 5 mentor program coordinators, 9 mentors, and 11 protégés in a public middle school setting in rural South Georgia. Protégés included student teachers with no teaching experience, new teachers with less than four years teaching experience, and experienced teachers newly assigned to the school. Mentor teachers' experience ranged from six to twenty-three years.

The participants' mentoring experiences are demonstrated by their stories. Stories were chosen for their ability to represent a variety of perspectives and mentoring dynamics and are representative of the initial categories of participants: protégé, mentor, or program coordinator. These categories were expanded to further define characteristics of the participants. Pseudonyms were assigned to all participants in order to protect confidentiality.

Throughout this chapter, the principles of adult education are frequently discussed. Unless otherwise noted, the principles of adult education being referred to are the ten AEGIS principles (Peters, 1990) that were identified and defined in Chapter II of this study. These principles included respect, dialogue, participation, collaboration, problem posing as a catalyst to problem solving,

critical reflection, self direction, praxis, incorporation of previous experiences, and empowerment.

Their Stories

Ilene: A Dissatisfied New Teacher as a Protégé

Ilene was a teacher who was new to the school. With only three years of teaching experience, she was still considered new to the profession. She is a quiet, reflective person who is very knowledgeable and capable in her content area. Ilene was selected to participate because she was new to the profession and new to the school. Information she provided during the interview described a less -than -ideal mentoring situation, but this was not apparent until she revealed it. Until the interview, Ilene had never given much thought to her mentoring experience.

Although Ilene had previous teaching experience, she was assigned a mentor for her first year at the school to help her become oriented to the school. Her mentor's classroom was in close proximity to Ilene's class, and although they taught the same grade level, they taught different subjects. This proved to be a problem for Ilene.

Because Ilene was inexperienced in the grade level she taught, she occasionally had concerns related to dealing with middle school students and their parents. Also, the curriculum that Ilene was teaching was new to her. Furthermore, she also had to adjust to unfamiliar surroundings, personnel, and procedures. It would seem that having a mentor close at hand would have alleviated many of the difficulties associated with being new to the school, but

Ilene explained that she was not supported by her mentor during this difficult time of transition. Ilene felt that her mentor was available only if there was a particular question or issue that that needed to be addressed. It was up to Ilene to initiate contact with her mentor. Although the mentor would provide help when Ilene approached her, the mentor was never proactive or outgoing. Most of the assistance that Ilene received dealt with the everyday administrative tasks of managing a classroom.

A mentor's role should vary according to the protégé's needs. Ilene was not provided with one-on-one time with her mentor so Ilene's mentor never got to know Ilene as a person or a professional. Ilene's mentor did not understand Ilene well enough to realize that Ilene wanted more support as she assumed the new role of middle school teacher. According to Trubowitz (2004, p. 60) mentors should be chosen based on their maturity, insight, experience, and interest. Clearly, Ilene's mentor lacked insight and interest into the difficulty Ilene faced during her transition into a new role.

To compensate, Ilene sought help from other sources. She admitted that when she really needed assistance, she "just asked whoever I saw in the hallway." To Ilene, the mentoring program "wasn't really organized in a way that really helped me in the areas that a new teacher struggles in." Along this same vein, Gold (1992) and Hopkins (1995) both questioned the ability of mentoring and induction programs to meet the complicated needs of new teachers.

In trying to explain why her mentoring experience was unsatisfactory, Ilene talked about there being "no ground rules" that explained the roles and

responsibilities of the mentor and protégé. She was unaware of the expectations, goals, and boundaries of the relationship. So she accepted what little the mentor had to offer and sought help on her own elsewhere. Her mentor was unfamiliar with Ilene's content area and often left her door closed during her off duty hours. The closed door caused Ilene to feel uncomfortable in approaching her mentor.

Ilene never received any type of constructive criticism, positive reinforcement, or any form of feedback at all from her mentor. She explained that toward the end of the year her mentor came into her class once and observed as she taught a lesson. However, Ilene never received any written or oral feedback from this observation. Ilene's explanation was that "she probably just needed to complete paperwork." Observations such as these typically offer a great opportunity for mentors to utilize the principles of adult education. If this relationship had ripened and progressed to a point where the participants were truly mentor and protégé, this would have been a great opportunity to employ many of the adult education principles. For example, while discussing and providing feedback on this end-of-the-year lesson, the mentor should have been familiar enough with Ilene to engage in dialogue that incorporated previous learning experiences, offered chances for problem solving through problem posing and critical reflection. Furthermore, the interaction in which feedback was given could have also led to opportunities for future use of adult education principles such as collaboration in which the mentor and protégé worked together to address Ilene's needs. Of course, rather than waiting to the end of the year to offer feedback, a responsible mentor would have been interacting, dialoguing,

and providing feedback and opportunities to reflection throughout the entire mentoring experience.

Rogers (1983, p. 121) posited that the key to any learning situation is the relationship between the leaner and facilitator. However, the most glaring aspect of this relationship was the mentor's negligent ways. By a lack of involvement, the mentored demonstrated a lack of respect, the most fundamental principle of any adult education situation. For whatever reason – disregard or unawareness – Ilene's mentor showed no respect for Ilene as a new teacher.

Interestingly, days after the interview, Ilene approached the researcher and began to talk about her mentoring experience. She revealed that she got "ripped off" by not having a more involved mentor. She was invited to sit down for an additional interview, but she declined. She just wanted to let somebody know how she felt now that she had taken the time to reflect upon the experience. She explained that she had been so busy that first year that she had not given much thought to what went on between her and her mentor. Now that she looked back upon it, she felt that she should have gotten much more help and support. She explained that she depended upon another teacher who taught the same subject as she did to help her with content area questions. So, in essence, Ilene got help from her mentor about school procedures, help with lessons from a peer, and very little consistent support or guidance in any other area.

As a result of her experience as a protégé, Ilene had several suggestions that she thought might improve mentoring relationships. She recommended that mentors be proactive and take it upon themselves to introduce the protégé to

others and help the protégé find where useful things were located. Her second suggestion was for protégés to be able to rely on a mentoring group rather than a single mentor. She felt the protégé would receive more instances of help and more useful help from a group of experienced teachers.

Eve: A Satisfied New Teacher as a Protégé

Eve is a very fast-moving, upbeat teacher who is new to the profession and school. Like Ilene, her classroom was located near her mentor's classroom. She taught the same grade level but a different subject than her mentor. She was selected as a participant because it was obvious that she felt very comfortable in her role as a new teacher and protégé.

She described her mentor as "very easy to talk to" and said that "a very good relationship" existed between them. Eve went on to explain that she had no qualms about asking petty questions or approaching her mentor about things that "I should already know."

When asked about when and how often she met with her mentor, she explained that they met on an "as needed" basis. This suited her needs, and she liked that she was not obligated to meet at scheduled times. When asked about the type of help she usually sought from her mentor, she listed practical concerns like how to get email or how to approach a student's parent. There was no mention of any help or support beyond practical matters, but this seemed to meet Eve's expectations and needs.

Eve also liked that her mentor never made her feel inferior for having less experience as a teacher. Eve also felt at ease about offering suggestions to her

mentor and sharing ideas that she had. Furthermore, when her mentor offered her ideas, she felt comfortable in making changes or improvements to her mentor's original suggestions. Eve's comfort in offering ideas and changing suggestions made by her mentor negate Feiman-Nemser's (1996) concern that situations such as this could prove awkward. Because of the comfortable rapport in this relationship, the mentor saw her protégé as an equal and was not offended by the actions of the protégé.

Eve's mentor's attitude and actions clearly demonstrated the use of adult education principles within a teacher mentoring relationship. Mutual respect and participation were evidenced by the mentor's willingness to accept ideas and suggestions from her protégé. Dialogue and collaboration were apparent as they discussed and exchanged information. This type of support enhances a protégé's growth and leads to professional self direction and empowerment.

In an interview with Peruniak (1990), Daloz described an effective mentor as one who eventually develops a more level, collegial relationship with the protégé. He went on to explain the ideal of the protégé who develops into more of an equal who can then understand the mentor's stance and can work alongside the mentor. This seemed to be the way Eve's relationship with her mentor was heading. While Eve did depend on her mentor for ideas and information, Eve also felt as if she had something worthwhile to offer to the relationship.

Regarding concerns about the mentoring experience, Eve revealed that she didn't see the need for a required number of hours that mentors and

protégés had to meet. In discussing this, she again mentioned that an "as needed" basis was more practical and that "the mentor and protégé know how comfortable or how well the protégé is doing and maybe how much more or less time they need." This brings up the tricky question of learner self-direction, a hallmark of adult education. Because she is a young and inexperienced teacher, Eve was assigned a mentor; she was given no choice in the matter. That alone reduces the feeling of self-direction of the mentoring relationship.

