Research finds many benefits for faculty who receive mentoring, and this handbook is intended to support faculty mentoring by drawing from the research on the topic. After outlining the various types of faculty mentoring and the advantages and disadvantages of each, best practices are offered for mentees, mentors, and heads and deans. Diversity issues in mentoring are also highlighted.
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Research has found many benefits for faculty mentees, mentors, and the institution. With the benefits of receiving mentoring potentially enormous (Trower 2012), faculty mentoring is too valuable to be left to chance (COACHE 2014:1).

### Benefits for Mentors
- Personal satisfaction (Johnson-Bailey & Cervero 2004)
- Sense of contribution and accomplishment (Fogg 2003)
- Revitalized interest in their work (Murray 2001)
- Exposed to fresh ideas and new perspectives (Johnson-Bailey & Cervero 2004; Murray 2001; Zellers et al. 2008)

### Benefits for Mentees
- Increased productivity, including more publications, more NSF or NIH grants, and an increased likelihood of publishing in a top-tier journal (Blau et al. 2010; Carr et al. 2003)
- Enhanced tenure and promotion prospects (Johnson 2007; Kosoko-Lasaki et al. 2006; Stanley & Lincoln 2005)
- Increased sense of support for their research (Carr et al. 2003)
- Heightened teaching effectiveness (Luna & Cullen 1995)
- Higher career satisfaction (Carr et al. 2003)
- Lower feelings of isolation (Carr et al. 2003; Christman 2003; National Academy of Sciences 1997)
- Greater sense of fit – especially for women and faculty of color – which has shown to be critical to job satisfaction and retention (Trower 2012)

### Benefits for the Department & Institution
- Increased organizational devotion (Trower 2012)
- Increased retention (Kosoko-Lasaki et al. 2006)
- Accrued benefits to individual mentees and mentors (Johnson 2007)

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**Research Highlight** (Blau et al. 2010)

Female faculty in economics who applied to be in a mentoring program were randomly assigned to participate in the program (treatment group) or not (control group). After five years, those in the treatment group had on average:
- 3 additional publications
- .4 more NSF or NIH grants
- A 25% increased likelihood of having a top-tier publication
In 2013-2014, the Collaborative on Academic Careers in Higher Education (COACHE) based at Harvard University conducted a survey on faculty job satisfaction at the University of Arizona, which included items on mentoring. A total of 850 TTE faculty and continuing status professionals competed the survey (response rate = 54%).

**Most faculty feel that having a mentor is important to their success.**
81% of the respondents said that having a mentor in their department was important or very important to their success as a faculty member. Looking at pre-tenure faculty only, this increases to 92%.

**Most mentors find the role fulfilling.**
84% of associate and full professors agreed that being a mentor has been fulfilling in their role as a faculty member.

**However, only about half of faculty say they have received effective mentoring in their department.**
When asked to rate the effectiveness of the mentoring received within their department:
- 51% said somewhat or very effective
- 11% said neither effective nor ineffective
- 17% said somewhat or very ineffective
- 11% said they did not receive mentoring

Likewise, only 47% agreed that there is effective mentoring of the pre-tenure faculty in their department.

**Less than a quarter of associate and full professors feel that there is effective mentoring of associate professors in their department.**
23% somewhat or strongly agreed that there is effective mentoring of tenured associate faculty in their department (asked of tenured associate and full professors only).

**Moreover, there is little perceived institutional support for faculty mentoring.**
Only 15% of associate and full professors agreed that the UA provides adequate support for faculty to be good mentors.

The experience of UA faculty is not unique in many ways. Other studies have found that less than half of junior faculty say they feel adequately mentored (Bickel and Brown 2005). Kerry Ann Rockquemore, who runs the National Center for Faculty Development and Diversity which serves over 18,000 academics, notes that the most common complaint she hears is that people are not getting the mentoring they need because there is no mentoring at their institution, they get shamed when asking for help, or they are being matched with a mentor too busy to meet with them (Rockquemore 2013).
There is no universally accepted definition of mentoring (Darwin 2000; Lumpkin 2011; Wunsch 1994) and there is considerable variation in how faculty mentoring is put into practice (Lottero-Perdue and Fifield 2010). At its basic level, mentoring fosters the development of personal and professional competence in a dynamic, collaborative, mutually respectful relationship (Healy and Welchert 1990; Ragins and Kram 2007). A mentor can take on the roles of friend, career guide, information source, and/or intellectual guide (Sands et al. 1991). Faculty mentoring has both career and psychosocial functions.

### Building a Mentoring Network

Junior faculty with multiple mentors are more successful with their research productivity (Peluchette and Jeanquart 2000) and report greater job satisfaction (van Emmerick 2004) than those with one or no mentors. Thus, with regard to the number of mentors, more is often better (Trower 2012). Having one mentor places enormous pressure on that one mentor’s expertise for success, whereas a mentoring network allows faculty to access “mentors of the moment” whose knowledge or expertise is most appropriate (Baugh and Scandura 1999; de Janasz and Sullivan 2004). Mentees are exposed to various and more diverse perspectives, professional identities, knowledge and skills who can offer specialized advice to address specific areas of faculty activity and serve different mentoring functions as mentees’ situations evolve (Bickel and Brown 2005; de Janasz and Sullivan 2004; Sorcinelli and Yun 2007). Additionally, having multiple mentors divides work across the mentors thereby making it less demanding and time consuming for each mentor (Zerzan et al. 2009), increases flexibility, reduces concern about long term compatibility, and ensures mentoring continues should an individual mentor prove to be ineffective or absent (Wasburn 2007). Given the complexities and changes in the contemporary academic environment – increased specialization, innovation, workload, and technological change coupled with decreased resources – one mentor is likely insufficient and building a network or portfolio of mentors is important for career success (Baugh and Scandura 1999; Chapman and Guay-Woodford 2008; Chesler and Chesler 2002; de Janasz and Sullivan 2004; Dixon-Reeves 2003; Lumpkin 2011; King and Cubic 2005; Zellers et al. 2008).

It is important to have mentors both within and outside the department or unit. Mentors from the same department provide concrete, specific guidance particular to the department (Borisoff 1998), guide teaching, research, and service (Lumpkin 2011), and facilitate socialization into the departmental culture (Cawyer et al. 2002). Mentorships stemming from different departments also have benefits (Wasburn and LaLopa 2003). Mentees may be more comfortable voicing concerns, struggles and weaknesses and asking questions from mentors outside their own department (Boice 1992). Mentors from other departments can also provide objective perspectives uninfluenced by departmental politics and facilitate a wider range of professional networking for mentees (Lumpkin 2011).

