

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Many states currently require mentoring programs for new teachers. Virginia is one state that requires a one-year mentoring program for new teachers. School districts are using mentoring for teachers in two different ways. One is the use of mentoring as part of the induction process. Two, is the use of mentoring in general staff development. Alternative certification is also available to teachers under the No Child Left Behind guidelines. However, one requirement for alternative certification is that the teacher participates in a mentoring program or receives intense supervision consisting of structured guidance and regular support (Department of Education, 2005).

One major need at this time is to reevaluate the certification requirements for new administrators. Any person willing to take courses and do an internship can qualify for an administrative certificate. Unfortunately, this does not always lead to quality people assuming administrative positions. According to Feistritzer (2003), there is no issue getting enough people through programs to earn administrative certificates; the problem lies with the quality of these people. School divisions need to focus on 'growing their own' and choosing people to pursue administrative degrees based on qualities and skills. Eleven states have already begun alternative certification procedures for administrators (Feistritzer).

In an effort to increase quality, the state of Utah has increased internship requirements at the university level for those preparing for a job in education administration. Baugh (2003) conducted a survey of students involved in some of these internships to gain insight into their value. Although a preservice preparation program, this study is included because the internship in a preservice preparation program develops a mentoring relationship and is therefore relevant.

The purpose of the study in Utah was to explore internship expectations of students enrolled in administrative/supervisor credential programs (Baugh 2003). Questionnaires were sent to students currently enrolled in a program in one of the following schools: Brigham Young University, Utah State University, and the University of Utah. Of 133 surveys sent, 89 were completed and returned for a return rate of 65% (Baugh). The research questions analyzed student expectations of the internship in four areas: academic value, relationships with supervisors, activities performed and requirements of the internship.

Baugh (2003) cites the following positive results: 88.8% of students felt the internship was a valuable learning experience, 80.9% of students felt there should be visits from their supervisor two to three times a week accompanied by relevant feedback, 71.9% of students felt the internship was comparable to a new administrators' experiences, and 91% of the students felt the internship should be a requirement of the preparation program. Baugh concludes the following based on the study results: students preparing to be school leaders found the internship component necessary and rewarding in their preparation, the internship was rewarding in conjunction with coursework, students learned a great deal being involved and taking responsibility versus just following a principal around, and a suggestion was made to allow students to split required time between two administrators to gain additional perspectives. This study demonstrates that the internship experience where a novice is learning from an experienced administrator is valuable. It is logical that this same type of benefit could be experienced by a newly appointed practicing administrator.

Mentoring in professional education has become extremely popular during the last 10-15 years. In recent years, mentoring programs have been widely adopted across the United States. Mentoring programs are able to address the needs of educators in two areas. One is in the area of

preservice preparation. The second is as part of induction programs designed to ease transition pains experienced by individuals in new professional posts (Playko, 1995).

Mentoring is an ongoing process in which individuals in an organization provide support and guidance to others who can become effective contributors to the goals of the organization (Daresh, 2002). Evidence shows that school leaders, throughout all stages of their careers, can benefit from a mentoring system in which a seasoned leader helps the protégé place theory and practice in the context of experience (Malone, 2000-01). One of the underlying premises of successful mentoring is the value that reflection has for assisting protégés to become autonomous, expert thinkers (Barnett, 1995). The key to novices unlocking their professional expertise is held by mentors. However, many times learning occurs not only by the protégé but by the mentor as well.

Drawing on the success of mentoring programs in business and industry along with the success of beginning teacher mentor programs, Daresh and Playko (1991; 1992) conclude that administrators in education could also benefit from such an approach. As record numbers of current administrators near retirement age, they will be replaced with novice administrators who may benefit from a mentoring program. A type of mentoring program for knowledge transfer and support for the novice administrator may prove to be an effective tool for school districts (Jacobson, 1996).

Benefits of Mentoring

Benefits to Mentors

Daresh (2002) repeatedly states in his commentary literature that individuals who have served in a mentoring capacity to either aspiring or practicing administrative colleagues report that they have gained much in this type of relationship. Despite time limitations, most mentors

wish to serve in this capacity again in the future. Some of the benefits expressed by mentors in a variety of situations include greater overall satisfaction with their jobs as administrators, increased peer recognition, opportunity for personal career advancement, and renewed enthusiasm for the profession (Daresh). Daresh & Playko (1992) believe mentors who have been attentive to the potential of those with whom they interact are able to capitalize on a new source of knowledge, insight, and talent.

