

PERSONAL EXPERIENCES OF MENTORING AMONG DOCTORAL STUDENTS
IN COUNSELOR EDUCATION

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Personal experiences of mentoring among doctoral students in counselor education

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ABSTRACT

The call for mentorship in the counseling profession has recently become more prominent even though a comprehensive understanding of mentoring practices remains obscure. Researchers postulated that mentoring enhances students' professional development. Yet the frequency to which mentoring occurs and thus influences development is unknown due to the lack of empirical data. The purpose of this study was to examine mentorship, at the doctoral-level, in counselor education programs by identifying the following areas of mentoring: (a) structural components, (b) potential impact, and (c) important aspects. Personal experiences of 66 participants (sample of convenience) who were mentored as doctoral students were utilized.

The quantitative and qualitative results of this study were obtained through the utilization of the *General Mentoring Questions*, *Mentoring Function Scale*, and a short answer (one-shot) question. Participants, representing 28 CACREP accredited programs, identified aspects in the psychosocial and career domains of mentoring. Statistically significant differences ($p < .05$) in the psychosocial domain ($M = 4.30$) indicated that more intense mentoring occurred when compared to the career domain ($M = 3.97$). Statistically significant differences were not found across variables of age, gender, and race.

Participants qualitatively based responses to the most important aspect of their mentoring experiences assumed a more psychosocial orientation even when career-related functions were addressed. They were often encouraged, supported, respected, and protected while developing and/or enhancing teaching, research, service, and/or

counseling based skills. Sentiments regarding the impact of the mentoring experiences on self-growth, self-confidence, and personal change were also expressed. Essentially, the participants' mentoring experiences seemed to reflect the counseling principles of relationship development and promotion of well-being and empowerment as well as adherence to professional ethics.

It is important to note that these results, which provide a small glimpse to mentoring, cannot be generalized. Implications, however, can be drawn. Mentorship could potentially impact retention and graduation rates and promote professional continuity and identity. Obtaining a richer comprehension of mentorship is required and will most likely enable the profession to maximize practices in an effective and ethical manner, address acclimation, and ensure its longevity.

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

The desire to belong, establish connections, and be successful is a powerful dimension of being human. Adler believed that individuals need to develop close social relationships and contribute to their communities and societies in order to feel complete (Corey, 2005). Furthermore, the view of human nature in the relational/cultural theory and social support approach emphasized both the physical and emotional connections in relationships (Beyene, Anglin, Sanchez, & Ballou, 2002; Jacobi, 1991). It is through relationships that individuals learn how to interact, become educated, and apply knowledge and skills to everyday situations and in their professions (Dutton, 2003). The type of relationship, perhaps, makes all the difference for individuals, thereby having a profound influence on individuals' development.

One avenue for addressing and facilitating a sense of belonging, connection, contribution, and development has been the long standing practice of mentorship. In fact, corporations, professions, and educational institutions have utilized mentoring practices (Carden, 1990) due to the psychosocial (i.e. belonging, connection) and career (i.e. personal, community, and societal contributions) outcomes (Kram, 1985). Yet it is important to note that despite its history and popularity, mentoring remains abstruse in concept and definition. Perhaps this obscurity is a result of evolving mentoring practices and perceptions. Thus, in order to obtain a clearer comprehension of the issues and perspectives involved, mentorship might be best illustrated through its past and present as well as implications for the future.

Historically, the traditional view of mentorship encompassed a hierachal structure, male-based orientation, and career focus. Rooted in Greek mythology, mentoring became a tool for educating individuals, men in particular, about their professions upon entry (Schwiebert, 2000). It was simply a way to facilitate the professional development of new professionals, promote socialization, and ensure organization survival (Cawyer, Simonds, & Davis, 2002; Semeniuk & Worrall, 2000). Hence, the foundation of traditional mentoring seemed to recognize that new professionals are of paramount importance to the survival of organizations (Luna & Cullen, 1995).

Seasoned individuals known as mentors assumed sponsorship of lesser experienced colleagues who became their protégés (Arizona Leadership 2000 & Beyond, 2000; Murray, 2001). Primarily utilized in the corporate sector (N. W. Collins, 1983; Henning & Jardim, 1977; Kanter, 1977; Kram, 1985; Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, & McKee, 1978; Phillips-Jones, 1982; Sheehy, 1976), mentoring relationships facilitated growth and passage of knowledge. Mentors used their influence and expertise to significantly impact their protégés' careers (Carden, 1990). This one-dimensional approach helped define the hierachal nature of traditional mentoring (McGuire & Rege, 2003; Semeniuk & Worrall, 2000). The hierarchy remains an underlying current in present-day practices due to differentials in power, knowledge, expertise, and experience.

The imbalance of the aforementioned variables is often an obstacle that might be daunting for individuals entering their professions (Cascio & Gasker, 2001). However, it is difficult to deny that power will be unequal between individuals who bring forth different levels of expertise and experience in their relationships. According to Phillips-

Jones (1982) power derives from knowledge, professional connections, and resources.

Typically mentors were viewed as having more expertise, access to resources, and networking systems, all of which were perceived as positive components. Yet this imbalance could potentially impact protégés' inability to establish an identity that differed from their mentors (McGuire & Reger, 2003).

Being able to establish a personalized professional identity did not seem to be the central purpose of traditional mentoring. Instead the focus pertained to reconstructing individuals to be more suitably matched for their professions (Beyene et al., 2002). In essence, mentoring was about conformity (Davidson & Foster-Johnson, 2001), which equated to personal survival and socialization in addition to organizational success (Cawyer, et al., 2002; Luna & Cullen, 1995; Murray, 2001). Therefore, during their mentorship, mentors and protégés only engaged in career-related ventures (Luna & Cullen). Personal growth, outside of the career, did not seem to be a concern for mentors. Perhaps the psychosocial growth that Kram (1985) believed occurred in mentoring was actually associated to career development. It is plausible then that protégés' sense of belonging, connection, acceptance, and self-worth was a result of increased confidence in their abilities to contribute and socialize professionally (Brown II, Davis, & McClendon, 1999). Hence, both the career-related psychosocial growth and professional successes were credited to their mentors.

The feasibility of being instrumental in addressing psychosocial growth on a more personal level seemed non-existent for mentors since this was one area in which their protégés often possessed more knowledge. This notion, if recognized in traditional mentoring practices, might have questioned the hierachal nature. On the other hand, the

more personal side to psychosocial development might not have been deemed as a necessary element in mentorship (Schwiebert, 2000). Challenging the hierarchy and recognizing psychosocial development in its entirety has now been initiated with the more current mentoring ideology.

Scholars have acknowledged that mentorship could be a lifelong process for facilitating both mentors' and protégés' professional and personal development holistically (Barnier, 1981; Beyene et al., 2002; Luna & Cullen, 1995). In fact, the career and its associated psychosocial outcomes are only pieces of holistic growth (Barnier; Beyene et al.; Brown II, et al., 1999). Mentoring also encompasses interactions within relationships, which according to Beyene et al., are the basic principles. Thus, mentoring practices addresses the deeper interpersonal connections between mentors and their protégés (Beyene et al.; Luna & Cullen; Schwiebert, 2000).

Characteristics of intense mentoring relationships include reciprocity and emotional connectivity (Kolbert, Morgan, & Brendel, 2002). Mentors and their protégés establish relationships based on valuing, sharing, and learning from each other's intellectual contributions (Barnier, 1981; Cascio & Gasker, 2001). Whereas traditional mentoring practices failed to recognize protégés' knowledge, expertise, and experience, the current ones do not. Furthermore, learning is no longer mentor dependent, which allows for the sharing of opposing viewpoints and debates (Beyene et al., 2002).

Essentially, these relationships became two-dimensional. Personal and professional growth was no longer a goal for just protégés (Brown II et al., 1999). For example, mentors who engaged in strong mentoring relationships are less likely to experience burn-out or decrease in productivity (Murray, 2001; Niles, Akos, Cutler,

2001). Perhaps, protégés would be more likely to develop their own identities thereby disputing the viewpoint provided earlier by McGuire and Reger (2003). Yet, Johnson-Bailey and Cervero (2002) postulated that even though the new mentoring perspective attempts to overlook and/or dismiss the hierachal nature of mentorship, it still exists.

As mentoring practices evolved, power differentials surfaced as evidenced in the various mentoring forums and diversity issues. Commencing with traditional mentoring practices, only the mentors seemed to have a voice even though the focus was on protégés. The same could be said about other mentoring forums such as grooming mentoring (Bauer, 1999) and formalized mentoring (Schwiebert), which also seem to embrace the traditional mentoring hierarchy. In the more current and non-traditional practices protégés seem to have a voice (Beyene et al., 2002). However, even if both individuals learned from each other, by virtue of uniqueness and individualism, a power differential would still remain since their experiences, knowledge, and expertise would be different to some extent. Thus differences in power may be present in peer mentoring even though the individuals are often of the same status (Schwiebert, 2000), and in co-mentoring, which focuses on holistic development (McGuire & Reger, 2003).

The hierachal structure was more evident in certain mentoring relationships as well. Since traditional mentoring practices were primarily for Caucasian men, women and ethnic minority groups were often deprived from developing necessary skills for promotion (Atkinson, Casas, & Neville, 1994; Davidson & Foster-Johnson, 2001; Schwiebert, 2000). It is important to note, though, that women and ethnic minorities were often absent in professional settings due to societal standards (Schwiebert). However their mentoring needs differed when they entered the workforce (Bruce, 1995), yet the

standards used for men were also being applied to women and ethnic minorities (Schwiebert). Scholars (e.g. Brown II et al., 1999; Davidson & Foster-Johnson; Schwiebert) have recognized the need to continue addressing obstacles and differences among women and ethnic minority groups that impede the effectiveness of mentoring.

Despite the vast amount of literature available, mentoring effectiveness, in general, has been a recent topic in the research (Schwiebert, 2000). Over the years, mentoring practices have been dissected. Attempts to distinguish, differentiate, define, and understand phases, functions, outcomes, benefits, roles, behaviors mentor and protégé traits, definitions, alternative forums, and mentoring programs have kept researchers occupied (Beyene et al., 2002; Jacobi, 1991; Phillips-Jones, 1982; Schockett & Haring-Hidore, 1985; Schwiebert). Consensus has yet to be reached especially with regard to mentoring definitions, functions, and roles.

Schwiebert (2000) suggested that the future of mentoring requires further examination of the mentoring process itself. In particular, she suggested the following topics for further research: (a) compositing an operational definition; (b) examining the effectiveness, barriers, and contributions of different mentoring forums; (c) distinguishing and examining phases; (d) mentoring with diverse groups; and (e) consolidating results across disciplines. In addition to the topics provided by Schwiebert, other avenues for further research include differentiating functions, roles, and behaviors from each other and identifying benefits. This is especially crucial in the academic setting especially since there is a dearth of empirical data for supporting the benefits of mentoring (Jacobi, 1999; Lark & Croteau, 1998; Tenenbaum, Crosby, & Gliner, 2001). Research on mentoring benefits is limited in counselor education. A majority of the

reported benefits were generated from studies conducted in corporations and graduate programs, in general. Thus, the results were generalized to counselor education.

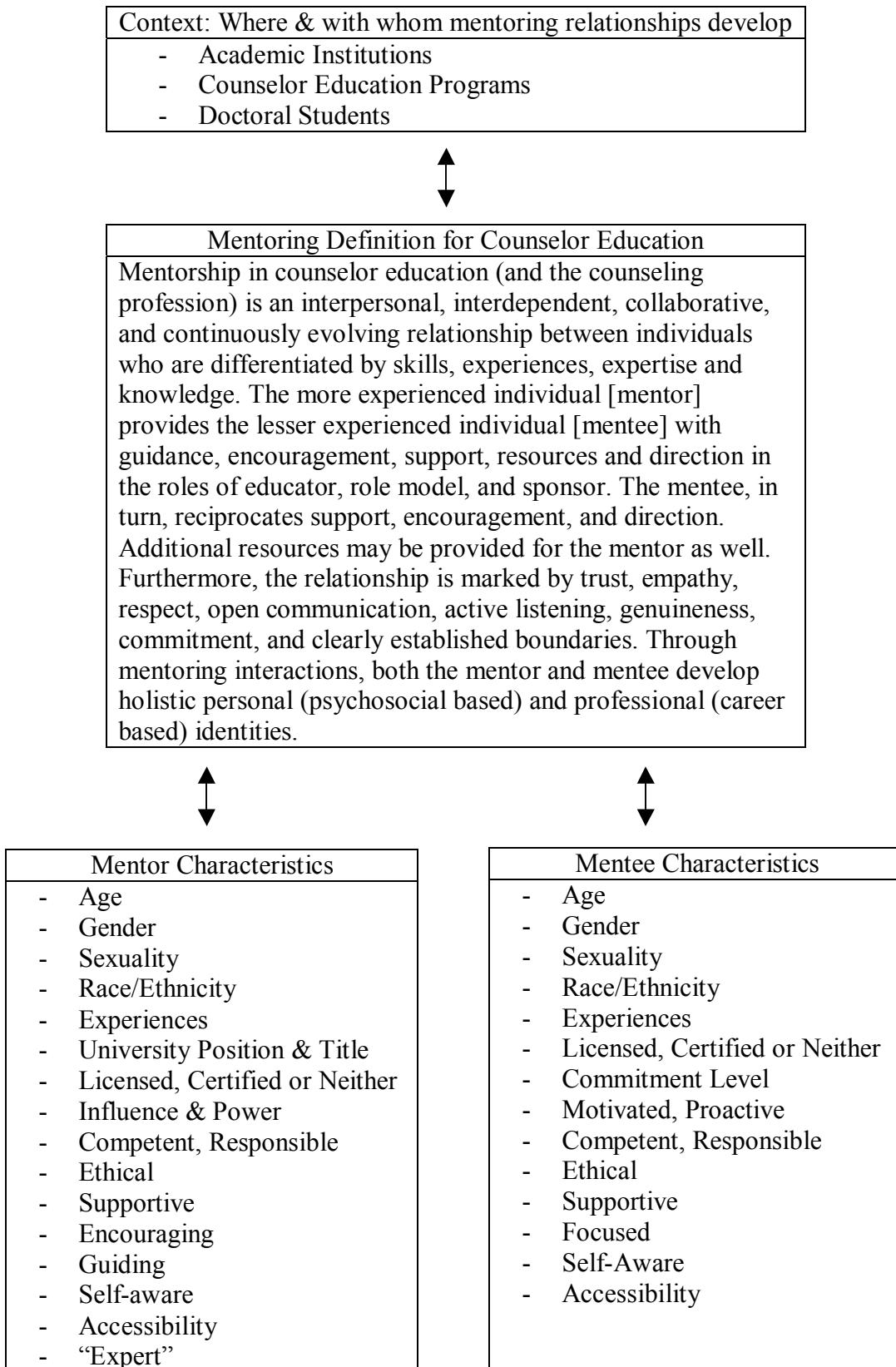
The mentoring data have been viewed skeptically by some researchers, especially Jacobi (1991), who implored that a theoretical foundation is critical for conducting studies. Without a theoretical framework, results obtained from the study would be questionable (Campbell & Campbell, 2000) because examined constructs would not be linked appropriately (Jacobi). Therefore, for the purpose of this study, a conceptual framework, grounded in social support and developmental theoretical concepts, was used as a basis for examining mentorship in counselor education.

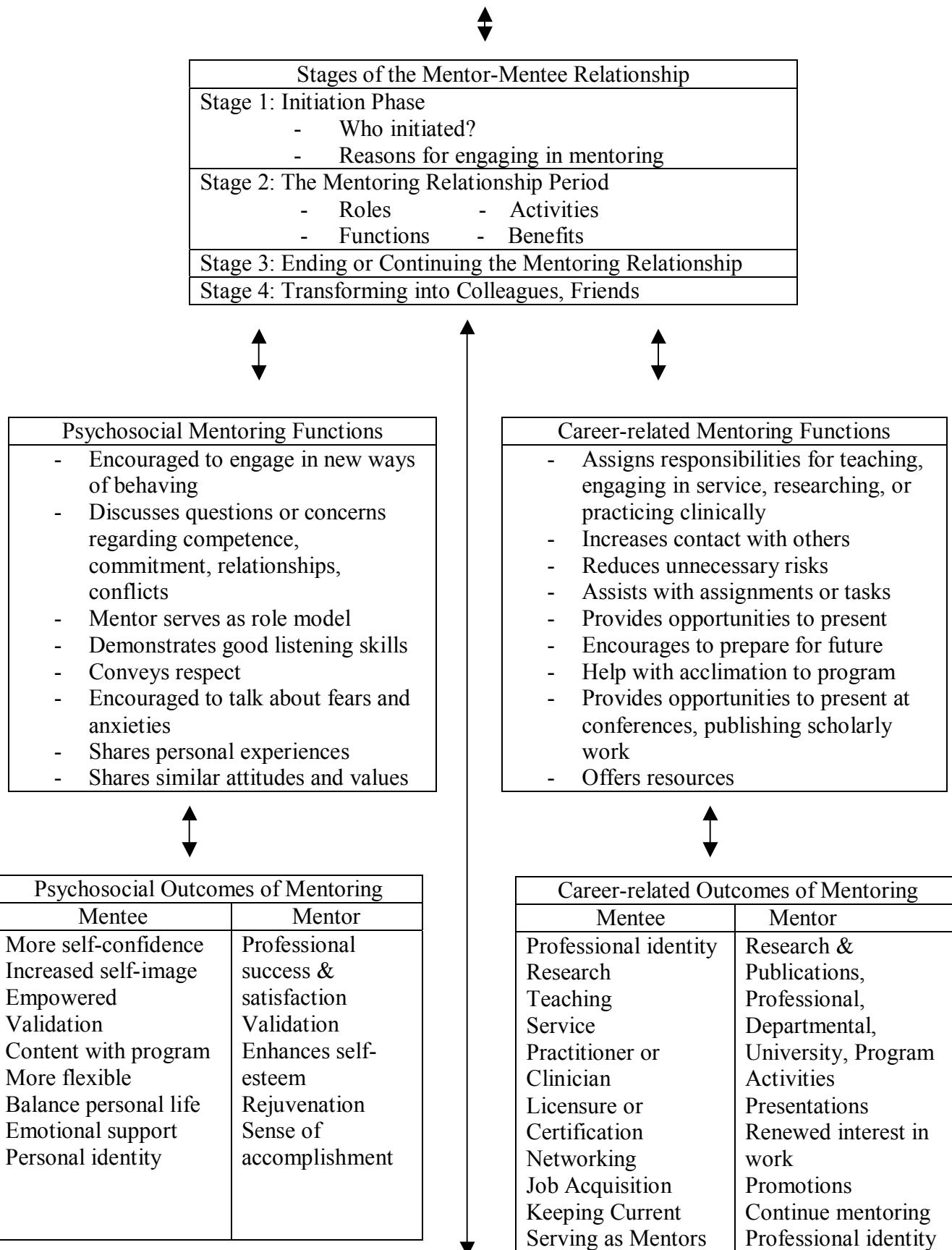
According to Jacobi (1991), the social support theory addresses the exchange of emotions, affirmations, trust, and feedback within relationships. Because mentoring relationships are supportive in nature (i.e. involves emotional support, sharing of information, feedback, validations, and time), the social support theory seems to address the psychosocial and career aspects of mentoring most effectively due to the commonalities. Integrating developmental approaches acknowledges that mentoring relationships are not static. Although commonalities might exist across mentoring experiences, they are also unique due to individual characteristics, needs, and events.

The adapted, conceptual framework, which was actually modified from the one suggested by Hunt and Michael (1983) for organizational settings attempts to illustrate the theoretical concepts. It is illustrated in *Figure 1* and begins with identifying academic institutions and counselor education programs as places where mentoring occurs with doctoral students. The researcher viewed academic institutions as the broad context and doctoral students as the more specific context. Next a mentoring definition is provided

followed by the characteristics of mentors and mentees, and the four possible stages of the mentor-mentee relationship. Psychosocial and career outcomes for both the mentee and mentor are included as are possible outcomes for counselor education and institutions.

Figure 1. A Suggested Framework for the Study of Mentorship in Counselor Education







Possible Mentoring Outcomes for Counselor Education
<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Ensure timely graduation- Retention- Recognition of program- Assures longevity of program- Increased enrollment- Attracts future faculty- Continuation of knowledge, expertise, standards- Developing new leaders for profession- Consistency & Professional Identity



Possible Outcomes for Institutions based on Counselor Education Mentoring Outcomes
<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Recognition of program AND university- Recognition of faculty (caliber, talent, dedication, commitment)- Increased enrollment = increases finances

Basically this framework provided an overview of what mentoring might encompass and mean in addition to how it might occur in counselor education programs. The mentoring definition assumes that mentoring relationships are developmental (ex. evolving, knowledge acquisition, professional and personal growth, independence) and involves social components (ex. information exchange, support, and commitment). In addition, the characteristics of mentors and mentees help shape mentoring relationships that seem to occur in stages beginning with relationship initiation. Mentor-mentee pairs would most likely exhibit some, if not all, the characteristics provided. As a result of engaging in mentorship and mentoring functions, mentor-mentee pairs are most likely to report some, if not all, the psychosocial and career-related outcomes.