However, the reason new teachers are assigned a mentor in a school system is because it is recognized that one does not enter the profession armed with all the knowledge and skills it takes to be competent at all a teacher does. Eve may be so inexperienced that she does not even realize that she has weaknesses or gaps in her competencies as an educator. Even though Eve is confident and at ease in the classroom, it does not mean that she is ready to be turned loose without someone to watch over her. Eve teaches over 100 students a day and each of them is entitled to have a competent teacher. Eve has not yet proved herself nor gained the experience to be ready for the many situations that can arise in the classroom. Because of that reason, Eve has to sacrifice some of the self-direction she wants.

On the other hand, Eve took the initiative to fill the gaps that the mentoring relationship did not address. Because Eve and her mentor did not teach the same subject, Eve joined an informal group that got together to plan lessons. Other than the issue regarding a set number of mentoring hours, Eve seemed

satisfied with the quality and quantity of interaction and support between her mentor and herself.

Wayne: A Dissatisfied Preservice Teacher as a Protégé

Wayne was one of the few male preservice students who was available at the middle school in which the study was conducted. The mentoring relationship was also unique and interesting because Wayne was assigned to a male mentor. Wayne had experience as a protégé from several previous placements through a local university. He was very fond of the subject area taught in the class in which he was assigned. However, Wayne's demeanor was one of defeat; he seemed resigned to the fact that he had to finish this internship before he could move on. In other words, he was trying to make the best of a bad situation. Wayne was selected as a participant because he was a male and because it was obvious that things were not going well.

Like Eve and Ilene, Wayne turned to peers for help with content area and lessons. However, the peer that he turned to was just as inexperienced as he was. Both Wayne and his peer were preservice teachers. Wayne mentioned in his interview that he had to go beyond the help that his peer could provide and that his mentor and university professor had to intervene and offer assistance. The fact that his mentor could or would not approach this issue without assistance from Wayne's professor led to questions about the mentoring relationship. Wayne also revealed some disappointment in the subject matter that had been selected for him to present during his two weeks of solo teaching

in the classroom. There was an unstated feeling that he was purposefully being given undesirable content in an effort to make his task more difficult.

When asked if he was given specific help from his mentor regarding resources and procedures, Wayne replied that he "tried to do all myself." He talked about "going out of my way" to get the classroom set up for his lessons and not wanting "to burden my classroom teacher." When asked about the support he felt he got from his mentor, Wayne was very deliberate and cautious in his response. He was obviously weighing his words very carefully. He replied that it "depends on the mood" of his mentor and that he felt that sometimes they could talk and at other times he felt that they could not talk.

Wayne revealed that instead of respect existing between him and his mentor there was an "understanding of boundaries within the classroom" and that he did not fully trust his mentor so he kept his confidences to himself. Again, he revealed that instead of going to his mentor for help, he would work it out on his own.

Wayne explained that he felt constrained and unable to be creative with his lessons. He said that "if I could stretch out my wings, I could do it." Clearly he was not getting what he needed from this relationship. Instead of being a chance to gain confidence and meaningful practice, this was an unfortunate experience that Wayne trying to endure.

It seemed that this entire relationship violated the spirit of adult education altogether. The negative rapport that existed between Wayne and his mentor seemed to begin with an unsuitable match of mentor and protégé. For reasons

that probably had to do with time constraints and logistics, steps were not in place to ensure that a good match was made nor was a process in place to end this relationship before it got to the point of being dysfunctional. This seemed to violate the most sacred of adult education principles – respect. As Head, Reiman, and Thies-Sprinthall (1992) warned, great care should be taken when matching mentors and protégés because poor matches can have harmful results. Wayne was suffering on a professional and personal basis as he struggled through this experience as a protégé.

This appeared to be an extreme case, but with the way the program operated, it was bound to happen sooner or later. Without assigning blame to any one person, it is fair to say that the mentoring program was devised in a way that denied Wayne the respect that he should have been guaranteed as an adult learner. The mentoring program as it existed was not founded upon the basic adult education principles that recognize and consider the needs of each learner. Instead the program was designed to ensure that each student teacher completed the program in a timely manner. Furthermore, as one program coordinator explained, there did not exist the "luxury of time" needed to make more compatible matches between mentors and protégés. The need to cycle student teachers through internships has usurped the individual needs of the students. There is no quick fix to this, but until some solution is found, there will continue to be others like Wayne who suffers through poor matches of protégés and mentors.

Ursula: A Satisfied Preservice Teacher as a Protégé

Ursula was a university student who was a protégé with several previous placements in other schools so this was not her initial placement as a protégé. Ursula seemed very happy to discuss her mentor and very proud of the way the relationship with her mentor had developed. Her body language and facial expressions showed pleasure as she talked about her experience with her current mentor.

There seemed to be a great deal of support and dynamic interaction between Ursula and her mentor. Ursula mentioned that she received "unlimited support" from her mentor and revealed that as her mentor provided classroom instruction, she also provided a *little aside* to Ursula. In this the mentor would explain to Ursula why she used a certain instructional or management strategy. On the other hand, while Ursula was teaching, her mentor often raised her hand to ask questions and participate in the lesson. Furthermore, when Ursula asked questions about how to handle certain situations, the mentor would reply, "I was hoping you would ask me about that."

Regarding feedback, Ursula reported that "it's always reflection." She went on to tell about conversations in which she was asked what she could have done better and or what could have helped increase students' understanding of a concept. After Ursula planned her lessons, her mentor went over them with her and offered suggestions for improvement. Her mentor also took proactive steps in preparation for "what to expect and how to handle certain situations" in the

future. According to Ralph (2002), the ability to proactively problem- solve is an essential ability of mentors.

The mentoring relationship that existed between Ursula and her mentor appeared to be very nurturing and productive. It was evident that Ursula's mentor embraced the principles of adult education. Certainly, there was a warmness and respect between the mentor and protégé. Ursula was involved in a continuing dialogue with her mentor as they collaborated to create meaningful lessons for the students. Furthermore, after Ursula presented a lesson, the mentor had Ursula critically reflect upon the experience so that Ursula could work toward self-awareness and improvement. Additionally, the mentor used problem posing as a way to problem solve by forewarning Ursula of problems that might crop up in the future. In this way, Ursula could think ahead to avoid potential stumbling blocks.

The principles of participation and praxis were clearly evident as Ursula worked with her mentor to gain teaching experience, reflect upon that experience, and then change to improve as a fledging educator. Because of the tools, skills, and confidence she reaped from this experience, Ursula can become an empowered learner and practitioner. Certainly, a rapport for mentoring existed in this relationship.

Pearl: A Well - Prepared Mentor

Pearl was enthusiastic and ready to talk about her experience as a mentor. She was trained as a Teacher Support Specialist (TSS), and during TSS training she had created an action plan designed to help her be proactive as she

fulfilled her mentoring duties. The school in which she served as a mentor offered no written guidelines for mentors to follow or fulfill so Pearl was grateful for the action plan that was prepared and ready to use.

Pearl observed that great differences existed between mentoring a teacher new to the middle school grade level as opposed to mentoring a teacher just new to a particular school. In discussing mentoring relationships, Pearl talked about a "level of comfort" that existed between her and the protégé. As a mentor, Pearl was at ease in approaching the protégé about areas of concern. Pearl explained she could say to her protégé, "You were struggling." Then she could offer help to the protégé, even though Pearl did not consider herself to be a "demi - god of classroom management."

Regarding the transition that teachers make from theory to application, Pearl said that "it is huge" and that mentoring was crucial and practical. This was an important realization for Pearl because she admitted to struggling during her first year as a teacher and she recounted her discouragement. Pearl revealed, "I wish I had been mentored because I believe that I would have been a much stronger teacher a lot sooner." As a result, she feels great empathy toward the plight of new teachers.

Furthermore, Pearl talked about mentoring that goes beyond academics. She discussed how she had to intervene in situations that involved misunderstandings between her protégé and other adults on campus. Pearl helped her protégé learn to navigate the very complex "unstated but understood" dynamics that often exist in the workplace. Pearl's ability and willingness to help

with problems outside the realm of academia demonstrated the fact that new teachers may need help with host of personal and psychological issues (Head, Reiman, & Thies-Sprinthall, 1992).

Another important point that Pearl made was the existence of informal mentoring relationships that exist among teachers. Recalling teachers who helped her, Pearl described them as "teachers who adopted me and helped me with things" and she described this as "crucial."

Besides the TSS training that Pearl received, her role as a struggling first year teacher helped prepare her as mentor. She reflected that she could "see from both sides how important it is to provide that structure and that support system for new teachers." Pearl valued mentoring and made it a point to create a mentoring rapport with her protégés.