Administrative mentors report personal satisfaction derived from participating in a mentoring program (Daresh, 2002). Serving as a mentor, particularly in working with aspiring principals, is a way to feel like a teacher again (Playko, 1995). As well, mentors are also able to learn and grow professionally from this experience. Mentors are exposed to new ideas, current research, and to the ways of other systems (Daresh & Playko, 1992; Daresh & Playko, 1993).

The protégé's presence also allows the mentor to collaborate with another adult (Cordeiro & Smith-Sloan, 1995). Mentoring relationships do a great deal to make administrators feel less isolated as a professional and more like a member of a productive and cohesive team (Playko, 1995). Although many benefits exist for administrators who participate as mentors in a formal program, one seems to stand alone. Playko suggests that perhaps the greatest benefit derived by mentors is that relationships with protégés cause greater reflection to take place on one's own behaviors, attitudes, and values. Reflection on one's own personal vision and philosophy is the key to continued growth as a leader.

Benefits to Protégés

Mentoring programs provide protégés with an opportunity to learn more about their professional lives. These programs also give increased insight into the protégé's individualized personal needs, values, and visions. Some of the benefits to protégés include increased

confidence in professional competence, theory translated into practice, enhanced communication skills, feeling like they belong, and learning the tricks of the trade (Daresh, 2002). Bova and Phillips (1984), indicate that benefits from the mentor-protégé relationship can be categorized as follows: learning risk-taking behaviors, communication skills, political skills, and specific professional skills.

One additional benefit identified by numerous practitioners who experienced mentoring relationships involved receiving help in future placements as a result of knowing mentors who know others (Playko, 1995). In other words, a mentoring relationship can help a protégé create a job network. In a study by Reyes (2003), the “data showed that preservice principals with a formal or informal mentor were more likely to advance their careers” (p. 54). Roche (1979) indicates that most studies in the business world about mentoring indicate that mentoring is important to career advancement. Despite this evidence, not all successful business persons indicate having a mentor experience.

Maybe most important of the aforementioned benefits is the feeling of belonging and connection. Daresh and Playko (1992) suggest a mentoring relationship reduces the feeling of isolation new administrators often have. Mentoring may aid in the successful assimilation of individuals to new leadership roles by helping them establish a network of peers and experienced professionals (Crow & Matthews, 1998). Ginty (1995) and Gaskill (1993) concur that professional development, in the form of mentors, reduces isolation, increases collegiality, and increases support. The goal is for the protégé to exit the mentoring program with established relationships that can be counted on for years to come for advice, support, etc.

Benefits to Districts and Schools

School systems across the country see great benefits from implementing formal and informal mentoring programs. Daresh (2002) believes some benefits include having a more capable staff, creating an attitude of lifelong learning for all administrators, and higher levels of motivation and job satisfaction. Mentoring programs can also create a sense of spirit and collegiality. Too often encouraging leaders to work together as colleagues is a nice idea, but one without much real substance (Playko, 1995). Gaskill (1993) concludes that “turnover can be reduced....feelings of being lost in the system are minimized....networks within the organization are enhanced through increased communication.” (p.157). These benefits are direct results from effective formal mentoring relationships and programs.

Districts without mentoring programs have administrators who are reluctant to seek help and assistance because it may suggest “he or she is somehow ‘weak’ or incapable of doing the job” (Playko, 1995, p.89). Additionally Playko states

When a school district initiates a mentoring or peer coaching programme [*sic*], it sends a clear message that there is no longer any need for principals to approach their work like the ‘Lone Ranger’, and that it is acceptable to work with colleagues in collaborative problem solving.” (p. 89)

This new approach may result in increased performance across the system.

By tapping into their own resources and training future leaders, districts create a pool of qualified applicants to fill available leadership positions. One additional use of a mentor relationship is with struggling administrators. It is the obligation of the school division to provide support and assistance to practicing administrators prior to termination or non-renewal of a contract. Mentoring may be one approach divisions choose to implement to provide this

support. As well as benefits to mentors and protégés, districts and individual schools also reap the benefits of a mentoring program.

