

Creating Accountability in a Cross-Disciplinary Mentoring Program in Higher Education

Bethany L. Hersman

Associate Professor
Assistant Department Chair
Adapted Physical Education Program Director
Department of Kinesiology and Health
Wright State University.

Huma A. Bashir

Associate Professor
Clinical Mental Health Program
Department of Human Services
Wright State University.

Roxanne DuVivier

Associate Professor of Higher Education
Department of Leadership Studies in Education and Organizations
Wright State University.

Abstract

The absence of mentoring in higher education often results in unclear expectations and a lack of guidance for employees new to the university. This paper highlights different types of mentoring relationships formed within the academy and defines responsibilities of mentors and mentees from a social learning theory perspective. Accountability systems that promote quality professional practice are explored along with collaborative, purposeful mentoring relationships that can be formed within and across communities of professional practice. Through reviewing the literature and conducting a needs assessment with faculty and staff in a college of education and human services at a large midwestern university, recommendations to address the mentoring needs of respondents were formed.

Keywords: Mentoring, Higher Education, Social Learning Theory, Assessment

Introduction

Mentoring programs in higher education are often overlooked as a viable resource to sustain a competitive advantage over other academic institutions. Approximately one-fourth of universities in the United States have formal mentoring programs, requiring many new faculty members without access to mentoring programs to seek out mentors informally (Banerjee-Batist & Reio, 2016). Often, mentoring programs that do exist are neither incentivized nor valued within their host institutions, making it difficult for mentors and mentees to commit to the program. Faculty members have multiple role responsibilities, and the time associated with mentoring program participation can be difficult to allocate (Bean, Lucas, & Hyers, 2014). It is additionally important to note that a lack of faculty and staff mentoring can be particularly detrimental to the success of women and other historically underrepresented groups, as it perpetuates an academic culture unresponsive to their “diverse professional

development needs” (Zellers, Howard, & Barcic, 2008, p. 553). Social stigma is another problem that participants in mentoring programs may face, since academic cultures have historically valued such things as competitiveness, independence, and autonomy over teamwork, mutual support and collaboration. It can be theorized that one reason for the comparatively small numbers of mentoring programs may be that in competitive academic cultures “professional deficiencies or weaknesses in the context of a mentoring relationship, may be revealed. Such disclosures could serve to “derail rather than develop an early-career faculty member” (Zellers et al., 2008, p. 562).

The absence of mentorship programs and/or poor mentoring when programs do exist can lead to faculty members experiencing psychosocial deficiencies such as a lack of acceptance, lack of trust, and insufficient friendships. These conditions contribute to an academic culture that is not conducive to faculty recruitment, development, nor retention. Research supports the idea that mentoring programs consistently contribute to an increase in retention and career satisfaction of faculty and staff (Dominguez & Hager, 2013). The hierarchical power structure at universities is complemented by a more collegial set of roles for mentees that not only empower them but also enable them to co-construct their relationships with others. It is significant to note that relationship building helps faculty form productive careers and can help to decrease their burnout rates (Dominguez & Hager, 2013).

Mentor and mentee relationships are defined in multiple ways in various publications. In the context of professional development, mentoring relationships are defined as those where mentors having advanced experience and knowledge that can help them oversee the career development of the mentees. Irby (2014) presented three different definitions of the mentor and mentee relationship. The first definition is “the evolutionary process...that builds support, trust, confidence, risk-taking, and visible positive transformation through dialog” (Irby, 2014 p. 182). In the first definition, objectivity is required of both the mentor and mentee along with a willingness to be open about their goals, thoughts, and feelings. The second definition of mentorship is specific to the mentor, stating that “the mentor...must be an encourager of shared innovation, must know how to keep a perspective and not just show up-yet must show up and devote time” (Irby, 2014 p. 182). In the third definition, mentoring programs are created to facilitate “opportunities for mentors and mentees to work together for a positive outcome or purpose” (Irby, 2014 p. 182). Irby’s research considers important factors for creating a mentoring program like screening and training, support for the mentor, accountability, understanding of diversity, focus groups for mentors to process experiences, and term limits that specify how long a mentor is assigned to a mentee. This research explored faculty and staff interest in mentoring models and structures and the value they bring to institutions and the people who serve them.

Mentoring programs support the personal and professional development interests of faculty as they begin their new roles or further their careers as academics. In the aggregate, these programs offer orientation for professional development, access to opportunities, a forum for intellectual stimulation, and a safe place for emotional support, candid dialogue, and growth-oriented feedback. Numerous forms of mentoring programs exist to meet the relationship and development needs of faculty. Though university-specific mentoring programs may incorporate various features, the primary models employed can be described through eight predominant models.

One-on-one mentoring is perhaps the oldest and most traditionally accepted model. A mentor is paired with a mentee and a professional sponsorship relationship ensues. The foundation for success in one-on-one mentoring is the fabric of the relationship. These one-on-one relationships may exist for a finite time to help the new faculty member become properly acclimated to and initiated into university life or may continue for years as a lifetime partnership (Johnson, 2016).