Regarding the use of adult education principles, Pearl displayed respect. She showed respect by acknowledging and accepting the neediness and dependency often existing in inexperienced educators. Pearl also showed a willingness to proactively intervene when the protégé was struggling. Dewey (as cited in Gutek, 1988, p.104) posited that in order for the protégé to achieve learner self-directedness the teacher often has to first assume indirect control of the learning situation. Pearl demonstrated this by stepping up and explaining to the protégé the unwritten, unspoken rules that often exist in institutions. Now aware of the situation, the protégé could make self-directed decisions in a more informed manner.

Pearl also demonstrated the importance of dialogue between mentor and protégé. The fact that she would initiate conversations with the protégé to discuss weaknesses showed an awareness and willingness to lead the protégé through the cycle of praxis. Certainly, conversations regarding observed weaknesses of the protégé would include critical reflection. This reflection, in turn, would be the basis of change, growth, and praxis for the protégé. These principles of adult education are the main objectives of the teacher mentoring relationship.

Because of her rocky first year as a teacher, Pearl is also incorporating her own previous experiences as a way to enhance her mentoring and as a way to help future teachers. As Caffarella and Barnett (1994) observed, a person's life experiences create all meaning in their lives. The empathy and insight Pearl gained from her struggles as a new teacher was utilized in her role as an adult educator and mentor.

Dicey: An Unprepared Mentor

Dicey explained that she was literally asked to become a mentor on a moment's notice. During a quarter when the local university had a great many students who needed to be placed with mentor teachers, Dicey was asked to act as a mentor to a preservice teacher. In her words, she "was volunteered" and "the next thing I knew there was a student in my room." Besides having no forewarning that she was to receive a protégé that quarter or even that morning, Dicey had no training as a mentor. Dicey went on to explain that she was not

matched with her protégé based on content area either. She was selected as a mentor because "they needed a warm breathing body."

Regarding her role and responsibilities as a mentor, Dicey received nothing more than a verbal explanation of her duties from a former mentor program coordinator. She also received some written guidelines from the university supervisor that outlined when certain reports were due.

The protégé never got the opportunity to present lessons to the class. Dicey was in the midst of teaching something that she did not feel comfortable in turning over to a protégé. Instead, the protégé was asked to create a series of lessons that emphasized certain skills needed as preparation for standardized testing. Dicey explained that the protégé "did them with virtually no input from me other than running it by me before she got into a lot of the nitty- gritty."

Talking about the amount of time that she and her protégé spent together, Dicey described it as "very little." She further explained that the protégé was only there two days a week and there was only a short time in the mornings when they didn't "have children under our feet." We had "very little formal, sit-down talk time because she simply wasn't around" due to the protégé being assigned to another school several days a week in addition to her assignment with Dicey.

Dicey saw that having the protégé in the classroom as an opportunity for the students to be exposed to another adult's method of doing things and a way to broaden their experiences. She also reported that her students benefited by seeing the protégé as an example of an adult as a lifelong learner. However, Dicey seemed unaware of the needs of a protégé or new teacher. Without some

type of training or guidance, Dicey simply did the best she knew how. She was a respected teacher with years of experience, but she was "out of her element" when she was assigned to be a mentor. She did not know how to think or act as an adult educator; her years of experience as a teacher led her to only think of her students. She could not anticipate what the protégé might have needed nor could she think of ways to improve the situation for the unfortunate protégé. Sadly, poor logistics, limited time, and an untrained, unprepared mentor offered little chance of rapport for mentoring in this relationship.

Similar to Wayne's experience as an unhappy protégé, Dicey's experience as a mentor demonstrates that at times the mentoring program can be neglectful of the participant's needs. Little consideration was given to Dicey's need to be informed and prepared. Likewise, no consideration was given to the needs of the protégé. It seems pointless to discuss the use of adult education principals in this relationship because no mentoring actually occurred and no relationship actually formed. The question that does arise is why the mentoring program did not have some type of system that better monitored the mentoring experiences.

Hannah: A Program Coordinator Unaware of Adult Learners' Needs

Hannah acted as a program coordinator for new teachers. While she was very efficient with her duties and obligations, she seemed unaware of the needs of new teachers. Much of what Hannah discussed was related to documenting time that new teacher protégés spent with their mentors. When she did discuss the dynamics of mentoring a new teacher, her description gave the impression of a mentor trying to push the protégé to learn. She described protégés who did not

want or heed their mentor's advice along with mentors "not wanting to help." In both of these cases, they "would get reported to the board." Hannah's approach toward mentoring did not appear to be in harmony with Tomlinson's suggestions (1995) that mentors should be able to relate to protégés while demonstrating acceptance, sensitivity, and genuineness.

When asked how the mentoring program might support the ways in which adults learn, Hannah's response once again suggested that adults might have to be coaxed to learn. She explained that adults are not as willing as children to accept the teaching process and that she thought "it is difficult for adults to teach adults." Hannah went on to talk about adults being threatened by other adults who try to teach them "the best way to do it."

Hannah appeared to be someone who was doing the best she could with the skills and knowledge she had. Hannah was unaware and uneducated regarding adult learning and adult education. Hannah was not trained as a Teacher Support Specialist and had limited experience as a mentor coordinator. However, she was participating in leadership courses through a local university. While Hannah may appear to be a harsh person, her underlying intent is to help others. However, her methods make it obvious that she is unaware of how to approach issues and situations related to adult education.

Hannah seemed unaware of the need for adults to be self-directed. Hannah did not seem to envision mentoring as a relationship in which both participants worked together in an atmosphere of mutual respect, open dialogue, equal participation, and collegial collaboration. Her revelation about "the best way

to do it" suggested that she was trying to make things easier for the protégé, but she did not understand that her way may not be best for the protégé.

Hannah's case and examples such as Wayne and Dicey make it clear that mentors and program coordinators need to be enlightened regarding adult learning and principals of adult education. Some people simply need to be schooled before they act as adult educators.

On the other hand, there are people who seem to naturally have the sensitivity and insight needed to effectively facilitate an adult learning situation. For example, Rebecca, an untrained mentor, was assigned mentor to a new teacher protégé. Rebecca was given little direction on her role as a mentor, but she stepped in and made in real difference in the new teacher's performance and confidence. Without any formal mentoring classes or even recognition of what adult education or its principals were, she offered emotional support and empathy, modeled lessons, and acted as "a listening post" to the struggling new teacher. Furthermore, Rebecca initiated dialogue that included problem posing for problem solving and critical reflection. Additionally, Rebecca collaborated with the protégé to create classroom management plans and helped the new teacher learn to negotiate troubling relationships with other educators. Rebecca commented that mentors need common sense, empathy, compassion, and sensitivity regarding human needs. So without formal training as a mentor or adult educator, Rebecca was an outstanding mentor who skillfully employed many principles of adult education. However, it cannot be assumed that

everyone has the ability to effectively mentor and use adult principles as skillfully as Rebecca did.

Yates: A Program Coordinator Aware of Adult Learners' Needs

Yates is a coordinator who takes into consideration the needs and circumstances of the protégés. He talked about the developmental level of the protégés and how the mentoring program for preservice teachers is designed to bridge the gap between college student and professional educator. He explained that "this is the first time that they've ever been asked to act like a professional." Yates pointed out that most of the preservice teachers are young adults; he does not quite consider them as full-fledged adults yet. Often they exhibit "a level of irresponsibility and immaturity" and demonstrate poor judgment. However, he only allows them to make a mistake once, and they must face the consequences of their actions. He observed that the preservice program is set up in a way that is "more adolescent." However, he then pointed out that preservice teachers are still "held to adult standards."

Regarding the matching of mentors with protégés, Yates explained that the personalities of each participant must be considered. The ideal situation is one in which "there's a vibrant, lively exchange going between them right from the beginning." However, he reported that as a coordinator, he often did not have the luxury of the time needed to become well acquainted with the mentors and protégés before he had to match protégés with mentors.

Asked about the possibility of a group of mentors for protégés, Yates described that as "the way to go." First year teachers could particularly benefit

from "a sort of complementary team of mentors." However, he went on to explain his concerns that rivalry or hurt feelings could develop amongst the mentors if a protégé favored one or another.

Interestingly, Yates told of his personal mentoring experience in which his assigned mentor was not able to meet his needs. His mentor was not able to devote as much time as Yates felt he needed. To make things worse, he felt that the mentor did not have the energy level to attend to this needs. Communication between the two became difficult, and Yates was not getting the support he needed. He described the situation by saying, "She physically and mentally was not capable of being a mentor, but she had been assigned to me at that point." Consequently, Yates did exactly what many of the protégé participants did; he came to rely on an informal mentor because "that's the alternative when your formal mentor doesn't carry the ball."

Yates's negative experience undoubtedly made him more sensitive and empathetic to the plight of protégés. However, his professional role as a program coordinator often forced him to make mentor- protégé matches based on convenience rather than compatibility. This is a flaw of the system and as prior discussion illustrated, poor matches can lead to fruitless or even harmful relationships.