### Career-Related Mentoring Topics & Activities
- Balancing research, teaching, and service
- Developing a research program
- Publishing
- Achieving promotion and tenure
- Developing research skills
- Improving teaching
- Acquiring grants
- Collaborating
- Networking
- Receiving feedback on specific projects
- Setting priorities
- Managing time
- Guiding career planning
- Learning the “unwritten rules of the game”
- Negotiating effectively for resources

### Psychosocial Benefits
- Feeling accepted by the academic community
- Becoming familiar with the campus climate and organizational culture
- Receiving social support
- Learning to navigate the politics and procedures of the department and academia
- Negotiating personal and professional identities
- Socializing

Table sources: Lottero-Perdue and Fifield 2010, p. 40; Lumpkin 2011; Carr et al. 2003.
Several approaches to mentoring are associated with positive outcomes (see Lumpkin 2011). Given the importance of developing mentoring networks, departments or colleges should ideally offer a mixture of the below formats to capitalize on the advantages and minimize the disadvantages of the different types (Reimers 2014).

**Formal or Classic Mentoring**

This type of one-on-one mentoring pairs a senior faculty member with a junior faculty mentor, usually from the same department, for a specified time period (Reimers 2014). This approach assumes mentors accept responsibility for helping mentees grow and develop (Lumpkin 2011).

**Advantages:**
- Formal mentoring programs increase job performance, enhance confidence, facilitate networking, decrease turnover, and advance careers, which positively impact the entire department (see Lumpkin 2011).
- It guarantees that every junior faculty member has a mentor if they are paired formally (Reimers 2014).
- Mentees can receive useful discipline-specific information (e.g., departmental expectations for tenure, feedback on proposals or manuscripts, etc.) (Reimers 2014).
- Because all or most senior faculty members are expected to serve as mentors, it is cost-efficient as there is no overhead or organizational structure to maintain the program (Reimers 2014).

**Disadvantages:**
- It may be discovered that the assigned mentor and mentee may not be a good fit for any number of reasons, such as personalities (Reimers 2014). To reduce this likelihood, both the mentor and mentee should have input on who is assigned to them (Allen et al. 2006a; 2006b).
- Because they come from the same department and because mentors may have influence on mentees’ tenure decisions, mentees may be reluctant to admit struggles candidly and therefore not get the mentoring they need. To address this, departments should specify expectations for confidentiality in their mentoring program. Additionally, mentees should build a network of mentors – including those from outside the department – so they have the support to address the full range of their needs (Reimers 2014).
- A department may not have enough senior faculty to serve as mentors depending on the ratio of junior faculty to senior faculty. One way to address this is to engage mentors from a different yet related department (Reimers 2014). Alternatively, mentoring programs can be configured in one of the alternative ways described below, such as peer mentoring or group mentoring.

**Informal Mentoring**

Voluntary mentoring relationships that are not assigned and lack structure about how mentors work with mentees constitute informal mentoring (Lumpkin 2011).

**Advantages:**
- Informal mentoring tends to be more egalitarian, longer lasting, and occur with greater frequency than formal mentoring (Ragins and Cotton 1999).
- Mentees tend to have stronger connections and broader interactions with informal mentors (Sands et al. 1991). In one study, mentees with informal mentors reported higher satisfaction and received greater benefits in most mentoring roles than those with formal mentors (Ragins and Cotton 1999; Lumpkin 2011).
- The voluntary nature allows for greater flexibility.
- Informal mentoring activities are a sign of a healthy organizational culture (Reimers 2014).

**Disadvantages:**
- Many departments do not have strong mentoring traditions or cultures that naturally lead to informal mentorships. To address this, heads and deans can intentionally set up structures and events to nurture informal mentoring relationships (Reimers 2014).
- Having a faculty mentor is not guaranteed as it is with a formal program, and faculty most in need of mentoring may be the least likely to find an informal mentor. Furthermore, because mentors tend to gravitate toward younger versions of themselves, groups historically underrepresented in academia – women and minorities –
may be informally mentored less frequently, thereby perpetuating inequities (Bova 2000). As such, informal mentoring is likely best paired with formal mentoring programs.

**Peer Mentoring**

In peer mentoring, faculty members with equal stature (e.g., rank, position, experience) from either the same or different departments develop supportive networks in which they meet regularly to discuss issues and challenges they’re facing, as well as share information and strategies to address challenges (Angelique et al. 2002; Lumpkin 2011; Reimers 2014). Beyond career advice, peer networking can effectively address psychosocial needs, increase collegiality, normalize challenges, and reduce feelings of isolation (Smith et al. 2001). Notably, peer mentoring can be an effective form of mentoring for both junior faculty and mid-career faculty (Rees and Shaw 2014). For example, associate professors who will be going up for promotion in the next couple of years may form a peer mentoring group to discuss promotion issues (e.g., documenting impact of work) and get feedback (e.g., candidate statement). Likewise, junior faculty can build professional networks and can discuss tenure process and progress and acclimating to the university community (Karam et al. 2012).

**Advantages:**

- Peer mentoring has shown to be an effective form of mentoring (Smith et al. 2001; Rees and Shaw 2014), and peer mentoring programs have been evaluated positively by those in them (Wasburn 2007).
- It ensures mentoring occurs even with unbalanced numbers of junior and senior faculty.
- Those with unsatisfactory traditional individual mentoring relationships can benefit from peer mentoring (Wasburn 2007).
- Group formats among peers are more humanistic and dynamic than traditional mentoring (Smith et al. 2001).
- Participants are exposed to a range of opinions, advice, and diverse perspectives rather than relying on the sole opinion of one mentor (Mitchell 1999).
- If one or more participants choose to leave the network, there is little disruption and mentoring continues (Haring 1999; Wasburn 2007).
- Peers confronting similar challenges/issues may be better suited to give practical advice since they likely have the most recent experience with similar issues (Reimers 2014).
- Since peer mentoring doesn’t rely on being chosen as a mentee, it offers some balance for minorities and women and ensures equal access to mentoring (Wasburn 2007).
- Though personality differences can doom individual mentoring relationships, they are less important in peer mentoring since no one relationship is privileged over another (Wasburn 2007).