Group mentoring is a process by which a seasoned, experienced mentor meets with multiple mentees at one time. In the group mentoring models, mentees often have a common or similar goal. Group mentoring may be an efficient model where time and personnel are at a premium. The group mentoring format allows for the dissemination of collective knowledge and supports the universality of mentee collective experiences. The process of group mentoring influences and fosters mentee intellectual development and career aspirations (Darwin & Palmer, 2009).

Team mentoring provides a structure for multiple mentors to work with a single mentee. In this model, the team meets with a given mentee for a specific period of time until the goal is achieved, or a project is completed. In this model, the team guides and provides feedback to the mentee who assumes responsibility for learning or project work (Johns & McNamara, 2014).

Peer mentoring is a horizontal approach to the provision of mentorship. Often, junior faculty provide mentorship and support to fellow junior faculty, either in a one-to-one capacity or via the group process. Peer mentoring is an effective format for sharing job-related knowledge, sharing insights formed on topics as relevant to peers, and for

identifying and discussing challenges or experiences peers may encounter. Peer mentoring programs offer a special form of social support and are a good way to increase social integration (Leidenfrost, Strassnig, Schultz, Carbon, & Schabmann, 2014).

Our digital age has given rise to the advent of *e-mentoring* models whereby one mentor works with a single mentee via the Internet most of the time. Some e-mentoring programs require that mentor and mentee meet initially in person, where distance is not an obstacle, as a means of establishing a personal connection before moving to digital communication. This mentoring model is most often employed in settings where mentors and mentees have similar professional interests but are challenged by physical location, distance, or issues of mobility. E-mentoring requires that both parties have the requisite motivation to both establish and maintain regular mentoring communication (Kaufman, 2017).

Mentoring models are also characterized by their informal or formal structures. In the informal model, the mentee self-selects a mentor and the two establish the nature of the relationship and the parameters they operate within. The *informal mentoring* model allows the relationship and the work conducted to develop organically. The relationships progress in accordance with needs and pace of the mentee. The *formal mentoring* model is often characterized by a mentor-mentee assignment, a formal mentorship agreement and a formalized structure for embarking upon and achieving mentorship work (Inzer & Crawford, 2005). The *reverse mentoring model* is one where the junior faculty member has more expertise in a particular area than their senior counterpart and mentoring provides professional development for senior faculty. The mentoring often occurs in areas of technology, to encourage diversity capacity and to improve cross-generational understanding. It is important to remove barriers associated with status or position in order for reverse mentoring to be a safe, open and valuable process for both mentor and mentee (Chen, 2013).

Though successful mentoring programs can emanate from a variety of mentoring models, effective programs share certain common characteristics. They a) have support from top-level administrators; b) have an integrated, comprehensive strategy for faculty development; c) have a voluntary participation policy; d) offer participants involvement in the mentor-mentee pairing process; e) provide resources to assist in mentor-mentee relationships; and f) establish clear mentorship goals with a framework of expectations for the relationship (Hanover Research, 2014). According to Hanover Research (2014), those who are most effective as faculty mentors are aware of adult learning principles and teaching strategies and techniques. These faculty mentors also understand the difference in orientation and stages between themselves and their mentees. These best-practice mentors not only understand institutional characteristics, culture and resources, but also have demonstrable capacity to plan, observe and foster discussion (Hanover Research, 2014).

Because universities commit considerable resources to faculty recruitment and retention, mentoring programs are necessary to promote positive outcomes such as better organizational commitment and less turnover (Banerjee-Batist & Reio, 2016). Mentoring programs are an essential part of maintaining an inclusive and positive academic culture, the energy of faculty members, and long-term employment for new faculty members. Given the limited resources available to faculty members today and the increasing demands of academia, Tareef (2013) suggested that “environmental and organizational factors...play a significant part in the academic career development process [and] one such factor is that of mentoring” (p. 703). Mentoring related to career development is “recognized as an important factor in maintaining faculty vitality” (Tareef, 2013, p. 703). Mentoring has also been shown to increase one’s commitment to the university, suggesting that mentoring programs are an integral part of faculty retention (Thomas, Lunsford, & Rodrigues 2015). Fountain and Newcomer (2016) have criticized the absence of accountability in many mentoring programs, citing the lack of incentives and rewards for mentoring and lack of interest by faculty as primary challenges in implementing effective faculty mentoring programs.

Social learning theory provides a useful framework to examine the importance of creating accountability in cross-disciplinary mentoring programs. It describes the ways in which mentor-mentee relationships are formed and why they have a profound and lasting effect on participants. According to social learning theory, learning comes from observing others who are modeling either negative or positive behaviors or attitudes (Ata, 2018). Bandura (1977) states: “Learning would be exceedingly laborious, not to mention hazardous, if people had to rely solely on the effects of their own actions to inform them what to do. Fortunately, most human behavior is learned observationally through modeling: from observing others one forms an idea of how new behaviors are performed, and on later occasions this coded information serves as a guide for action.” (p. 22). Social learning theory will allow mentor’s

behaviors and attitudes to influence mentee's outcomes (Bandura, 1977). One of the most important components of a successful mentoring program is the ongoing assessment of and feedback to mentors (Anderson, Silet, & Fleming, 2011). Determining how to measure accountability can be difficult in mentorship, as there is no standardized procedure for evaluating mentors or mentees (Anderson et al., 2011). The professional outcomes of the mentee are a possible measure of mentorship success, but it is not a clear indicator of mentor relationship quality. Individuals with great mentor relationships may not succeed and individuals with poor mentor relationships may achieve their professional goals due to many other variables (Anderson et al., 2011). Implementing measures that incentivize the mentor and mentee to engage in various activities together and providing periodic evaluations of mentors and mentees to ensure mentors are held accountable for helping and supporting mentees are both important considerations in building high quality, long-lasting mentor relationships.