The impact of mentorship on counselor education programs and the institution as a whole was hypothesized to have a snowball type effect. However, this impact was not assessed in the dissertation. The mentoring stages, mentor-mentee characteristics, and psychosocial and career-related outcomes were not the foci of this study as well. Instead, the study concentrated on mentoring functions that mentees perceive to have experienced in addition to what mentees believe were the most important aspects of their mentoring experiences. It is important to note that the characteristics for the mentees and mentors, stages, functions, and outcomes were all pulled from the existing research in the corporate, professional, and academic (graduate-level) sectors with the exception of the possible outcomes for institutions, which was the researcher's hypothesis.

Statement of Problem

The counseling profession has a history of borrowing concepts from other disciplines. As a result, the profession has struggled to find its own niche. The borrowing and struggling seems to have continued with mentoring practices. The counseling profession and its counselor education programs are advocating for and recommending mentorship despite having a poor understanding of the construct (Lark & Croteau, 1999). Knowledge of mentoring and its benefits is often derived from research in the corporate and professional sectors (McCambley, 1999). Yet, corporate and professional based mentoring information and results are not truly applicable to academic settings due to differences in purpose, focus, goals, and structure (Luna & Cullen, 1995).

Corporations utilize mentoring to promote continuity and homogeneity in the workplace, maintain its hierarchical structure, and keep the status quo (Carden, 1990); all of which ensures corporations' survival as a business. In academia, mentoring tends to be

more personalized than institutionalized even though the academic institutions might benefit from mentoring themselves (Tentoni, 1995). The discrepancy in the mentoring focus (i.e. entire institution vs. individual) may be another argument for the inability to generalize results across disciplines (Jacobi, 1991). Despite the perceived interdisciplinary differences, Carden believed that mentoring commonalities exist thereby providing a rationale for integrating results between disciplines. Perhaps the search for similarities enables disciplines to not have to start from scratch in terms of defining what mentoring means and how it will be utilized.

However, the counseling profession has yet to define mentoring for itself in terms of definition, purpose, and structural occurrence, which poses several problems. The reasons for advocating and promoting a practice that has not been clearly understood could be questioned. Establishing a parallel process to the counselor-client relationship (Kolbert et al, 2002; Schwiebert, 2000), it is unethical for counselors during sessions to use techniques and interventions in which they do not have a clear comprehension of how to accurately implement and/or lack adequate training. Additionally, the ambiguity surrounding mentorship questions what is actually being examined in mentoring studies and what is occurring in counselor education programs. The importance and significance of mentoring has been difficult to determine due to the absence of a concrete and workable mentoring definition (Luna & Cullen, 1995), purpose and goals, inability to differentiate between mentoring functions, and programs' failure to collect and compile data (Johnson & Huwe, 2003). One might inquire in what ways mentoring is truly beneficial for professional development when its own importance and significance are unknown. Perhaps the energy, attention, and resources that might be spent on facilitating

mentoring could be utilized elsewhere. Furthermore, continued reliance on mentoring results and practices from corporations, businesses, and organizations could cause dependency issues for the counseling profession, create mentoring relationships based on inaccurate goals, and prolong the establishment of its identity among other professions.

Just as the client-counselor relationship is unique, so is the mentoring one (Dixon-Reeves, 2003; Kelly & Schweitzer, 2000). Counselors' abilities to lead their clients are based on the counselors' level of self-awareness and growth. Thus, counselor education programs might have difficulty helping students find their niche in the profession and/or retain them as counselors and counselor educators if reliance on other disciplines for mentoring feedback occurs in lieu of identifying and utilizing mentoring practices and a definition that are unique to the counseling profession. Additionally, counselor education programs may be providing students a disservice for utilizing mentoring approaches based on other disciplines instead of their own, which could unintentionally harm them later. Hence the problem lies within advocating and promoting a practice that may not exist, has not been clearly or concisely identified, has minimal research support, (Black, Suarez, & Medina, 2004), and lacks empirically based instruments (Black, 1998). It is essential then that mentoring in counselor education programs be identified and understood first before it is promoted and practiced.

Purpose of Study

A mentoring definition specifically for counselor education was created and used in the study. In addition, the psychosocial and career components of mentoring that Kram (1985) proposed in her work with corporations was borrowed and integrated for use with mentoring in counselor education.

With that said, the purpose of this study was four-fold. It focused on (a) examining the impact of mentoring on career and psychosocial development of doctoral students in counselor education programs, (b) gaining a fuller understanding of what mentoring encompasses in these programs, and (c) distinguishing the most important aspect of mentees' mentoring experiences. Due to the dearth of literature on mentorship in counselor education, this study also served to contribute to the existing literature and provide recommendations for further mentoring research in counselor education.

Two broad research questions were constructed to address the possible structural components and important aspects of mentoring and its overall impact. The first question, which had 10 sub-questions is:

1. What are the perceptions of doctoral students' personal mentoring experiences in counselor education programs?
 - a. What are the qualities (psychosocial based) and characteristics (career based) of their mentoring experiences?
 - i. To what extent do doctoral students believe they are prepared to teach, research, engage in service, and/or practice clinically?
 - ii. To what extent do doctoral students believe they establish networks and connections
 - iii. To what extent do doctoral students believe they receive encouragement, protections, support, guidance, and respect from their mentors?
 - iv. To what extent do doctoral students discuss personal experiences and issues?

- b. Do doctoral students experience greater or more intense mentoring in career or psychosocial domains?
- c. Do doctoral students initiate the mentoring relationship more than mentors?
- d. Do doctoral students differentiate their mentor from their assigned program advisor?
- e. Do doctoral students have more than one mentor?
- f. Are there differences in mentoring experiences based on mentees' gender, age, and/or race?
- g. Have doctoral students' professional goals been affected by mentoring?
- h. Do doctoral students serve as mentors once they have graduated?
- i. Are there differences in mentoring experiences between research and non-research based institutions?
- j. Are there differences in mentoring experiences between CACREP and non-CACREP programs?

The following is the second broad research question that was also generated:

- 2. What is the most important aspect of the mentoring experience for doctoral students in counselor education programs?

Definition of Terms

The following definitions were used for the present study. These definitions were meant to help clarify the terminology.

- 1. **Mentor:** A more experienced individual who addresses both the psychosocial and career development of a lesser experienced individual by guiding, training,

supporting, role-modeling, providing access to networks, and sharing of knowledge.

2. Protégé: An individual who has less experience and knowledge and is mentored by a more experienced and knowledgeable individual who is referred to as a mentor.
3. Mentee: Derived from the term mentor, it is used interchangeably with protégé. This term will be used for this dissertation.
4. Mentorship: The established relationship between a mentor and protégé or mentee.
5. Psychosocial: “of or relating to the interrelation of social factors on individual thought and behavior” (*The New Oxford American Dictionary*, 2001, p. 1375). The psychological and emotional aspects of individuals.
6. CACREP: Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs; accredits counselor education programs based on preparation standards that promote program development and professional competence in counseling (CACREP, 2004).
7. Research Based Institutions: Also known as Research I institutions; denotes and/or labels institutions of higher education that place a heavy emphasis on research and scholarly publications.

Limitations

It would be remiss not to include the limitations of the study. Each limitation spoke directly to the broadly focused structure of the study. The first directly deals with the conceptual mentoring framework. The eighth and final component focused on

possible outcomes for academic institutions that would have been results of the mentoring in programs. Data were not collected as this was outside the scope of the study. Furthermore, the framework was not validated as it was the first time being used.

Other limitations, especially pertaining to the methodology, existed. A sample of convenience was chosen over a random one, which potentially limited the data collection while eliminating the ability to generalize results. Requests for participation were primarily made through academic based forums which may explain the higher participation percentage from counselor educators than clinical and school counselors. Furthermore, 14 of the represented programs only had one participant. It is plausible to propose that mentorship was not fully understood for other doctoral students within the represented programs or even in doctoral programs that were unrepresented.

Only the perspectives of these participants as mentees were utilized in this study even though the absence of both mentor and mentee perspectives within the same studies served as a limitation in previous mentoring research (Grant-Vallone & Ensher, 2000). Despite having prior awareness of this limitation, it was determined that surveying identified mentors was outside the scope of the current study. Viewpoints from other populations such as non-mentored individuals and master's level students were not considered as well. Even the experiences of doctorate holding individuals who graduated from counselor education programs before 2000 were not obtained. All of these perspectives could have potentially added to the richness of the experiences by providing different views as well as reinforcement for experiences shared. Unfortunately, the results obtained in this study cannot be generalized to doctoral-level mentoring experiences in counselor education programs because a randomized sample was not utilized.

Another limitation pertained to the mentoring definition that was created specifically for this study. Rather than using one of the various operational mentoring definitions that existed (Jacobi, 1991), constructs from different definitions were pulled together to establish a definition geared toward counselor education programs. The resulting definition excluded the function of advising in order to help differentiate mentoring from advisory practices. Thus the new definition might not have been objective, concrete, and/or an accurate representation of mentoring practices in counselor education programs. Individuals might not have concurred with the provided definition, which was not validated before its use. In fact, some participants contacted the researcher for the mentoring definition prior to making a decision to participate. There is the possibility that the responses were influenced by the provided definition and/or simply reflected participants' personal perspectives of their mentoring relationships.

The GMQ and MFS were limited in their approach to mentoring. Both assessed the degree to which each function occurred during the mentorship rather than the degree of importance. Mentees were not able to indicate if they believed the mentoring functions were important to experience. In addition, the psychosocial and career oriented functions were examined broadly rather than specifically. The number of items on the instruments that addressed areas such as (a) teaching, service, research; (b) networking; and (c) sharing of personal issues was, for the most part, minimal. In fact, teaching, service, and research were not addressed in depth or specifically. Instead these were addressed as a whole under career-related mentoring. Thus, the impact of mentoring on doctoral students' abilities to engage in these responsibilities was limited. In addition, the GMQ was not validated before utilization, however face validity was established.

Examining mentoring experiences without truly breaking them into categories and/or individual items seemed to be the theme of the study. The study did not examine different mentoring forums (i.e. peer, group, and network) although these might have been utilized. The formal and informal nature of mentoring relationships between professors and doctoral students was not examined separately or in-depth as well. Excluding other mentoring formats and failing to differentiate relationship formality could have been limitations. A complete and accurate depiction of mentoring practices in counselor education programs might not have been provided.

The general approach of examining doctoral-level mentorship in counselor education programs served as another limitation especially with regard to diversity issues. Even though the importance of diversity was acknowledged in this study, mentoring experiences by gender and/or individuals from other minority groups were not examined exclusively or categorically. Similar to previous studies (e.g. Bauer, 1999; Bruce, 1995; Brinson & Kottler, 1993; P. M. Collins, Kamya, & Tourse, 1997; Kelly & Schweitzer, 1999; Kolbert, Morgan, & Brendel, 2002; McGuire & Reger, 2003; Schwiebert, 2000; Schwiebert, Deck, Bradshaw, Scott, & Harper, 1997), representation was small.

Summary of Chapter

Mentoring, according to Dreher and Ash (1990), is a scheme that encompasses several interconnecting functions that are psychosocial and career based. Yet, these functions are only one component of the mentoring construct despite being heavily concentrated on in the research. Mentorship is about being in a relationship; one that is highly interactive and interpersonal (Beyene et al., 2002), and developmental. Perhaps, it is the desire to feel connected that prompts mentoring relationships. Connections, in

earlier mentoring relationships, were primarily established via recognition of accomplishments. These relationships were often characterized by an imbalance in power, knowledge, and expertise, thereby making them unequal. More recently, mentorship seems to have become more personal and equal by becoming less hierarchical. A shift in pedagogy has occurred in that the mentee is no longer perceived as having nothing to offer his or her mentor.

In fact, the view of mentor-mentee relationships is that these are more reciprocal and mutual. Mentoring is no longer about the development of the mentee. Mentors' professional and personal development could also be impacted by mentorship (Barnier, 1981; Beyene et al., 2002, Luna & Cullen, 1995). Furthermore, mentors are able to learn from their mentees, have accesses to their resources, and network with individuals whom their mentees know and they (mentors) do not.

Essentially, the mentoring paradigm has shifted from a traditional to more modern approach. The change, however, has not eliminated common concerns with the phenomenon including definitional and conceptual ambiguity, diversity issues, research inconsistencies, limitations and available data, mentoring types, and adaptation of the mentoring concept across disciplines. These concerns have implications for future research, especially for counselor education.

Although mentoring is believed to be beneficial, its significance in counselor education has been difficult to determine. Without a mentoring definition and/or a clear conceptualization, counselor education programs cannot accurately assess how beneficial mentoring is. Therefore, promoting mentorship in the counselor education and the counseling profession could cause some problems. The basis of the promotion stems

from corporate and professional benefits that may not be applicable to counseling. The failure to recognize that disciplines do differ might not have provoked questioning about the usefulness of mentoring in counselor education just as traditional mentoring was not questioned until there was a realization that it could be different.

The purposes of this dissertation included: (a) contributing to the dearth of literature, (b) examining the impact of mentoring on career and psychosocial development of doctoral students in counselor education programs, (c) gaining a fuller understanding of what mentoring encompasses in these programs, and (d) distinguishing the most important aspect of mentees' mentoring experiences. A mentoring definition created specifically for counselor education and a mentoring conceptual framework grounded in theoretical perspectives of social support and development were used. The definition and framework served as guidelines in assessing the impact of mentoring in counselor education so that perhaps when mentoring is promoted it will be based on data collected from the counseling profession.

CHAPTER II

Literature Review

Mentoring

The topic of mentoring has captured scholarly interest for several decades as evidenced by the wealth of literature. It developed into a phenomenon that still remains ambiguous in both definition and concept. Attempts to clearly and concisely define mentoring have yielded multiple operational definitions (Jacobi, 1991), styles, experiences, perceptions, and interchangeable terms for individuals who are mentored, all of which impact the movement toward concreteness. The ambiguity, however, has not deterred corporate businesses and disciplines such as psychology, education, and the social sciences from emphasizing the power of mentoring not only for individuals, but for the businesses and disciplines as well. This emphasis has been and continues to be supported by scholarly publications as well as mentoring relationship precedents.

Both the scholarly attention and personalized accounts have revealed the complex and multifaceted dimensions to mentoring. Even the historical foundation alludes to the complexities. The literature (e.g. Barnier, 1981; Brown II, Davis, & McClendon 1999; N. W. Collins, 1982; Evanoski, 1998; Phillips-Jones, 1982; Schwiebert, 2000; Tyler, Blalock, & Cantou-Clarke, 2000) acknowledges the history, which serves as evidence that mentoring exists. From there, inquiries are often branched according to discipline and interests. Therefore, it seems only prudent that the historical aspect is taken into account to provide a basis for exploring and comprehending the developmental and evolutionary progress of mentoring in academia and, in particular, higher education.

Addressing the prevalence of mentoring in higher education and more specifically in doctoral programs requires examining present definitions, the history, research, functions, benefits, and different forums. Furthermore, it may involve questioning how mentoring is differentiated from another commonly occurring function in academia, which is advising. In what ways are mentoring and advising separate constructs? These terms are often used interchangeably to describe similar interactions between individuals. Thus, ferreting out any distinction between these two concepts involves defining and examining mentoring as well as delineating its components from those of advising. The mentoring definition is a facet that is often acknowledged in the research, but has yet to be studied as a separate entity.

Mentoring Definitions

Across disciplines mentoring is believed to have a significant impact on individuals' professional development even though the term, as commonly used, has been ill-defined. According to Black (1998), the standards for assessing relational depth and presence require a definitional agreement. Without consensuses on a concrete mentoring definition and/or the behavioral functions involved with the practice, the ability to fully comprehend the impact of mentoring is obstructed (Black; Davidson & Foster-Johnson, 2001). Furthermore, scholars may question the credibility of mentoring research results since the mentoring process, itself, has not been clearly defined or understood due to the definitional inconsistencies (Benishek, Bieschke, Park, & Slattery, 2004).

The difficulty in establishing a universal definition could be contributed to researchers' attempts to transform mentoring roles and functions into a definitional form (Semeniuk & Worrall, 2000). These authors contended that the attempts were impeded

because the roles and functions were only meant to help explain what mentoring encompassed, not define it. Essentially, the authors reiterated the sentiments of Levinson et al. (1978) in that mentoring was to be defined “in terms of the character of the relationship and the functions it serves” (p. 98) instead of the roles.

Existing definitions provide slightly different variations on mentoring roles and functions. Even dictionaries such as *The American Heritage Dictionary*, *Merriam-Webster Dictionary*, and *The New Oxford American Dictionary* utilize various role descriptors to define the term mentor. More specifically, a mentor was defined as a counselor or teacher in *The American Heritage College Dictionary Fourth Edition* (2002) whereas the *Merriam-Webster Dictionary* (2004) used guide and coach in addition to counselor. The term advisor was referenced in *The New Oxford American Dictionary* (2001). In addition to the aforementioned, a mentor has also been described as assuming a sponsorship and/or supportive role (Dixon-Reeves, 2003; Kram, 1985). Definitions extrapolated from scholarly literature extend beyond the roles by addressing variables of age, gender, experience, power, and knowledge within the created relationships. Many also incorporated the psychological concept of caring (Johnson-Bailey & Cervero, 2002). Furthermore each definition, upon examination, seemed to be based on the definer’s approach to mentoring and could be categorically organized according to disciplines (Jacobi, 1991).

Researchers such as Carden (1990), Crosby, (1999), Ervin (1995), Luna and Cullen (1995), and Merriam (1983) postulated that mentoring definitions were reflections of the discipline in which mentorship was being examined. More specifically, mentoring pertained to increasing productivity and profits in corporations, management and service

marketing in professions, and scholarly production in academia (Carden). The needs, goals, and resources of each discipline dictated how mentoring would be interpreted, implemented, and measured (Carden), thereby providing a rationale for why “mentoring appears to mean one thing to developmental psychologists, another thing to business people, and a third thing to those in academic settings” (Merriam, 1983, p. 169). It is this definitional inconsistency and/or diversity that muddles the research and poses the question of what exactly is being studied. Even amidst the varied perspectives, dimensions, and literary confusion it is important to note that the one consistency in both the dictionaries and mentoring publications, in general, was the recognition of the first mentoring relationship that was between Athena and Telemachus.

Their relationship was the prototype for conceptualizing mentoring definitions and its functions. Focusing on the roles and responsibilities that Athena assumed, Levinson et al. (1978) provided the first traditional definition of a mentor as being a male teacher, sponsor, and role model to a male protégé even though they recognized that women could be mentors. They depicted a mentor as:

... a teacher to enhance the young man’s [the protégé] skills and intellectual development. Serving as a sponsor, he may use his influence to facilitate the young man’s entry and advancement. He may be a host and guide, welcoming the initiate into a new occupational and social world and acquainting him with its values, custom, resources, and cast of characters. Through his own virtues, achievements, and way of living, the mentor may be an exemplar that the protégé can admire and seek to emulate. (p. 98)

Essentially this definition established a precedent for future definitions thereby acquiring a “timeless quality” (Crosby, 1991, p. 3).

According to Carden (1990), Levinson and his colleagues not only pinpointed mentoring roles specifically, they also addressed the emotional investment of the mentor and protégé from a developmental perspective. In doing so, the authors contributed to the “timeless quality” that Crosby (1991) denoted and defined the mentoring relationship, itself, per their own suggestion. Levinson et al. (1978) paralleled mentoring with parent-child and intimate relationships (i.e. significant others) on the premise of adequacy. They believed that throughout the course of mentoring relationships, both mentors and protégés would experience love, appreciation, gratitude, respect, and even displeasure based on how adequate they felt. Thus, the emotions that both the mentor and protégé experienced seemed to be associated with the progression or lack thereof toward the protégés’ ultimate goal and/or in the relationships (Levinson et al.).

Perhaps the emotional investment was bi-directional (i.e. both mentor and protégé experienced feelings associated with the relationship), yet, according to Swoboda and Millar (1986), Levinson and his colleagues viewed the interactive nature and formality of the mentor-protégé relationship as being one-dimensional as evidenced by their definition. The mentor possessed the power and resources for helping his protégé attain success, which reflected a hierachal structure (McGuire & Reger, 2003). Mentorship pertained to roles and functions, not intimacy (Phillips-Jones, 1982). De-emphasizing the concept of intimacy is what distinguishes mentoring from other types of relationship (Phillips-Jones) and may even help retain the hierarchical nature associated with mentoring. Levinson et al. (1978) noted that relationships would eventually become more

egalitarian and emotions associated with changes would possibly occur. The hierarchy, power, and emotions were developmentally based in that the natural progression for the mentor seemed to be from teacher to sponsor to host and guide (Levinson et al.).

Essentially, as the protégé advanced toward the ultimate goal, the mentor assumed a new role that had decreased power, and the emotional outcomes reflected the changes in both mentor and protégé.