**Disadvantages:**

- Since peers have not experienced all levels of the university, this type of mentoring cannot address all aspects of a faculty career (Reimers 2014).
- If cross-disciplinary, peer networks may not be able to address in-depth discipline-specific information, such as specific expectations for tenure (Reimers 2014).
- Junior faculty may not feel the need to participate in a peer network (Reimers 2014).
- Unless coordinated formally, the continuation of these networks are dependent on the enthusiasm of particular faculty members (Reimers 2014).
- As such, peer mentoring should be accompanied with a formal system of mentoring that ensures senior faculty input to provide mentees with departmental and institutional contextual knowledge (Reimers 2014).

**Group or Team Mentoring**

In group mentoring, senior faculty members serve as mentors for a group of junior mentees who meet regularly as a team (Reimers 2014). For example, a senior faculty member may meet with a group of junior faculty on a monthly basis. According to Reimers (2014), monthly meetings are most effective when mentoring teams are given a topic for discussion or a visiting speaker or panel is arranged to address a particular topic. These meetings include both structured discussions and time for informal discussion.
**Advantages:**

- It has many of the same advantages of peer mentoring, but with the added bonus of a senior mentor who can provide advice on topics beyond what could be gleaned from peers (Reimers 2014).
- By using a group approach, a few mentors can serve many mentees, which can help address unbalanced numbers of junior and senior faculty. It can also maximize the impact of excellent mentors (Reimers 2014).
- Mentees can learn from each other, and junior faculty may learn things that they didn’t even think to ask about.
- This format allows for choice of participation and does not force faculty into a mentoring relationship (Reimers 2014).

**Disadvantages:**

- Confidentiality and trust issues may arise. Faculty must be assured that nothing that is said during the mentoring process can be used against them by other members of the group – including senior faculty (Hunt and Weintraub 2002).
- Because of group size, scheduling and having everyone attend all meetings may be difficult, which may cause some mentees to not have the regular contact with mentors and peers that is necessary for effective mentoring (Reimers 2014). Like other forms of mentoring, this is best paired with different types of mentoring to address the shortcomings of this approach.

**Faculty Writing Groups**

Writing support groups improve publication rates (see Dankoski et al. 2012), promote work-life balance, retention, and promotion (Davis et al. 2011), and can be broadly considered a form of peer mentoring. Writing groups can be interdisciplinary or discipline-specific, ranging in size from two to multiple members. There are several types of writing groups, but they all have the clear focus of engaging in scholarly writing (Davis et al. 2011). Traditional writing groups meet monthly to read, critique, and provide feedback to scholarly writing. These are good if the primary goal is substantive feedback, but these groups risk being time-consuming (Rockquemore 2010). Writing accountability groups meet briefly weekly wherein each member sets and shares concrete, short-term goals for the next week for their research and writing. They also share their progress on meeting their previous week’s goals. This is a great way to promote continual progress on scholarly writing (Silvia 2007), though generally these groups do not offer substantive feedback (Rockquemore 2010). In write-on-site groups, people meet to write independently in the same location (e.g., an office) to force accountability (Rockquemore 2010). This type of group may be most effective for people really struggling to sit down and write.

**Workshops & Colloquia**

Workshops and colloquia can be an effective supplement or complement to traditional mentoring as these offer another way to support faculty development and transfer knowledge. The Campus Connections program in the Office of the Provost offers workshops on various aspects of faculty life, and mentors should consider attending these with their mentees to strengthen their relationship. The Office of Research and Discovery and the Office of Instruction and Assessment also offer project-based workshops aimed at making progress on a specific project (e.g., submitting a grant) or goal (e.g., improving problem-based learning). All of these campus-wide workshops offer the opportunities for faculty to meet and network with other faculty from around campus, and may help mentees find new mentoring relationships, including peer mentoring networks. Deans and heads may want to organize their own departmental or college-level workshops as a way to mentor their faculty, as well as to facilitate the formation of informal mentoring relationships.
Mentoring relationships don’t just magically work, but rather, it takes intentional effort from both mentors and mentees to ensure effective mentoring occurs (Reimers 2014). In fact, mentoring relationships are not always beneficial for faculty (Ragins and Cotton 1999).

The benefits of mentoring are dependent upon the investments made by both the mentee and mentor (Zellers et al. 2008), and greater personal investment by each is a key component to the success of mentoring (Allen et al. 2006a). A case study of faculty members in a Research I university found that the mentor’s accessibility – both physical and emotional – is the key variable in the success or failure of the mentoring relationship (Cawyer et al. 2002). Conversely, time constraints strain mentoring relationships (Selby 1998).

Values and work orientations also matter. When mentees and mentors perceive that they hold similar values and work orientations, both were more satisfied with the mentoring relationship and felt more interpersonal comfort. The mentees felt more supported, while the mentors felt more committed (Ortiz-Walters and Gilson 2005).

Below, research-based tips and advice are offered for mentees, mentors, and department heads and deans to maximize the benefits of faculty mentoring.

**Before Meeting Mentors:**

- Before approaching potential mentors, mentees should develop a clear vision of their career goals. Creating specific, written goals for time-specified periods – one month, three months, one year, or several years – is very useful (Watkins 2003; Zerzan et al. 2009) and allows mentees to take a strategic approach to their daily and weekly activities – ensuring that progress is being made in all arenas (rather than research falling off the radar). Ideally, mentees should create an Individual Development Plan (IDP). An editable example IDP is provided [here](#). Career goals should be refined and rewritten periodically as mentees progress (Watkins 2003).

- With goals in mind, mentees should clarify their needs: What do they want to address with mentors? Some needs to address may include the following: academic guidance (e.g., understanding department values, progress on tenure or promotion, getting a clear sense of departmental expectations for research, teaching, service, and outreach); research (e.g., identifying resources available for research support, developing methodology, drafting manuscripts, writing grants); personal (e.g., work-life balance, confidence); professional development (e.g., networking, establishing goals); and skill development (e.g., managing time) (Zerzan et al. 2009).

- Setting goals and specifying needs have several benefits. A mentee can present needs to potential mentors, allowing mentees to find mentors best-suited for their needs while simultaneously clarifying expectations for the mentoring relationship from the outset (Zerzan et al. 2009). Setting and sharing goals with mentors also creates accountability. Career goals being monitored through accountability increases the likelihood that they will be prioritized and met (e.g., Silvia 2007).