The theoretical framework for mentoring in this paper was carefully selected due to the learning nature of the mentor-mentee partnership. According to Daloz (1999), a mentor must model the learning and confidence in the mentees' learning processes. A clear understanding of self-efficacy, expectations, and structures of the proposed learning process is needed all parties to benefit from this relationship (Dominguez & Hager, 2013). Wenger's (1998) theory of social learning has direct applicability to mentoring in higher education, because we learn and develop naturally through our interactions with others and make meaning of those interactions in the context of our lived experiences. Wenger provided a theoretical underpinning for what is known as communities of practice and provides useful understandings of the cultural elements that both inhibit and nurture the effectiveness of our communities of practice in higher education (MacGillivray, 2017). Social learning theory allows mentors to model certain behaviors and guide mentees to critically reflect on their experiences over time (Dominguez & Hagar, 2013). As role-models and confidants, mentors can provide mentees with constructive feedback, help in cultivating observable patterns of desirable competencies and skill development, and provide insider information about specific academic environments. This relationship helps mentees grow in their respective fields without feeling discouraged or judged. This framework allows both mentors and mentees to model successful behaviors and demonstrate accountability for learning and development. Having a positive experience being mentored encourages mentees to become mentors themselves and, in turn, pass on the knowledge they received during their mentoring relationship.

It is important to note that mentors can and do fulfill multiple roles. Peer-to-peer mentors often have interests and career goals compatible with those of their mentees and establish an informal mentoring relationship around those commonalities. Faculty mentors who mentor doctoral students, predominantly help students achieve their career goals and shape their professional identities. They also help guide their mentees through various career transitions and establish a formal relationship with their mentees. Junior-senior faculty mentors may have either a formal or informal relationship and are typically colleagues in the same department of whomever they are mentoring. A junior-senior faculty mentor has the same responsibilities as other peer faculty mentors, with many of their responsibilities being dependent upon the goals of the colleague that they are mentoring.

Mentoring is traditionally categorized as either formal or informal. Formal mentoring programs provide structured support for mentees and help them connect to a network of mentors. Conversely, informal mentoring is unassigned and unstructured and is defined by faculty members seeking out mentor relationships on their own. Social learning theory emphasizes the important influence that others have in modeling and shaping learning. When people organically align with each other in personality, it can be more rewarding and less artificial. It has been suggested that mentees finding their own mentors leads to more successful and long-term relationships (Kuyper-Rushing, 2001). Lary (1998) further explained that mentoring is effective only when both are "found" and not "assigned" (p. 24). Additionally, Chao et al. (2006) found that mentees in informal mentorships received more career-related support from mentors and higher salaries than mentees in formal mentorships.

Literature has shown that the academic culture within certain departments may not be conducive to a positive mentoring experience, so mentoring outside one's department may be necessary (Bynum, 2015; Hersman, 2018). The purpose of this paper is to describe the development of a cross disciplinary mentoring program designed for all levels of faculty and staff in a college of education. Often, departments do not have enough mentors available or willing to participate in mentoring programs, so we present the idea of looking outside one's department if a mentor is not available within the department.

This paper aims to help increase accountability in a mentoring program by incentivizing the mentor and mentee to engage in various activities together, advocating for a periodic evaluation of mentors and mentees to ensure mentors

are held accountable for helping and supporting mentees, and ensuring that mentees are respectful toward their mentor and proactive toward developing personally and professionally. Additionally, we propose that mentorship programs follow a hybrid formal-informal mentoring relationship model (Figures 1.1 and 1.2), and that mentors and mentees be allowed to choose their respective partners. When people organically align with each other in personality, it is more rewarding and less artificial. It has been suggested that mentees finding their own mentors leads to more successful and long-term relationships (Kuyper-Rushing, 2001). Lary (1998) further explains that mentoring is effective only when both are “found” and not “assigned” (p. 24). Additionally, in a study by Chao and colleagues (2006), the authors found that mentees in informal mentorships received more career-related support from mentors and higher salaries than mentees in formal mentorships. It is important that the mentoring program is designed to be utilized with all levels of faculty, lecturers, and/or administrative staff members because all individuals employed by the institution should receive the mentoring they want and need.

Background

The lead author was approached by the dean to direct an action research project for the purpose of developing a mentoring program for four departments in a college of education within a large, mid-western university. At the time, no official mentoring programs existed aside from the obligatory senior (tenured) faculty mentor who was “assigned” by each department’s Promotion and Tenure committee to junior (untenured) tenure track faculty. Subsequently an ad-hoc Mentoring Committee of volunteers from the college was formed. The purpose of this committee was to design a mentoring program that was college-wide and encompassed every member of the college who wanted a mentor, specifically, tenure track faculty, non-tenure track faculty (e.g. lecturers), and staff members (e.g. administrative assistants, advisors, field placement supervisors, etc.).