Through her work with men and women employed in the corporate sector, Kanter (1977) recognized the interplay between structural determinants of power, opportunity, and representation (i.e. gender, race) that was involved with advancement within organizations. The structure of opportunity appeared to be dependent upon the structure of power, which was often influenced by representational status. According to Kanter, “power refers to the capacity to mobilize resources” (p. 247) and individuals either possessed low or high power in their organization. The ability to utilize resources seemed to have a direct impact on opportunity, which was defined as “expectations and future prospects” (p. 246). Kanter believed that power could be acquired and increased through sponsorship. More specifically, in her book entitled *Men and Women of the Corporation*, Kanter proposed that “managers would be encouraged to sponsor their subordinates for better jobs and would have a stake in seeing that they do well, even to the extent of helping them in the new position” (p. 279). Although she did not mention mentoring, Carden (1990) suggested that Kanter spoke to the concept of mentoring through the idea of sponsorship.

Drawing primarily from the basic definitional premises of both Kanter and Levinson et al., Kram differentiated her conceptualization by suggesting that mentoring

encompassed psychosocial and career-oriented functions (Carden, 1990). Furthermore, the mentor was not gender specific nor was the relationship one-dimensional. Thus according to Kram (1985), mentoring was:

...a relationship between a young adult and an older, more experienced adult that helps the younger individual learn to navigate in the adult world and the world of work. A mentor supports, guides, and counsels the young adult as he or she accomplishes this important task. (p. 2)

Originally, the aforementioned was established for use in the corporate management setting yet other fields such as academia and businesses have utilized these concepts in developing their own (Kram). Therefore, due to the wide acceptance and popularity of Kram's work, which incorporated and expounded on earlier studies, it seems as though it is her definition that has the "timeless quality" that was once given to Levinson and colleagues.

The developmental approach, two-dimensional interaction, non-gender specific and psychosocial and career-oriented components were incorporated in future definitions. For example, after extensively reviewing the existing literature, P. M. Collins, Kamya, and Tourse (1997) developed the following working definition:

Mentorship is an interpersonal "helping relationship" between two individuals who are at different stages in their professional development. The mentor – the more professionally advanced of the two – becomes involved in fostering the development and facilitating the advancement of the protégé – the junior professional – by serving as a source of support beyond what is required solely on the basis of their formal role relationship. (p. 147)

Unlike Levinson and Kram, these authors explicitly addressed the interactive nature of the relationship as that of being interpersonal. In addition, this definition did not seem to be pigeonholed into one disciplinary domain whereas Levinson's was mostly associated with the psychological field and Kram's with corporate management (Jacobi, 1991).

Mentoring definitions were not only abundant; they tended to be highly concentrated in the three areas due to peaked interest. Depending upon the researcher, these areas were either categorized according to discipline such as managerial, psychological, and educational (Jacobi, 1991) or organizational, academic, and professional social systems (Carden, 1990). Categorizing provided a way to recognize where further research was continuing, yet the subjective nature demonstrated another complexity to mentoring. The ability to differentiate based on discipline or social system was critical due to arguments amongst researchers regarding reciprocity of definitions. The context and process in which definitions were created impede the interchangeable use across disciplines since each has its own operational meanings (Jacobi). Hence, mentoring definitions stemming from a corporate business perspective would not be able to accurately address the complexity of academia especially since the latter involves multiple key relationships (Luna & Cullen, 1995). Researchers acknowledged that corporate based mentoring definitions were being utilized in the academic environment and have questioned the appropriateness (Semeniuk & Worrall, 2000). Offering an alternate perspective, Carden suggested that mentoring would be incomplete if it did not integrate concepts from other disciplines.

In an attempt to provide clarification on the progression of mentoring definitions across disciplines, Table 1 contains some of the more popular definitions during the past

two decades that have not already been addressed within the text. Examining and categorizing all existing mentoring definitions would be a book in and of it self.

Table 1

Definitions and Categorized Disciplines of Mentoring During the Past Two Decades

Authors (dates)	Definitions	Categorical discipline
Phillips-Jones (1982)	“...influential people who significantly help you reach your major life goals” (p. 21).	Corporate management
N. W. Collins (1983)	“The mentor relationship does not readily lend itself to vivisection or definition of its components. It is somewhat like trying to define what constitutes a friend or what a friend ‘does’. The relationship is formal and impersonal, yet constructive and of great use. Perhaps the most valuable thing a mentor does is to help the young person grasp the difference between what’s really important and what only seems so – in other words, perspective” (p. 8).	Corporate management
Swoboda & Millar (1986)	“...more flexible and mutually interdependent patterns of training, information sharing, and support” (p. 11).	Education

Table 1 (*continued*).

Authors (dates)	Definitions	Categorical discipline
Olian, Carroll, Giannantonia, & Feren (1988)	“A senior member of the profession or organization who shares values, provides emotional support, career counseling, information and advice, professional and/organizational sponsorship, and facilitates access to key organizational and professional networks” (p. 16).	Corporate management
Swerdlik & Bardon (1988)	“Mentoring exists when professional persons act as resources, sponsors, and transitional figures for another person entering the professional world [by providing] knowledge, advice, challenge, and support in their pursuit of becoming full members of a particular segment of life... Mentors welcome less experienced persons into the professional world and represent skill, knowledge, and success that the new professionals hope someday to acquire” (pp. 215-216).	Psychology
Fagenson (1989)	“Someone in a position of power who looks out for you or gives you advice, brings your accomplishments to the attention of other people who have power in the company” (p. 312).	Corporate management

Table 1 (*continued*).

Authors (dates)	Definitions	Categorical discipline
Chao, Walz, & Gardner (1992)	<p>“Mentorship is defined as an intense work relationship between senior (mentor) and junior (protégé) organizational members. The mentor has experience and power in the organization and personally advises, counsels, coaches, and promotes the career development of the protégé. Promotion of the protégé’s career may occur directly through actual promotions or indirectly through the mentor’s influence and power over other organizational members” (p. 624).</p>	Corporate management
Atkinson, Casas, & Neville (1994)	<p>“A mentor can be defined as a trusted and experienced supervisor or advisor who by mutual consent takes an active interest in the development and education of a younger and less experienced individual. A mentor differs from a traditional supervisor or advisor in that a mentor proactively seeks to enhance the development and education of a protégé while a traditional supervisor or advisor only promotes the development and education of a supervisee to the extent demanded by their position” (p. 39) .</p>	Education

Table 1 (*continued*).

Authors (dates)	Definitions	Categorical discipline
Dreher & Cox (1996)	“An individual who holds a position senior to yours who takes an active interest in developing your career” (p. 301).	Corporate management
Brown II, Davis, & McClendon (1999)	“Mentoring is the process by which a novitiate person (student or mentee) is positively socialized by a sagacious person (faculty or mentor) for the purpose of learning the traditions, practices, and frameworks of a profession, association, or organization” (¶ 3).	Education
Murray (2001)	“Mentoring is a deliberate pairing of a more skilled or more experienced person with a less skilled or less experienced one, with the mutually agreed upon goal of having the less skilled person grow and develop specific competencies” (preface XIII).	Corporate management
Black, Suarez, & Medina (2004)	“...a nurturing, complex, long-term, developmental process in which a more skilled and experienced person serves as a role model, teacher, sponsor, and coach who encourages, counsels, befriends a less skilled person for the purpose of promoting the latter’s professional and/or personal development” (p. 46).	Education

Yet even within these variations and categorical summations, common elements were evident. Jacobi (1991) noted that (a) knowledge acquisition; (b) increased experience, influence, and success within the chosen career; (c) networking opportunities; (d) reciprocity; and (e) psychosocial support consistently dominated the literary focus. However, disagreements among research results prevailed as evidenced by scholarly publications. The thematic consistency, although significant to mentoring, still did not seem to address or resolve the bigger issue at hand, that of a universal mentoring definition. The inability to establish a comprehensive mentoring concept might be influenced by variations in practices across disciplines.

Highlighting the differences among disciplines might make the definitional creation task more cumbersome. Robbins indicated that mentoring relationships needed to be defined in terms of (a) what it is; (b) identifying responsibilities; (c) the structure; (d) time length; and (e) accountability through assessments. It is possible that each discipline could have its own definition that accurately reflected the mission, purpose, and goals. However, commonalities within each definition could be extracted to create a universal definition.

Based on some of Robbins' (1999) recommendations, the following definition for counselor education will be utilized for the purpose of this dissertation:

Mentorship in counselor education (and the counseling profession) is an interpersonal, interdependent, collaborative, and continuously evolving relationship between individuals who are differentiated by skills, experiences, expertise, and knowledge. The more experienced individual [mentor] provides the lesser experienced individual [mentee] with guidance, encouragement, support,

resources, and direction in the roles of educator, role model, and sponsor. The mentee, in turn, reciprocates support, encouragement, and direction. Additional resources may be provided for the mentor as well. Furthermore, the relationship is marked by trust, empathy, respect, open communication, active listening, genuineness, commitment, and clearly established boundaries. Through mentoring interactions, both the mentor and mentee develop holistic personal (psychosocial based) and professional (career based) identities.

In addition, commonly used concepts were drawn from different mentoring definitions including those from Atkinson et al. (1994); Black et al. (2004); Kram (1985); P. M. Collins et al. (1997); and Swoboda and Millar (1986). The adopted concepts were from educationally based mentoring definitions with the exception of Kram's definition, which was corporate-based. Although scholars (e.g. Jacobi, 1991; Luna & Cullen, 1995; Semeniuk & Worrall, 2000) idealistically suggested purity for mentoring definitions across disciplines, the reality remains that definitions will continue to resonate with borrowed concepts. This may be historically rooted in that mentoring involved both educational and professional survival (Schwiebert, 2000). Therefore, briefly examining the history seems important especially since it has been and will continue to be influential in past, current, and future practices as well as scholarly research.

Historical Overview

Mentoring relationships, whether fabled or real and within political, organizational or educational venues, have existed throughout history. Classic examples of mentors and their protégés often include (a) Greek goddess Athena and Telemachus; (b) Merlin and King Arthur; (c) Plato and Aristotle; (d) former West German chancellor

Willy Brandt and Julius Leber; (e) suffragettes Susan B. Anthony and Elizabeth Cady Stanton; and (f) revolutionists Che Guevara and Hilda Gadea (Barnier, 1981; Tyler et al., 2000). These relationships were characterized by the passage of ideologies and skills in addition to the provision of guidance, support, protection and companionship. The aforementioned mentors served as transitional figures, nurturing their protégés' psychosocial and career development (Kram, 1985; Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, & McKee, 1978). They were also preserving their own knowledge and skills through protégés.

The continuation of both knowledge and skill seemed to be a primary purpose and focus in these mentoring relationships. A plausible explanation for this approach could be credited to the relationship between Athena and Telemachus, the first recognized mentor-protégé pair. More specifically, greater emphasis seemed to be placed on Athena's roles as a mentor instead of their interpersonal relationship. Athena guided and counseled Telemachus in ways that ensured both his survival and success (Murray, 2001). This prototype provided a conceptual definition and purpose to the practice. Mentoring was utilized as a strategy for promoting survival and success. It seemed to be about producing results on an as needed basis, which often equated to times of crises and changes (i.e. war, transfer in political and/or leadership roles, societal movements, economy). The interpersonal relationship was not the primary focus in the original concept of mentorship (Swoboda & Millar, 1986).

From its inception, a major principle of mentoring centered on individuals' psychosocial and career development and advancement. Historically it was men who utilized mentoring thereby benefiting from it (Atkinson, Casas, & Neville, 1994).

Mentorship, according to Schwiebert (2000), was traditionally male-oriented and dominated even though the practice originated with a female mentor and male protégé. Athena assumed the guise of Mentes, a male mentor, to fulfill her mentoring roles (Murray, 2001; Schwiebert). Athena's donning of a masculine appearance to create a male-to-male relationship seemed to undermine the role and influence of women as mentors. Her transformation also served to reinforce the male-based practice and perception that mentoring by men was more powerful and acceptable.

Considering power and influence, to some extent, was essential to establishing mentor-protégé relationships. Protégé development and enhancement depended on mentors' abilities and skills to provide exposure, education, challenging responsibilities, protection, and support that would, in turn, enhance their protégés' self-worth, competence, welfare, effectiveness, identity, and career (Cawyer, Simonds, & Davis, 2002; Fagenson-Eland, Mark, & Amendola, 1997; Luna & Cullen, 1995; Phillips-Jones, 1982; Schwiebert, 2000). The underlying assumption was that successful mentoring automatically meant successful development. As a result, mentoring was believed to be vital to individuals' professional and personal success.

Levinson and his colleagues' work entitled *Seasons of a Man's Life* (1978) provided a case in point by offering insight on effects of mentor-protégé relationships for middle-class, Caucasian men. The authors concluded that men required mentoring throughout their adult lifespan. Each developmental stage of adulthood (i.e. early, middle, and late periods) impacted men's careers (Levinson et al.). These authors postulated that early adulthood was characterized by establishing a career, financial issues and personal issues whereas the task for the middle and late adulthood involved creating, questioning,

and maintaining an individuated and autonomous identity. The tasks for and transitions between stages can be daunting, Levinson et al. believed that men with previous experience could help alleviate their fellow colleagues' stress by acting as a mentor. Their publication marked the beginning of scholarly exploration on mentoring (Johnson & Huwe, 2002) even though it was not the first publication on the mentorship. Despite this fact, it became a popular citation in the mentoring research that soon followed.

Research Focus

The desire to identify and comprehend structural components and dynamics of mentoring led to a resurgence of subjective and empirical data. According to Crosby (1999), the research momentum commenced during the 1970s and primarily concentrated on the corporate sector. A mentoring lens was utilized to examine male and female adult development in corporations. Researchers such as Hennig and Jardim (1977), Kanter (1977), and Sheehy (1977) were interested in determining mentoring benefits and experiences for men and women. Their works in addition to the work by Levinson et al. (1978) were often comparative and developmentally based. It is important to note that Hennig and Jardim as well as Sheehy linked women's development with career plans and aspirations and published their findings before Levinson and his colleagues published theirs on men's development. Whereas Levinson et al. specifically addressed men's adult development and mentoring, Hennig and Jardim utilized a lifespan approach that began with childhood and ended with what they termed "career maturity" (p. 137) to explain women's career paths. Assuming a more global stance, Sheehy examined and compared the impact of both men's and women's "life patterns" and "passages" (p. 174) on career decisions. The developmental and gender based foci provided by these authors seemed to

emphasize the rationale for mentoring while highlighting how needs are diversified needs within stages and between men and women. In essence, mentoring cannot abide by the one size fits all mentality (Benishek et al., 2004) unless it ignores where individuals are in their lives and their gender.

Kanter (1977) acknowledged that gender and associated roles separated men and women in the corporate workplace further by defining relational interactions. The impact of being a man or woman is profound even before entering a career. Childhood reinforces gender status (Hennig & Jardim, 1977), which is further perpetuated within the educational system, especially in higher education. Gender bias is often present in learning opportunities and teaching styles (Bauer, 1997). For example, Hennig and Jardim found in their study that women who were enrolled in business classes reported being ignored, devalued, and/or overlooked in the classroom. Additionally they experienced teaching styles that seemed to clearly favor men. The perception that females were less intelligent and competitive than their male counterparts was evident to these women (Hennig & Jardim).

These assumptions were most likely reinforced in the workplace as well. Kanter (1977) stated that men frequently questioned their female colleagues' abilities to assume and maintain the upper echelon positions and responsibilities. Undermining women's competencies and skills upheld gender inequity in male-dominated and/or influenced professions, which included education. Women's acquisition of executive-level positions was either credited to male mentors (Sheehy, 1977) or women's donning of masculine traits (Schwiebert, 2000). In spite of the gender driven views and the minority status of being a working woman (Kanter), the number of women establishing careers and

acquiring executive-level administrative positions has increased over the years (O'Neill, Horton, & Crosby, 1999). However, women mentors have been and still remain scarce across professions (Dreher & Ash, 1990; Schwiebert, 2000; Schwiebert et al., 1997; Sheehy). The unavailability of women mentors might be disadvantageous for women who are seeking mentorship (Schwiebert) although the research on gender and mentoring has not yielded significant differences in mentoring experiences for men and women (Bruce, 1995; Fagenson, 1988; Ragins & Cotton, 1991; Tenebaum et al., 2001).

The lack of significant data does not necessarily indicate that differences do not exist. A plausible explanation for the minimal data supporting mentoring differences based on gender may be the manner in which studies were conducted. While gender may have been acknowledged, gender differences might not have been taken into consideration or clearly differentiated for mentoring research purposes. For example, Kanter (1977) acknowledged women in corporations often sought male mentors in higher ranking positions yet was not gender specific when stating that mentoring enabled individuals to obtain, adjust, and maintain their positions of power and influence. This view seemed to insinuate that mentoring outcomes would be similar, regardless of gender. Yet, Sheehy (1977) challenged this perspective by suggesting that women were less likely to enter the upper echelons if they continued to engage in their mentoring relationships with male mentors. The rationale provided was simple. Women were more susceptible to issues of power, control, and intimacy in cross-gender mentoring relationships, all of which potentially hindered their ability to obtain executive positions (N. W. Collins, 1983; Sheehy). The view offered by Sheehy seemed to depict mentoring as a strategy for helping women reach a point that was right below the apex of their

career development. However this perspective was not studied further. Perhaps, the angle taken in the mentoring research was influenced by Kanter and Sheehy in that their works focused primarily on how mentoring impacted individuals.

This approach tends to ignore and/or minimize gender and individual differences. Assuming a different viewpoint such as how individuals impact mentoring might produce different results. For example, Hennig and Jardim (1977) noted that career conceptualizations differed between men and women. Instead of asking how careers development impacted individuals, these authors illustrated how individuals impacted career development and decisions. More specifically, Hennig and Jardim reported that women perceived jobs and careers as separate entities whereas men viewed jobs as part of their career. Women often held negative connotations to risk-taking, which was also noted by Sheehy (1977). Fear of failure, according to Sheehy, was the primary reason why women did not take risks. Failing would most likely impact women's self-perceptions as career women and women, in general, especially since obtaining and maintaining a career is often a process (Hennig & Jardim). Risks for men were translated as gains and losses that could help men meet their goals and self and others' expectations (Hennig & Jardim). It is crucial then to understand individuals' perceptions and experiences in order to tailor the mentoring relationship to meet needs and goals.

The publications by Hennig and Jardim (1977), Kanter (1977), and Sheehy (1977) were not received with the same vigor as *Seasons of a Man's Life*. The notion that mentoring was inherently valuable for men during their transitional journey from young to older adulthood was widely accepted (Crosby, 1999). However this did not deter further examination of women and mentoring. In fact, even with the declining interest in

mentoring during the early 1980s, the research included the publications by Phillips-Jones (1982) and N. W. Collins (1983), both of which focused on aspects of mentoring for women. These publications also provided different ways for exploring and addressing mentorship, in general.

Having turned her dissertation into a book entitled *Mentors and Protégés*, Phillips-Jones (1982) classified protégés into five types (i.e. reluctant, inexperienced, overeager, manipulating, and ideal) based on personal characteristics. Furthermore, she proposed that mentoring relationships not only resulted in benefits, but also occurred in phases, both of which are described in later sections. Previous studies focused on mentoring as it conformed to individuals' phases. Thus, her proposal provided a different basis for further scholarly inquiry; that of mentoring, itself, with regard to the phases.

N. W. Collins' *Professional Women and Their Mentors*, although not as popular as other works, provided further research avenues such as mentoring benefits, long term impact for women, and in-depth examination of mentoring relationship dynamics between the following three mentor-protégé pairs: (a) male mentor-female protégé; (b) female mentor-female protégé; and (c) female mentor-male protégé (1983). In addition, she distinguished mentors from non-mentors and role models in corporations by establishing criteria (Evanoski, 1988). Mentors held high ranking positions, were viewed as experts in their area of specialty, expressed interest in their protégés growth, and invested both time and emotions (N. W. Collins). They could be role models, which according to the author delineated from mentoring on the sole basis that role modeling was more surface level; intense involvement in protégés' lives was not required as it was with mentoring (Evanoski). Protégés were not to become possessive of their mentors,

perceive relationships as a friendship and/or crisis line, or hastily terminate mentors (N. W. Collins). In actuality, N. W. Collins made several contributions to the mentoring research, all of which were not appropriately attributed to her.

The lack of attention and acknowledgement to N. W. Collins' work could possibly be credited to several factors that seemed to resonate in the more current mentoring study and literature trends (i.e. quantitative emphasis, theoretical stance, defining construct). For instance, interviews were commonly utilized to collect mentoring data during the 1970s. Based on the precedents, N. W. Collins (1983) used a qualitative approach while incorporating a quantitative component to her study. Perhaps, this mixed methods approach was more difficult to accept than a pure approach. Critics noted that she downplayed the amount of quantitative data in favor of the qualitative, utilized descriptive statistics, and failed to clearly define mentoring and its functions (Crosby, 1999), which did not interest scholars.

Two years later, Kram (1985) captured the scholarly audience with *Mentoring at Work*. Like her predecessors, Kram studied mentoring in the corporate setting. Utilizing only a qualitative approach and expounding on concepts from existing literature including those from Phillips-Jones, she focused on developmental relationships between peers and high-ranking managers (Chao, 1997; Crosby, 1999). What distinguished her work from others was an element that scholars had been looking for: the establishment of clearer conceptual definitions to the phenomenon. Kram also illustrated how theoretical stances could be combined with empirical data (Crosby).