**Finding Mentors:**

- Mentees should meet with faculty they already know both inside and outside their department to talk about their goals and needs to get recommendations of potential mentors who might be a good fit (Zerzan et al. 2009).

- Mentees can also ask current mentors for recommendations. By using this approach, mentees’ network of contacts grows.

- Mentees should briefly meet with selected faculty to assess if they are compatible with interests, work styles, and values and able (and available) to address mentees’ goals and needs (Zerzan et al. 2009).
Mentees should cultivate a network of mentors from within and outside their department, as well as from their own rank (i.e., peer mentors) and mentors from above their rank. Because each of these offers distinct advantages, mentees will set themselves up for the greatest likelihood of success using this approach.

Meeting with Mentors:

- Mentees should “manage up” throughout the course of a mentoring relationship to increase the success of faculty mentoring. “The principal concept is that the mentee takes ownership of and directs the relationship, letting the mentor know what he or she needs and communicating the way his or her mentor prefers. Ideally, a motivated mentee manages the work of the relationship by planning and setting the meeting agenda, asking questions, listening, completing assigned tasks, and requesting feedback (Chin et al. 1998; Ramanan et al. 2002). Managing up makes it easier for a mentor to help a mentee, which makes the relationship more satisfying and more successful for both” (Zerzan et al. 2009, p. 140).
- Setting clear expectations from the beginning is critical for success of faculty mentoring (Sorcinelli and Yun 2007). At the first meeting, mentors and mentees should agree on confidentiality (Chin et al. 1998), meeting frequency, responsibilities, mutual expectations and goals (e.g., mentor will review scholarly writing), and concrete measures of progress and success (e.g., submitting a grant proposal) (Zerzan et al. 2009). Pairs may want to establish a mentoring agreement (see example here). Ideally, the mentee will share their IDP, their CV and/or their concrete plans for goals to accomplish before the next meeting. The mentee should follow up with an email summarizing the mentee’s plans to proceed to keep the mentee focused and the mentor engaged (Zerzan et al. 2009).
- In subsequent meetings, mentees should continue to manage up by taking ownership of the relationship, letting the mentor know what is needed. To do this, the mentee must express needs in a direct manner, take responsibility for setting and sticking to a schedule of goals, be responsive to mentor’s suggestions, and communicate straightforwardly if potential conflict arises (e.g., authorship) (Zerzan et al. 2009). By managing up, mentors can target help and mentees get exactly what they need, thereby increasing success and efficiency (Zerzan et al. 2009). One possible structure for each meeting is to inform the mentor of progress since the last meeting, discuss 2-3 topics, and summarize and plan goals to accomplish before the next meeting (Rabatin 2004; Zerzan et al. 2009). Mentees should ask questions often to get insight, clarify ideas, show interest, and listen actively (Zerzan et al. 2009).
- Managing up also avoids common problems in mentoring relationships, such as junior faculty in traditional mentoring pairings feeling like graduate students with an advisor (Wunsch 1994) or a mentee’s psychosocial needs being overlooked in favor of a strictly career-focused relationship (Hill and Kamprath 2008). Mentee’s individual goals can also be stifled when a senior faculty mentor “projects” onto her/his mentee, and the mentee abandons their own goals to please their mentors and follow in their mentor’s footsteps (Pololi et al. 2002). By managing up, the mentee primarily dictates goals and what is needed to be addressed in the relationship, therefore avoiding these problems.

General Tips for Mentees:

- Write an agenda for each meeting to increase meeting efficiency. Agendas can be used for mentees’ own structure and planning, though some mentors may want them ahead of time (Zerzan et al. 2009).
- Respect mentors’ time (de Janasz et al. 2003). Keep meetings as short as possible and be flexible if a mentor’s schedule changes (Zerzan et al. 2009).
- However, don’t have an overly pronounced concern for a mentor’s time, which is a primary reason that mentoring relationships are unsuccessful. Mentees may be hesitant to ask mentors to meet or for feedback when they are obviously busy. Remember that asking a mentor for help or advice is a way of showing respect and building the relationship (Reimers 2014).
- Control the flow of information and ask mentors about preferred communication style. Do the mentors prefer details or broad strokes? Is email or phone preferred? Does the mentor prefer to listen or read? (Zerzan et al. 2009).
- Respect the advice and investment of mentors (de Janasz et al. 2003). Be receptive, but play an active role and evaluate what is said – consider mentor’s advice, but it doesn’t always need to be followed (Reimers 2014).
• Avoid getting defensive or argumentative when a mentor disagrees or provides constructive feedback. Take the mentor’s perspective, ask clarifying questions, and respectfully disagree if necessary (Zerzan et al. 2009).

• Build a relationship that goes beyond formal interactions so that both the mentee and mentor can speak candidly and comfortably, particularly when difficult situations arise (Reimers 2014).

• Show appreciation regularly, and also offer timely feedback to the mentor on whether the guidance was helpful and solved the issue, as well as feedback on what is working well and what is creating challenges to a positive mentoring experience (Feldman 2010).

• Ask mentors for introductions with key people and to help create a support network both within the department and the university (Reimers 2014).

• Common mentor complaints are mentee’s failure to follow through, ineffective use of the mentor’s time, and poor fit with personality or work style (Bhagia and Tinsley 2000). As such, choose mentors carefully to ensure a good fit, follow through, and use their time wisely by planning an agenda.

• If conflicts occur which are irreconcilable, mentees should terminate the relationship in a respectful fashion (Detsky and Baerlocher 2007). It is better to end a relationship than persist in a negative mentoring relationship, which can reduce job satisfaction and increase stress (Eby and Allen 2002).

A case study of new faculty in a Research I university found that the mentor’s physical and emotional accessibility is the key indicator of success or failure of a mentoring relationship (Cawyer et al. 2002). Availability is the standout quality appreciated by the mentees (Detsky and Baerlocher 2007). Thus, availability and accessibility are crucial to being a good mentor. Prolonged delays on either side can be harmful to a mentee’s success (Reimers 2014).