A ten-item needs assessment instrument was developed by the cross disciplinary committee to capture a broad representation of pressing questions that existed around mentoring across the college. Following the needs assessment, small group discussions were held during a college-wide meeting to delve more deeply into survey responses (Appendix B) and to solicit more opinions across the college, as some initial surveys were incomplete. Overall, the college faculty and staff respondents expressed clear interest in a mentorship program. They specifically expressed interest in being mentored by an individual who is honest, open, and trustworthy, with investment in the mentee’s wellbeing. They did not want a structured/formal mentoring program that increased workload with more forms to complete. That said, some respondents stated that without some form of accountability, faculty and staff mentoring may not happen.

An additional piece of information that came to light through the needs-assessment survey was that faculty thought mentors should receive some form of recognition (whether compensation or acknowledgement of service on their annual reports) for mentoring another individual in the college.

Discussion

The authors took all the information gathered through the needs assessment and subsequent discussions and designed the following cross-disciplinary/cross-departmental mentoring model and program to foster mentee development, mentor-mentee accountability and to provide recognition for mentor contributions. The subsequent mentoring program created was grounded in the principles of social learning theory and the applications of these principles in an accountability-based mentoring program. The needs assessment confirmed the need for communities of practice as discussed by Wenger’s (1998) theory of social learning. There was a need for all levels of faculty and staff to be guided by mentors, thus helping the development of accountability and mentoring documents for this mentoring program. The dean of the college was supportive of the mentoring group’s exploration, as were the college’s four department chairs. Support from administration is helpful in moving a proposed mentoring initiative forward. Zachary (2005) highlights the importance of a supportive culture in order for mentoring to be implemented and integrated into the culture of the organization. While mentoring programs can have a positive impact on junior faculty, senior faculty, administrators, and staff members, it is important that valuing and promoting these programs comes from the administration (i.e., department chairs, deans). With support, powerful, positive changes for mentoring in a college as well as within and across departments is possible (Costello, 2015). According to Costello, “those with the power to change policies etc. should take an active role in creating, shaping, and expanding mentoring” (p. 21). Thus, if a comprehensive mentoring program is going to be developed and implemented, it needs to have both department and college support and guidance (Otieno, Lutz, &

Schoolmaster, 2010). With the requisite administrative support, recommendations for a cross disciplinary mentoring program, with accountability measures and recognitions were adopted by the dean and promoted within the college.

Proposed Mentoring Program

We recognized that there was a significant need for a mentoring program and that there was no accountability in place for mentoring activities. In some cases, mentoring had become another box to check rather than being seen as a mutually beneficial relationship between the mentor and mentee. In certain instances, mentoring relationships were never initiated, formed or maintained. The needs assessment demonstrated that not only junior faculty, but also senior faculty, staff, and lecturers desired mentors. When developing the recommended mentoring program, the authors considered all possible members of the college who could benefit from mentoring, followed the results of the needs assessment and built implementation documents around their stated needs and interests. From the authors' personal experiences and the feedback provided about mentoring within the college, it appeared that each of the departments in the college relied on mentoring to happen on its own, and it often did not. In fact, some faculty never received mentoring at all. In addition, some academic departments were small, and department size restricted availability of mentors. Furthermore, some faculty (lecturers and/or tenure track/tenured) may not gravitate toward a mentor in the department, if a suitable match is not available within a given department. Therefore, the authors advocated for cross-disciplinary/departmental mentoring as desired by the mentee with the addition of a formal component of checks and balances to reward and recognize strong mentoring practices and to keep both the mentor and mentee accountable.

Each department's bylaws within the college state that a tenured faculty member will be assigned to mentor each junior faculty member, but no mentoring guidelines existed for this relationship, no accountability processes were in place, and no mentoring was mentioned for non-tenure eligible faculty. Therefore, the authors advocated for a college-wide, cross-disciplinary mentoring program that involved the department chairs and the dean of the college to maintain accountability in mentoring relationships. Mentors did not need to be from the same department, but they could be if desired.

Mentees have the freedom to find their own mentors, as this aligns with the literature in mentoring where informal mentoring relationships tend to be more effective than assigned mentoring relationships (Bynum, 2015). An informal mentor can sometimes help with more significant and current issues related to the politics and climate of an academic space without fear of judgment or disappointment than if someone were matched with a formal mentor, especially if that person is in the same department (Bynum, 2015).

Conclusion

Based on the needs assessment and informed by the literature on mentoring in universities, the following recommendations are made. A mentoring program with accountability measures should be created that is based on elements of social learning theory, specifically that vicarious learning of the observer can be a powerful factor in the mentee's growth and development. It involves a more nuanced definition of mentoring, which is defined as a collaborative and reciprocal learning relationship characterized by trust, respect, and commitment between two or more individuals who share accountability for working toward mutually agreed upon goals (Zachary, 2005). In this mentoring relationship, the "mentor supports the professional and personal development of another by sharing his or her life experiences" (Zellers et al., 2008, p. 555). Values such as trust, respect, and commitment discussed in the contemporary definition are integral to a feeling of safety and openness in expressing one's views in a mentor and mentee relationship. It follows that the mentor serves as a role model and teaches the mentee to demonstrate similar behaviors (Ata, 2018). First, participating mentees select their own mentor (who can either accept or respectfully decline), and the pair agree to meet to set goals and establish a timeline for their meetings over the course of an academic year. These goals would then be communicated to the mentor and mentee's department chairs and incorporated into the review of accomplishment reports that are submitted annually by faculty and staff.