Other than this discrepancy, Yates seemed to recognize and employ adult education principles. For instance, regarding incorporation of previous experiences, Yates clearly took the protégés developmental stage into consideration. He realized that the young adults under his supervision had little

experience in the professional world or adult world and that many were straddling the grey area between the adolescent and adult world. Also, the oral and written feedback that he offered the student teachers about lesson plans and classroom observations involved dialogue and problem-posing as a way to problem solve. Yates engaged the protégés in individual and group activities that used critical reflection. In fact, each protégé was required to keep a reflection log as part of the course requirements. Without a doubt, the entire process of student teaching was meant to be an exercise in praxis in which student teachers were provided teaching experience, opportunities for reflection, with expectations for change toward professional improvement and growth. While most student teaches are not at the point of becoming empowered in the profession, they are learning the skills and gaining the confidence needed to become empowered, autonomous, self-directed learners.

<div align="center">The Themes</div>

Communication

As the participants shared their stories and experiences, one theme became very evident. All participants shared some thoughts or experiences related to communication. That seemed logical since the soul of a mentoring relationship is the ability to exchange information and ideas. In some cases, mentors and protégés had the ability to communicate effectively right from the start. One protégé, Lynn, explained that she and her mentor got along from "the get-go." Rebecca, a mentor, told how her protégé appreciated having "someone

who cared and who would spend time listening and talking." Quinton, a protégé, described how his mentor would "offer guidance, some suggestions and things."

On the other hand, some participants bemoaned the lack of communication between protégés and mentors. Protégé Maye shared how communication with her mentor was stifled because their classrooms were located on different hallways and because they taught different subjects. She wanted more than her mentor offered. Likewise, protégé Ilene told of her mentor's shut door and how she had to seek help from others. Her mentor did not meet her needs. Unfortunately, protégé Wayne felt that communication with his mentor "depends on the mood" of his mentor.

Also, some protégés expressed a need or desire for a lesser amount of communication with their mentors. Protégé Faith did not relate well with her mentor and felt that meeting the required fifteen hours "could be a burden." Protégé Eve felt very confident in her abilities and preferred talking with her mentor on an "as needed" basis. Like Faith, she did not "think that there should be a set number of hours" for meeting with a mentor. Similarly, mentor Opal described quick, to-the- point interactions with her protégé. She would ask, "Do you need anything? What's going on? What can I help you with?" Like Faith and Eve, her communication was focused on practical issues.

Looking at the variety found in the communication patterns among the mentoring relationships, it became clear that Johnson and Kardos (2002) were correct in their contention that new teachers want mentors who are easily accessible and able to respond to their unique needs.

Rapport

Through constantly comparing the information and ideas gleaned throughout the ongoing interview process, the theme of communication was refined. A new theme emerged; it became evident that rapport was beyond communication. As demonstrated in the preceding stories, various levels and qualities of communication existed among the mentor, protégés, and coordinators. While some relationships had evolved into partnerships with a real rapport for personal and professional development, other mentoring relationships exhibited a level of communication needed simply to accomplish the tasks at hand. Unfortunately, a few of the mentoring relationships had the capacity to stagnate or even sabotage the confidence and growth of the protégé.

While examining the data to determine the extent and quality of communication with the relationships, it became apparent that rapport was the quintessential element of these mentoring relationships. Likewise, rapport is a basic element in a relationship involving adult education. By looking for the element of rapport, it became apparent that not all assigned mentor and protégé teams developed into a mentoring partnership.

Several factors influenced the quality of rapport that existed in the relationships. Logistics played an important role in relationship quality. For example, Maye wanted more time with her mentor, but her mentor was located on a different hall, worked on a different schedule, and taught a different subject. Vince, Dicey, and Naomi also mentioned poor logistics that interfered with communication within the mentoring relationship. Similarly, McCarthy and

Guiney (2004) reported that The Boston Public Schools found that new teachers wanted mentors who were readily accessible and taught the same grade and subject as themselves. While this may not always be feasible, efforts should be made to ensure that mentors and protégés have as much in common (i.e., grade level, subject matter, proximity, and mutual planning time) as possible.

Some relationships were simply adults helping other adults. Eve's relationship was an example of help being given when needed. The concept of mentoring was not really apparent; Eve did not seek time to discuss or reflect on issues with her mentor. Her mentor did not utilize adult education principles such as problem-posing nor did she encourage critical reflection. The purpose of their interactions was to get tasks done. However, despite the lack of a traditional mentoring relationship, theirs was a very effective, functional relationship that satisfied the needs of the protégé and mentor. A rapport of comfortable communication and collaboration allowed Eve to participate and remain self-directed within a respectful, helpful relationship. While their relationship would not be described as traditional mentoring, it did appear to utilize the principles of adult education in the fact that Eve was supported and able to have her needs met without being forced into a type of relationship that she did not desire. This corresponds with Veenman's observation (1984) that each new teacher has a unique personality, set of circumstances, and level of need.

In a more traditional mentoring relationship, protégé Ursula sought and received a much greater level of interaction and feedback from her mentor. The rapport that existed between mentor and protégé was based upon respect, a

mutual desire for professional and personal growth, and a true effort to work together as a team. It was apparent that the principles of adult education were a part of the learning and growing experience in this relationship. Her mentor maintained constant dialogue and collaboration with Ursula, even as they each presented lessons to the students. Both the mentor and protégé actively participated as they worked together in the class and as they worked to increase Ursula's teaching skills. Reflection and problem posing were also a part of the dialogue as her mentor asked how Ursula could have improved her presentations to the students. As Ralph (2002) posited, mentors should be able to foresee need and judge the level of help required by the protégé. It was obvious that Ursula's mentor had the insight and foresight as described by Ralph. This relationship demonstrated the concepts of rapport and traditional mentoring practices tightly melded to the AEGIS adult education principles (Peters, 1990) as defined in Chapter II.

Unfortunately, some relationships never developed, and some had deteriorated to the point of being dysfunctional. For example, Ilene wanted the support of a mentor, but her mentor was not physically or emotionally available. This relationship did not demonstrate even the most basic principles such as dialogue or collaboration. Obviously, no rapport existed between the two, no growth or learning resulted, and the principles of adult learning were not a part this relationship.

Similarly, Lynn wanted more from the mentoring relationship than she was given. Her mentor never really stepped up and fulfilled the responsibilities of the

role. A true rapport never developed in this relationship. The use of adult education was not evident other than Lynn being made to feel that her occasional questions were not "tedious." Another example was Wayne; rather than reaping benefits from the mentoring relationship, he may have suffered setbacks from the quality of the relationship. He seemed dejected and resigned to the fact that he was stuck in a soured relationship. His enthusiasm had been squelched, and he revealed frustration over a relationship that had become strained and nonproductive. There was no meaningful rapport and no evidence of use of adult education principles within this relationship. Furthermore, it was surprising that this relationship was allowed to reach such a low point without appropriate intervention being taken to correct the problem.

According the Daloz, the point of the mentoring relationship is to help the protégé grow and become wiser. The mentor facilitates this by being empathic and supportive. However, it was obvious that Wayne was enduring an unpleasant experience that was not providing opportunities for the personal and professional growth that is expected from a mentoring relationship. Rowley (1999) and Otto (1994) both emphasized the importance of placing protégés with mentors of good quality.

Readiness for Role

As with most things in a person's life, many factors combine to create a unique set of circumstances. The same is true of a mentoring relationship; many factors influence the dynamics of the relationship. As part of the process of constantly comparing the data, a theme of readiness emerged. Were the

mentors and protégés willing and prepared to assume their roles and responsibilities? This was a complex issue with many factors of influence. Dunne and Bennett (1997) explained that some mentors often do not understand their roles and are not prepared to undertake the task of mentoring. In concurrence, Young and Wright (2001) stated that ground rules should be established before a mentoring relationship is undertaken. Relationships should begin with mutual respect, agreed-upon objectives, and an understanding of the mentoring process.

One of the most obvious examples of a total lack of preparation and readiness was that of mentor Dicey. This was a clear case of a mentor being caught off guard with virtually no preparation and no choice in the matter. Dicey referred to herself as a warm body and considered herself simply as a teacher to whom the protégé was assigned. Besides having no warning, Dicey was an untrained mentor. She had no experience as a mentor, and she was given no guidelines on what her role included. The necessary paperwork was given to Dicey, but nobody stepped in to explain her role or offer assistance to her. Dicey assigned the protégé some busy work, and then returned her focus to her classroom.