Limitations of Mentoring

Planning Issues

Planning for mentoring programs for preservice preparation of aspiring administrators or assistance for newly appointed administrators is somewhat limited. Often the mentor program is plagued by a lack of clear focus and commitment by the district or other agency in the selection of mentoring as a practice in the first place (Playko, 1995). Playko believes from personal experience that too often mentoring has buy in from districts but it is often “viewed as a kind of ‘magic potion’ which may be used ... to ensure that aspiring principals and other leaders will know more specifically what their future jobs will entail by having contact with experienced colleagues” (p. 90). Many times there are no specific directives given to a mentoring program or relationship and this can inhibit the possible benefits .

Lack of Training

Mentors are too often chosen solely because they have experience as a school administrator. Unfortunately, experience does not automatically equate to a successful mentor. There are critical skills and abilities needed by mentors in order to be effective. These include but are not limited to human relations, instructional leadership, and the understanding of mentoring as a form of instruction (Playko, 1995). Mentors must also possess knowledge of the field, enthusiasm, the ability to communicate effectively, the ability to listen, and a caring attitude (Bey & Holmes, 1992; Daresh, 2002).

In addition to the aforementioned, key characteristics of effective mentors include positive leadership qualities, the ability to accept alternate ways of doing things, positive

modeling of continuous learning, and knowledge of the political and social realities in a school system (Capasso & Daresh, 2001; Daresh, 2002). As one can see, being an effective mentor is much more than just having experience. Training helps to weed out those who may not be cut out to be a mentor.

Geismar, Morris, & Lieberman (2000) created a Mentor Identification Instrument that reveals predictor variables that can be used to classify principals as mentors or non-mentors. Geismar et. al conducted a study of principals from Broward County, Florida. Of the 164 principals, 91 returned the survey for a return rate of 55%. This group of 91 was representative of the district in terms of gender, ethnicity, and school level. The participating principals were asked on a Likert-type scale to indicate the percentage of time a significant person who influenced their career spent exhibiting each of the behaviors. The behaviors were divided into major categories entitled role model, coaching, sponsoring, tone setting, and personal traits. The data collected were analyzed to determine which traits appeared most frequently and therefore, were most common.

The results were used to determine cut-off scores for subsequently identifying potential mentors. If a practicing administrator was interested in becoming a mentor, this instrument was used to determine if they possessed competencies and traits deemed necessary to be a successful mentor. Broward County, Florida currently uses this instrument and the data from this study suggest that the Mentor Identification Instrument is one tool that can aid in the identification process (Geismar et.al., 2000).

Matching

Possibly the most critical aspect of effective mentoring programs is the matching of mentors and protégés. There is no absolute way to “ensure that matches made are ‘matches made

in heaven' (Playko, 1995, p.91). However, there are four common myths about matching that need to be dispelled.

The first myth is that of matching genders. Daresh (2002) suggests that “studies of gender difference indicate that women prefer to have women as mentors, but there are no clear suggestions that women necessarily make better mentors to female colleagues” (p.59). This appears to be true for men as well. The second myth is that mentoring must occur within the same level of schooling. Although many technical parts of the administration of secondary schools differ from elementary schools, the foundations of school leadership remain the same (Daresh). The third myth is that mentors must be older than their protégés. According to Daresh, one must remember “the primary role of a mentor is not to know all the answers but rather to work with a protégé to develop common understandings and solutions to concerns, issues, and problems that might occur in practice” (p.59). This type of relationship can develop no matter what the age of the mentor. The fourth and final myth is that mentoring matches must be formed around geographical proximity. Daresh believes that effective mentoring matches can occur in sparsely populated regions where drop-in visits and same building experiences are not possible. Although being in close geographic proximity may make the mentor meeting sessions easier, it is not necessary to make them effective.

Although no magic potion exists, there are guidelines to follow to ensure an effective mentor match. Daresh (2002) believes “the ideal matching of mentors and protégés should always be based on an analysis of professional goals, interpersonal styles and values, and the learning needs of both parties” (p.62). Some other areas to consider when matching mentors and protégés are learning styles, leadership styles, and philosophies/educational platforms (Daresh).

With a program that matches both parties based on the aforementioned criteria, effective mentoring can occur.