In particular, she utilized an “open systems perspective on behavior in organizations” (Kram, 1985, p. 210) in order to understand relationships. The

aforementioned stance required an exploration of both systemic (i.e. the organization, relationships with colleagues, co-workers, mentors, protégés), and psychological elements (i.e. reasons for career choices, present situations) in order to fully comprehend relationships (Kram). The author sought mentor-protégé pairs because her focus was on developmental relationships. She was able to obtain information about the pairs' career journey and experiences in the mentoring relationship. Furthermore, due to the qualitative nature of the study, Kram was able to modify interview questions to capture specific information about relationships. As a result, *Mentoring at Work* became a hot commodity and a classic reference in the mentoring literature. The rekindled interest in mentoring resulted in further studies and publications, which would continue during the next two decades (Tenenbaum, Crosby, & Gliner, 2001).

Despite the increase in research, questions pertaining to the quality of the studies and viability of outcomes arose. Previous research findings suggested that mentoring was beneficial to protégés' professional success especially in the corporate sector. Protégés reported greater satisfaction with their careers, acclimating to their careers faster, having access to opportunities that they believed might not have been accessible without their mentors' assistance, receiving salaried promotions, obtaining executive level positions, and increased self-concepts (N. W. Collins, 1983; Hennig & Jardim, 1977; Kanter, 1977; Levinson et al., 1978; Phillips-Jones, 1982). However, Allen, Poteet, and Burroughs (1997) noted that a majority of results were based on inferences rather than empiricism. According to Jacobi (1991), qualitative data could only produce indirect support for the benefits of mentoring. Researchers have yet to provide direct support in the form of empirical data, which in the academic circle seems to hold more significance.

Theoretical Framework

Direct support would have to be extracted from theoretically and empirically based results, both of which remain deficient in mentoring studies (Jacobi, 1991). The lack of both theoretical and empirical answers was most likely attributed to how studies were structured to be conducted. A vast majority of the mentoring studies were not driven by a theory or theories, which had significant bearing on results (Campbell & Campbell, 2000; Jacobi). From a researcher's perspective obtaining solid empirical data were less likely if a theoretical or conceptual foundation was absent. Without a theoretical or conceptual foundation, researchers' abilities to connect constructs that were examined in the study were hindered because the theory or model guided explanations (Jacobi). The theory explains the "how" and provides a rationale for what was being studied. Therefore results from mentoring research that were not based on a theory could be inaccurate and invalid thereby impacting disciplines that have relied on the data to support mentoring practices. Quickly rushing to apply theories and/or models might not be beneficial either.

Mentoring studies that have attempted to utilize theoretical approaches often drew from concepts rooted in psychology and sociology including: (a) a contingency approach that focused on strengthening self-concept and esteem, (b) power-dependent dyads, which considered negative mentoring aspects that might have resulted from the power differential, and (c) tokenism (Carden, 1990). However the effectiveness of the studies required that the researchers first assess what each theory addresses before applying it to mentoring concepts. For example, Jacobi stated that if mentoring research focused on the psychosocial aspect of mentoring, the Social Learning theory by Bandura (1977) would be inappropriate because the theory is centered on learning through modeling.

Models of mentoring were often utilized in place of and/or in conjunction with theoretical approaches. Proposed models addressed aspects such as reciprocity in mentoring relationships, power and relational dynamics, defining mentoring behavior categories from target behaviors, and identifying psychosocial and career benefits (Benishek et al., 2004; Carden; Tentoni, 1995). Individual stances were essentially attempts at clarifying the mentoring aspect or aspects that they (stances) were based on and were examining. Perhaps having an inappropriate or incomplete theory or model was better than not having one at all. The inaccurate use of a theory or model might assist researchers in adapting the approaches, distinguishing which ones are and are not beneficial, and producing unexpected outcomes that could alter perspectives on the use of the theory or model (Jacobi).

The applicability of each approach to mentorship was viewed with skepticism due to the failure to link mentoring with academic or career success (Jacobi, 1991), unclear mentoring definitions, and improper use of the concepts resulting from a lack of training and education (Carden, 1990). Jacobi indicated that mentoring relationships were not being linked to academic or career success. She provided the following theoretically based concepts as possible frameworks to establishing the link: (a) involvement in learning; (b) academic and social integration; (c) social support; and (d) developmental support.

In essence, it is the theoretical approach that helps drive the research. It provides the basis for determining what variables will be utilized and measured, thereby identifying the type of empirical study to be conducted (Jacobi, 1991). This is especially important for the concept of mentoring, which is not well understood or well defined

despite all the scholarly attention. Perhaps, the struggle to determine what theory or theories to utilize lies within the complex nature of mentoring. Black (1998) suggested that this complexity created difficulties for researchers examining the multifaceted and tiered mentoring dimensions. What was perceived to be a seemingly simple and widely accepted concept began evolving under scholarly inquiries. Over the years, researchers began investigating the (a) purpose; (b) roles and behaviors; (c) outcomes; (d) phases; (e) interpersonal relationships; and (f) various types of mentoring (Jacobi; Phillips-Jones, 1982; Schockett & Haring-Hidore, 1985; Schwiebert, 2000). Definitions, functions, influential structural and/organizational aspects, alternative forms, and relationships started becoming themes and foci in mentoring literature and research (Beyene, Anglin, Sanchez, & Ballou, 2002). In addition, the impact of technological, career, and educational advancements on traditional mentoring practices served as another avenue for scholarly exploration (Kerka, 1998). The mentoring research is not limited in explorative domains or confined to one discipline or population. In fact, another facet that needs to be clearly defined in order to comprehend the validity of outcomes are mentoring phases and functions (Jacobi; Semeniuk & Worrall, 2000), which may be universal yet different across disciplines.

Phases, Functions, Benefits, and Outcomes

Phases

Attempts at establishing a clearer understanding of mentoring from psychological and developmental lenses were made. Levinson et al. (1978) posited that transitioning between life phases was not only natural, but necessary for growth. Changes especially in adulthood were often more difficult therefore seeking a mentor to alleviate the pressures

through support and guidance was not deemed abnormal (Levinson et al.). Hence, individuals' progression through life phases served as the catalyst for mentorship development. The idea that mentoring, itself, occurred in phases to help attain a desired outcome was further expounded upon by researchers such as Phillips-Jones and Kram.

A mentor, according to Phillips-Jones (1982), acted as the primary initiator of the relationship and facilitated movement through five predictable and distinguishable phases of the mentoring relationship, which were (a) mutual admiration, (b) development, (c) disillusionment, (d) parting, and (e) transformation. Sequential progression through these phases was not required. Furthermore, mentor-protégé relationships did not necessarily have to experience all five phases. Overlaps were possible, as well, thereby individualizing mentorship development.

Extending upon Phillips-Jones' work, Kram (1985) believed that mentoring primarily addressed psychosocial, career, and role modeling functions in the following four phases: (a) initiation, (b) cultivation, (c) separation, and (d) redefinition. The aforementioned were similar to Phillips-Jones' in that they were not time sensitive. However, Kram provided estimated time lengths for her phases. Based on these approximations, the mentoring relationship during the first three phases was calculated to last roughly between three to eight years. Once the mentor and protégé entered the redefinition phase, their relationship was not bound by time and could undergo different transformations that were positively slated. Complete termination of the relationship was only indicated as an option in Phillips-Jones' (1982) transformation phase. The commonalities and differences between Phillips-Jones' and Kram's phases are illustrated in Table 2.

Table 2

Phases of the Mentoring Relationship

Phillips-Jones (1982)		Kram (1983)	
Phase	Behaviors	Phase	Behaviors
1. Mutual	Desire to please; Anxiety present; Mentors and protégés complete activities for each other without asking each other first	1. Initiation (6mths -1yr)	Establishing relationship including boundaries; Meeting expectations; Engaging in work related tasks; Mentor coaches, provides challenges, introduces to other professionals; Protégé is respectful, provides assistance, expresses desire to be mentored

Table 2 (*continued*).

Phillips-Jones (1982)		Kram (1983)	
Phase	Behaviors	Phase	Behaviors
2. Development	Two-directional; Begin to receive more direct career- related benefits	2. Cultivation (2-5yrs)	Opportunities and interactions increase; Relationship bond grows stronger, experiencing benefits, taking risks; Becoming more autonomous, competent, aware of professional identity
3. Disillusionment	Accomplishing goals and/or effort decreases; Questions and tries to overcome psychological dependence; Is natural part of mentoring relationship	None	None

Table 2 (*continued*).

Phillips-Jones (1982)		Kram (1983)	
Phase	Behaviors	Phase	Behaviors
4. Parting	Protégé attaining new status; no longer a trainer, but more of an equal	3. Separation (6mth-2yrs)	Protégé begins to assert autonomy therefore interactions decrease; Can create anger, resentment, hostility, feelings of loss
5. Transformation	Relationship continues on new level (i.e. friendship); Negatively separate (falling out); Lose contact, touch	4. Redefinition (indefinite)	New relationship forms; Protégé obtains colleague status; Engaged in professional identity; Experience increased appreciation

Another slight variation between the two models was facilitation. Phillips-Jones (1982) suggested that it was the mentor who facilitated the relationship whereas Kram (1985) proposed that both the protégé and mentor began the mentorship process simultaneously. Observations enabled potential mentors and protégés to recognize others' potentials and gauge for compatibility (Arizona Leadership 2000 & Beyond 2000; Chao, 1997) before commencing mentoring relationships. This process seemed less reciprocal when mentoring was only instigated by mentors. According to the Arizona Leadership

2000 and Beyond (2000), mentors assessed potential and competence by examining four factors. First they determined how well the prospective protégé would fit within the organization. Then an evaluation of potential risks was made. Predictions about shared commonalities, whether or not protégés would meet standards, and the reaping of benefits were considered as well. This process may have been occurring without the protégés' knowledge. They might not have had the same amount of time to make their determinations of mentors. Thus, protégés might have felt compelled to accept the offer to be mentored because declining may be interpreted as challenging mentors' expertise and knowledge (McGuire & Reger, 2003). The power differential may not be as apparent when the relationship is entered simultaneously.

Formalizing the relationship, regardless of whether it was initiated by just the mentor, just the protégé, or both the mentor and protégé consisted of identifying and establishing the structural format, boundaries, guidelines, expectations, goals, and termination (Johnson & Huwe, 2003). Additionally, these authors identified steps (i.e. researching faculty interests, evaluating mentoring program, observing, and directly communicating with potential mentor) that protégés may experience as they seek to initiate mentoring relationships first. Their process could be generalized to and utilized by mentors as well.

Defining who actually begins the relationship has been a debated issue that continues to remain a focus of research. This debate often overshadows the actual purpose of the models, which was to identify mentoring behaviors from commencement to termination. Although the phases have not been empirically validated, they provide a foundation for understanding the development of mentoring interactions over time (Chao,

1997). Furthermore, these mentoring models became precedents for future ones. Later models, which were also influenced by the works of other scholars (i.e. Levinson, Erikson) attempted to clarify mentoring aspects, career functions, socialization, professional development, and knowledge acquisition for mentors and protégés (Cawyer et al., 2002; Luna & Cullen, 1995). For example, the Arizona Leadership 2000 and Beyond (2000) addressed the hierarchy in mentoring by proposing that mentorship occurred in three stages instead of phases. Unlike its predecessors, this model not only identified roles (i.e. sponsor, coach, resource, guide) that mentors could assume in the second stage, but it provided, in the third stage, two categories that mentors fell into based on the functions they assumed during the second stage. Mentors could be either inspirational (i.e. encouraging protégés to exceed their potential using a here-and-now, spontaneous approach) or traditional (i.e. protégés mirror selves after mentors) (Arizona Leadership 2000 and Beyond).

All existing models, according to Luna & Cullen (1995), despite having different foci shared a common premise, which was care. Mentors and protégés exhibited in their actions some level of care for each other. This is especially important since mentoring pertained to enhancing the welfare of mentors and protégés (Phillips-Jones, 1982). Thus mentoring functions and roles were tailored for ensuring the sense of positive well-being while meeting goals.

Functions and Roles

The main function of mentoring was to facilitate professional and personal growth (Luna & Cullen, 1995) psychosocially and/or career-wise (Kram, 1985) through the tutelage of mentors (Levinson et al., 1978). Viewed as serving separate purposes, the

career and psychosocial driven functions differentiated in terms of intimacy, roles, and outcomes. Yet together, they helped differentiate mentorship from other developmentally based relationships (Kram). Career-related functions were deemed less intimate and focused on protégé professional advancement and acceptance with the mentor serving as a coach and sponsor (Kram). It was the responsibility of the mentor to utilize his or her influence and connections to protect and promote the protégé within the discipline while providing challenging opportunities that enhanced skills and knowledge (Davidson & Foster-Johnson, 2001; Johnson & Huwe, 2003). However, success within the career-related realm might be impeded if the more intimate psychosocial components were not addressed.

It is natural to question self-competence and effectiveness. Such questioning, though, might manifest feelings that are associated with the imposter's syndrome, which is often characterized by performance anxiety, low self-esteem, and doubting professional abilities to manage multiple roles, achieve goals, and form relationships (Brems, Baldwin, Davis, & Namyniuk, 1994). This syndrome might heighten as exposure and recognition increases (Johnson & Huwe, 2003). Therefore affirmations and validations provide psychological and social support, which lessen the imposter feelings and enhance social interactions (Davidson & Foster-Johnson, 2001; Kram, 1985). The psychosocial sense of being could additionally be enriched via counseling, role-modeling, friendship, and mentors' verbal and nonverbal displays of support and belief in their protégés (Johnson & Huwe). Even with the distinctions between the two categorized functions, there seemed to be a sense of interconnectedness. One might posit that the intrinsic enhancement of self is influential in career enhancement and vice versa. The degree to

which this occurs would most likely be a reflection of the mentor's expertise (Chao, 1997) at balancing the two aspects. They may assume various roles and engage in the associated activities in order to assist their protégés in the most beneficial manner. Examples of roles and functions are depicted in Table 3 as proposed by The Arizona Leadership 2000 and Beyond (2000), and Dixon-Reeves (2003).

Table 3

Description of Roles Assumed by Mentors

Role	Focus	Functions
Resource	Career	Decision making position, suggests alternatives, provides resources including access to networks, offers assistance; Meets frequently with protégé; Not an ongoing one-to-one relationship
Sponsor	Career	Often a power position, provides public support via recommendations, introduces to networks, makes an investment in protégé's growth and marketability; Formal relationship that is ongoing
Coach	Career	Learning based position, offers guidance for improving skills and performance; Contact dependent upon acquisition of skills
Guide	Career	Goal and career planning position, explores expectations, rewards, demands, values, etc. as related to career; Long-term, but infrequent meetings

Table 3 (*continued*).

Role	Focus	Functions
Supporter	Psychosocial	Personal issues and career advancement position, provides emotional support and personal advice that remain consistent with needs, acts a role-model; Less formal ongoing relationship, meets frequently
Role-Model	Psychosocial	Models the “how” of utilizing skills and accomplishing goals
Counselor	Psychosocial	Offers suggestions and feedback on ways to balance career goals and personal responsibilities
Friend	Psychosocial	Feeling appreciated, valued, trusted

It is of paramount importance to note that one function that was not included in the table was advising even though it is frequently associated with mentoring (Ervin, 1995). The Arizona Leadership 2000 and Beyond (2000) alluded to the advisor-related functions in the description of guide, yet the term advisor was not mentioned. The inclusion of advising as a function of mentoring has been challenged despite popular acceptance by several scholars, mentors, and protégés that advising is connected to mentoring (Brem et al., 1994; Dixon-Reeves, 2003; Green & Bauer, 1995; Tenebaum et al., 2001). According to Ervin, a major difference between mentoring and advising involved the sharing of information. The manner in which informational sharing transpired did not necessarily indicate that the two constructs were disconnected. In fact, Tenebaum et al. postulated that advising could be both career and psychosocially oriented, just like mentoring. Due to the scholarly debates and the researcher’s view that

mentoring and advising are separate constructs, the advising component was purposely excluded from the definition being utilized for this dissertation. Further rationale for this exclusion will be provided later in the *Mentoring versus Advising* section.

Refocusing on the roles listed in Table 3, these were viewed as natural parts of mentoring. The roles could also be utilized on an individual or collective basis. In order to motivate their protégés and accomplish predetermined goals, mentors often assumed multiple roles at the same time, which meant engaging in each role's corresponding activities (Beyene, Anglin, Sanchez, & Ballou, 2002; Davidson & Foster-Johnson, 2001; Phillips-Jones, 1982). Utilizing various roles and functions also seemed to be a way for protégés to describe their mentors. According to Dixon-Reeves (2003), classification of mentors was often based on the primary role and function the protégés experienced during mentorship. The author's conclusion stemmed from the results of her study with doctoral graduates of sociology programs. A majority of the participants indicated that their mentors assumed more of a coaching role yet also acknowledged that their mentors may have functioned as role models, advisors, sponsors, and peer counselors as well (Dixon-Reeves).

For mentors, acceptance and commitment to the various mentoring roles and responsibilities were vital in being mentors (Schwiebert et al., 1997; Tyler et al., 2000; Young & Wright, 2001). Yet, actively engaging in the roles and responsibilities could be time-consuming for the mentor-protégé pair. Although effective results from the relationship were not always dependent upon the amount of time spent (National Academy of Sciences, National Academy of Engineering, & Institute of Medicine, 1997), Brown et al. (1999) proposed a model that seemed to address time issues by condensing

functions into a tripartite mode. More specifically, these scholars viewed mentoring as occurring via academic midwifery, role molding, and frientoring. Each mode was associated with specific functions that addressed and reinforced intellectual and professional development. Academic midwifery focused on facilitation and coaching, role molding utilized sponsorship, and frientoring combined the functions from the first two modes along with guidance and friendship (Brown et al., 1999). By engaging in all three modes, mentors could maximize benefits. Yet, concerns have been expressed regarding mentoring expenses and benefits. According to Tenebaum et al. (2001), mentoring relationships require more from the mentor-protégé pairs even though the benefits for doing so are decreasing.

Benefits

Despite the seemingly inverted relationship (i.e. increase in mentoring activities and decrease in experienced benefits) between mentoring activities and benefits that Tenebaum et al. (2001) alluded to, it is interesting to note that scholarly attention to ascertaining reasons for mentoring or being mentored has been limited (Allen et al., 1997). Existing research has yielded contradictory results pertaining to mentors' motivation to engage in mentorship (Jacobi, 1991). The conflict seems to stem from desires and concerns about mentoring. More specifically, mentors reported being driven by desires to: (a) establish and retain a close connection; (b) enhance self-esteem; (c) receive monetary rewards; (d) establish a legacy; (e) be of assistance; (f) expand knowledge; (g) be creative; and (h) rejuvenate career interest (Atkinson et al., 1994; Campbell & Campbell, 2000; Dreher & Ash, 1990; Evanoski, 1988; Murray, 2001). The ability to scout another's potential, educate, share personal knowledge and skills, engage

in intellectual stimulation, and influence the developing professional identity generates satisfaction (Cawyer et al., 2002; Schoen, 1991; Schwiebert, 2000).

Yet, mentors also expressed concerns of: (a) feeling pressured or forced into mentoring; (b) lacking skills; (c) not being taken seriously by protégés and colleagues; (d) time constraints; (e) becoming possessive or overprotective of protégés thereby stifling their growth; (f) experiencing protégés' negative emotions; (g) being taken advantage of; and (h) wasting time especially if rewards were absent (Murray, 2001). A mentor in the study conducted by Campbell and Campbell (2000) illustrated the conflict between desires and concerns by sharing a mentoring experience in which the mentor terminated the relationship after realizing that the student did not want to be mentored while pursuing goals.

Whereas the primary benefits for students were academically and career driven (Dixon-Reeves, 2003; Fields, 1998), mentors' primary benefits seem to be more personalized, and perhaps even weighed in terms of worth. Mentors might assess how their investment in time and energy in mentoring will assist in their personal and professional advancement. It is plausible that benefits are really expressions of perceived desires and expectations. Whether academically or personally driven, Campbell and Campbell (2000) noted that the students and mentors in their study were able to identify benefits. In addition, there is consensus in the research regarding the benefits experienced by mentors and protégés.

What seemed particularly interesting was the students' response to inquiries about what they believed the benefits were for being mentors. They were uncertain and struggled to identify benefits that mentors received from the relationship (Campbell &

Campbell, 2000; Fields, 1998). Yet, students were able to list benefits they would receive as protégés. Common benefits for protégés, as a whole, included guidance, receiving career advice and academic help, being critiqued on skills and performances, having a role model, and establishing connections with potential career placements that might not have been recognized on their own (Beyene et al., 2002; Campbell & Campbell; Dixon-Reeves, 2000). They acknowledged having an easier time transitioning into their professions upon graduating and assuming leadership roles more rapidly because of their mentors (Murray, 2001).