A mentoring relationship did not develop for several reasons. First, Dicey was unaware of what a mentor really was supposed to do or be. However, even without adequate preparation some mentors can still be effective. For example, Rebecca, another untrained mentor, relied on common sense and empathy to guide her as she helped a struggling new teacher. Unfortunately circumstances

once again hindered Dicey from having the time or opportunity to develop the needed rapport with her protégé. Dicey's preservice teacher only worked in Dicey's class two mornings a week, and Dicey had no planning period during the time the protégé was there. Dicey's non-volunteer status, lack of role preparation, and poor logistics came together to make the mentorship a very low priority to Dicey.

Jake, another untrained mentor, was also unprepared for his role. He, too, was a non-volunteer who was asked to mentor a male new teacher. He said he was given "no job description." When asked how he thought the mentoring program affected the school, he answered that it made sure "new people are getting things done on time or getting them done right." As in Dicey's case, poor logistics hampered the mentoring rapport. Jake did not teach the same subject, the same grade level, or on the same hall as his protégé. He mostly assisted his protégé with paperwork or locating supplies. Jake explained that a lack of time was a concern and that he did not feel he could help "someone who might need lots of help." Although a friendly rapport seemed to exist between him and his protégé, the mentoring function seemed to focus only on pragmatic issues. Regarding the adult education aspect of mentoring, Jake explained that adults will "get help when they are ready for it" and that "adults don't want someone all in their business."

Vince, an untrained mentor, described his protégé as having "some issues." He went on to explain how the university supervisor for preservice

teachers had to intervene to resolve some of these issues. When Vince was asked about the type of feedback he provided to his protégé, he explained that he really never gave oral feedback to his protégé. The relationship had deteriorated to the point that little oral communication existed between mentor and protégé. Vince said he sometimes wrote notes on the lesson plans the protégé turned in, but time did not allow for much else. He went on to explain that the protégé taught the first lesson of the morning and feedback amounted to a quick conversation during the two or three minutes of class change. Vince said that "there isn't really time to sit down and do a good job of discussing it so we have to kind of hit the high spots."

Clearly, there was no rapport for growth here and no use of adult education principles. Although the lack of time most likely did contribute to the fact that this relationship was dysfunctional, other factors such as a personality conflict and the fact that the mentor was untrained also played a role. Clearly Vince demonstrated no awareness of adult education principles and showed no tolerance for a protégé he obviously did not enjoy mentoring. Fletcher (1998) revealed that mentors are often chosen for their availability rather than their suitability, and this reality often results in ill-matched partnerships. She went on to explain that in this situation not only does the mentor and protégé suffer; the entire teaching profession ultimately is affected. Her recommendation is to "dissolve the mentoring relationship" if it becomes dysfunctional.

On the other side of the coin, Stan took the initiative to become an informal mentor to many faculty and staff members. By word of mouth, people

came to Stan for help in finding and using resources or for advice on how to deal with students. Stan offered training and assistance based upon individual need and demand. Through listening and questioning the people who sought help and by his ability to foresee need, Stan was able to address each person's individual need and then base the help he gave on the individual's ability level and circumstance. Several teachers came to depend on Stan as a confidant and role model. Stan was able to sustain a good rapport with these teachers and staff and was able to fulfill the role of mentor.

Like the mentor Rebecca, Stan naturally knew to employ principles of adult education. Stan created a dialogue that included problem posing to help teachers solve the problems they presented to him. He spent as much time "talking it out" as needed. He took the time to find out about the person he was mentoring so that previous experiences were incorporated. If someone needed help with technology, he took the time to learn how much experience and expertise the person had before he made suggestions. Then Stan tailored the help he offered to accommodate each person's individual needs and talents; he treated each person in a respectful, professional manner. Clearly, Stan embodied the spirit of adult education as he informally mentored his peers.

Besides mentors, the protégés also need to be prepared for their role in the mentoring relationship. Ilene, the protégé who felt "ripped off" by her mentor's lack of involvement, entered the relationship with little understanding of her mentor's purpose or role and little understanding of what she as a protégé could expect from her mentor. Ilene needed help, but didn't know who to turn to

when her mentor failed her. Nobody was monitoring the relationship, and Ilene had been given no ground rules for what to do if the relationship did not meet her needs. Similarly, Maye accepted what little her mentor had to offer and did not question her mentor's lack of engagement. She accepted their sitting together at lunch as a substitution for mentoring. Neither Ilene nor Maye were given the necessary information on what to expect from a mentor, how the mentoring process was expected to work, and who to turn to for additional help.

The Interrelation of the Elements

The participants in this study faced similar situations and voiced many of the same concerns that were discussed in the review of literature. As suggested by Veenman (1984) and Gordon (1991), teachers' concerns often include issues related to management of time, student motivation, differentiated instruction, and obtaining resources and materials. In some fashion, the concept of communication was also a common issue among all participants of this study. However, more thorough analysis led to a more refined concept of rapport. It appeared that the nature of each relationship was based upon the quality or type of rapport that developed between the mentor and protégé.

Through a more holistic analysis of the data, logistics were revealed as an important factor regarding participants' ability to develop rapport with their mentoring partner. Many circumstances and issues – lack of time, lack of proximity, and differences in subject or grade level – hampered the participants' chances to build rapport. Lortie (1975) explained that teachers often find

themselves working in physical and social isolation with little chance to build meaningful rapport with peers.

Participant readiness was also found to be a major factor in the building of rapport. In some mentoring relationships, the mentor was not prepared to fulfill the role in a way that satisfied the needs of the assigned protégé. Some mentors did not receive advance notice, were not of volunteer status, or were not trained to act as mentors. Likewise, some protégés were unprepared for their roles. They were given little or no choice regarding their placement in the mentoring program or who would act as their mentor. Furthermore, many of the protégés were uncertain about the nature or boundaries of the mentoring relationship and exactly what they could ask or expect from a mentor.

The elements of rapport and readiness were closely related to the use of adult education principles within mentoring relationships. The participants described and demonstrated relationships that employed these elements in a variety of ways, and each relationship developed dynamics unique to the individual participants. When considering the mentor and program coordinators as a group, a little more half of the group had some type of training for the mentor role. Furthermore, about half of this same group employed some of the principles of adult education within the mentoring relationship. Most of the trained group employed adult education principles, but several of the untrained mentors also used adult education principles. On the other hand, poor rapport, unfortunate logistics, and an absence of adult education principles were closely linked.

Overall, the adult education principles that were most visible in the mentoring relationships were respect, dialogue, participation, and collaboration. Participants in these relationships demonstrated respect by the regard and sensitivity they had for each other on a professional and personal basis. Dialogue, participation, and collaboration were demonstrated by the constant back-and-forth exchange of ideas and information between the mentor and protégé as they worked together on two levels. The first level dealt with classroom and teaching activities that improved instructional competencies. This was demonstrated by the help protégés Ursula and Lynn received on how to improve teaching strategies or management skills. The second level referred to the growth and development of the protégé as a person and a professional. Examples of this were found when mentors Pearl and Rebecca helped their protégés negotiate interpersonal relationships with other faculty members.

Relationships that involved student teachers rather than new teachers were more likely to exhibit adult education principles that included (a) problem solving by way of problem posing, (b) dialogue that included critical reflection, and (c) a sense that the protégé was working towards praxis in an effort to become an empowered, self-directed professional. Mentoring relationships that involved new teachers did not seem to be as intimate and intense. Perhaps, this is because new teachers were considered to already be members of the profession, whereas student teachers were seen as college students being shepherded into the fold. Perhaps, mentors found it easier to provide critical feedback to a protégé who was not yet a true peer or co-worker.

The ultimate mentoring relationship demonstrated rapport, participant readiness, and the use of adult education principles. While some relationships demonstrated good rapport, they may have lacked the intent associated with mentoring. In these relationships, the mentor and protégé got along well, but the purpose of the relationship did not include the mentoring elements of personal or professional growth and improvement. Because these relationships were not focused on growth or learning, the principles of adult education were not an issue. Then, there were relationships that exhibited good rapport, readiness for the relationship, and solid use of adult education principles. It was in these relationships that a true spirit of mentoring was evident.

Without the essential elements of rapport, readiness, and some level of use of adult education principles, a true mentoring relationship did not exist. Unfortunately, there was also evidence that some mentors and protégés who were assigned to work together developed a dysfunctional relationship. While it appeared that theoretically there were measures in place to address such situations, the measures were not used to prevent or end such relationships. It appeared that these relationships fell through the cracks because the program itself lacked a true purpose or meaningful ways to evaluate the progress or outcome of mentoring relationships.

Furthermore, relationships between assigned mentor and protégé pairs were not the only mentoring relationships that existed for the participants in this study. Many informal mentoring relationships developed and provided whatever it was that the protégés felt they were not getting from their formal mentors.