Potential Problems of Mentor Programs

Sometimes no matter how much planning, training, and evaluation occur, mentor programs can experience problems. Some of the potential problems include mentors trying to fulfill personal agendas, mentors who are too protective and controlling, protégés only getting a limited perspective from the mentor, protégés becoming too dependent on mentors, protégés becoming carbon copies of mentors, and expecting too much from a mentoring relationship (Muse, Thomas, & Wasden, 1992). District personnel in charge of the mentoring program must keep in mind that these problems can usually be resolved with patience and time taken to build bridges of understanding between the mentor and the intern (Muse et. al.). Playko (1995) states “I have seen and have had direct experience with some of the ‘down’ sides however; I would say emphatically that I believe mentoring is a most effective approach to ongoing professional development “(p.89).

Mentoring and the Educational Leader

The Need for Mentors for Administrators

According to Daresh and Playko (1990), “mentoring has two applications related to professional development for school administrators. One is at the preservice preparation level and the second is related to the process of professional induction” (p.47). Although much knowledge and experience are gained during the preservice internships, “perhaps the most critical period in an administrator’s career, however, is the first year on the job” (Bass, p.29). Entry-year programs of mentoring for beginning teachers are abundant however these types of programs for novice administrators are available on a much smaller scale.

Daresh (1990; 2002) indicates that beginning principals experience problems in three distinct areas including role clarification, technical problems, and socialization to the profession and to the norms of a particular school system. If done correctly, formal mentor programs could assist these new administrators in these and other areas. However, mentoring must be viewed as a “proactive instructional process in which a learning contract is established between the mentor and the protégé” (Daresh, 2002).

Some key information mentors can discuss and share with protégés related to these three areas of need; role clarification, technical problems, and socialization, are the development of teacher/student/parent handbooks, inventory of supplies and instructional materials, duty schedules, special education scheduling, and the development of a personal educational philosophy and vision (Daresh, 2002). A newly appointed principal with little or no assistant principal experience may need a mentor for day to day management functions such as schedules, finance, ordering materials, etc. However, a newly appointed principal with ample assistant principal experience may need a mentor for larger, big-picture issues such as teacher motivation, effective communication, developing relationships, setting a vision, etc.

In a study in 1994 by Daresh and Playko, it was found that “great discrepancies appear to exist between experienced and aspiring principals with regard to the kinds of skills assumed to be important for effective job performance” (p.40). This study involved 420 aspiring (enrolled in a graduate program leading to certification or licensure) school principals in five different universities located in three states, along with 100 practicing elementary, middle, and secondary school principals in five different states with experience levels ranging from 2-20 plus years in administration.

These individuals were asked to “complete the ‘Beginning Principals’ Critical Skills Survey’, a 24-item questionnaire which asked for the assessment of tasks traditionally assigned to school principals...as well as other skills identified as frequently associated with effective performance in the principalship” (Daresh & Playko, 1994, p.37). Each item was rated from “extremely critical” to “irrelevant” in terms of skills needed to remain in the position of school principal after initial appointment.

According to experienced principals, the item rated “most critical” as a skill needed by new principals was “how to determine who is what in a school setting” (Daresh & Playko, 1994, p.38). This was followed closely by “establishing a positive and cooperative relationship with other administrators in the district” (p.38). The least relevant items rated by experienced principals were “how to manage food service, custodial, and secretarial staff” (p.38) and “how to establish a scheduling programme for students and staff (master scheduling)” (p.38).

According to aspiring principals, the item rated “most critical” as a skill needed as a new principal was “awareness of issues related to local school law” (Daresh & Playko, 1994, p.39). This was followed closely by “how to develop and monitor a building budget” (Daresh & Playko, p.39). The least relevant items rated by aspiring administrators were “portraying a sense of self-confidence on the job” (Daresh & Playko, p.39) and “demonstrating an awareness of what it means to possess organizational power and authority” (Daresh & Playko, p.39).

The questionnaire was broken down into three skill sets: technical skills, socialization skills, and self-awareness skills. Experienced principals ranked technical skills third while aspiring principals ranked them first. Experienced principals ranked socialization skills first while aspiring principals ranked them second. Experienced principals ranked self-awareness skills second while aspiring principals ranked them third. The data from this study suggest that

mentoring programs can be extremely beneficial to the aspiring administrator to help clarify what really is important for the new job. The data also suggest that a refinement of expectations for both the aspiring and practicing administrator is needed for a successful mentor relationship.