Additionally, benefits for protégés enrolled in graduate school especially at the doctoral level were also identified. Students who had mentors were more likely to have the following: (a) awareness of available fellowships and assistantships that they can apply for; (b) an understanding of the various policies within the university, department, and program; (c) teaching, researching, and publishing feedback and assistance; (d) giving presentations; (e) networking with other professionals; (f) assistance with the thesis and/or dissertation process; (g) identifying and guaranteeing internship and training sites; and (h) developing their professional images (Dixon-Reeves, 2003; Johnson & Huwe, 2003; McGuire & Reger, 2003). Engaging in a mentoring relationship made their educational experience more valuable (Murray, 2001).

Certainly needs are met for both the mentor and protégé when a relationship is established. Mentoring benefits are not always geared individually toward the mentor or protégés. In fact, benefits can be mutual because the relationships are reciprocally amplified. The mentor-protégé pair recognizes what each has to offer through the exchange of information and relationship itself. More specifically, mentor-protégé pairs

each provide and receive support, motivation, direction, recommendations, and, at times, friendship (Campbell & Campbell, 2000). They engage in reciprocated activities of teaching and learning, which assist them with understanding each other's world perspectives, and providing conditions for establishing individuation (Brinson & Kottler, 1993). This may be the primary benefit resulting from mentoring relationships. At the same time, it also reflects a psychosocial outcome.

Although motivations for entering mentoring relationship are not always known, the reported benefits attempt to address the continuous cultivation of mentors' and protégés' maturation (Luna & Cullen, 1995). According to Beyene et al. (2002), mentoring is a natural, not a perfunctory, transformation that leads to the survival of others and one's self. Categorically, the mentor-protégé pair's reasons for entering a mentoring relationship could be described as assuming a focus for others and/or self (Allen et al., 1997). Thus, it seems plausible that the benefits could also have the same foci. Entering a relationship based on fostering others is evident by the desire to help, exchange knowledge, and establish a competent profession. A self-focused approach centers on enhancing one's own learning and well-being as well as feeling content and empowered. These views were a resonance of Kram's (1985) perspective that "through helping others, a mentor gains internal satisfaction, respect for his or her capabilities as a teacher and advisor, and reviews and reappraises the past..." (p. 3). Hence, she seemed to capitalize on the intrinsic and extrinsic benefits and outcomes for the mentors.

All benefits lead to outcomes, which according to Chao (1997) are the accumulation of knowledge acquired by protégés from experiences provided by mentors. Whereas benefits were previously suggested to be perceived desires and expectations,

outcomes seem to be what is actually produced. Most often the outcomes reflect the original desires and expectations however this may not always be the case. For example, the mentoring outcome for the mentor from Campbell and Campbell's (2000) study might have been professional dissatisfaction because the perceived benefit of fostering a close relationship was not met.

Outcomes

Professional success, satisfaction, and identity seem to be the most apparent outcomes of mentorship thereby fostering a sense of personal accomplishment and generativity. Mentors and protégés reported job satisfaction, renewed commitment to the career, promotions, increased salaries, availability of resources, and creativity, career flexibility, professional socialization, and all around successes (Evanoski, 1988; Tenebaum et al., 2001). For example, mentors' satisfaction levels impacted their research and professional activities. Greater satisfaction levels equated to an increase in scholarly writing and publishing, and involvement with departmental, university, and/or professional association events (Davidson & Foster-Johnson, 2001). Mentors were more likely to be more empathic toward individuals (Schoen, 1991). Evanoski noted that mentoring positively influenced perceptions on retirement as well. Retiring did not mean that mentors' contributions would cease. The knowledge, expertise, and experiences that mentors shared would be furthered by their protégés and future protégés as long as the mentors' information produced desired outcomes.

Protégés reported higher levels of job and educational satisfaction in addition to increased salaries when compared to individuals who were not mentored (Johnson & Huwe, 2003). Graduate student protégés indicated feeling more content with their

programs than their peers who were not mentored (Clark & Johnson, 2000; Cronan-Hillix, Gensheimer, Cronan-Hillix, & Davidson, 1986; Johnson, Koch, Fallow, & Hume, 2000). Furthermore, graduate student protégés identified intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. They believed their mentors cultivated personal goals, validated strengths, taught them to become mentors, and influenced their abilities to secure positions quicker, be flexible, and experience earlier promotions (Johnson & Huwe, 2003). Achieving higher evaluations and acclimating to the university, department, and program environment was often smoother and easier for junior professors being mentored (Davidson & Foster-Johnson, 2001). Mentoring also enabled protégés to acquire “reflected power” as a result of being connected to their mentors (McGuire & Reger, 2003, p. 56). Thus, it was the vehicle for entering the professional network (Schoen, 1991) and achieving personal and career fulfillment.

The aforementioned psychosocial and career based outcomes seem to illustrate the achievement of the mentoring goal as well as the benefits that were mentioned earlier. According to the National Academy of Sciences et al. (1997), promoting academic and personal development by maximizing intellectual stimulation, increasing professional connections, and securing acceptable and satisfactory career positions via exchange of knowledge, experiences, and expertise was the desired goal. Thus, when mentoring occurs and produces benefits that result in said outcomes, the intended mentoring goal is thereby achieved, which is an outcome itself. Both the benefits and outcomes would most likely have long-lasting and advantageous effects (Chao, 1997). One such effect would be ensuring professional and program survival as well as providing direction for the training and preparation processes (Davidson & Foster-Johnson, 2001). It is worthwhile to note

that Jacobi (1991) stressed the need to acknowledge and recognize how mentoring benefits and outcomes should not be fervently generalized across all disciplines such as business, education, psychology, and management due to conceptual and definitional differences.

Furthermore, not all mentoring relationships have successful benefits and/or outcomes. Mentorship has often had a positive perception affiliated to it, yet the experience can be negative for both mentors and protégés. Simon and Eby (2003) noted that only four studies have explored negative relationships including the one they conducted. Several variables were identified as creating negative mentoring relationships. These included: (a) power struggles; (b) sexual harassment and/or attraction; (c) unclear establishment of boundaries; (d) neglect and/or incompetence; (e) illegal and unethical issues, (f) personality incompatibilities such as differing values, beliefs, and world perspectives, and (g) unrealistic expectations regarding outcomes (Johnson & Huwe, 2003; Murrell & Tangri, 1999; Simon & Eby, 2003; Tenebaum et al., 2001). Unsuccessful attempts to resolve any of the aforementioned could leave mentors and protégés feeling vulnerable and estranged (Ervin, 1995). Phillips-Jones (1982) alluded to potential problems by providing a warning about making inappropriate mentor and protégé choices due to manipulation, superiority and inferiority, dysfunctional, and dependency issues.

Additionally, willingness and commitment issues may produce negative conditions. Assessing the level of willingness helps determine the degree of importance, which then influences time and energy commitments, work ethic, utilization and accessibility to resources, expectations, and conflict resolution (Phillips-Jones, 1982;

Tyler et al., 2000). Therefore negative experiences may be marked by an unwillingness to engage in mentoring behaviors unless conditions are met. Commitment, importance, and willingness, and ethics seem to be indicative of personality characteristics. Therefore, it seems reasonable then that successful mentoring outcomes are dependent upon mentors' and protégés' traits. Researchers have explored ways in which personality traits impact the willingness to engage in mentorship (Allen et al., 1997; Green & Bauer, 1995).

Mentor and Protégé Traits

It is not surprising that the research has yet to come to an agreement regarding mentor and protégé characteristics. Consensus might not be necessary. Differentiating between good and bad mentors and protégés seems to involve the subjective examination of personality and behaviors. Packard (2003) noted that it is common for protégés to seek mentors after whom they would like to model themselves and with whom they share similar traits. Effective mentors were depicted as possessing healthy work ethics, attitudes, and values as well as being productive, accessible, professionally influential, experienced, receiving positive evaluations, and communicating effectively (Johnson & Huwe, 2003). They also had the skills for providing support and encouragement, exemplified a passion for learning, assisted protégés to be successful, shared resources, and effectively interacted at an interpersonal level (Schwiebert et al., 1997; Young & Wright, 2001).

As for protégés, personality characteristics that were suggested by Johnson and Huwe (2003) included being emotionally grounded, highly self-aware, intellectual (both cognitively and affectively), focused, committed, motivated to learn new skills and knowledge, possessing an internal locus of control, and sharing similarities with their

mentors. The consummate protégé, according to Phillips-Jones (1982), was trustworthy, punctual, open-minded, assumed responsibilities, listened, and had previous mentoring experience. Mentors preferred protégés who focused on effectively completing their responsibilities, identified and progressed toward career goals and plans, demonstrated their ability to communicate, were proactive in their professional growth, and accepted feedback (Murray, 2001; Schwiebert et al., 1997). Ideal mentoring candidates were not manipulative, eager to please, cautious, and/or inexperienced although they may exhibit some or all of these behaviors during the relationship (Phillips-Jones). Essentially, mentors wanted protégés who knew their reasons for seeking mentors and comprehended the various aspects that the mentoring relationship entailed (Young & Wright, 2001).

Although Phillips-Jones (1982) reported that mentors initiated mentoring relationships and Kram (1983) believed both mentors and protégés could be responsible, Johnson and Huwe (2003), and Young and Wright (2001) suggested that protégés were actually the ones to begin the relationships because they knew what they desired and needed. Closer examination of these opinions revealed reasons for the different perspectives. Kram and Phillips-Jones explored mentoring in the corporate sector whereas the mentoring focus for Johnson and Hume, and Young and Wright was in higher education. Thus mentoring was dictated by the settings. Mentorship in corporations often equated to corporate survival, therefore, mentors were more likely to initiate relationships. In academia, survival was more likely to be an individual issue, thus providing a rationale for protégés to seek mentors.

Johnson and Hume (2003), and Young and Wright (2001) did not provide data to support the rationale on whether or not protégés initiated relationships. Instead their view

that mentorship was protégé-initiated was based on assumptions about the educational journey and success in addition to personal experiences. Support on protégé initiation was actually provided by Clark and Johnson (2000) who studied mentoring relationships of recent doctoral graduates from clinical psychology programs. Approximately 148 (43%) participants reported beginning their mentoring relationships with mentors whereas roughly 120 (35%) indicated mutual commencement (p. 264). Interestingly, participants in Clark and Johnson's study did not mention anything about mentors starting relationships. Instead, they disclosed being assigned. The perspectives provided by both Kram and Phillips-Jones were extrapolated from interviews. Despite the differing viewpoints, these authors agreed that the identification of desirable characteristics and traits seemed to be the first step toward initiating relationships. Furthermore, Young and Wright noted the importance for mentors and protégés to be aware of their personal characteristics and traits that they brought into the mentoring relationships since these influenced their interactions.

The study by Beyene et al. (2002) revealed characteristics desired by college students that were not viewed as being benefits or requisites for a successful relationship. Examples of unbeneficial characteristics included establishing a friendship and having a mentor who was accessible, easy to interact with, loyal, and involved; who listened, encouraged, initiated, had a sense of humor and positive attitude, and was successful career-wise. Conditions such as trust, genuineness, respect, and patience were deemed more significant and important in the overall mentoring relationship. In addition, uninhibited communication, a non-judgmental attitude, shared interest, enhancing knowledge and skills, and the ability to connect and be nurtured were identified as key

characteristics that contributed to the mentoring success. Murray (2001) hypothesized that both the aforementioned key and desired characteristics helped individuals determine who they wanted as mentors and/or protégés in addition to who they identified and labeled as being their mentors and/or protégés.

Mentor and Protégé or Mentee Terminology

Mentor

Much of the focus, thus far, has been devoted to establishing a broad overview of what mentoring seems to be. The terminology for individuals engaged in a mentoring relationship is also part of the concept. Discussing mentorship most likely cannot occur without referencing the words mentor, protégé and/or mentee. These terms help identify the connection and roles. Thus, the one who mentors is commonly referred to as a mentor due to Athena who assumed the guise of Mentor (Schwiebert, 2000). Levinson et al. (1978) acknowledged a continuum for using the term mentor. More specifically, these authors noted that mentor also meant teacher, friend, advisor, sponsor, neighbor, relative, boss, colleague, counselor, and/or guru. They also cautioned against using terms that have alternative implications such as counselor and guru since these could potentially misinform individuals about mentorship.

The term mentor, as provided by Levinson et al. (1978) assumed a noun form yet could also be used as a verb. Mentor as a verb was defined as “to advise or train” in the 2001 publication of *The New Oxford American Dictionary* (p. 1068) whereas the noun definition was “an experienced and trusted adviser” (p. 1068). According to Murray (2001), the noun based definition with a referenced origin of 1750 was included in *The Oxford English Dictionary*, which sealed its acceptability as an everyday term.

Protégé or Mentee

Widespread acceptance and use cannot be said of the term used to describe the individual who receives mentoring. Labels such as protégé or mentee are often utilized interchangeably. Other acknowledged terminology includes "...candidate, participant, apprentice, advisee, counselee, trainee, and student" (Murray, 2001, p. 15). These labels seem to reflect the mentoring function that primarily delineated the relationship. Of these terms, protégé seemed to be the most popular and commonly recognized. Perhaps its pairing with the term mentor was due to its original meaning of "protected" or "covered in the front" (*The New Oxford American Dictionary*, 2001, p. 1369), which seemed to illustrate a functional aspect of mentorship. Yet the protection component was not explicitly implied in the definitions. Dictionaries defined protégé as an individual who receives guidance, support, and training from an older, prominent, and more skilled person in order to enhance his or her career and well-being.

It seemed plausible that the definition of mentee would be similar to protégé since these terms are used interchangeably. However, the term mentee was not found in the fourth edition of *The American Heritage Dictionary* (2000) and *The New Oxford American Dictionary* (2001). It was defined as "One who is being mentored: protégé" in the 11th edition of the *Merriam-Webster Collegiate Dictionary* (2003, p. 775) and had a 1965 origination date. Both the exclusion in dictionaries and the simplistic definition incorporating the word protégé seemed to give preference to the mentor-protégé pairing. Such partiality, however, may have historical significance in that the pairing was embodied by non-fictional rather than fictional figures. The term mentor and protégé

were illustrated in the relationship between Aristotle and Plato (Tyler, Blalock, & Cantou-Clark, 2000).

Without meaning to disregard the history and preference for the term protégé, it is important to note that for the purpose of this dissertation, the term mentee will be utilized. Although the definitional concept of protégé does not explicitly imply that the individual would become a carbon copy of the mentor, it seemed to allude to it. Perhaps this thought could be best illustrated with the definition provided by Levinson et al. (1978), in which the protégé attempts to emulate the mentor. Emulation involved replicating behaviors exhibited by the mentor.

Mentee is derived from mentor therefore seems to be a better fit. However, neither term seems to fully embody the individual receiving mentoring in the same manner as mentor embodies the individual who provides mentoring. The establishment of a term that adequately describes the individual who is mentored may be another area to consider in the mentoring research.

Implications for Further Research

Examining terminology might not be of paramount importance especially if it does not have an impact on the overall concept. Perhaps more pressing matters are the areas that Chao (1997) noted such as empirical evidence that links phases, functions and outcomes, which is required for creating a comprehensive and integrated theory of mentoring that necessitates the driving of research. Perhaps such a theory will not only address the complexity of mentoring, but also provide a clearer, concrete understanding and definition of its purpose. Before this is accomplished though, researchers must first fix the methodological weaknesses including internal and external validity in their studies

and concur on a definition (Jacobi, 1991; Schwiebert, 2000). Unclear and undistinguished definitions and weaknesses in methodology create questions about the empirical findings and pose limitations. Yet mentoring continues to be widely accepted as the “necessity” for professional success despite its imperfections (Ervin, 1995). It has also evolved into multiple formats.

Types of Mentoring

The desire to be successful professionally may have ignited the establishment of other mentoring forums, which include peer-group, peer, teams, networking, grooming, co-mentoring, and composite based (Bauer, 1999; Johnson & Huwe, 2003; McGuire & Reger, 2003; Packard, 2003; Simon & Eby, 2003). These can also be categorized by formality. It would be amiss to not briefly mention them, to highlight the differences and shared similar underlying premise. Each forum focuses on growth whether it is career and/or psychosocially based and for the mentee and/or mentor. In addition, these forums are often differentiated by power and how it is utilized.

Greater experience, knowledge, and access to resources have often equated to increased power as evidenced in earlier definitions. The differential in power allows for the stimulation of deeper growth, which leads to greater benefits (Bonilla, Pickron, & Tatum, 1994; McGuire & Reger, 2003) and a perception that mentoring was indeed effective. Yet experiences, knowledge, and resources may not be the only factors for growth or determining effectiveness; it may be the presence of the relationship itself (Lark & Croteau, 1998; P. M. Collins et al., 1997). Mentoring forums seem to be established on either the power variable or the overall relationship and sometimes a combination of both. It is worthwhile to note that students often held more positive

perceptions of their educational environment and experiences when they engaged in some type of mentoring (Kelly & Schweitzer, 1999).

Peer mentoring whether it is in a group format or between two individuals refers to a relationship between those who are often of the same status (Schwiebert, 2000; Tyler et al., 2000) such as graduate students or faculty colleagues. The power differential is often absent in this forum due to the friendship based interactions of sharing frustrations and advice, and providing support (Tyler et al.). According to Kelly and Schweitzer (1999), peer mentoring relationships could be less effective than mentoring provided by a more experienced individual due to accessibility to resources, experiences, and expertise.

Power and experience are often present in network, composite, and grooming based mentoring. A mentee may have multiple mentors in network or composite based forums. Packard (2003) suggested that a mentee who has more than one mentor does so because each is able to address a specific personal need, which will essentially enable the mentee to achieve a sense of total self. The collective approach to fulfilling needs is overlooked in the mentoring style that is based on grooming. Within this context, the mentee has one mentor. Their relationship is often characterized as being intense and unequal (Bauer, 1999). Mentees in network and composite based mentoring are more likely to be able to share their expertise, experiences, and resources than those in grooming based mentoring (Swoboda & Millar, 1986).

The power differential in grooming mentoring is addressed with co-mentoring, which attempts to extinguish it. Such elimination is not between the mentor and mentee, per se. According to McGuire and Reger (2003) co-mentoring is about balancing power between academic and non-academic elements. More specifically, these authors argued

that the academic community must recognize that intellectual growth encompasses the students' affect, cognition, and physicality. Thus co-mentoring focuses on assisting students to grow holistically by incorporating the emotional, cognitive, and physical components within academia.

In addition to the aforementioned forums, all mentoring relationships have been categorized according to their creation. Formal mentoring relationships involve the systematic assignment of mentors and mentees to each other (Schwiebert, 2000). The facilitated arrangements are often structured according to guidelines that dictate the direction and growth of the relationships. In essence, these relationships are molded to yield similar results that are often institutionally goal driven. Training for the relationship could be necessary in order to have successful results (Murray, 2001). This cannot be said about informal mentoring relationships that develop more naturally. The freedom and flexibility to choose a mentor on one's accord influences the final outcome. These relationships may be powered by goals however dictation by externally based guidelines and/or reaching a common goal remains absent (Schwiebert). Informality does not imply the lack of structure. Both formal and informal relationships have a structured process regardless of the label (Murray). It is the manner in which these structured processes are developed and implemented that differentiates the two mentoring styles. Formal mentoring may address specific areas, goals, and tasks whereas informal mentoring is more likely and able to assume a more holistic approach (Brown, et al., 1999; Murray; Phillips-Jones, 1982).

Depending on needs and motivation, mentors and mentees may engage in both formal and informal relationships at one given time. Additionally, they may be engaged

in different mentoring forums simultaneously. For example, a mentee may have established a grooming mentoring relationship with a primary mentor informally and be involved in a formal mentoring relationship with peers. Having more than one mentee or mentor might not be uncommon. Furthermore the perception of having the status of primary mentor and/or primary mentee is often individually determined. This status, however, does not detract from the benefits of being involved in more than one relationship, which include accessibility and availability to diversified opportunities, viewpoints, and experiences (Schwiebert, 2000). All of these different forums, relationships, and perceptions help illustrate the complexity of mentoring and are variables to consider when addressing its productiveness.

Researchers found varying results on the effectiveness of the multiple mentoring forums, and formal and informal mentoring relationships (Fagenson-Eland et al., 1997). The data, however, often lack empirical evidence and in some cases reflected personal hypotheses that were not researched. More specifically, Kram (1985) suggested that peer mentoring relationships often lasted longer than other mentoring types and enhanced psychosocial development due to the relationship status (i.e. friends, colleagues) between individuals. The strength of the mentoring relationship was reiterated in another study conducted by Wilson, Valentine, and Pereira (2002). These researchers found that participants hoped their mentoring relationships, regardless of type, would eventually evolve into collegial based ones once the initial mentoring relationships were completed. They associated more personal satisfaction with the relational change.

The reliance on personal perception regarding the mentoring experience on psychosocial and career development and advancement could also serve as a plausible

reason for the conflicting data on formal and informal relationships. According to Dreher and Ash (1990), the impact mentoring had on career based outcomes, in particular, was poorly understood. The data collected by Noe (1988) showed that formal mentoring relationships increased mentees' psychosocial development more than it did for career growth. The psychosocial result was contradicted in a study performed by Chao, Walz, and Gardner (1992), in which their data indicated that psychosocial growth did not differ across formal and informal relationships. The researchers also concluded that informal relationships increased career-related growth. Disagreement in the research continued to grow as another perspective on the outcomes of formal and informal mentoring was offered. Fagenson-Eland and colleagues (1997) reported that informal relationships elevated psychosocial development yet neither type of relationship had an impact on career development. These researchers also noted that both psychosocial and career growth was impacted by the amount of mentoring the participants had. Informal relationships were perceived as being just as beneficial, therefore, participants expressed a desire to have the option of engaging in one (Wilson et al., 2002).