Some of the informal mentoring relationships replaced formal mentoring entirely, while other instances of informal mentoring served as an additional means of support to the protégé. While the use of informal mentors is not necessarily a negative aspect, in this program it was mostly a result of program weaknesses such as mis-matches between mentors and protégés, poor logistics, lack of readiness for the role by either the protégé or the mentor, and an unawareness of the need to employ the principles of adult education in an adult learning situation.

Patterns in the Data

The data was sifted and sorted many times over a period of several months in order to determine if patterns did or did not exist. The data revealed the following findings:

1. No pattern emerged regarding gender or race. This was probably because the majority of participants were White females which was the population most represented by the staff under study.

2. Volunteer mentors were more likely to develop a positive rapport than were non-volunteer mentors. Only one of the six volunteer mentors failed to develop a positive rapport with their protégé. However, two of the three of the non-volunteer mentors failed to develop a positive rapport and meaningful mentoring relationship with their protégés.

3. Of the five mentor program coordinators, three were trained as mentors, and two were trained in educational leadership. Of the nine

mentors, only two were trained as mentors while one was trained in educational leadership. Therefore, all five of the program coordinators had some type of training to prepare for the roles while only three of the nine mentors had specific training for the role of mentor.

4. Each of the three trained mentors used adult education principles to some degree within the mentoring relationship. However, only two of the six untrained mentors used some degree of adult education principles within their mentoring relationships.

5. Very few of the mentors or coordinators showed awareness of the field of adult education and its relationship to mentoring. Furthermore, terminology typically used to discuss or describe adult education situations (e. g., self-direction, participation, collaboration, and empowerment) was not used by participants as they discussed mentoring experiences.

A Substantive Theory

By constantly collecting, sorting, and comparing the data, the aforementioned patterns were observed. By viewing the data through these patterns along with the more holistic perspective gained through the participants' stories and circumstances, it became apparent the mentoring program was not conceptualized as a form of adult education. Because mentoring was not recognized as a form of adult education, the program was not designed upon

principles of adult education. There were many factors which led to this conclusion.

First, matches were often assigned without consideration of each individual's unique needs, situations, and personalities. Protégés and mentors were rarely given a choice in the matter of matches. As luck would have it, some matches worked out well, but other matches provided little or no benefit to the participants. After being assigned to a mentor, there was no process for the protégé to comfortably voice concerns or complaints about the mentoring relationship. If the relationship soured or was unproductive, it was easy for the protégé to feel stuck in a bad situation. Also, no meaningful way was in place for protégés to evaluate their experiences, voice their opinions, or make suggestions as a way to instigate future program changes. Because protégés were often in such a tentative role, they may have found it intimidating to complain or show what may be perceived as weakness or insubordination. Finally, protégés and mentors had to document a specific number of hours that they worked together. Again, this requirement overlooked the possibility that some protégés needed more or less help than the prescribed time they were required to meet with their mentors. The lack of confidentiality was also a concern because protégés were aware that mentors were required to document meeting times and topics of discussion.

Volunteerism was also an issue with mentors. While most of the mentors in this study were volunteer mentors; some were not. Non-volunteer

mentors' lack of preparation and engagement adversely affected their mentoring abilities. This was unfortunate for the protégés were placed under their care.

However, the most outstanding factor that created a chasm between the mentoring program and adult education was the mentors' lack of training. The fact that most of the mentors were untrained suggested that mentoring takes no special skills or understandings. The implication was that if a teacher could teach children, then those same skills would suffice to make a good mentor.

Furthermore, most mentors – trained, untrained, volunteer, or non-volunteer – had no specific skills regarding how to facilitate an adult learning situation. Throughout the study, it became apparent that most of the mentors and program coordinators were not aware of the field of adult education and did not recognize the fact that it existed as a separate form of education. There was no training to specifically ensure that mentors knew how adult's needs and ways of learning differ from those of children. Interestingly, a few mentors like Rebecca and Stan intuitively made use of adult education principles such as dialogue, participation, collaboration, and critical reflection. These mentors also modeled desired behaviors and posed problems to instigate problem solving strategies by the protégés, but these mentors were the exception to the norm. However, when mentors did use adult education principles, they were mostly used on a superficial level.

Because mentors play such an important role in the induction process of a profession that is struggling to recruit and retain new teachers, more attention needs to be paid the how mentors are selected and prepared for the role.

Rowley (1999,) proclaimed that good mentors should be (a) committed to the process, (b) aware of new teachers' concerns and needs, (c) willing and able to coach a novice, (d) accepting and able to provide help according to the protégé's unique needs, (e) models of lifelong learning, and (f) a source of affirmation to the protégé. Good mentors need good preparation. This includes a thorough understanding of their role and responsibilities along with an appreciation of the impact that good mentoring can have upon the individual protégé and the teaching profession.

This study affirmed what Rowley believed about the traits of a good mentor. Helping mentors develop these characteristics should certainly be a part of all mentor training programs. However, to take it a step further, mentor training should specifically equip mentors to be adult educators. Mentors need to hear themselves identified as adult educators so they can operate under that mind-set. They need to learn the terminology, become competent in the needed skills, and embrace the importance of basing their mentoring upon the principles of adult education as identified by the AEGIS group (Peters, 1990). To be a good mentor is to be a good adult educator.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

This study was conducted during the 2006-2007 school year using the qualitative techniques of grounded theory. Data were collected through personal interviews with 25 participants that included 5 mentor program coordinators, 9 mentors, and 11 protégés in a public middle school setting in rural South Georgia. Protégés included student teachers with no teaching experience, new teachers with less than four years teaching experience, and experienced teachers newly assigned to the school. Mentor teachers' experience ranged from six to twenty-three years.

The purpose of the study was to determine the ways in which a teacher mentoring program used the principles of adult education. The adult education principles were those defined by the AEGIS group (Peters, 1990). These included respect, dialogue, participation, collaboration, problem posing as a catalyst for problem solving, critical reflection, self direction, praxis, empowerment, and incorporation of previous experiences. Data were collected through individual face-to-face interviews with the participants. The interview data were tape recorded, transcribed, and analyzed based on grounded theory methodology.

Breeding (1998) explained that each mentoring relationship is unique. Accordingly, the data revealed that mentoring relationships existed in many forms. Some relationships were traditional forms of mentoring, while others were

more akin to peers helping peers. Mentoring relationships developed between mentors and protégés who were assigned to work together as well as protégés and peers who were not formally assigned as a mentoring team. Rapport emerged as an essential element of any productive mentoring relationship. Closely tied to the concept of rapport was readiness for the role, volunteer status of the mentor, and the mentor's ability to act as an adult educator. Some untrained mentors intuitively knew how to create meaningful dialogue, collaborate with the protégés, and ensure that protégés fully participated in the learning process. However, trained mentors were more likely to develop relationships based on sound practices of adult education that included respect, dialogue, collaboration, participation, critical reflection, and problem solving based on problem posing.

<div align="center">Conclusions</div>

Without a doubt, preservice and new teachers need and want support as they enter the teaching profession (Johnson & Kardos, 2002). It is assumed that a mentoring program will provide this support. However, this study demonstrated that the support protégés received greatly depended upon the quality of interactions within each mentoring partnership. The rapport between mentor and protégé was an essential element in how productive and useful the protégé felt the relationship to be. This is supported by Fletcher's (1998) conclusion that "successful interpersonal relationships are crucial to successful mentoring" (p.109).

Dunne and Bennett (1997) explained that the participants often have unclear expectations or inadequate preparation. In the same vein, many researchers have voiced concerns about mentor training and preparation (e.g., Feiman-Nemser, 1996; Holloway, 2001; Petersen, 1990). In the present study, one of the most important factors that influenced rapport was readiness. Great variance existed in readiness for a mentoring relationship. Some mentors had the advantage of specialized training such as Teacher Support Specialist (TSS) or the local High Performance Mentoring course; others had no training.

Mentors' readiness was also enhanced by volunteer status, prior experience as a mentor, and fore knowledge that they would act as a mentor. However, some mentors lacked some or all of these advantages. Naturally, mentor readiness had a great impact upon the dynamics and results of the mentoring relationship. Likewise, protégé readiness greatly impacted the mentoring relationship. Some protégés had prior experience as a protégé and welcomed the support of a mentor; other protégés were unclear regarding the purpose of the program or boundaries of the relationship. There was an uncertainty about what they should expect from their mentors. Furthermore, the amount of support and intervention needed by the protégés was widely varied. Some protégés desired more attention and assistance from their mentors than they were given, while some protégés required very little from their mentors.