Once the relationship has been established, the mentor agrees to provide the mentee with help appropriate to their position and responsibilities within the university (teaching, research, promotion and tenure, motivation, answering questions, acting as a sounding board etc.) based on the goals they have mutually established. Not every potential mentor is capable of helping with all the mentee's needs so more than one mentor may be warranted (Hersman, 2018; Zerzan, Hess, Schur, Phillips, & Rigotti, 2009). These mentors do not have to be within the same department

as the mentee. As long as the relationship is mutually beneficial and is cultivated and developed by both parties, the likelihood is higher that there will be more positive outcomes such as being promoted sooner, having higher work productivity, and general job satisfaction. This mentoring relationship can help the mentee to overcome many of the roadblocks to productivity and career advancement as long as both parties are proactive and intentional in making the relationship work (Sorcinelli, Yun, & Baldi, 2016).

In many cases, the mentoring relationship can help the mentee navigate through university/department politics, provide opportunities for growth and feedback, and guide the professional development of the mentee. In the case of this mentoring program, we also noted that not only tenure track faculty desired mentors but also the staff and lecturers were interested in engaging in a mentoring program. This was viewed as especially important because, in this situation, the bylaws in each department did not make provisions for non-tenure eligible faculty and staff to have a mentor. Having the support of the dean and department chairs is essential in ensuring that the mentor initiative receives support and that each person receives the mentoring he or she needs. Administrators can utilize accountability measures to ensure that mentoring occurs consistently within a department and/or across a college. Administrators should also be aware that mentees may wish to change mentors or have multiple mentors at one time. Administrators should create an open environment where the mentees needs are paramount in the process.

Accountability in Mentoring Tools

In order to create the accountability for mentoring the respondents suggested, several products for the mentoring program were constructed. First, a mentoring session rating scale was created (revised from Campbell & Hemsley's Session Rating Scale in Psychological Practice, 2009) for the mentee to complete and discuss with the mentor after each meeting they had (Appendix A). The purpose of this rating scale was to ensure the mentoring meeting/session covered what the mentee had planned and met his/her needs. The form is useful for encouraging the mentee to create an agenda for each meeting and to prepare ahead of time for each meeting so that the mentor can also be prepared to help meet the needs of the mentee. This scale is meant to serve as a mechanism for follow up to each session and documents how mentoring work is progressing over time. The completed sheets could also be given to the department chair and used as a part of the annual evaluation report for the service component of the mentor.

Second, mentor and mentee evaluations were constructed (Appendices B and C). These were developed because there were no evaluations of mentors and mentees in place, and in some cases, there were assigned mentors not actively engaged in helping or developing their mentees. The mentee is also evaluated on his/her ability to accept mentoring and to help develop and co-create the mentoring relationship. There are several ways these evaluation forms could be used- first, they could be used by the department chair to confirm that mentoring is occurring within the department, that the departmental members are receiving the mentoring they need (regardless of position or rank), and to ensure that they are being responsible and respectful as mentees and mentors. Especially in cases where the mentoring is cross-disciplinary, these forms could be given to each department chair who is in charge of the faculty/staff members, so they are aware that mentoring is occurring outside of the department. This too could be utilized as a part of annual performance evaluations and a part of any mentoring program within the college.

Finally, in order to provide recognition for the mentors' contributions to mentoring, an "Excellence in Mentoring" award was created (Appendix D). In order to receive this award, the mentee must initiate the nomination of the mentor in acknowledgement of the help and guidance provided over at least one academic year. Then the pair provides evidence of mentoring activities they have engaged in together (using the evaluation forms, mentoring session rating scale, peer evaluations of teaching, attending workshops together, etc.) as well as securing a recommendation letter from the department chair(s) endorsing the quality of the mentor and mentee's work. These forms of documentation ensure the merit of the mentee receiving this award. This will also encourage the mentor/mentee dyad to keep department chairs informed of what activities they are engaging in throughout the year (see Appendix D for specific criteria). The award is optimally given at a final annual college faculty/staff meeting and serves to celebrate individuals who provide meaningful service by mentoring others through the academic year.

Recommendations

Mentoring can help with recruitment and retention of faculty and staff at the university and can contribute to the creation of a more positive working environment (Latham, Ringl, & Hogan, 2011). Mentoring can happen at any level and any position within a university, but the mentor should be appropriately trained and prepared to guide his/her mentee as needed. In some cases, an individual may have more than one mentor as each person may

specialize in different areas such as research, teaching, personal support and guidance. Research promotes mentoring relationships that are mutually beneficial for all involved parties, develop over time, and develop through multiple interactions and activities between the mentor and mentee (Bynum, 2015; Hersman, 2018). In the mentoring program example shared, the researchers proposed to the dean of the college that mentees be allowed to find their own mentors from any of the departments in the college. This encourages the formation of cross-disciplinary mentoring relationships throughout the college that are recognized and encouraged by the Dean and department chairs. This also helps ease any tension from departmental climate issues should a mentee not be comfortable being open with someone from his/her department.