A study conducted by Elsberry (1993) of first-year principals in Alabama, Mississippi, and South Carolina identified induction practices they considered most effective. The first on the list was summer induction programs. The second most effective practice identified was mentoring. Despite indicating the aforementioned as the most effective practices, only 31% of the respondents participated in a summer induction program and only 21% worked with a mentor principal (Elsberry).

When principals were asked to identify a vital component of their preparation, they typically identify other school leaders as their primary source of help (Malone, 2000-01). In keeping with the principles of adult learning, the focus of mentoring relationships has shifted over the years from guiding the novice principals to creating a strong relationship (Zachary, 2000). This requires a learning relationship to exist between the mentor and protégé.

There are four phases of a learning relationship (Zachary, 2000). In the first phase, the mentors prepare. In the second phase, a dialogue between the mentor and protégé allows the two parties to map a learning path (Zachary). The third phase is the longest and most crucial and it is where the actual learning takes place. The fourth and final phase consists of evaluating the goals and either ending or renegotiating the relationship (Zachary). Knowledge of these phases helps both the mentor and the protégé understand the type of learning that occurs in a mentoring relationship.

Although most attention is focused on providing assistance to the beginning principal, we must not forget the needs of the career administrator (Bass, 1990). According to Reyes (2003),

“school leaders at all career stages-aspiring, intern, new, mid career, and late career-need other more experienced professionals to guide them in their journey through the challenges of turbulent times in public education” (p. 45).

Crow & Matthews (1998) indicate three levels of administrators who can benefit from a mentoring program. The first is a new assistant principal who is entering their first administrative job, usually coming from the classroom. The second is a new principal. These are individuals who have been assistant principals for at least one year (Crow and Matthews). The third is a mid-career administrator. This is an individual who has been in administration for several years. These types of administrators usually would need the assistance of a mentor program if they have major changes that occur within their school, they change schools, or they change school districts (Crow & Matthews). Mentoring programs can benefit persons at a variety of administrative levels.

One major theory at the basis of mentoring is the adult learning theory. According to Cooper (2005) as he reports on Malcolm Knowles theory, “adult learners desire more than just knowledge” (p.1) and they often resist and don’t benefit from traditional approaches of memorization, drills, and tests. Knowles makes four assumptions surrounding adult learning. First, adults are able to self-direct their learning. Second, adults rely on past experiences to help relate to new things they learn. Third, adults are more motivated to learn when it is socially relevant. Fourth, adult learners like to be able to immediately apply their new knowledge in order to problem-solve. When closely examined, all four of these principles are related to mentoring in the workplace; especially in schools.

Benefits of mentoring were first noted in the business world as far back as 1979. Roche (1979) reports on a study published in the Harvard Business Review that surveyed 4000 top

business executives (3876 men and 28 women). All executives were listed in the “Who’s News” of the *Wall Street Journal* and were surveyed about mentoring they had received. Almost two-thirds of the executives had a mentor at some point or another in their career and felt that it was beneficial to them (Roche). Most of these executives went on to mentor other executives throughout their career. Although this was the first large study, benefits to mentors and mentees are documented through many studies from the business world. Eventually, schools began to catch on to the mentoring concept; however at first, only with teachers.

In February 2004, Ingersoll and Kralik took on a monumental task of analyzing and critiquing numerous research studies about teacher mentoring. Ingersoll and Kralik were asked by the Education Commission of the States to review the studies to address the issue of teacher mentoring and retention. Their effort was a “comprehensive and critical review of existing empirical studies on induction programs” (Ingersoll and Kralik, 2004, p.1). This reference to teacher mentoring is included because it is the author’s opinion that it is logical to conclude that administrator mentoring would have similar, positive outcomes as teacher mentoring.

At first search, the pair found 150 empirical studies on teacher mentoring. However, the studies were further qualified based on quantitative data, evaluation and outcomes, and comparisons. Ultimately, 10 studies qualified and were analyzed to determine what legitimate conclusions could be drawn from the research available. Unfortunately, many studies are unable to control for other factors that might have affected outcomes. Teacher induction programs have many purposes including support, assistance with socialization and adjustment, and helping someone learn the ropes. Over the past 20 years, mentoring programs are the most popular form of induction (Ingersoll and Kralik, 2004). Of the 10 research studies analyzed, there was one

major common thread; mentoring programs have a positive impact on teachers and their retention.