Regarding readiness, Feiman-Nemser (1996) warned that teacher mentors often have little experience at observing and discussing the art of teaching. Later, Krull (2005) cautioned that often little or no training is provided

to those who support and supervise new teachers. In the present study, the use of adult education principles as defined by the AEGIS group (Peters, 1990) was closely tied to the concepts of readiness. Some mentors with little or no training did develop a positive rapport with their protégés and did use adult education principles such as respect, dialogue, collaboration, participation, and critical reflection. However, mentoring relationships showed little use of (a) problem posing as a means toward problem solving, (b) praxis or learning for action, (c) incorporation of previous experiences, or (d) empowerment. Furthermore, most mentors without formal training such as TSS or local coursework appeared less aware of adult education principles and less likely to develop a positive, productive rapport with their protégés. Other mentor readiness factors such as little notice or non-volunteer status were also closely associated with limited use of adult education principles and less positive rapport.

On the other hand, well-trained mentors seemed more likely to employ principles of adult education and more capable of developing a positive rapport with their protégés. This is in harmony with Evertson and Smithey's findings (2000) that trained mentors provided more skilled support than untrained mentors. Naturally, volunteer status and advance notification of mentorship duties were also factors that enhanced a mentor's readiness and rapport with a protégé. Logistics also impacted rapport. While readiness dealt with the affective and academic sides of mentoring, logistics had to do more with time, proximity, and the teaching of a common subject or grade level. Some mentoring relationships were less productive because the participants were not located

near each other, or they lacked common planning time. Readiness and logistics were concerns of mentors as well as protégés. This finding is consistent with the 2002 Boston Public Schools (BPS) study that found that new teachers want mentors who are easily accessible and share similar teaching responsibilities (McCarthy & Guiney, 2004).

The adult education principles most often employed by the mentors were respect, dialogue, collaboration, and participation. To a lesser degree, mentors also used critical reflection, problem posing as a means of problem solving, and praxis (i.e., learning for action). Perhaps because of the brief nature of most of the mentoring relationships, a long-term ideal of empowerment was rarely demonstrated. Similarly, protégés' previous experiences were rarely shown to be incorporated into the mentoring experiences.

<div align="center">Recommendations</div>

Schools rely upon and have expectations that mentoring programs will help new teachers make the transition into the profession. Because this is no mean feat, efforts should be taken to ensure that mentoring programs are well designed and monitored. The results should reflect the time, money, and efforts put into the programs. The recommendations that follow are based upon the situations and dynamics that existed in a middle school of rural South Georgia. However, they reflect the needs and concerns commonly demonstrated in the existing literature regarding new teachers and mentoring.

Preparation for Roles through the Use of Adult Education Principles

As schools throughout the nation struggle to attract and retain teachers, dramatic changes are needed in their mentoring programs. Because mentoring is a form of adult education, schools must accept the responsibility of developing mentoring programs that facilitates adult learning. Although the everyday business of schools revolves around educating children, it is necessary for schools to realize that the philosophies and strategies of pedagogy will not suffice when it comes to developing effective mentors.

Educators who fulfill the role of mentors have training and experience in working with youth, but most have limited experience and knowledge in the ways of teaching adults and peers who are facing the daunting task of entering a challenging profession. Schools need to appreciate that mentors have assumed the role of adult educator and understand that this added role will be quite different than their role as classroom teacher. The role of a mentor has to become more than another duty in a teacher's world of pedagogy. Mentoring should be identified as a separate skill that involves specialized training and knowledge meant to address the needs and circumstances of adults. It is imperative that schools develop curriculum for mentor training that is based upon principles of adult education.

Williams (2001) reinforced the idea that schools need to be train mentors to facilitate an adult learning situation. An important part of the mentor training should be to help the mentor develop empathy for the protégé. Mentor training must address the adult needs of new teachers, the impact of a protégé's

developmental level, and each protégé's unique circumstances. Also as revealed in the BPS study, protégés desire mentors who can provide meaningful assessment and feedback regarding protégé performance (McCarthy & Guiney, 2004). Schools must develop training programs that ensure that mentors have the sensitivity and skills needed to provide constructive criticism to an adult protégé.

Along the same vein, induction programs should include a thorough overview of the mentoring program so that new teachers know what to expect as a protégé. Young and Wright (2001) emphasized that the ground rules, roles, and expectations should be explained; participants' questions and concerns about the mentoring program or relationships should be addressed prior to the start of the relationship. Additionally, Cross (1981) and Billington (1996) emphasized the importance of allowing a protégé to have meaningful input and an active voice within the mentoring relationship and program. Protégés are adults, but because they are novices they may assume that they are in a submissive role. School must ensure that protégés see themselves as adult learners. Induction and mentoring programs have an obligation to inform protégés that they should expect to be treated as adult learners and that principles such as respect, participation, and collaboration are crucial aspects of a mentoring relationship.

Clearly, schools must emphasize to mentors that adult education principles must be employed within the mentoring relationship. Furthermore, schools must remain involved in the mentoring process in order to ensure that

mentors are capable and willing to maintain a relationship and dialogue with the protégé that is respectful; based upon mutual participation and collaboration, critical reflection, and problem-solving; and that leads to empowerment and self-direction of the protégé. Through the use of sound adult education practices, mentors should be prepared to create and sustain a relationship that includes an open exchange of ideas, promotes critical reflection, and leads to learner self-direction.

In this same vein, mentors must be trained to differentiate for each protégé. Head, Reiman, and Thies-Sprinthall (1992) discussed how each protégé will have needs based upon unique stages of developmental, psychological, and professional growth. As the protégés in this study demonstrated, each new teacher had different needs and required a different level and type of support. Each protégé entered the mentoring relationship with a unique set of circumstances and life experiences, and mentors need to recognize and appreciate that each protégé is different. Mentor training should explain the necessity of adjusting the mentoring role to suit each protégé. As suggested by Compton-Hall (2002), each mentoring relationship is as unique as the individuals involved, and mentors need to be taught to recognize and allow for these differences. As adult educators, mentors should be trained to respect each protégé's unique life and professional experiences, and these circumstances should be taken into consideration and incorporated into the learning process.

Furthermore, the necessity of documentation and record-keeping should not jeopardize confidentiality. In this study, it was troubling to realize that

mentors had to maintain a log of conversation topics between themselves and their protégés. Surely this hampered candid conversation and frank observations. The all-important elements of trust and rapport seemed jeopardized when participants' confidences were recorded and available for others to read and perhaps judge. Although this may appear innocent or insignificant, it could easily impose on the rapport between mentor and protégé and violate the spirit of adult education. Perhaps accountability could be monitored through other means that would not infringe on confidentiality.

Finally, schools must take steps to ensure that mentoring is not just another thankless role for over-worked teachers. Time and money must be dedicated to mentor training, and mentors must be relieved of other duties so they can devote time and effort to being an effective mentor. Furthermore, schools must accept the responsibility of overseeing the mentoring program and modifying it as needed to ensure that it continues to be effective.

Multiple Mentors

As previous discussion revealed, poor logistics and a lack of rapport seemed to hamper many of the mentoring relationships. Mentors and protégés often had trouble connecting. Differences in schedules, lack of proximity, teaching different subjects or grade levels, and personal differences were all obstacles to mentoring relationships. To have their needs met and questions answered, many of the protégés sought informal mentors.

Realistically, most of the logistical problems that plagued these mentoring relationships exist in typical school settings and most likely will not go away.

However, one protégé recommended group mentoring as a way to alleviate these problems. Since many protégés took the initiative to find informal mentors, why couldn't this aspect of mentoring become incorporated into the mentoring program? Bainer and Didham (1994) suggested that protégés might benefit more from a group of mentors rather than depending on a single mentor. Rarely will one mentor in a school be readily available and able to answer all questions related to academics and procedures, provide all emotional support and encouragement, and have a personality that clicks with the assigned protégé. Wouldn't it make much more sense to have a team of mentors assigned to each protégé? Each member could bring his own strength and area of expertise to the mentoring team. A team could easily serve multiple protégés, and an added benefit would be that protégés assigned to a certain team of mentors would have that much more in common and more peers with which to collaborate. Having mentors and protégés be part of a mentoring group could circumvent many concerns associated with the logistics and personality differences of traditional mentoring. Fletcher (1998) pointed out that group mentoring is beneficial because personality clashes between individuals can be avoided, and protégés are exposed to a greater variety of perspectives and practices.

Tahmincioglu (2004) explained that the corporate world is using a strategy that eases the pressure of a one-on-one relationship. New employees are part of a fluid, flexible mentoring circle in which peers share a mentor. Likewise, schools could select a mentor who exhibits a certain strength or expertise and allow this

person to act as a mentor for a group of protégés. Protégés could have several mentors who each possess a particular strength or talent.

Because logistics and personality mismatches often hinder the effectiveness of mentoring relationships, it is time for schools to consider new ideas and tactics. Due to wide variety in schools settings and scheduling, schools must become creative and innovative as they find what works for their particular situations.