Faculty and staff need to feel valued and accepted in order to evolve throughout their careers and contribute to their profession and their university. The high-demand culture of higher education necessitates the need for supportive programs such as mentoring to keep faculty and staff from burnout, and to increase productivity, elevate morale and improve retention. Mentoring programs have been shown to build professional networks within and beyond one's own institution (Madsen, Longman, & Daniels, 2012), as well as a source of extrinsic motivation and guidance throughout one's career (Baldwin, DeZure, Shaw, & Moretto, 2008). While many departments may have mentoring processes already in place, adding accountability measures, encouraging cross-disciplinary mentoring and applying social learning theory to mentoring work may be properly viewed as an opportunity. This opportunity enables more people to get help and learn from others, to offer assistance to others, to receive the training and support they may not otherwise receive, and, importantly, to recognize individuals for their collegiality and leadership.

References

- Anderson, L., Silet, K., & Fleming, M. (2011). Evaluating and giving feedback to mentors: New evidence-based approaches. *CTS: Clinical & Translational Science*, 5(1), 71-77. doi/full/10.1111/j.1752-8062.2011.00361.x
- Ata, E. (2018). Evaluation of adult environmental awareness behaviours in terms of social learning theory according to perceptions of primary and secondary school students. *International Journal of Higher Education*, 7(6), 54-62.
- Baldwin, R., DeZure, D., Shaw, A., & Moretto, K. (2008). Mapping the terrain of mid-career faculty at a research university: Implications for faculty and academic leaders. *Change*, 40(5), 46-55.
- Bandura, A. (1977). Self-Efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review*, 84(2), 191-215. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.84.2.191>
- Banerjee-Batist, R., & Reio, T. G. (2016). Attachment and mentoring. Relations with junior faculty's organizational commitment and intent to turnover. *Journal of Management Development*, 35(3), 360-382. doi: 02-2015-0015.
- Bean, N. M., Lucas, L. & Hyers, L. L. (2014). Mentoring in higher education should be the norm to assure success: Lessons learned from the faculty mentoring program, West Chester University, 2008-2011. *Mentoring and Tutoring: Partnership in Learning*, 22, 56-73. doi: 10.1080/13611267.2014.882606.
- Bynum, Y.P. (2015). The power of informal mentoring. *Education*, 136(1), 69-73.
- Campbell, A. & Hemsley, S. (2009). Outcome rating scale and session rating scale in psychological practice: Clinical utility of ultra-brief measures. *Clinical Psychologist*, 13(1), 1-9.
- Chao, G. T., Walz, P. M., & Gardner, P. D. (2006). Formal and informal mentorships: A comparison on mentoring functions and contrast with non-mentored counterparts. *Personnel Psychology*, 45(3), 619-636.
- Chen, Y. (2013). Effect of reverse mentoring on traditional mentoring functions. *Leadership and Management in Engineering*, 13(1), 199-208.
- Costello, L. A. (2015). Standing up and standing together: Feminist teaching and collaborative mentoring. *Feminist Teacher*, 26(1), 1-28.
- Daloz, L. (1999). *Mentor: Guiding the journey of adult learners*. Jossey-Bass.
- Darwin, A. & Palmer, E. (2009). Mentoring circles in higher education. *Higher Education Research and Development*, 28(2), 125-136.
- Dominguez, N., & Hager, M. (2013). Mentoring frameworks: synthesis and critique. *International Journal of Mentoring and Coaching in Education*, 2(3), 171-188.
- Fountain, J., & Newcomer, K. E. (2016). Developing and sustaining effective faculty mentoring programs. *Journal of Public Affairs Education*, 22(4), 483-506.

Hanover Research. (2014). Faculty mentoring models and effective practices. *Academy Administration Practice Brief, January 2014*.

Hersman, B. (2018). Mentoring: A convenience or convergence? *Quest, 70*, 139-152. doi: 10.1080/00336297.2018.1438297

Inzer, L. & Crawford, C. B. (2005). A review of formal and informal mentoring: Processes, problems and design. *Journal of Leadership Education, 4(1)*, 31-50.

Irby, B. J. (2014). Editor's Overview: A 20- year content review of research on the topic of developmental mentoring relationships. *Mentoring & Tutoring: Partnership in Learning, 22*, 181-189. doi: 10.1080/13611267.2014.929329.

Johns, R. & McNamara, J. (2014). Career development in higher education through group mentoring: A case study of desirable attributes and perceptions of a current programme. *Australian Journal of Career Development 23 (2)*, 79-87. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1038416214528883>

Johnson, B. (2016). *On being a mentor: A guide for higher education*. Routledge.

Kaufman, M. (2017). E-mentoring. Retrieved from <http://www.nationalmentoringresourcecenter.org>.

Kuyper-Rushing, L. (2001). A formal mentoring program in a university library: Components of a successful experiment. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship, 27*, 440-446.

Lary, M., S. (1998). Mentoring: A gift for professional growth. *The Southeastern Librarian, 47*, 23.