In January, 1999, the National Center for Education Statistics reported that seven in ten teachers have improved “a lot” as a result of receiving mentoring at least once a week (NCES, 1999). The more hours a teacher spent in professional development, the more he/she believed it improved their classroom teaching. Professional development was defined as common planning time, mentoring, networking, collaborative research, and regularly scheduled collaboration with colleagues (not including meetings for administrative purposes). In this report, professional development and collaborative activities, along with mentoring, were associated with improvement in teaching. For example, “teachers who spent more than 8 hours in professional development...were more likely than those who spent 1 to 8 hours to report that participation in the program improved their teaching (41 percent versus 12 percent)” (NCES, p.28).

Additionally, “teachers who participated in common planning periods...at least once a week were more likely than those who participated a few times a year to report that participation improved their teaching (52 percent versus 13 percent)” (NCES, p.28).

With benefits evident for mentoring teachers, England created a program for mentoring those in leadership roles. On September 1, 1995, in the United Kingdom, the Headteacher’s Leadership and Management Programme (Headlamp) was created. Headlamp is a national program that includes a formal mentoring component to support new heads. The goal of Headlamp is to improve the quality of school management and is designed to support newly appointed headteachers in their first headship (Bolam, et al., 1995). Training principals while they are performing their duties was the purpose for moving to a mentoring program (Caldwell & Carter, 1993). Mentors guide the learning of the new principals by providing a personalized,

hands-on approach in which real issues facing administrators can be explored (Caldwell & Carter).

American states were quick to follow the steps taken by the United Kingdom when results over the mentoring of new administrators were overwhelmingly positive. California, Ohio, and North Carolina were among the first states to mandate mentoring for new administrators and Oregon included mentoring as a component of their principal induction program (Daresh and Playko, 1992). Maine adopted legislation requiring mentoring as a part of the recertification process for all school administrators. According to Daresh (1995), more than 20 states have mandated or plan to mandate mentoring components to their administrative induction programs.

In a study conducted by Daresh and Playko (1992), they used in-depth interviews with a group of practicing administrators (mentors) who worked with aspiring administrators. These administrators were “candidates in the Danforth Foundation Program for the Preparation of School Principals” (Daresh & Playko, p. 19). One common ingredient of the Danforth program is the “designation of individual experienced school administrators to serve as ongoing mentors to the candidates selected for participation” (Daresh & Playko, p. 15). The mentors were trained and the interviews focused on whether or not expectations of the program were met during the first year.

Candidates in the Danforth Program were free to make contact with any in a group of administrative mentors. The nine administrators selected for in-depth interviews were “recognized by at least five (out of 17 candidates who participated in the program) as an administrator consulted on at least three occasions during the school year” (Daresh & Playko, 1992, p. 19). Daresh & Playko viewed the number of contacts “between candidates and

mentors” (p.19) as a reasonable measure of successful mentoring because those contacted more frequently were classified as “someone who was ...particularly helpful or effective” (Daresh & Playko, p.19).

The findings of this study were overwhelmingly positive with regards to the mentoring program used by the Danforth Foundation. Five themes reoccurred throughout the analysis of all the interviews. The five themes noted by all practicing administrators (mentors) were: mentors received personal satisfaction from participation, working as a mentor gave those administrators the opportunity to teach again, new ideas were learned from the candidates of other systems, candidates exposed mentors to new research, and administrators labeled as Danforth mentors believe that label affirms their professional competence (Daresh & Playko, 1992).

Another qualitative study was conducted by Ginty in 1995. He interviewed school principals, two elementary, two middle, and two high. The participants were interviewed in August, November, and June and were asked questions about the kinds of changes they were experiencing and how they were adapting to these changes. The study indicated a large number of changes are experienced by new principals. Some of the changes included high stress, always thinking about the job, and anxiety (Ginty). The new principals had a difficult time coping with these changes and indicated in their interviews that they needed to build support systems with other administrators. Participating in a mentoring relationship would be one way to build a support system to cope with all the changes one experiences as a first year administrator.