Despite the conflicting research on the efficacy of formal and informal mentoring (Jacobi, 1991), the federal government, the private sector, private support groups, and professional associations have endorsed and implemented formal programs (Murray, 2001; Phillips-Jones, 1982). Nationally, universities have also given credence to the concept of formal mentoring programs especially for their undergraduate students. Programs also have been geared particularly toward students of minority status while others tend to focus on graduate students and/or a particular area of study such as research (Brown, Davis, & McClendon, 1999; Terrell & Hassell, 1994). The basic

premise of mentoring programs is to teach mentors specific skills that are geared to address mentees' needs directly (Semeniuk & Worrall, 2000). Thus formal mentoring programs facilitate interaction between students, faculty, and the administration in order to achieve established goals.

Universities utilizing formal mentoring programs are most likely seeking to increase student retention, degree completion, and career success (Brown et al., 1999). Examples of university sponsored formal mentoring programs include the (a) Peabody Mentoring Program at Vanderbilt University; (b) Graduate Mentorship Program at University of California, Berkeley; (c) Graduate Opportunities and Minority Achievement Program at University of Washington; and (d) Coordinating Council for Minority Issues at University of Chicago (Johnson & Huwe, 2003). It is important to reiterate that each student group often possesses needs that differentiate them from each other, which cannot be addressed with a blanketed mentoring style and/or process.

More specifically, minority students often experience challenges that non-minority students do not thus they may seek and/or desire mentors who know how to help address such issues. Undergraduate and graduate students, as a whole, are often separated by academic levels and developmental life stages, all of which is significant. Yet, just as the concept of mentoring and its outcomes has expanded from one discipline to another, it has also been systematically applied from graduate students to undergraduates (Jacobi, 1991) without truly considering the diversified needs such as reasons for seeking a degree, financial means and stability, age, and life experiences (Kelly & Schweitzer, 1999). Instead the primary purpose of formal academic based mentoring programs seemed devoted to retention and graduation. Brown, et al. (1999) provided an alternative

perspective of formal mentoring programs for graduate students, in particular. They proposed that these programs were structured to facilitate faculty-student relationships that were supportive and personal in order to help students learn to navigate and adjust to their academic and nonacademic demands of the graduate experience. The same ideology could be utilized with undergraduates as well. In essence, the foundation of mentoring programs is to provide students with encouragement and relationships in order to increase their sense of empowerment.

However, Kram (1985) warned against requiring formal mentoring programs because she believed these eliminated the naturalness of mentoring. In spite of Kram's belief, formal mentoring seemed to be more popularly utilized in higher education because it was easy to recognize whereas informal mentoring was not (Jacobi, 1991). Perhaps providing students with opportunities to increase coping skills and acquiring social support in a more formal manner overrode the need for naturalness. According to Grant-Vallone and Ensher (2000), mentoring programs could help increase degree completion rates, especially for graduate students. Even with the arguments, discussions, endorsements, and conflicting research data, one key aspect still remains. A dearth of empirical data to support whether or not undergraduate and graduate students actually benefit from mentoring exists (Jacobi; Lark & Croteau, 1998; Tenenbaum et al., 2001).

Mentorship in Higher Education and Counselor Education Programs

Higher Education Programs

This insufficiency has not deterred researchers from concluding that mentoring is paramount in academia. The perception of importance by academic institutions was mainly influenced by the research in the corporate sector and other qualitatively based

studies (Tenenbaum et al., 2001). Hence questions regarding the significance of mentoring, whether in a formal or informal format, within an academic setting (and more specifically higher education) are evident. Graduate school is often marked by change. Students continuing their education experience a transition from one life phase to another. School decisions may be influenced by a desired or forced career change, graduating from an undergraduate program, desire for advancement, and/or a necessity to make life changes. Regardless of the reason, moving from one life situation to another often involves adjustments that can be demanding and stressful (Schwiebert, 2000). Simply becoming and/or continuing being a student may require getting used to. Other external variables that seemed to be impacted by the student status acquisition are finances, family, and work. Graduate students tend to juggle several responsibilities and roles that are both academic and non-academic related. Scholars have argued that mentorship helps alleviate students' stress and ease life and status transitions while ensuring program success. For example, Schwiebert stated:

Mentoring is a process that occurs to aid and assist one in making a transition, and students entering the counseling profession are often in the midst of one or more transitions – from undergraduate to graduate, from student to professional, and sometimes from one profession to another. (p. 100)

Although the author addressed graduate students in the counseling field her statement seems applicable to all graduate students regardless of discipline.

The concept of incorporating mentoring relationships in higher education was introduced by Levinson and his colleagues (1978). It was challenged by Kram (1985) who expressed uncertainty about individuals' potential to learn the skills needed to

establish relationships. She believed that mentoring would lose its usefulness within an educational setting. Generalizing the results from their research on school psychology programs and mentoring to graduate programs, in general, Swerdlik and Bardon (1988) proposed that the higher education setting was, in fact, ideal for facilitating and expanding mentoring opportunities. Through professor-student mentorship, professors could capitalize on the opportunities to share their knowledge and expertise by guiding students in both academic and career growth and successes (Kolbert, Morgan, & Brendel, 2002). In doing so, their professional legacy would be established (Robbins, 1999). Students would be able to acclimate more rapidly to the academic setting thereby increasing their ability to become fully engaged and participatory in the program (Schwiebert, 2000). It is plausible to assume that mentorship would have a positive impact on students' satisfaction in their preparations. Additionally, increased satisfaction might heighten perceptions regarding the caliber of graduate programs. Thus mentoring would appear to have a beneficial impact on students, faculty, and programs, which reinforces the belief in the power and value of mentorship. According to Kelly and Schweitzer (1999), mentoring was perceived to be the fundamental core of graduate programs.

Students and mentorship seemed to be the primary focus in both implementation and scholarly inquiry. Yet, the faculty-student mentorship, although popularly perceived, was not the only type of mentoring relationship that existed within academia. The often overlooked yet emerging relationship involved the mentoring of a lesser experienced professor by a more experienced colleague (Hollingsworth & Fassinger, 2002; Wilson, Valentine, & Pereira, 2002). Both mentorship types served to facilitate program success

and individuals' academic and career success. In doing so, graduate students and faculty become more empowered (Dixon-Reeves, 2003; Luna & Cullen, 1995). Empowerment has multiple effects including promoting professional and educational growth, faculty productivity, and leadership, collegiality, fostering talents, attracting other faculty and students, and establishing a sense of uniformity (Barnier, 1981; Luna & Cullen). Essentially, mentoring ensures job security and career advancement in addition to program survival.

However, not all scholars are mesmerized by the mentoring hype, which has created disagreements. The persistent belief that mentoring is crucial to graduate programs could be a distortion of the truth, meaning that mentoring may not be occurring at all (Black, Suarez, & Medina, 2004). Luna and Cullen (1995) noted that mentoring was not only promoted in higher education but utilized recurrently. If mentorship truly existed, its prevalence appeared to be declining (Kelly & Schweitzer, 1999). Gauging the actual occurrence has been complicated by graduate programs' failure to collect and compile data on their mentoring relationships (Johnson & Huwe, 2003). To some extent, the inability for programs to produce data is due to the uncertainty in identifying the mentoring focus, goals, and objectives. The research density may have been further confounded by the lack of a concrete and workable definition of academic mentoring (Luna & Cullen).

Mentoring in academia pertained to enhancing students' cognitive growth and career development through sponsorship (Barnier, 1981). This framework supported Jacobi's (1991) sentiment that graduate programs had diverted attention from students' personal development in order to concentrate on their educational pursuits and

achievements. The switch in focus in addition to unclear definitions, which were evidenced earlier; and the personal and conjectural experiences and viewpoints, only seems to magnify the confusion regarding what programs assess. Hence students' ability to evaluate their program's mentoring is impeded (Johnson & Huwe, 2003). The empirical data scarcity also creates problems in that comparing mentorship across disciplines and academic institutions is fruitless due to the lack of commonality in views, policies, and procedures (P. M. Collins et al., 1997; Ervin, 1995; Jacobi; Johnson & Huwe, 2003).

The inconsistency within programs and disciplines in higher education might call to question the true impact of mentoring. Empirically based evidence linking mentoring to student success would validate the much advocated phenomenon yet such evidence remains minimal (Jacobi, 1991). Researchers (e.g. Brinson & Kottler, 1993; Brown et al., 1999; Davidson & Foster-Johnson, 2001; Lark & Croteau, 1999) have acknowledged that further research must be conducted in order to fully understand how graduate students, especially those from diverse backgrounds, are impacted by engaging in mentoring relationships. However, the lack of and/or minimal amount of evidence is not an automatic indication that mentoring is invalid or a farce. Scholars in support of the concept have continued to examine ways in which to support their claims in spite of the nuisance variables and obstacles that have arisen. For example, Swerdlik and Bardon (1988) suggested that regardless of discipline and title, serving as a mentor in higher education was not a choice, but rather a professional duty. It came with the position (Fields, 1998) and involved more than simply fulfilling the expected faculty requirements during the regular work week (Allen et al., 1997).

These perspectives were later reiterated by Davidson and Foster-Johnson (2001). Essentially, students' ability to increase their well roundedness in work-related experiences required being mentored by faculty who were committed to spending extra time outside of their professorship roles. In addition to this career enhancement, students will be more likely to assume mentoring roles for others (Luna & Cullen, 1995), which creates a cyclic and continuous process. Ensuring the prevalence of the practice might be diminished if students and/or faculty are not mentored or being mentors. Knowing the "ropes" to being a mentor is produced from personal experience (Davidson & Foster-Johnson, 2001; Luna & Cullen) therefore those who have not been mentored may tend to avoid engaging in such relationships (Brinson & Kottler, 1993). This may be a plausible explanation for the decline that Kelly and Schweitzer (1999) noted in their work.

The frequency of mentorship and the scarcity in its data collection could also be impacted by enrollment in higher education and in particular, doctoral programs. There has been a steady decline in enrollment especially from students of minority status (Davidson & Foster-Johnson, 2001), which could adversely affect mentoring in terms of occurrence and continuation. In addition, programs may be at risk if mentoring does indeed promote survival and empowerment. According to the National Academy of Sciences, National Academy of Engineering, and Institute of Medicine (1997), in the past twenty years, the traditional academic research and teaching disciplines have seen more than a 10% drop in doctorate holding individuals entering these fields. This decrease could pose problems for academic communities especially with regard to mentorship. With more graduates opting to work in clinical settings rather than academia, the

availability to be mentored for future students and the ability to continue the practice diminishes (Swerdlik & Bardon, 1988).

Counselor Education Programs

Mentorship in the counseling profession has been popularly accepted and advocated for even though it has not been widely examined (Lark & Croteau, 1999). Deciphering its significance has been difficult for counselor education programs as it has been for higher education. Schoen (1991) suggested that mentoring is of paramount importance to the future of counselor education and the profession, especially since financially lucrative careers are available. However counselors are more likely to not take advantage of mentoring because they do not recognize and/or are unaware of its benefits and importance (Brinson & Kottler, 1993; Schoen; Schwiebert, 2000).

Perhaps a main benefit of mentorship is creating an avenue for new emerging counselors in schools, communities, and academia to gain access to the counseling profession (Schwiebert, 2000). The passage of acquired knowledge, skills, and insight by more experienced counselors and educators helps to ensure consistency and continuity within the profession. More specifically, mentoring relationships promote homogeneity in the counseling profession (Barnier, 1981) meaning that through mentorship, new counselors and counselor educators learn, comprehend, and practice the requirements and processes for accomplishing responsibilities that are approved and accepted by the profession (Schwiebert, Deck, Bradshaw, Scott, & Harper, 1997). Acquiring appropriate professional skills ensures the counseling profession's longevity, promotes societal trust and acceptance of counseling, and reflects ethical standards (Remley & Herlihy, 2005).

Furthermore, the less experienced professionals will eventually assume leadership roles when their older and more experienced colleagues retire (Schoen).

The mentoring value was even highlighted by CACREP (2001). In its revised standards, the accreditation body indirectly encouraged the practice especially in doctoral programs. In particular, according to CACREP, doctoral students are expected to:

...have experiences that are designed to: (1) develop an area of professional counseling expertise; (2) develop collaborative relationships with program faculty in teaching, supervision, research, professional writing, and service to the profession and the public; (3) foster participation in professional counseling organizations, including the Association for Counselor Education and Supervision (ACES) and ACA; (4) meet criteria for appropriate credentials; (5) promote scholarly counseling research; and (6) enhance technical competence. (Standard II-D)

Professors, then, were expected to actively engage in professional organizations, supervision, dissertation committee, research, and publishing.

The recommendations and suggestions by CACREP and Schwiebert and her colleagues could not squash the questions about the degree to which mentoring occurred and how it was perceived especially among master's and doctoral level students in counselor education programs. Swerdlik and Bardon (1988) acknowledged that although research provided evidence that mentorship in educational settings exists, the data supporting differences in mentoring relationships and occurrences based on the type of degree (i.e. master's versus doctorate) remains insufficient. They did not find significant

differences in their study with regard to the occurrence of mentoring between master's and doctoral students in school psychology programs.

Kelly and Schweitzer (1999) contended that mentoring occurred more frequently in doctoral programs, in general, citing that these programs are often lengthier, have unwritten guidelines, and are less structured thereby allotting more time and flexibility for mentoring relationships. The authors' conclusions were based on responses from 668 graduate student participants representing various programs to the question "Do you have a faculty mentor...?" (1999, Instrument section, ¶ 1). It is important to note that response percentages across programs and between master's and doctoral students within the *same* programs were not provided.

Whereas Kelly and Schweitzer (1999) utilized a non-discriminatory approach with graduate programs and did not report data within each represented program, Schoen (1991) focused specifically on counselor education programs that were affiliated with the North Central Association of Counselor Education and Supervision (NCACES) and had doctorate students. Her dissertation results provided anecdotal evidence that mentoring occurred more frequently with doctoral students than master's students. The 14 counselor educators whom Schoen interviewed indicated that they mentored doctoral students more so than master's students due to program length as well as holding a belief that doctoral students required mentoring. Furthermore, these counselor educators did not equate mentoring to advising. Each shared that although they advised multiple doctoral students, mentoring did not always occur with each advisee.

Despite scholarly findings, mentoring relationships are not being capitalized in counselor education programs (Bruce, 1995). Focusing specifically on doctoral students,

Niles et al. (2001) noted that they were not developing strategies that would assist them with balancing the responsibilities of teaching, service, and research. Learning to manage these professional tasks during doctoral programs was of paramount importance for their survival in the professoriate. Teaching and scholarly quality and productivity have been greatly emphasized in academic institutions (McGuire & Reger, 2003). However trying to meet the teaching and research demands and be a mentor at the same time can be an exorbitant juggling task. A cyclic process occurs in that the quality of mentoring will impact doctoral students' abilities to balance their primary responsibilities and become mentors themselves. Inadequate mentoring will only add to students' stress as they become professors (McGuire & Reger). Furthermore students' perception of themselves and their competence are influenced by their abilities to integrate knowledge and skills (Bowman, Bowman, & DeLucia, 1990). Mentoring could validate students' perceptions in one way or another.

Mentorship has been viewed as an avenue for promoting students' and faculty's professional development especially in the area of research. Doctoral programs strive to generate future researchers (Tenebaum et al., 2001) therefore counselor educators are responsible for promoting research interest in doctoral students (Robinson III, 1994). Facilitating interest often requires establishing a mentoring relationship in order to address potential research related issues such as anxiety, inexperience, and lack of statistical knowledge (Woolsey, 1986). Research based mentoring relationships, according to Hollingsworth and Fassinger (2002), increased students' research interest and productivity. Mentoring, in general, is an avenue for enhancing research quality,

improving and strengthening teaching and leadership skills, and increasing service productivity (Luna & Cullen, 1995).

The underutilization and limited research support seems to contradict the popularity and proposed outcomes of mentoring (Black et al., 2004). This inconsistency could be caused by faculty overload and responsibilities, definitional differences, and individual perceptions. Additionally, professors may not link mentoring to students' desire to complete the program successfully. Davidson and Foster-Johnson (2001) noted that motivation and willingness are rarely addressed during programs. Assessing students' needs is often ignored or overlooked as well (Haring, 1999). Due to the nature of the counseling profession, graduate students may need more than a didactic experience during their training. Assisting students in their preparations for becoming counselors encompasses experiential aspects that are only accessible through mentors (Kerka, 1998). However, the author noted that even though mentors provide opportunities, true learning occurred through students' interpretation of these opportunities and the interpersonal relationship. Expounding on Kerka's concepts, Brown et al. (1999) suggested mentoring effectiveness requires using supplemental resources and materials that are not provided during class. In fact, these authors concluded that "a true mentoring relationship requires a faculty person to move beyond his or her space as academic expert to a place of co-discovery" (1999, ¶ 8), thereby addressing the social context of the relationship. Their viewpoint may be more idealistic than realistic especially since professors are often juggling several responsibilities, expectations, and roles themselves (Niles, Akos, & Cutler, 2001).

Various functions and roles have been associated with mentoring in counselor education. It has been mostly associated with networking (Kelly & Schweitzer, 1999; Schoen, 1991), sponsorship (Johnson & Huwe, 2003), and role modeling (Schwiebert, 2000), which creates more person based outcomes. Tentoni (1995) viewed the practice as having both individual and program based outcomes by suggesting that implementing a mentoring approach was necessary for supervising and training students. A more recent viewpoint paralleled the mentoring relationship to the counselor-client relationship (Kolbert et al., 2002; Schwiebert).

Mentorship is a unique and intimate connection between mentors and mentees (Fields, 1998). It is one in which the faculty assumes the responsibility to educate students about their profession, assist with establishing connections with other professionals, encourage collaboration, become references for future career positions, facilitate professional development (Dixon-Reeves, 2003; Kelly & Schweitzer, 1999), and supportively normalize emotions, opportunities, and interactions (Lark & Croteau, 1998; Schwiebert, 2000). In counselor education programs, mentoring relationships allow professors to assess and assist students in becoming counselors and/or educators.

Consideration of students' welfare, goals, and needs as well as diversity issues including gender and race is required just as it is when counseling clients (Schwiebert, 2000) and/or providing supervision to counselors-in-training (Tentoni, 1995). However, gender and cultural differences are often disregarded in mentoring relationships in academia (Davidson & Foster-Johnson, 2001). Failure to recognize issues that are gender and race based may stem from the fact that top academic and tenured positions are primarily dominated by Caucasian men who then serve as mentors (Johnson-Bailey &

Cervero, 2002; P. M. Collins et al., 1997). Although the numbers of women and minorities entering academia including counselor education programs have increased over the years (Johnson-Bailey & Cervero; P. M. Collins et al.), the availability of both female and minority status mentors for students remains limited just as they were in corporations (Brinson & Kottler, 1993; McGuire & Reger, 2003).

A few parallels between women and minorities in corporate and academic settings are evident in that they were underrepresented in the highest positions and often had male mentors. Women in academia were less likely to receive tenure or hold the full professor rank for several reasons including starting their careers later, having little to no support, and juggling other responsibilities such as family (Bruce, 1995). For minorities in academia, Johnson-Bailey and Cervero attributed their failure to obtain tenure and higher positions to racism and white privilege. Even though the focus was on faculty, female and minority status students often faced similar issues as their faculty.

The importance of recognizing gender in mentorship was challenged by Tenebaum et al. (2001) who argued that having a mentor was much more significant. Perhaps women and minorities did not obtain tenure or the top positions or perform well in classes because they were not mentored. Based on the authors' perspective, race might not have been important either. In fact, Davidson and Foster-Johnson (2001) suggested that same race mentoring was not always beneficial. They proposed the quality of mentorship was not dependent upon race, but rather the mentors, themselves. Again, their perspective could be applicable to gender. The existing research, which is minimal, has failed to show significant differences in mentoring experiences by gender and/or race in academic settings. Despite the dearth in literature, academic institutions need to focus on

ways to assist women and minorities in reaching tenure and/or the upper echelons (Luna & Cullen, 1995).

All students in counselor education programs, regardless of gender and culture, have opportunities to experience the counselor and/or counselor educator roles via practica and internships (Dixon-Reeves, 2003; Tentoni, 1995). Mentees may have their mentors as the professors and/or supervisors in courses in which they are enrolled. Therefore, mentors have the opportunity to observe their mentees more holistically (Tentoni, 1995) when assuming multiple roles in a dual relationship context (Kolbert et al., 2002). It is important that mentors recognize that in each role a power differential exists thereby increasing the chances for mentees to be exploited and/or experience powerlessness (Kolbert et al.; McGuire & Reger, 2003).