Latham, C.L., Ringl, K., & Hogan, M. (2011). Professionalization and retention outcomes of a university-service mentoring program partnership. *Journal of Professional Nursing, 27*, 344-353.

Leidenfrost, B., Strassnig, B., Schultz, M., Carbon, C., & Schabmann, A. (2014). The impact of peer mentoring on mentee academic performance: Is there any mentoring style better than no mentoring at all? *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education, 26(1)*, 102-111.

MacGillivray, A. (2017). Social learning in higher education: a class of cultures? In McDonald, J. and Cater-Steel, A. (Eds), *Facilitating social learning in higher education (27-45)*.

Springer Nature.

Madsen, S.R., Longman, K.A., & Daniels, J.R. (2012). Women's development education: Conclusion and implications for HRD. *Advances in Human Resources, 14(1)*, 113-128.

Otieno, T., Lutz, P. M., & Schoolmaster, F. A. (2010). Enhancing recruitment, professional development, and socialization of junior faculty through formal mentoring programs. *Metropolitan Universities, 21*, 77-91.

Sorcinelli, M.D., Yun, J., & Baldi, B. (2016). *Mutual mentoring guide*. The Institute for Teaching Excellence & Faculty Development: University of Massachusetts Amherst.

Tareef, A. B. (2013). The relationship between mentoring and career development of higher education faculty members. *College Student Journal, 47*, 703-710.

Thomas, D. J., Lunsford, L. G., & Rodrigues, H. A. (2015). Early career academic staff support: Evaluating mentoring networks. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management, 37(3)*, 320-329. doi: 10.1080/1360080X.2015.1034426

Wenger, E. (1998). *Communities of Practice: Learning, meaning, and identity*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Zachary, L. J. (2005). *Creating a Mentoring Culture*. Jossey-Bass.

Zellers, D. F., Howard, V. M., & Barcic, M. A. (2008). Faculty mentoring programs: Reenvisioning rather than reinventing the wheel. *Review of Educational Research, 78*, 552-588.

Zerzan, J.T., Hess, R., Schur, E., Phillips, R.S. & Rigotti, N. (2009). Making the most of mentors: A guide for mentees. *Academic Medicine, 84*, 140-144.

Appendix A

Mentoring Session Rating Scale

Please rate today's mentoring session by circling the appropriate number that best fits your experience. This should be discussed with the mentor at the end of each mentoring session.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided or NA	Agree	Strongly Agree
--	--------------------------	-----------------	------------------------	--------------	-----------------------

I felt heard, understood, and respected.	1	2	3	4	5
We worked on and talked about what I needed to talk about/work on.	1	2	3	4	5
My mentor’s approach to mentoring me is a good fit.	1	2	3	4	5
Overall, today’s meeting was right for me.	1	2	3	4	5
Comments on any of the above statements:					

Note. Adapted from Campbell & Hemsley’s (2009) Session Rating Scale

Appendix B

Mentoring Evaluation (for mentees)

Peer Mentoring Evaluation (for mentees)

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

Quality/Satisfaction

1. My peer mentor and I are enjoying a high-quality relationship.
1 2 3 4 5
2. I am effectively utilizing my peer mentor.
1 2 3 4 5
3. I am benefiting from the mentoring relationship.
1 2 3 4 5
4. The peer mentoring program runs smoothly.
1 2 3 4 5
5. I would recommend the peer mentoring program to others.
1 2 3 4 5

Learning

From working with my peer mentor...

6. I am gaining a better sense of how to be successful and involved.
1 2 3 4 5
7. I am gaining new skills.
1 2 3 4 5
8. I am becoming more open minded and able to consider others’ feelings and attitudes.
1 2 3 4 5
9. I am improving my ability to communicate effectively with others.
1 2 3 4 5

Relationship, Respect, and Communication

10. My peer mentor is easy to talk to.
1 2 3 4 5
11. I respect my peer mentor.

- | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. My peer mentor is well-qualified to be a mentor. | | | | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Appendix C

Peer Mentoring Evaluation (for peer mentors)

- | | | | | |
|-------------------|----------|----------------------------|-------|----------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree |

Quality/Satisfaction

- | | | | | |
|----|--|---|---|---|
| 1. | My mentee and I are enjoying a high-quality relationship. | | | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. | My mentee is effectively utilizing me as a peer mentor. | | | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. | Both my mentee and I are benefiting from the mentoring relationship. | | | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. | The peer mentoring program runs smoothly. | | | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. | I would recommend the peer mentoring program to others. | | | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Learning

From becoming a peer mentor...

- | | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|---|
| 6. | I am gaining a better sense of how to be successful and involved. | | | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. | I am gaining new skills. | | | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. | I am becoming more open minded and able to consider others' feelings and attitudes. | | | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. | I am improving my ability to communicate effectively with others. | | | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Relationship, Respect, and Communication

- | | | | | |
|-----|--------------------------------------|---|---|---|
| 10. | It is easy to talk to my mentee. | | | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. | My mentee and I respect each other. | | | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. | I feel well-prepared to be a mentor. | | | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Appendix D

Excellence in Mentoring Award

Nomination for this award should come from the mentee (in other words, one cannot self-nominate). Mentees can be at any level or position within the college including lecturer, staff, or assistant/associate/full professor. The mentor can be a mentor within the individual's department or within another college department.