Establishing Goals and Expectations:

• It is important that expectations of the mentor and mentee are aligned from the beginning of the relationship (Sorcinelli and Yun 2007) and goals of the relationships are established (Scandura and Williams 2002). What kinds of topics will be discussed? How often will meetings occur? What is expected from both the mentee and mentor? At the first meeting, mentors and mentees should agree on confidentiality (Chin et al. 1998), meeting frequency, responsibilities, mutual expectations and goals (e.g., mentor will review scholarly writing), and concrete measures of progress and success (e.g., submitting a grant proposal) (Zerzan et al. 2009). Pairs may want to establish a mentoring agreement (see example here). Expectations can be renegotiated as the relationship evolves, but they should be established early to avoid any discomfort due to differing expectations (Reimers 2014). The goals of the relationship need to be aligned to ensure that the mentee’s goals are not marginalized, a common problem in mentoring relationships (Haring 1993).

• Mentors should provide feedback on mentee’s professional goals and Individual Development Plan (IDP) (or encourage mentees to create an IDP if one was not created; see example here). Are the goals specific enough? Can the goals be measured? Is there an action plan to achieve the goals? Are they realistic? How can the mentor best help the mentee achieve these goals? (Feldman 2010).

• Mentors should let the mentee primarily direct the relationship and manage the work. The mentee should plan the meeting agenda, specify goals and needs, ask questions, listen, complete assigned tasks, and request feedback (Chin et al. 1998; Ramanan et al. 2002). This makes it easier for mentors to help mentees by allowing the mentor to target help in areas needed, thereby increasing efficiency, maximizing impact, and making the relationship more satisfying and successful for both (Zerzan et al. 2009).

Providing Feedback:

• In all conversations with the mentee, focus on their long term development and help them think strategically.

• Effective feedback focuses on specific behaviors and is offered in a timely manner. It emphasizes strategies and solutions (Feldman 2010).
• Offer to provide substantive feedback by reading manuscripts and grants, suggesting appropriate journals for publication and providing advice (Detsky and Baerlocher 2007; Reimers 2014).
• Provide “insider’s advice” about the campus and department to mentees, such as sources of institutional support for career development on campus and informal rules for advancement in the department or college (Reimers 2014).
• Advise mentees on service and committee work, helping the mentee choose service obligations strategically and say “no” when necessary (Reimers 2014).
• Give advice on their promotion or tenure progress, and do so effectively. One common problem in faculty evaluations is pure evaluation without providing evidentiary basis for how the evaluation was arrived at. For example, “your research is right on track” is weak feedback, whereas better feedback would be “you have an appropriate number of publications in high quality journals for this stage of your career” or “congratulations on your recent invitation to present your work in a national forum, which indicates your work is beginning to receive wide recognition – an important element in a positive promotion decision.” Specificity in both areas of strength and weakness can help the mentee plan and monitor future P+T progress. Learn more here.
• Offer to discuss student issues, such as managing the classroom, effectively using teaching prep time (Boice 2000), advising, supervising grad students, etc. (Reimers 2014).
• Offer both praise and constructive feedback. Discuss their strengths and assets, as well as areas for growth and development. Identify harmful attitudes or behaviors if they occur and how the mentee may be perceived by others (Feldman 2010).
• New faculty in particular often feel overwhelmed in their first several years, so mentors may need to help the mentee budget time, sort priorities, balance professional and personal lives, manage stress, and say “no” in acceptable ways at appropriate times (Reimers 2014).
• Mentees may choose to not follow a mentor’s advice, which shouldn’t be disappointing. A good mentoring relationship is one in which both feel free to give honest advice without insistence from either side that mentees accept it (Lee et al. 2006).
• It is important to balance direction while encouraging self-direction (Detsky and Baerlocher 2007). “Over-mentoring” is easy to do for well-meaning mentors, in which mentors see their own career as a template for success for their mentee and push the mentee to follow in their footsteps rather than building their own career trajectory (Reimers 2014). Hence, mentors should not promote their own agenda to produce an academic clone and should instead help mentees develop their own trajectory (Jackson et al. 2003; Rose et al. 2005; Detsky and Baerlocher 2007).

Advocating and Providing Opportunities:
• Mentees should help open doors and nominate the mentee for awards and opportunities that would lead to career advancement (Jackson et al. 2003; Ramanan et al. 2002; Tillman 2001) and facilitate networking for their mentees (Lumpkin 2011). In fact, mentors can help mentees find other mentors to help the mentee achieve career success (Zerzan et al. 2009), particularly because mentees will likely be more successful if they have more than one mentor (Peluchette and Jeanquart 2000; van Emmerick 2004).
• Mentors should advocate for their mentees in the department, college and university and should look for opportunities to showcase mentee’s work, both formally and informally (Reimers 2014).

General Tips for Mentors:
• A participative leadership style – information sharing, engagement with problem solving, and teaching – will likely be more successful than a top-down approach relying on simple authority or referring to “how it’s done around here” (Bickel and Brown 2005).
• Provide confidentiality.
• Provide both professional and personal support, serving as a role model, coach, and counselor (Zellers et al. 2008).
• Listen, guide, teach, challenge, support, encourage, advise, and sponsor mentees (Borisoff 1998; Zellers et al. 2008), prompting a mentee to take risks when necessary.
• Develop mutual trust and respect; listen actively (Reimers 2014).
• Be sensitive to the abilities, needs, and perspectives of mentees (Sands et al. 1991).
• Display passion, enthusiasm, and positivity (Detsky and Baerlocher 2007).
• Be aware of possible diversity issues if your mentee(s) are of a different gender or race. See the diversity section below.
• Understand that the roles change as mentees grow and therefore the mentor/mentee relationship will change over time (Detsky and Baerlocher 2007).
• If collaboration will be part of the mentoring relationship, be explicit from the beginning of the project about who is going to receive what credit, such as authorship, to avoid later conflict (Detsky and Baerlocher 2007).
• If conflicts occur which are irreconcilable, mentors should terminate the relationship in a respectful fashion (Detsky and Baerlocher 2007). Negative mentoring relationships can have detrimental effects on both parties (Eby and Allen 2002; Lunsford et al. 2013), so it is better to end a negative relationship.

As noted above, the benefits of faculty mentoring are numerous and extensive. As Reimer (2014) notes, one key reason to support mentoring is that it increases retention and faculty turnover is expensive. The University of Wisconsin at Madison estimates that overall, across disciplines, they spend an average of $1.2 million in startup costs for each new professor, and it usually takes eight years for a professor to bring in enough money to cover that initial investment (Wilson 2008).