Perceived as being proficient within their discipline (Kerka, 1998), graduate mentors are powerful (Johnson & Huwe, 2003). Thus, their level of support (i.e. approval vs. disapproval, inclusion vs. exclusion, encouragement vs. suppression) could potentially impact students' survival within programs and professions (Ervin, 1995). Support is often determined by assessing students' willingness and ability to accomplish program requirements effectively. Competence is critical in the counseling profession (Kerka). Possessing a deeper insight might influence the direction of the relationship and amount of power being exerted. Mentors may attempt to role model and reinforce appropriate counseling and teaching behaviors (Dreher & Ash, 1990), instill their personal beliefs (Ervin, 1995), encourage mentees to increase their self-awareness (Kolbert et al., 2002), and/or provide privileged access to other professional networks and socializations (Cascio & Gasker, 2001; Dreher & Ash). However, the true impact mentorship has on

counselors and counselor educators entering the profession is neither known nor understood.

Even if mentoring was abundantly utilized in counselor education programs, obtaining a fuller comprehension would be hindered by the absence of empirical instruments (Black, 1998). Researchers have failed to develop, for any discipline, empirically based instruments utilizing the subjectively based mentoring data (Allen et al., 1997). Furthermore, the mentoring literature in the counseling profession remains sparse both conjecturally and empirically. Black et al. (2004) illustrated this dearth through their examination of articles published in four counseling related journals (i.e. *Journal of Counseling and Development*, *Counselor Education and Supervision*, *The Counseling Psychologist*, & *Teaching of Psychology* (p. 45).

Beginning with each journal's first issue and ending with the last issues in 2002, they found a total of 37 articles that mentioned mentors and protégés. These authors noted that 27 of the 37 articles were published within the last decade and often addressed mentoring concepts, psychosocial and career development, the various formats, and issues related to diversity. More specifically, mentorship research within counselor education programs have focused on empowerment (McCrea, 1992), students' supervisory and training needs (Black, 1998), and relationships between students of minority status and faculty (Atkinson et al., 1994; Kelly & Schweitzer, 1999; Lark & Croteau, 1998). Still, further studies are needed to examine how much mentoring graduate students actually experience (Kelly & Schweitzer) and the long-term impact mentoring will have in counselor education (Bruce, 1995). This research could be impeded by the fact that mentoring behaviors, which significantly impact the

relationship, have been unidentified and/or undifferentiated from mentoring functions (Black). Because mentorship research is relatively recent in counselor education, the mentoring process itself requires future scholarly attention from theoretical and empirical lenses (Campbell & Campbell, 2000; Schwiebert, 2000). Researchers must remember that theories are not one and the same. Jacobi (1991) emphasized that each approach will address separate facets of mentorship. Therefore it might be beneficial to determine what mentoring aspect is going to be examined before choosing the theory.

Establishing a theoretical link between mentoring and academic outcomes is not just intellectually based (Jacobi, 1991). The experiential component remains an important consideration (Fagenson-Eland et al., 1997). The process involved in the giving and receiving of mentoring is influenced by internal and external environmental factors (Carden, 1990) including changes within graduate programs and professions (Schwiebert, 2000). According to Semeniuk and Worrall (2000), mentoring is a social process that may involve unpredictable environmental and/or relational based events, which the mentor-mentee pair may never be completely ready to experience. For instance, within academic settings, the practice may only exist because it serves a *specific* purpose for the institutions (Luna & Cullen, 1995) whether it is based in research, teaching, and/or service. If the purpose is or is not being met, the mentoring practice may cease to exist, which could then potentially disrupt the experiential nature of the mentor-mentee relationship as well as future professional and social interactions (Kerka, 1998). Therefore, Cawyer et al. (2002) suggested that the “organizational dynamics that formulate a university or department’s culture must be considered to fully understand the relationship of mentoring and socialization” (p. 239). This is especially crucial since

faculty perspectives and comprehension of mentoring may differ from their institutions (Luna & Cullen). These differences may impact how mentoring is conducted in terms of quantity and quality. Beyene et al. (2002) indicated that quality and circumstances were most significant to mentoring relationships.

Yet quality mentoring especially in counselor education (and all higher education) might be difficult to produce for several reasons. Counselor education programs have not established a specific mentoring definition for its own use. Existing mentoring definitions remain unclear and have not been distinguished from activities such as coaching, networking, sponsorship, counseling, and advising (Murray, 2001; Schwiebert, 2000; Young & Wright, 2001). Researchers such as Crosby (1999) and Murray attempted to differentiate a role model and sponsor from a mentor by suggesting that, unlike a mentor, both a role model and sponsor did not have to be emotionally attached or establish a formal relationship. Furthermore, Crosby indicated that a sponsor only addressed career growth and a role model may not always be aware of being one to another individual. Murray echoed Crosby's view on role models being unaware of their influence, but from the sponsor role. Additionally, Murray indicated that role models could also engage in sponsoring functions. Most of the suggested differences are subjective. Previous research delineated a mentor from a role model (N. W. Collins, 1983), but the current research has yet to identify how sponsoring differs from mentoring (Ragins, 1999). Research attempts at distinguishing between advising and mentoring have been made.

Mentoring versus Advising

According to the National Academy of Sciences et al. (1997), the more personal and professional nature of mentoring is the primary distinction between the mentoring

and advising constructs. Barnier (1981) suggested that advising only addressed educational and career growth whereas mentoring expounded upon professional development. Even the definitions for mentors and advisors addressed the different foci. For example, an advisor was broadly described as: “someone assigned or selected based on mutual interest who guides you [the advisee] through the requirements and procedures of your [the advisee’s] program and the university’s requirements for the degree” (Dixon-Reeves, 2003, p. 16). Cardiener (2003) identified an advisor as the “faculty member who has the greatest responsibility for helping guide the advisee through the graduate program” (p. 158). Advisors, according to Cardiener, could also be classified as major professors and/or chairs of the advisee’s thesis, dissertation, and/or project committee.

Within the academic culture, mentor and faculty advisor are often used interchangeably due to the belief that the terms are one and the same. However, the concepts are not synonymous (Cardiener, 2003). Mentoring and advising are distinct in their central purposes and functions although the latter has become muddled, which seems to have affected individuals’ ability to distinguish between mentoring and advising relationships. Graduate students, in particular, often classified their advisors as mentors because of the guidance, counseling, education, and directions received throughout their program (Ervin, 1995; Papa-Lewis, 1983). The extent to which advisee-advisor pairs identified themselves as being mentee-mentor pairs was investigated by Papa-Lewis. She found that 32% of the advisee-advisor pairs did not consider their relationships to be that of mentoring due to their experiences in the advising relationships and/or interpretations of mentorship. Yet, Schoen (1991) noted that advisors did not necessarily have mentees just as not all mentors had advisees. Perhaps determining whether the relationship was

one of advising or mentoring requires examining the purpose for the relationship, the intended goal, and overall structure.

The primary goal of advising is to ensure students graduate, therefore, the manner in which advising occurs is dictated by the expectations of educational institutions (TWIG, 1996). Thus, advising does not differ across disciplines (Schlosser, Hill, Moskovitz, & Knox, 2003) since the interactions and informational transactions are specifically oriented to degree completion (Papa-Lewis, 1983). Advisors are more likely than mentors to hold routine office hours, evaluate performances and assignments, give critical feedback, and abide by their program and institutional rules while ensuring their students do as well (TWIG). They focus only on career options and development, which includes charting and scheduling the courses required for the degree (Frost, 1991). Advisory relationships are often predetermined without input from advisees (TWIG), yet these are not set in stone. Advisees are able to choose someone whom they would prefer to work with once they begin the program requirements (Schlosser et al., 2003).

Mentoring seemed to assume a more holistic approach than advising. This viewpoint was voiced by Haring (1999) who speculated that mentoring significantly impacted individuals because it addressed the personal aspects of their lives including transitions, needs and experiences. Disclosures of non-professional or non-educational related information rarely occurred during advisory relationships (Schlosser et al., 2003). Perhaps, informational sharing at a more personal level makes mentoring more intensive than advising (Brown et al., 1999; Schoen, 1991). The non-evaluative and collegial nature (Brown et al.; Robbins, 1999) and less hierarchical structure (Brown et al.) might also influence the intensiveness of mentoring. It is plausible that mentoring involves

more intimacy (that is non-sexual) than advising due to the close connection being established. Table 4 displays the attempt to delineate mentoring and advising according to key elements.

Table 4

Differentiating Mentoring and Advising

Construct	Mentoring	Advising
Role Definition	Mentor: a more experienced individual who addresses both psychosocial and career development of a lesser experienced individual	Advisor: an instructor, professor, teacher, or staff counselor who helps a student plan a course of study (The New Oxford American Dictionary, 2001)
Primary Focus	Psychosocial and career	Educational and career
Relationship	Personal and Professional Develops over time	Professional
Relationship length	More long-term	Duration of graduate program
Power	Collegial	Hierarchical
Knowledge base	Knowledgeable in areas of interest	Extensive knowledge in advisee's areas of interest not required
Evaluation	Non-Evaluative	Evaluative
Flexibility	Differs across disciplines	Consistent across disciplines

Schoen (1991) concluded that advising was a function of mentoring because career development was an integral component in mentorship. Mentees especially those who did not have advisors required career advising due to their inexperience and limited knowledge (Atkinson et al., 1994). However, advising involves assuming needs and is a short-term. According to Haring (1999), mentors do not assume needs. In addition, mentoring is more longstanding. Career development in mentoring is not short-termed, thus mentors are more likely to serve as guides as proposed by the Arizona Leadership 2000 and Beyond (2000) instead of advisors. The difference between guiding and advising is that guiding addresses career-related issues on a more long-term basis. With that said, guidance was utilized as a function of mentoring for the purpose of this study.

Through the process of differentiating mentoring and advising, common elements that often overlap become evident (Schlosser et al., 2003). Hence, the question posed is: how can mentoring be delineated from advising and still share similar functions? In essence, mentoring is a process whereas advising is a product (TWIG, 1996).

Summary of Chapter

The mentoring phenomenon has acquired much attention across multiple disciplines. The wealth of information on mentorship is a testament to its popularity. An internet search using the Google search engine even illustrated the enormity of the concept by yielding approximately 22,000,000 results. Sifting through the vast amount of information could be a daunting task especially if a starting point has not been determined. The history seems to be the most logical place to begin since it provides the foundational base. Most of the research that was reviewed for this dissertation referenced the historical roots. It is quite interesting that a widely accepted concept was credited to a

mythological relationship. Perhaps there is some irony to this in that it questions whether mentoring really does exist or is just a figment of the imagination. Several real mentor-mentee relationships were provided to prove that mentorship does occur. However, the numerous versions of mentoring definitions, again, seemed to question the concept. Consensus on a definition is absent. Thus, the definitional ambiguity is an obstacle for researchers since they cannot distinctly define or establish what exactly is being studied.

Although myriads of mentoring studies have been conducted, disparities exist. These inconsistencies illustrate, to some degree, the complexity of mentorship. At the same time, the disparities might be attributed to researchers' attempts to generalize findings across disciplines. Academia and/organizations have borrowed mentoring concepts and utilized research results from corporations despite the fact that all three fields are different from each other. Parallels between the disciplines may exist especially with gender and race issues. However, when a disciple depends on other disciplines' mentoring research to facilitate its own, the quality of research can become questionable. Mentoring in academia differs from mentoring in corporations because they each have their own purpose and goals. Continual borrowing from another discipline might also be linked to the availability in literature. Corporations do not have a dearth in mentoring literature as do higher education and counselor education. The research scarcity in both disciplines does not seem to support the perception that mentoring is beneficial and crucial for individuals and the disciplines.

Essentially, a lengthy synopsis of the mentoring construct was provided in this chapter. The goal was to begin by establishing a broad overview and then narrow the focus to mentoring in counselor education. In order to successfully reach the goal, several

mentoring components were addressed. These included: (a) providing various mentoring definitions including one that was specifically oriented to counselor education; (b) establishing the historical foundation; (c) explaining various research foci; (d) identifying a theoretical approach to base this study on; (e) addressing phases, functions, benefits, and outcomes; (f) discussing mentor and protégé traits, and terminology usage; (g) mentioning types of mentoring; (h) focusing on mentorship in higher education and counselor education; and (i) differentiating mentoring from other functions such as advising. The early works on mentoring that ranged in popularity were utilized to establish the early beginnings of scholarly productivity and topics of interest. In addition, implications for future research were provided including examining the mentoring process itself as Schwiebert (2000) suggested.

Mentoring is about assisting individuals in their own process of becoming. Yet, at the same time, mentoring seems to be in its own process of becoming as well. It is always evolving and emerging with new avenues for scholarly exploration, thereby, maintaining individuals' interest, attention, and fascination.

CHAPTER III

Methods

Researchers have frequently noted methodological weaknesses and limitations in research on mentoring including (a) the absence of a theoretical foundation, (b) a lack of consensus on the definition of mentoring, and (c) a reliance on inferential rather than empirical data (e.g. Black, 1998; Davidson & Foster-Johnson, 2001; Jacobi, 1991; Schwiebert, 2000).

Surprisingly, research surveys used to study ‘mentoring’ often excluded the term ‘mentor’ because of definitional ambiguity (Ragins, 1999). To reduce this methodological confusion, Ragins suggested: (a) asking participants to indicate what mentoring level (i.e. primary, secondary, tertiary, peer, supervisory, etc.) they were focusing on when answering questions; (b) allowing participants to share how many mentors they have; (c) considering the mentor’s career position and place of employment; and (d) inquiring about the mentor’s geographical proximity to the mentee.

Jacobi (1991) stressed the importance of a theoretical grounding for the research. A further suggestion was to establish a research definition of ‘mentoring’, for academia (Black, 1998; Luna & Cullen, 1995). Consequently, the researcher structured this current study to address these identified methodological weaknesses and limitations.

This chapter of the study includes (a) the research questions, (b) the research design, (c) participants, (d) instrumentation, (e) data collection procedures, (f) data analysis, and (g) summary of the chapter.

Research Questions

1. What are the perceptions of doctoral students' personal mentoring experiences in counselor education programs?
 - a. What are the qualities (psychosocial based) and characteristics (career based) of their mentoring experiences?
 - i. To what extent do doctoral students believe they are prepared to teach, research, engage in service, and/or practice clinically?
 - ii. To what extent do doctoral students believe they establish networks and connections
 - iii. To what extent do doctoral students believe they receive encouragement, protection, support, guidance, and respect from their mentors?
 - iv. To what extent do doctoral students discuss personal experiences and issues?
 - b. Do doctoral students experience greater or more intense mentoring in career or psychosocial domains?
 - c. Do doctoral students initiate the mentoring relationship more than mentors?
 - d. Do doctoral students differentiate their mentor from their assigned program advisor?
 - e. Do doctoral students have more than one mentor?
 - f. Are there differences in mentoring experiences based on mentees' gender, age, and/or race?

- g. Have doctoral students' professional goals been affected by mentoring?
 - h. Do doctoral students serve as mentors once they have graduated?
 - i. Are there differences in mentoring experiences between research and non-research based institutions?
 - j. Are there differences in mentoring experiences between CACREP and non-CACREP programs?
2. What is the most important aspect of the mentoring experience for doctoral students in counselor education programs?

Research Design

This exploratory, descriptive research study used on-line surveys with a mixed method approach (Gay & Airasian, 2003). The study was structured on the QUAN-QUAL model, giving equal weight to the quantitative and qualitative data throughout collection, analysis, and interpretation. Triangulation of the data ensured the balance between quantitative and qualitative methods (Gay & Airasian; Patton, 1990).

Another aspect of the research design did not deal directly with analysis or approaches. It addressed the element of time. Due to the number of questions being asked, response typing involved, and the electronic format, the time estimated for completing the instruments was approximately 15 to 20 minutes.

The Definition of Mentoring Used in This Study

Mentorship in counselor education (and the counseling profession) is an interpersonal, interdependent, collaborative, and continuously evolving relationship between individuals who are differentiated by skills, experiences, expertise and knowledge. The more experienced individual [mentor] provides the lesser-experienced individual [mentee] with guidance, encouragement, support, resources and direction in the roles of educator, role model, and sponsor. The mentee, in turn, reciprocates support, encouragement, and direction. Additional resources may be provided for the mentor as well. Furthermore, the relationship is

marked by trust, empathy, respect, open communication, active listening, genuineness, commitment, and clearly established boundaries. Through mentoring interactions, both the mentor and mentee develop holistic personal (psychosocial based) and professional (career based) identities.

Participants

The population for this study was individuals who received their doctoral degrees within the last five years (2000-2005) from counselor education programs in the United States and engaged in a mentoring relationship while they were doctoral students. A non-random sampling technique was used. A minimum of 100 participants were needed to maximize the power of the non-parametric statistical analyses mandated by the non-randomness of the sample. The final sample size was 66 participants.

Instrumentation

Based on Ragin's (1999) recommendation, respondents were asked to base their responses on the Definition of Mentoring used in this study. Two instruments were used for this study. The first, a demographic questionnaire (Appendix E) consisted of two sections: (a) demographic information; and (b) *General Mentoring Questions*.

Demographic information requested included the participant's gender, age, geographic location, occupation, and highest educational level (Patton, 1990). In addition to these standard questions, participants were asked for their ethnicity, current employment setting, and the number of years (or months) at their current place of employment.

Participants were asked to respond to questions pertaining to their mentoring experience as doctoral students with their primary mentor in mind. A mentoring definition was provided as a basis for participants' responses. Questions in the *General Mentoring Questions* focused on specific aspects of the participant's mentoring

relationship. A 5-point, Likert-type, item rating scale (5 = to a very large extent, 3 = to some extent, and 1 = not at all) was used.

After obtaining permission from authors K. Tepper, Shaffer, and Tepper and the *Educational and Psychological Measurement* journal, in which the *Mentoring Function Scale* (Appendix F) was published, the researcher, with the authors' permission, modified questions on the instrument for the purpose of this study. The original instrument, which was adapted from a scale used by Noe (1988), was created for use in corporations and business-related programs in educational settings (K. Tepper, Shaffer, & Tepper, 1996). Items focused on psychosocial and career-related mentoring functions. Modifications were made due to the recognition that academia differed from organizations in several ways. Therefore the perception and utilization of mentoring often differs as well (Luna & Cullen, 1995). Accurately examining the psychosocial and career dimensions of mentoring from a counselor education perspective would have been hindered if the original instrument was used without the modifications.

Changes were made to the numerical sequence of items and the items, themselves. Instead of using odd numbers for the psychosocial mentoring items and even numbers for career-related mentoring items, which the authors did, the researcher used a normal numerical sequence beginning with "1" and ending with "16". The first eight items measured psychosocial aspects of mentoring and the next eight measured career-related aspects. Additionally, the following eight revisions (two to the psychosocial subscale and six to the career subscale) were made to K. Tepper et al.'s instrument. All items began with "Your mentor...":

Question 1: (psychosocial subscale)

- Original version: “encouraged you to try new ways of behaving on the job.”
- Adapted version: “encouraged you to try new ways of behaving in your program.”

Question 2: (psychosocial subscale)

- Original version: “discussed your questions or concerns regarding feelings of competence, commitment to advancement, relationships with peers and supervisors or work/family conflicts.”
- Adapted version: “discussed your questions or concerns regarding feelings of competence, commitment to the program and profession, relationships with peers and supervisors or work/family conflicts.”

Question 9: (career subscale)

- Original version: "assigned responsibilities to you that have increased your contact with people who will judge your potential for future advancement."
- Adapted version: "assigned responsibilities to you that have increased your contact with people who will judge your potential for future career positions."

Question 10: (career subscale)

- Original version: “reduced unnecessary risks that could have threatened your opportunities for promotion.”
- Adapted version: "reduced unnecessary risks that could have threatened your opportunities to graduate."

Question 12: (career subscale)

- Original version: “gave you assignments or tasks that have prepared you for higher positions.”

- Adapted version: “gave you assignments or tasks that have prepared you for faculty or clinical positions (becoming a professional).”

Question 14: (career subscale)

- Original version: “encouraged you to prepare for advancement.”
- Adapted version: “encouraged you to prepare for future positions.”

Question 15: (career subscale)

- Original version: “gave you assignments that present opportunities to learn new skills.”
- Adapted version: “gave you assignments that present opportunities to learn new skills such as teaching, research, and service.”

Question 16: (career subscale)

- Original version: “gave you assignments that have increased your contact with higher level managers.”
- Adapted version: “gave you assignments that have increased your contact with leaders in your profession.”

These changes should not have affected the validity of the subscales developed by K. Tepper, Shaffer, and Tepper (1996), especially since the same 5-point Likert-type item rating scales were retained in this study. Content validity of the instrument was addressed by both Noe (1988) and K. Tepper et al. The provided Cronbach's alpha levels were reported as .88 for the psychosocial scale and .90 for the career-related scale (B. J. Tepper, 1995). Nevertheless, Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients were calculated with the data collected in this study as reliability doesn't belong to an instrument.

Reliability must be calculated from the collected data produced through the use of the instrument (Thompson, 1994).

The psychosocial and career-related mentoring dimensions were each measured by eight items. Sub-scale and full-scale scores were reported. Participants will rate each of the 16 items on the extent to which their mentors fulfilled psychosocial and career-related activities. A 5-point, Likert-type, item rating scale (5 = to a very large extent, 3 = to some extent, and 1 = not at all) were used as it was in K. Tepper et al.'s (1996) study.