Criteria to be considered:

- Sustained positive and appropriate (to mentoring) interactions with mentee over at least one academic year (meetings, communication, attending events together)

- Goal setting with mentee and feedback on progress toward goal achievement
- Provides timely and constructive feedback to mentee and keeps confidentiality
- Mentor is accessible as needed
- Mentor creates awareness of cultural and gender issues
- Serves as a role model and advocate for the mentee

Requirements:

- Letter of nomination from the mentee. This letter will include specific examples of why the mentor should be considered for this award, including possible examples 1-5 below.
- Mentee solicited letter from the mentor’s department chair supporting the mentor/mentee relationship based on the evidence given/shown to the department chair.

Possible examples of evidence:

1. Evidence of the mentoring process (establishment of goals, critique of progress toward goal attainment, achievement of milestones)
2. Evidence of mentor’s impact on mentee’s career development
3. Evidence of mentor’s impact on mentee’s teaching, research, and/or service agendas
4. Mentee statement acknowledging ongoing and impactful psychosocial support received from mentor
5. Statement from department chair(s) about the mentor/mentee relationship
6. Other, as appropriate to the mentor/mentee relationship and interactions

Figure 1.1 Hybrid mentoring model: Informal components

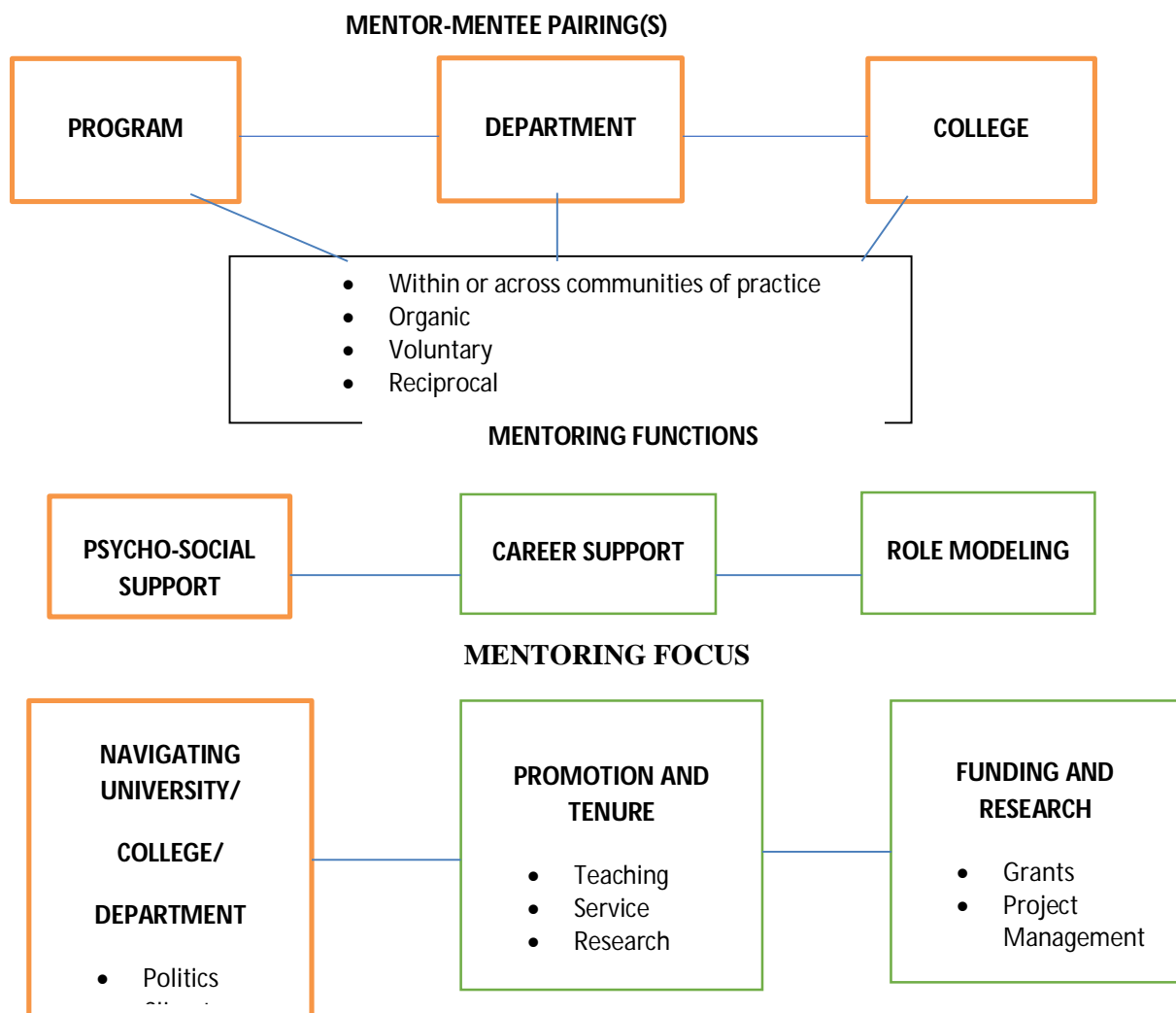


Figure 1.2 Hybrid mentoring model: Formal components