Meaningful Assessment and Evaluation

In today's world, the completion of paperwork is often a substitute for accountability. The task is considered complete and the file is closed once the final form is signed. This seems to be true with school staff development in which peers teach peers, and students are not directly and immediately impacted by the results. Likewise, participants in mentoring programs may find it difficult to provide constructive criticism because they are unaware of the program's goals or objectives and how these should be achieved. This relates to participant readiness. Also, many programs are based upon peer relationships and involve new teachers who are too intimidated to offer criticism. Without honest feedback, programs continue to operate with the same weaknesses. A meaningless form tucked away in a file folder benefits nobody.

Besides the participants' assessment and evaluation of the program itself, the mentors and protégés need opportunities to provide meaningful feedback to each other. As mentors are taught to be adult educators, they learn to facilitate a productive, honest, non-threatening dialogue with an open exchange of ideas

and information. This is the root of the essential rapport needed to create a true mentoring relationship. However, as protégé Ilene revealed, her mentor came in at the end of the school year to observe her teach a lesson, but the mentor never gave Ilene any feedback. The form was completed, the file was closed, the mentoring relationship was over, and none were wiser. Of course feedback should not be confused with evaluation. Feiman-Nemser (1996) warned that a conflict of interest might exist if a mentor is also called upon to act as evaluator of a protégé.

Implications for Future Research

While the literature is abundant regarding the needs and concerns of new teachers, little is written about the use of adult education principles within induction and mentoring programs. It is recommended that future studies explore how adult education principles are used to train and support all participants – protégés, mentors, and program coordinators – of new teacher programs. In what ways does the use of adult education principles affect mentoring relationships, teacher retention and satisfaction, and ultimately student achievement? Also, further research should examine group mentoring within schools. How is it being used within schools and what are the outcomes?

Because staff development is used in some fashion in most work sites, research should continue to address how adult education principles are used to train our nation's workforce. How does the use of these principles affect the quality of the training and related outcomes such as employee satisfaction, retention, and effectiveness?

APPENDIX A

HUMAN SUBJECTS REVIEW FORM AND APPROVAL LETTER

HUMAN SUBJECTS REVIEW FORM
UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN MISSISSIPPI
(SUBMIT THIS FORM IN DUPLICATE)

Protocol # 2608140 3
(office use only)

Name __Debra J. Winans__   Phone __912 728-7365__

E-Mail Address __debiwinans2planters.net__

Mailing Address __104 Plantation Way Guyton, GA 31312__
(address to receive information regarding this application)

College/Division __College of Education & Psych__ Dept. __Adult Education__

Department Box # __5154__   Phone __601-266-4621__

Proposed Project Dates: From __Aug 7, 2006__ To __April 1, 2007__
(specific month, day and year of the beginning and ending dates of full project not just data collection)

Title __Use of Adult Education Principles In a Teacher__
__Mentoring Program: A Grounded Theory__

Funding Agencies or Research Sponsors _____

Grant Number (when applicable) _____

_____ New Project

__X__ Dissertation or Thesis

_____ Renewal or Continuation: Protocol # _____

_____ Change in Previously Approved Project: Protocol # _____

Debra G. Winans   8/1/06
Principal Investigator   Date

[signature]   8/1/06
Advisor   Date

[signature]   8/1/06
Department Chair   Date

RECOMMENDATION OF HSPRC MEMBER

_____ Category I, Exempt under Subpart A, Section 46.101 ( )( ), 45CFR46.

__✓__ Category II, Expedited Review, Subpart A, Section 46.110 and Subparagraph (7).

_____ Category III, Full Committee Review.

[signature]   08/08/06
HSPRC College/Division Member   DATE

[signature]   8-16-06
HSPRC Chair   DATE

The University of
Southern Mississippi

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Institutional Review Board

HUMAN SUBJECTS PROTECTION REVIEW COMMITTEE
NOTICE OF COMMITTEE ACTION

The project has been reviewed by The University of Southern Mississippi Human Subjects Protection Review Committee in accordance with Federal Drug Administration regulations (21 CFR 26, 111), Department of Health and Human Services (45 CFR Part 46), and university guidelines to ensure adherence to the following criteria:

- The risks to subjects are minimized.
- The risks to subjects are reasonable in relation to the anticipated benefits.
- The selection of subjects is equitable.
- Informed consent is adequate and appropriately documented.
- Where appropriate, the research plan makes adequate provisions for monitoring the data collected to ensure the safety of the subjects.
- Where appropriate, there are adequate provisions to protect the privacy of subjects and to maintain the confidentiality of all data.
- Appropriate additional safeguards have been included to protect vulnerable subjects.
- Any unanticipated, serious, or continuing problems encountered regarding risks to subjects must be reported immediately, but not later than 10 days following the event. This should be reported to the IRB Office via the "Adverse Effect Report Form".
- If approved, the maximum period of approval is limited to twelve months.
  Projects that exceed this period must submit an application for renewal or continuation.

PROTOCOL NUMBER: 26081403
PROJECT TITLE: Use of Adult Education Principles in a Teacher Mentoring Program:
A Grounded Theory
PROPOSED PROJECT DATES: 08/07/06 to 04/01/07
PROJECT TYPE: Dissertation or Thesis
PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATORS: Debra J. Winans
COLLEGE/DIVISION: College of Education & Psychology
DEPARTMENT: Adult Education
FUNDING AGENCY: N/A
HSPRC COMMITTEE ACTION: Expedited Review Approval
PERIOD OF APPROVAL: 08/14/06 to 08/13/07

Lawrence A. Hosman

Lawrence A. Hosman, Ph.D.
HSPRC Chair

5-16-06

Date

APPENDIX B

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH PROJECT

I would like to thank you for participation in this research project. As part of my doctoral dissertation process, I am conducting research on teacher mentoring. Your participation will consist of your answering several questions related to your mentoring experiences. I expect the interview to last no more than an hour. Your time and consideration are greatly appreciated.

There are minimal risks associated with participation in this study. The risks include the inconvenience of dedicating time to being interviewed. However, I feel that the information and insight that you share will potentially benefit the profession. While all risks to confidentiality can not be predicted, you may be assured that your participation and responses will be held in strictest confidence. Furthermore, a pseudonym will be used in place of your actual name throughout the study.

Because the interview will be face-to-face with the researcher, your responses are not totally anonymous. However, the researcher will hold your responses in confidence. Also, to ensure that what you say is accurately documented, the interview will be recorded. Only the researcher and her faculty sponsors will have access to these recordings; the materials will be securely stored at the researcher's residence. The recordings and all identifying materials will be destroyed after the study is completed.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary and you may withdraw at any time without penalty, prejudice, or loss of benefits.

Participation in this interview indicates your consent to participate in this study. Again, thank you for your cooperation. Questions concerning the research should be directed to Debra Winans, at (912) 728-7365.

_____   _____
Debra J. Winans   Date
Graduate Student
The University of Southern Mississippi

This project and this consent form have been reviewed by the Institutional Review Board, which ensures that research projects involving human subjects follow federal regulations. Any questions or concerns about rights as a research subject should be directed to the Chair of the Institutional Review Board, The University of Southern Mississippi, 118 College Drive #5417, Hattiesburg, MS 39406-0001, (601) 266-6820.

APPENDIX C

MENTOR PROGRAM COORDINATOR INTERVIEW GUIDE

Before we get started, I want to define *mentoring program* as the school program

that pairs preservice teachers or new teachers with experienced mentor

teachers.

1. Please explain how the mentoring program is set up within this school.

2. How does the mentoring program relate to the overall mission of the school?

3. In what ways does the mentoring program support the way you believe adults

   learn?

4. Discuss your ideas about the impact of mentoring.

5. How is the mentoring program assessed or evaluated?

APPENDIX D

MENTOR TEACHER INTERVIEW GUIDE

1. Explain how you became involved in the mentoring program.

2. What do you see as your role and responsibilities as a mentor?

3. In what ways does the mentoring program support the way you believe adults learn?

4. Tell how decisions are made regarding learning activities or experiences for your protégé.

5. Discuss your ideas about the impact of mentoring.

APPENDIX E

PROTÉGÉ INTERVIEW GUIDE

1. Please describe how you became involved with the mentoring program.

2. Describe your relationship with your mentor.

3. Tell how decisions were made regarding learning activities or experiences for you?

4. In what ways does the mentoring program support the way you believe adults learn?

5. Discuss your ideas about the impact of mentoring.

APPENDIX F

PARTICIPANT'S DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Please type or clearly print all information and be assured that all personal information will remain confidential. Thank-you.

Using the choices below, please circle your role in this study.

Mentor Program Coordinator   *Mentor*   *Protégé*

Name: _____
                Last   First   MI

Personal Phone Number _____

Worksite: _____

Worksite phone number: _____

Grade level(s) you teach (if applicable):_____

Subject(s) you teach (if applicable):_____

Number of years experience as teacher (if applicable): _____

Highest level of education you have attained: _____

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