Examples of Current Administrative Mentoring Programs

Mentoring programs for beginning educational administrators were first created and mandated in California, North Carolina, and Ohio but are also starting to be seen in other places. In Santa Cruz, California enrollment is soaring and so are administrative openings. Santa Cruz

currently has a mentor program called Growing Our Own (Bloom & Krovetz, 2001). In Santa Cruz, leaders seek to build leadership in others, engage in reflective thinking as a result of the mentor process, and mentors increase their effectiveness as a result of the strength they build in their own teams (Bloom & Krovetz).

Santa Cruz educators reinvented the principal/assistant principal relationship by establishing a mentor-apprentice agreement where the responsibilities of the principal and assistant principal are clearly defined. By clearly defining the roles, some of the potential problems of the mentor relationship are eliminated. The principal serves as the mentor of the assistant principal to help the assistant transition effectively in the new position, learn the tricks of the trade, and to then advance to the principalship if so desired. The mentor-apprentice agreement also includes statements addressing the evaluative role of the principal in the school versus the non-evaluative role of the principal in the mentoring relationship. This is the only way a true, open, trusting mentor relationship can develop; without the fear of negative effects on the evaluation.

Albuquerque, New Mexico Public Schools were finding it hard to recruit and retain principals (Malone, 2001-02). The state prompted them to develop a mentor program for new principals. In 1994 a steering committee created the Extra Support for Principals (ESP) Program (Malone). It is a voluntary program where principals who decide to participate select their own mentor from a list of experienced and trained principals. In the first six years, ESP provided mentors for 100 first-year principals and 95 percent of these principals recommended that all future, new principals participate in the program (Malone).

Like the ESP program, a mentoring program developed in New York City's District Two offers experienced principals a stipend to act as mentors to other principals needing assistance

(Willen, 2001). The superintendent identifies the mentors and the district tries to carefully match the mentor's skills with the principal's needs. The mentor and protégé meet at least once a week to discuss issues, concerns, and learning that has hopefully occurred. The mentors meet with other mentors as well.

District Two's program has succeeded because of its emphasis on the collegiality of professional development and the development of new leaders (Willen, 2001). There is a true sense of collegiality in District Two. Principals are not afraid to seek advice or share successful strategies (Willen). Collegiality, collaboration, and reduced feelings of isolation are some of the benefits of a mentor program (Cordeiro & Smith-Sloan, 1995; Daresh & Playko, 1995; Playko, 1995). The mentors and protégés in District Two really do support one another through this mentor program.

One research study by West (2002), examined novice and veteran principals' experiences with a formal administrative mentoring program provided by their school district. This study focused on the perceptions of principals who had participated in a formal administrative mentoring program as a mentor, mentee, or both. This study was significant because it provided a degree of insight regarding formal mentoring programs; there are not many studies available on this topic.

This qualitative study focused on in-depth interviews with participants from a large school district in a mid-Atlantic state consisting of urban, suburban, and agricultural communities. The division served 42,486 students and 12 novice and 5 veteran principals were interviewed (West, 2002). The conclusion of the study was that formal mentoring helped participants in two distinct ways: (a) with aspects and tasks of the role and (b) with introspection and reflection (West). The principalship is multifaceted and it requires support beyond the

traditional academic preparation if novice principals are to be successful (Daresh & Playko, 1990).

Summary

Some districts across the United States have developed formal programs for school administrators where peer coaching and mentoring are available. Additionally, some states are now mandating mentoring programs for beginning principals. There is a lot of literature on the formal process of mentoring and mentoring teachers but relatively little information available on mentoring programs for administrators (Doherty, 1999). In the “context of principal shortages, accountability demands, changing school reform efforts, and the changing role of the principal, mentoring is vital to principal development starting at the principal preservice stage” (Reyes, 2003, p.46). Prince (2004) states that “if districts want to recruit, hire, and retain the best school leaders, a mentoring program...can assist both new principals and aspiring principals” (p. 29). Administrators, in all stages of their career, appear to benefit from mentoring programs and/or relationships.

The review of literature consisted of a discussion of the history of mentoring, the benefits of mentoring (mentor, protégé, district), the limitations of mentoring (planning, lack of training, matching issues, potential problems), and mentoring and the educational leader (need for mentors, examples of current informal and formal mentoring programs).