**Best Practices for Heads and Deans**

As noted above, the benefits of faculty mentoring are numerous and extensive. As Reimer (2014) notes, one key reason to support mentoring is that it increases retention and faculty turnover is expensive. The University of Wisconsin at Madison estimates that overall, across disciplines, they spend an average of $1.2 million in startup costs for each new professor, and it usually takes eight years for a professor to bring in enough money to cover that initial investment (Wilson 2008).

**Building Mentoring Relationships:**

• Formally assign at least one mentor. The stakes are too high to assume effective relationships will be formed through osmosis (Wilson et al. 2002, p. 317), and relying primarily on informal mentoring may disadvantage underrepresented groups like women and minorities (Bova 2000).
• Mentor and mentee input into the matching process increases the quality of mentoring and program effectiveness (Allen et al. 2006a; 2006b). There are several advantages when mentees have input into the matching process (Cox 1997): the mentee feels a sense of ownership; the mentor may feel a greater connection because the mentee selected them; and identifying and interviewing potential mentors broadens the mentee’s network (Cox 1997; Zerzan et al. 2009). Additionally, mentors should have input too. Mentors are more engaged and effective if they feel well-prepared to meet the needs of their mentees (Lumpkin 2011).
• Ask the mentee to identify mentors within their first few months of employment. It’s important that faculty members receive support from the start of their career (Fuller et al. 2008).
• Encourage mentees to build a network of mentors: Junior faculty with multiple mentors are more successful in research productivity (Peluchette and Jeanquart 2000) and report greater job satisfaction (van Emmerick 2004) than those with one or no mentors. A network of mentors has many benefits.
• Combine types of mentoring, such as formal, informal, peer, and group mentoring, to capitalize on the strengths of each (see page 5). For example, a head may assign one senior mentor in a classic mentoring relationship, encourage and facilitate peer mentoring among faculty of the same rank, and set up group mentoring, in which senior faculty present to junior or mid-career faculty on their strengths, such as grant-writing, teaching innovations, or effectively mentoring graduate students. Heads may also create temporary project-based mentoring groups, such as creating a writing group when a major grant deadline is several months away.
• Think beyond just junior faculty. Associate professors can also benefit from mentoring, especially when trying to approach the promotion process. In fact, the COACHE survey results at the U of A show that only 23% of associate and full professors agreed that there is effective mentoring of associate faculty in their department. Peer mentoring has been shown to be an effective form of mentoring for associate professors (Rees and Shaw 2014), and cross-departmental peer mentoring may be especially effective for this group.
• Be particularly sensitive to the needs and challenges of women and faculty of color. Research shows that they are less likely to find mentors while simultaneously valuing mentoring more (Fox 2001; Holmes et al. 2007; Preston 2004; Thompson 2008; Wasburn 2007), so be sure that they are able to build their networks of mentors and actively facilitate the process if necessary. See the next section on diversity issues in mentoring.

• Partner with other departments in the college to help mentees find mentors outside of their department, which allows mentees to speak more candidly about their struggles (Boice 1992), provides a wider range of professional networking, and affords objective perspectives uninfluenced by departmental politics (Lumpkin 2011).

• Heads and deans can intentionally set up structures and events to nurture informal mentoring in their departments or colleges (Reimers 2014). For example, brownbag presentations in which faculty briefly present their research can be an effective format for faculty to learn about others’ research and potential collaboration opportunities or mentoring opportunities as well as receive helpful feedback. These can be by college to promote interdisciplinarity or within departments.

Facilitating Positive Mentoring Experiences:

• For formal mentoring arrangements, set clear expectations for the mentoring for minimum length of participation (e.g., one year, two years, etc.) (Lottero-Perdue and Fifield 2010) and specify how frequently participants are expected to meet at a minimum (Pololi et al. 2004). For example, heads may ask that mentors meet with mentees at least three times per semester for one hour, as well as provide feedback on a scholarly product – such as a manuscript or grant application – or peer review the mentee’s teaching. One common problem for mentees is being overly cautious about encroaching on a mentor’s time so the mentees won’t approach mentors for help even when it is needed (Reimers 2014). By specifying this minimum, mentees can feel comfortable approaching their mentor for at least this amount of time.

• Encourage the pair to establish goals and expectations for the mentoring relationship, and perhaps even develop a mentoring contract (see example here) (de Janaz and Sullivan 2004).

• Highlight the value of mentoring by disseminating the research findings on the benefits of mentoring (Trower 2012) because the success of mentoring relationships is frequently dependent on the level of commitment to the mentoring process (Kram 1985; Olian et al. 1988; Ragins and Cotton 1991). If faculty know the wide range of benefits, they’ll be more likely to take mentoring seriously.

• Encourage faculty to attend university-wide workshops, such as those offered through the Campus Connections program in the Office of the Provost, the Office of Instruction and Assessment, and the Office of Research and Discovery. Encourage mentors to attend with their mentees to strengthen their relationship, but these are also good opportunities for mentees to find additional mentors to build their mentoring network.

• It is important to evaluate mentoring programs to determine their effectiveness from both the mentors’ and mentees’ experiences (Bickel and Brown 2005; Lumpkin 2011; Wasburn and LaLopa 2003). It could be a simple online survey to assess general levels of satisfaction and eliciting feedback. Or it could be more formal and include evaluations for the mentoring relationship’s process (e.g., clear objectives, regular meetings), communication (e.g., feedback), and outcomes (e.g., sense of progress and development) (Detsky and Baerlocher 2007; Grainger 2002). If online surveys are chosen, Laura Hunter (lahunter@email.arizona.edu) in the Office of the Provost can assist in developing, conducting, and analyzing the the survey.

• Recognize good mentoring and include mentoring in the service component of faculty reviews (Kanuka and Marini 2004).

Engaging in Mentoring:

• Deans and heads should consider their own mentoring of faculty. As Reimer (2014) suggests, the dean might hold an annual meeting to discuss the process and requirements for tenure and promotion. Heads may give junior faculty the opportunity annually to assess their teaching, research, service, and outreach in relation to their progress towards tenure. In the meeting, the head should be able to make concrete, specific suggestions about appropriate goals and strategies to reach these goals (Reimers 2014). Research shows that the clarity of the tenure and promotion process is one of six most important factors for faculty satisfaction (Trower 2012) and is area in which the U of A did relatively poorly on in the results of the 2013-2014 COACHE survey. Additionally,
the COACHE survey revealed that 32% of assistant professors and 77% of associate professors have not received formal feedback on their progress made towards tenure or promotion, respectively. This is a key area in which the U of A could improve upon, and providing this concrete advice and feedback is a form of mentoring.

- Review faculty's work assignments carefully to ensure that junior faculty members are not being unduly burdened by an excessive number of new course preparations or demanding service assignments (Reimers 2014). This is especially important for women, as the research shows that women associate professors spend far more time doing service than men, which then hinders their promotion prospects (Misra et al. 2011; 2012; Perna 2001).
- Sponsor and nominate faculty in the department or college for opportunities that would lead to career advancement (Tillman 2001). The COACHE survey found that the U of A also could improve on faculty recognition, and one way to do this is to nominate excellent faculty for opportunities and awards.

Not all mentoring relationships are beneficial, and some can even have negative effects. Negative mentoring experiences have been found to reduce job satisfaction and increase turnover intentions and stress, with some of the effects heightened in formal mentoring relationships compared to informal relationships (Eby and Allen 2002). As Lundsford et al. (2013) explain, dysfunctional mentoring relationships occur when needs are not being met, costs outweigh the benefits, and distress occurs within one or both partners. Behavior in dysfunctional mentoring relationships include distancing, conflict, sabotage, and spoiling (i.e., overt efforts to harm, such as through gossip and accusation) (Scandura 1998).

Both the mentee and mentor can contribute to a negative mentoring experience. From the perspective of the mentee, the most common problems include mentor unavailability, exploitation, feeling unable to meet the mentor’s expectations, and negative personalities and behaviors (Clark et al. 2000). From the perspective of the mentor, common problems include mentee underperformance, interpersonal problems, and destructive relational patterns (Eby et al. 2008). For mentors, mentoring can also be costly. There may be psychosocial costs, such as burnout or emotional exhaustion with the demands of mentoring, frustration with mentees who deal poorly with feedback, and grief when a mentoring relationship ends. There may also be career costs, such as reputational costs if the mentee underperforms, potential productivity costs, and the risk of violating the mentee’s confidentiality (Lunsford et al. 2013).

Using a content analysis of mentors’ and mentees’ experiences, Eby et al. (2000) identified five factors of negative mentoring. One or more of these factors may be present in negative mentoring relationships.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Five Factors of Negative Mentoring (Eby et al. 2000)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poor match within the dyad: different values, work-styles, personalities</td>
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<tr>
<td>Distancing behavior: neglect (no feedback), self-absorption (e.g., actions were self-serving)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manipulative behavior: used position of authority negatively, politicking (e.g., taking credit)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of mentor expertise: interpersonal incompetency (e.g., poor communication skills) or technical incompetency (e.g., unfamiliar with latest research methods and conventions)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General dysfunctionality: bad attitudes or personal problems that interfered with work</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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Therefore, it is important for mentors and mentees to be aware of these potential negative behaviors. Following the research-based tips throughout the toolkit should ideally minimize negative mentoring experiences. However, should a mentoring relationship become primarily negative and the costs outweigh the benefits, the mentoring relationship should be severed.
Key Findings for Diversity Issues in Mentoring:

**Less access to mentors:** Numerous studies of faculty have shown that women and faculty of color have fewer mentors, face more isolation, and may be less entrenched in informal departmental networks (Fox 2001; Preston 2004; Thompson 2008; Wasburn 2007). Because mentors may unintentionally gravitate toward people like themselves, women and minorities may be mentored less frequently than white males and therefore be less likely to reap the many rewards of receiving mentoring (Bova 2000). Majority faculty members may also be hesitant to mentor underrepresented faculty simply because they are inexperienced with it (Stanley and Lincoln 2005).

**Place more importance on mentoring:** Faculty of color and women tend to place more importance and value on mentoring (Holmes et al. 2007). This is consistent with the findings of the U of A’s COACHE survey results – women and faculty of color had significantly higher ratings for the importance of faculty mentoring.

**Higher rates of turnover:** Faculty of color and women also have higher rates of turnover in academia (Callister 2006; Yoshinaga-Itano 2006). Their numbers remain low – especially in some fields like STEM – and mentoring is one important strategy for retaining women and minorities (Stanley and Lincoln 2005; Yoshinaga-Itano 2006).

**Inequalities in Academia:** Minorities and women face unconscious bias in the academy, which can affect many facets of academic careers, such as lower support for their hiring or mentoring (Moss-Racusin et al. 2012), lower teaching evaluations from students (MacNell et al. 2014), and fewer citations received for their work (Maliniak et al. 2013). They may also face hostilities from colleagues and students. Women may also face motherhood bias in which being a mother decreases others’ perceptions of the woman’s competence and commitment to her career, whereas there is no such penalty for fathers (Correll et al. 2007). Women may also struggle more with achieving work-life balance as female faculty tend to spend more time on childcare and other home duties than men (Misra et al. 2011; 2012). Women also spend much more time doing service among associate professors, which hinders their chances at promotion (Misra et al. 2011; 2012). In instances where mentoring is focused on a group such as faculty of color and women, mentoring is intended to help with coping and challenging inequality in academia (Moody 2004).

**Race and gender may matter in mentoring relationships:** A study of business graduate students from underrepresented minority backgrounds found that those with minority mentors felt that they received more psychosocial and instrumental support than students with White mentors. Additionally, mentees and mentors in mentoring relationships in which they both perceived that they held similar values and work orientations were more satisfied and felt more interpersonal comfort. Notably, the dissatisfaction with cross-race mentoring was partially mitigated by lower shared values (Ortiz-Walters and Gilson 2005). Similarly, Gibson (2006) found that a mentor’s gender may matter to the mentee. Some women in her study did not see male mentors as able to address issues particularly salient for women due to a lack of experience and/or understanding. Likewise, in a study at two Research I universities, Tillman (2001) found that the psychosocial functions of mentoring – role modeling, respect, confirmation, and assistance in coping with work demands – were more easily provided by same-race mentors. However, the respondents said support for meeting promotion and tenure requirements was the most important function of their mentors, and what the mentor did was more important than being of same gender or race. Thus, while race and gender mattered in some areas, it wasn’t the most important factor or the only factor that mattered.

**However, similarities do not guarantee success:** It is often assumed that mentoring is more beneficial when the mentor and mentee are of the same gender and race or ethnicity (Stanley and Lincoln 2005), but that’s not always the case. Although it has been found that it is usually easier to develop a relationship with a mentor of the same gender and race,
these relationships are not always helpful (Dolan 2007). The Black women in Holmes’ et al. (2007) study described both positive and negative experiences with same-race and same-gender mentors, and mentors who were a different race and gender. The most important factor was mentor’s commitment to the mentee’s success, regardless of the race and gender of the mentor (Holmes et al. 2007). Additionally, some research finds no significant differences in career mentoring or psychosocial support when comparing homogenous mentoring pairs (same gender and race) and diversified pairings (different gender or race) (Smith et al. 2001).

Mentoring across differences requires sensitivity: Cross race mentoring is necessary because numbers of women and faculty of color among senior faculty remain small (Holmes et al. 2007). Cross-race mentoring requires extra sensitivity because racial, cultural, and ethnic differences strongly influence how individuals view and experience the world (Stanley and Lincoln 2005). White mentors should not assume that mentees of color will have similar experiences to their own, and as Singh and Stoloff (2003) argue, cultural differences regarding communication style, power and authority, individualism versus collectivism, and conflict management may hinder relationships between White mentors and mentees of color. Notably, generational differences can also be a challenge to mentoring (e.g., achieving own goals versus institutional goals, directness and being outspoken, etc.) (Bickel and Brown 2005).

General Tips to Address These Findings:

- Notably, the research-based tips throughout this toolkit will benefit all faculty and should be put into practice for women and faculty of color.
- Race or gender differences between a mentor and mentee may be ignored or not discussed (Davidson and Foster-Johnson 2001). However, in cross-race mentoring relationships where race was openly discussed, both the mentor and mentee experienced improved mutual understanding and a stronger mentoring alliance (Thomas 1993). Thus, an open and honest engagement of differences in mentoring relationships may be the best course of action (Davidson and Foster-Johnson 2001).
- Heads should ensure that minorities and women are formally assigned mentors and check in with underrepresented faculty regularly to ensure they have been able to build a network of mentors. Having multiple mentors allows women and minorities to receive different kinds of support (Dolan 2007), including support for coping with inequalities (Moody 2004). If the mentee has not been able to build a network of mentors, heads may want to partner with other departments in the college to facilitate cross-department mentoring, especially in departments in which women or faculty of color are in the extreme minority.
- Input into the faculty mentoring relationship is important. If race or gender matters to the mentee, the mentee can seek mentors like themselves. However, assigning a mentee a mentor simply based on race or gender similarities may be seen as condescending or patronizing, so input is critical.
- Mentors from majority groups can often successfully mentor underrepresented mentees, and these mentors can be strong allies for diversity and social justice (Stanley and Lincoln 2005). However, mentors should not assume that mentees will have career paths that mirror their own or similar workplace experiences. Mentors from majority groups should be sensitive to the challenges faced by faculty of color and women (King and Cubic 2005), such as those outlined above. Faculty can learn how unconscious bias can affect evaluations in this online module (NetID required).
Time Allocation
1. What is your expected time allocation according to your employment contract or agreement (should equal 100%)?
   - Research %:
   - Teaching %:
   - Service %
   - Outreach %:
   - Other (e.g., clinical, administrative, etc.) %:

2. What do you estimate is your current actual time allocation?
   - Research %:
   - Teaching %:
   - Service %
   - Outreach %:
   - Other (e.g., clinical, administrative, etc.) %:

3. If there are discrepancies, what strategies can you use to change your time allocation to meet expectations? What areas do you need to spend more time on, and what areas do you need to spend less time on?

Short Term Goals
What specific goals do you want to accomplish in the next 3–12 months? Consider all areas, including research, teaching, service, outreach, work-life balance, communication skills, technical skills, and even personal goals. Below, list your goals for the next 3–12 months. Be specific and indicate how you will assess if your goal was met (expected outcome).

Examples:
- Goal: Submit a grant to support my research on the topic of X
  Expected Outcome: Grant submitted to NSF by the grant deadline of [insert date]

- Goal: Improve my teaching by working with the Office of Instruction and Assessment and learning more about pedagogy
  Expected Outcome: Higher overall student evaluations compared to last semester and positive feedback from a peer who observes my teaching

4. Your Short Term Goals:
   a. Goal:
      Expected Outcome:
   
   b. Goal:
      Expected Outcome:
   
   c. Goal:
      Expected Outcome:
   
   d. Goal:
      Expected Outcome:
   
   e. Goal:
      Expected Outcome:
5. Do the following breakdown for each of your short term goals to keep yourself on track to attain your goals. Research shows that proximal goal setting in which you break up your larger goal into smaller goals enhances motivation, perceptions of self-efficacy, self-satisfaction, and task persistence.

In order to accomplish Goal A, what must be done in:
- Three months:
- Six months:
- Nine months:
- Twelve months:

[Repeat this breakdown for all remaining short term goals.]

6. Think about the steps you need to take to achieve your short term goals. Do you have questions about them? How can your mentor help you achieve your short term goals?

**Long Term Goals**
Think about ways in which you are satisfied and dissatisfied with your professional development at this point. Consider all areas again, including any aspirations for leadership roles and promotion or tenure. What would you like to develop, build on, or improve?

7. List your long term goals for the next 3-5 years. Again, be specific and indicate how you will assess if your goal was met (expected outcome).

   a. Goal:
      - Expected Outcome:

   b. Goal:
      - Expected Outcome:

   c. Goal:
      - Expected Outcome:

   d. Goal:
      - Expected Outcome:

   e. Goal:
      - Expected Outcome:

8. Think about the steps you need to take to achieve your long term goals. Do you have questions about them? How can your mentor help you achieve your long term goals?

**Promotion and Tenure**
9. Think about tenure or promotion. What questions do you have about tenure or promotion in your department, at the college-level, and at the University-level? Do you have a good sense of your current progress towards P+T? What are you unsure about? What issues do you need to discuss with your mentor?

**Networking**
10. What groups, networks, or people have helped you already with reaching your goals? What groups or individuals might advance your professional development and help you attain your goals? What steps do you need to take to meet these individuals or join these groups/networks? Who would you like your mentor to introduce you to?