After completing the *Mentor Function Scale* (K. Tepper, Shaffer, & Tepper, 1996), participants were asked to complete one final question of the study, which was Patton's (1990) qualitatively based one-shot question (short-answer). Patton stated that the one-shot question is used when the researcher has only one opportunity to interview participants. Due to the single opportunity, Patton suggested that an effective question is "...open-ended, neutral, singular, and clear" (p. 295); one in which the participant has the option and flexibility of disclosing what he or she truly wants. An example of this type of question might be "...how do you feel about the program?" (Patton, p. 296). In addition to exhibiting the elements offered by Patton, the question had to have a focus and purpose.

For instance, questions can be opinion or valued based, inquire about experiences or behaviors, illicit feelings or the senses, assess knowledge, and identify characteristics of participants (Patton, 1990). Although any one of these could be used for this study, the focus of the one-shot question was opinion based because the purpose was to obtain what participants believed. Therefore participants were asked, "What was the one most important aspect of your mentoring experience that you would like to share with counselor educators, counseling students, and the counseling profession?"

Data Collection Procedures

Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University has an on-line survey program that was used to create the instruments. The researcher agreed to abide by the program's acceptable use policy. This program is available at www.survey.vt.edu.

The ease of using the web-based survey program, the quickness in response, and cost effectiveness were the primary reasons for choosing an electronic distribution method over paper and writing instrument. It is important to note that an electronic survey could hinder the sample size (Shannon & Bradshaw, 2002) in terms of internet access and speed, degree of technical comfort, skill and savyness, and receiving study announcements. Additionally, Cook, Heath, Thompson, and Thompson (2001) suggested that a specific population would be unidentifiable when surveys were announced through listservs, word of mouth, and emails because of the invite only context.

Sampling Plan

Upon receiving IRB approval to conduct the research, participants were sought through the use of the CESNET listserv, advertisement in the American Counseling Association's (ACA) *Counseling Today* newspaper and on-line newspaper version, contacting chairs of counseling education programs, by word of mouth and forwarded e-mail correspondences, and flyers announcing the request for participants. The primary researcher's contact information was provided in the *Counseling Today* newspaper and CTO-line (electronic version of newspaper) advertisement announcements and flyers. The newspaper advertisement ran during the month of July rather than June, which was originally proposed.

After the first two weeks of making the instruments available, e-mail announcements were sent to the chairs of counselor education programs requesting their assistance by forwarding and/or posting the study announcement to their faculty members. Information about counseling programs was obtained via Internet and the American Counseling Association. In addition, IRB approval was sought (and obtained) to utilize flyers that were circulated electronically and distributed at counseling conferences. A second request for participants was made on the CESNET listserv. Another announcement was also placed on a New Faculty listserv.

The instruments were to be available until at least the minimum number of participants was obtained. The study was available from May 26, 2005 to February 9, 2006 in an attempt to obtain a larger sample.

Instructions to Participants

In the e-mail announcement (Appendix A), newspaper advertisement (Appendix B), and flyer (Appendix C), potential participants were invited to participate in the research study. The e-mail invitation that was sent to the two listservs and the chairs of counseling programs introduced the researcher, explained the purpose of the e-mail, discussed the donation being made on participants' behalf, and provided a brief overview of the study including IRB approval, eligibility to participate, the purpose, survey access links, and how to request results or final summary. In addition, potential participants were notified that a more comprehensive informed consent form would be provided with the surveys. Recipients of the electronic invitation and flyer were also asked to forward these to colleagues who were eligible to participate. Potential participants were able to submit

any questions and/or comments that they might have had to the researcher's e-mail address before accessing the surveys.

Informed Consent for Participants

Informed consent (Appendix D) was provided to interested individuals once they accessed the survey. The informed consent information included the: (a) purpose of the study; (b) responsibilities of the researcher and potential participants; (c) procedures of the study including risks, benefits, confidentiality and anonymity, voluntary nature, and compensation; (d) IRB approval number; (e) potential use for publications and presentations; and (d) researchers' contact information. Completion of the survey indicated participants' consent to participate.

Data Processing

Completed instruments were sent to the primary researcher's university e-mail account that was provided when the questions from the instruments were inputted into the survey program. The primary researcher, dissertation chair, and research committee member were the only ones to who had access to review the results. The results were exported into an excel spreadsheet from the survey program and then into the SAS statistical analysis program. The data were exported periodically as instruments were completed. Thus, the data were stored on the hard drive of the primary researcher's computer and on external drives (ex. jump sticks, disks). When the downloaded data, whether on the computer's hard drive, researcher's external drives, and/or in printed form were not being analyzed, a computer access password and/or a locked fireproof safe were used as security measures.

Data Analysis

The demographic survey yielded both nominal-level data (e.g., gender, ethnicity) and interval-level data (e.g., age, length of current employment). The *General Mentoring Questions* and the *Mentor Function Scale* (K. Tepper, Shaffer & Tepper, 1996) produced interval-level data. Appropriate descriptive statistics were calculated for the descriptive tables. Nominal-level data were described by frequencies and percentages and interval-level data were described by means and standard deviations. The "one-shot" qualitative question yielded qualitative data that was analyzed by identifying, coding, sorting, and describing emerging themes (Heppner, Kivlighan, Jr., & Wampold, 1999; Patton, 1990). The answers were then categorically coded based on reoccurring themes. Each response was read, coded, and then recoded. Twenty initial themes were compiled into the following six overarching themes that seemed to capture the essence of the mentoring experiencing for the participants.

Cronbach's alpha was used to calculate the internal-consistency reliability of the *Mentor Function Instrument's* overall scale and sub-scales. Alpha was set *a priori* at .05 for statistical significance for all tests. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was utilized for interval-data and two sample t-tests were used for nominal data.

Missing data on scaled items needed to be replaced because the data set was not large by statistical standards. The method for handling missing data on the instruments was based on a recommendation by Gorsuch (1983). The values used to replace missing data were calculated by computing the means of the variables for all participants who responded. By this approach, an assumption was made that the estimated values were random and did not affect the means.

After the quantitative data were analyzed and the qualitative answers were categorized according to theme, the data were triangulated. Analyzing the data through triangulation not only illustrated the importance of all collected data it also provided the researcher with different perspectives on how the information was interconnected to create a more complete picture (Patton, 1990). Furthermore, validity and reliability increased when a multi-method triangulation approach was used (Patton).

Summary of Chapter

This purpose of this study was to examine doctoral students' perceptions of their personal mentoring experiences in counselor education programs and the most important aspect of their mentoring experiences. Instead of using doctoral students currently enrolled in counselor education programs as participants, the researcher chose to use graduates within the last five years in the hopes of obtaining more in-depth insights to the mentoring experience during their doctoral experiences. Two broad research questions, ten sub-questions, and four sub-questions of a sub-question were developed. Data that tested the research questions and sub-questions were gathered via two instruments: (a) a demographic questionnaire that included questions about mentors and mentoring experiences and *General Mentoring Questions*; and (b) the *Mentoring Function Scale* with a one-shot question (short-answer).

Both quantitative and qualitative data were collected, thereby creating a mixed method approach. More specifically the QUAN-QUAL model that weighed the data equally was used. Triangulation of the data helped to create a more comprehensive picture of mentoring experiences.

CHAPTER IV

Results

The results of the data analyses from 66 doctorate holding participants, who were mentored as doctoral students in counselor education programs and graduated between the 2000-2005 academic years, provided demographic characteristics for the participants and their mentors and addressed the two research questions and 10 sub-questions in the study. The first research question, which included the sub-questions, was quantitatively based. The second question, which was in a short answer format, was qualitative in nature. Analyses of the demographic information, each question and sub-question, and short answer question are discussed separately. A more comprehensive picture of the data is then provided through triangulation.

Participants' Demographic Information

The collected demographic information included the participants' (1) gender, (2) age, (3) ethnicity, (4) graduation year, (5) current employment setting, (6) length of employment, and (7) degree awarding institution. Table 5 presents a summary of frequencies and percentages of the demographic data.

Table 5

Demographic Characteristics

Variable	N*	Percentage
Gender		
Female	46	70%
Male	19	29%
Total	65	99%
Age		
26-29	6	9%
30-39	43	65%
40-49	14	21%
50-59	2	3%
Total	65	98%
Ethnicity		
African American	8	12%
Asian	2	3%
Bi-Racial	2	3%
Caucasian	46	70%
Hispanic and of White Origin	2	3%
Latino/Latina	4	6%
Native American	1	2%
Total	65	99%

* The sums of frequencies and percentages may not total to 100% due to non-responses to items.

Table 5 (*continued*).

Variable	N*	Percentage
Graduation Year		
2000	4	6%
2001	5	8%
2002	6	9%
2003	9	14%
2004	21	32%
2005	20	31%
Total	65	100%
Current Employment Setting		
Clinical	9	14%
Higher Education	53	80%
Other (unemployment & deployment)	2	3%
Total	64	97%

* The sums of frequencies and percentages may not total to 100% due to non-responses to items.

Table 5 (*continued*).

Variable	N*	Percentage
Length of Employment (years)		
Less than 1 year	26	40%
Between 1-2	23	35%
Between 2-3	6	9%
Between 3-4	3	5%
Between 4-5	1	2%
Over 5	4	6%
Total	63	97%

* The sums of frequencies and percentages may not total to 100% due to non-responses to items.

According to the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) (2004), enrollment in doctoral-granting counseling programs (ex. education, school, and guidance) during the 2002-2003 academic years as reported in the *Digest of Education Statistics* was approximately 84% female and 16% male. Comparing gender proportions from this study to the national proportions may be inaccurate because separate percentile data in counselor education programs were not provided by the NCES. In this study, the gender proportions were lower for females (70%) and higher for males (29%) than the national proportions.

Age comparisons could not be made because reports of doctoral-level counseling students' ages were not provided in the *Digest of Education Statistics*. Instead enrollment predictions based on age for higher education, in general, were reported. The NCES (2004) projected that in a twelve year period beginning with 2002, the enrollment rate for

individuals 25 years and older would be higher than those who were under 25 years. The age range of the participants, in this study, was 26 to 59 years, with a mean age of 36.2 ($SD = 6.47$). These results seem to fit the aforementioned prediction. However, evidence to support whether this sample is representative of counseling doctoral students' ages may not exist. It is more likely that individual institutions would have this information along with enrollment numbers and ethnic representation. The Council for the Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP) is in the infancy phase of compiling data on students in its accredited programs to establish comprehensive statistical reports (B. Brown, personal communication, July 25, 2006).

It is unknown how the current sample is representative of doctoral students in counselor education programs especially in regard to ethnicity due to the lack of comprehensive statistical data. Reports in the *Digest of Education Statistics* (NCES, 2004), indicated that the graduate student population in 2002 was comprised of approximately 9% African American, 5% Asian, 66% Caucasian, 6% Latino/a, and .6% Native American. Specifically at the doctoral level, the national representations in 2002 were approximately 9% African Americans, 8% Asian, 69% Caucasian, and 6% Latino/a (NCES, 2005). The data were not delineated by specific doctoral programs. The ethnic representation, in the current study, was 12% African American, 3% Asian, 3% Bi-racial, 70% Caucasian, 3% Hispanics of White Origin, 6% Latino/a, and 2% Native American. The percentage of minority status participants was 29%, which was slightly higher than the national percentage reported in 2002. The African American and Latino/a populations were the only ones to be similar to the national proportions.

National statistics on graduation rates in graduate and/or counselor education doctoral programs were not obtained. Data analysis of the graduation years indicated that 63% of the participants obtained their degrees in 2004 and 2005. Slightly less than half of the participants who were of minority status (47%) and the majority of the Caucasian participants (72%) graduated within these two years.

The more recently minted doctorates might provide an explanation for the length of employment that was primarily in the range of less than one year (39%) and between one to two years (35%). Only 6% reported being at their current employment setting for over five years. A closer examination of the data revealed that the years of current employment did not always coincide with the graduation years. More specifically, 11 of the 49 (22%) participants who reported that their length of employment was either less than one year or between one to two years, graduated between 2000 and 2002. Five participants who were employed between four and five years and for more than five years, graduated in 2000, 2003, and 2005. This data indicated that some participants were already in their positions before acquiring the doctorate. Additionally, new positions may have been acquired for individuals whose doctorates were not recently minted yet were relatively new in their employment. At the time of the study, 14% of the participants reported working in clinical settings while 80% were in higher education. Three percent were unemployed in counseling related settings either by choice or due to military deployment.

Furthermore, the participants graduated from 28 doctoral level counselor education programs in the United States. Geographically, the programs were located in three of the four regional chapters as defined by the American Counseling Association

(ACA) for membership purposes. The North Atlantic chapter was the only non-represented region despite having doctorate granting counselor education programs. The highest participant representation was in the Southern region ($N = 42$) followed by the Midwest region ($N = 16$), and the Western region ($N = 7$). All 28 programs were CACREP accredited. Additionally, 26 programs were part of institutions classified as Research Extensive (replacing Research I classification) by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (2005).

Mentors' Demographic Information

Participants were to recall their mentoring experiences as doctoral students with their primary mentor. They were asked to provide their mentors' age, gender, and ethnicity. Identified primary mentors included 37 females and 28 males. Mentors' ethnic identities included 2 (3%) African American, 60 (91%) Caucasian, and 4 (6%) Latino/a. Participants estimated their mentors' ages, which ranged from the mid-thirties to the sixties. The mean age for the mentors was 52.1 years ($SD = 7.76$).

Mentoring Relationship Information

For the majority of the mentor-mentee pairs, the age difference spanned over a decade or more. Three participants had mentors who were younger, two were the same age, and seven were in close age proximity with their mentors. According to Hunt and Michael (1983), connection and/or separation in mentorship could be influenced by values, beliefs, and communication styles that are defined by and unique to each generation. Of the 66 participants, 64 reported that between "some extent" (3.00 on scale) and "a very large extent" (5.00 on scale), they shared similar/common values and beliefs

with their mentors. This was untrue for only one participant who was approximately two decades younger than the mentor; similarities were “not [shared] at all” (1.00 on scale).

The ethnic representation of the mentor-mentee pairings was predominantly Caucasian (68%), in which both the mentor and mentee were identified as being Caucasian. In one pairing, both the mentor and mentee were African American. Twenty (30%) pairings were inter-racial of which 15 (75%) had Caucasian mentors. According to Casto, Caldwell, and Salazar (2005), inter-racial pairings in which the mentor was Caucasian and the mentee was of a minority status was not uncommon due to counselor educators of minority status remaining outnumbered in counseling programs. The other four mentors were identified as Latino/Latina (15%), and African American (5%). The mentees in the inter-racial pairings identified themselves as African American, Asian, Bi-racial, Caucasian, Latino/Latina, and Native American. One participant chose not to provide personal ethnic background yet identified the mentor’s ethnicity as Caucasian.

Table 6 presents the gender and ethnic demographics of mentors and mentees.

Table 6

Gender and Ethnic Data of the Mentor-Mentee Relationships

Mentoring Relationships	N*	Percentage
Same-gendered Pairings		
Female Mentors and Mentees	26	79%
Male Mentors and Mentees	7	21%
Total	33	100%
Cross-gendered Pairings		
Female Mentors and Male Mentees	12	37.5%
Male Mentors and Female Mentees	20	62.5%
Total	32	100%
Same-race Pairings (total)	45	69%
Inter-racial Pairings (total)	20	30%
Total	65	99%
Same-race Pairings		
Same-gendered		
Female Mentors and Mentees	18	40%
Male Mentors and Mentees	5	11%
Total	23	51%
Cross-gendered		
Female Mentors and Male Mentees	6	13%
Male Mentors and Female Mentees	16	36%
Total	22	49%

Table 6 (*continued*).

Mentoring Relationships	N*	Percentage
Inter-racial Pairings		
Same-gendered		
Female Mentors and Mentees	8	40%
Male Mentors and Mentee	2	10%
Total	10	50%
Cross-gendered		
Female Mentors and Male Mentees	6	30%
Male Mentors and Female Mentees	4	20%
Total	10	50%

* The sum of N may not be reflected in the frequencies and percentage totals due to non-responses to items.

The majority of mentoring (89%) occurred within doctoral students' counselor education programs. Seven participants indicated being mentored outside of their programs (11%). For six of those seven participants (9% of total), all of whom were female, mentoring did not only occur outside of the program but their institutions as well. Of these six females, four were of minority status, and three had Caucasian mentors. It is important to acknowledge that women and minorities are more likely to face challenges in cross gendered and inter-racial mentorship. In particular, obstacles created by sexism, discrimination, and oppression potentially hinder relationship and rapport building and acquisition of resources (Jacobi, 1991; Johnson, 1998). Such experiences could impact perceptions of mentoring experiences.

Quantitative Analysis of Data

The purpose of this study was to address the impact of mentorship by examining doctoral students' perceptions of their personal mentoring experiences. The structural components (i.e. career and psychosocial based functions) and most important aspects of mentoring were explored through the use of the *General Mentoring Questions* (GMQ) and *Mentor Function Scale* (MFS) instruments and a one-shot question. Each scale used a 5-point, Likert-type, item rating scale (5 = to a very large extent, 3 = to some extent, and 1 = not at all) for responses. In an attempt to provide a clearer description of the data, the rating scale, for the purpose of this study, was further delineated into: (a) 1 to 1.4 = not at all, (b) 1.5 to 2.4 = to a slight extent, (c) 2.5 to 3.4 = to some extent, (d) 3.5 to 4.4 = to a large extent and (e) 4.5 to 5 = to a very large extent.

Both the MFS and GMQ consisted of 16 questions, which meant the score range for these scales were 16 to 80. The two subscales of the MFS consisted of eight questions. Thus the score range for each subscale was 8 to 40. The means and standard deviations for the GMQ, MFS, and the *Psychosocial* and *Career* subscales are presented in Table 7.

Table 7

Means and Standard Deviations across the General Mentoring Questions, Mentoring Function Scale, and Psychosocial and Career Subscales (N = 66)

Instrument	M	SD
General Mentoring Questions	3.93	0.73
Mentoring Function Scale	4.14	0.68
Psychosocial Subscale	4.30	0.66
Career Subscale	3.97	0.95

Note: Modified scale range 1 to 1.4 = not at all, 1.5 to 2.4 = to a slight extent, 2.5 to 3.4 = to some extent, 3.5 to 4.4 = to a large extent, 4.5 to 5 = to a very large extent.

Data analyses yielded the following results for the two instruments.

The present sample produced similar internal-consistency reliability for the MFS when compared to the sample in K. Tepper et. al's (1996) study. Cronbach's alpha reliabilities calculated with the data from the present study were $r_{xx}=.87$ for the *Psychosocial subscale*, $r_{xx}=.90$ for the *Career subscale*, and $r_{xx}=.90$ for the entire MFS scale.

The GMQ had high face validity, that is, the items appeared to be measuring aspects of mentoring (Sax, 1997). Content validity of the instrument was based on the literature base for the items. Cronbach's coefficient alpha reliability, a measure of internal consistency, was $r_{xx}=.88$. This high internal consistency reliability also presented an argument for construct validity, as all of the items were measuring a single construct (Linn & Gronlund, 2000; Sax).

Strong relationships were interpreted as correlations of .70 and higher. The *Career subscale* had the strongest positive linear correlations with the MFS ($r = .90$) and

the GMQ ($r = .79$). A strong positive linear correlation existed between the GMQ and the MFS ($r = .78$). The *Psychosocial* subscale had a moderate positive linear correlation with the GMQ ($r = .47$) and a low positive correlation with the *Career* subscale ($r = .40$). Table 8 presents the correlations between the GMQ, MFS, and the *Psychosocial* and *Career* subscales.

Table 8

Correlations Between General Mentoring Questions, and Mentor Function Scale and Its Subscales

Instruments/Subscales	General Mentoring Questions	Mentoring Function Scale	Psychosocial Subscale	Career Subscale
General Mentoring Questions	1.00	0.78	0.47	0.79
Mentoring Function Scale		1.00	0.77	0.90
Psychosocial Subscale			1.00	0.40
Career Subscale				1.00

N = 66; $p < .0001$

It is important to note that in order to measure the shared variance in the two subscales, r must be squared. Therefore $r^2 = .016$, which provides evidence that the psychosocial and career subscales are measuring separate dimensions of mentoring functions.

In an attempt to obtain a more comprehensive analysis of doctoral students' personal mentoring experiences, the first research question: *What are the perceptions of doctoral students' personal mentoring experiences in counselor education programs* consisted of specifically focused sub-questions. The first sub-question addressed four areas of psychosocial and career based functions in mentoring.

Question 1.a. What are the qualities (psychosocially based) and characteristics (career based) of their mentoring experience?

The psychosocial qualities included receiving encouragement, protection, support, guidance, and respect from mentors and discussing personal experiences and issues.

Career characteristics encompassed preparation to teach, research, engage in service, and/or practice clinically and establishing networks and connections. The extent to which doctoral students believed they experienced all four functions was examined. The data analyses indicated the following results beginning with the two career based functions.

Question 1.a.i. To what extent do doctoral students believe they are prepared to teach, research, engage in service, and/or practice clinically?

Seven items from both the GMQ and *Career* subscale that concentrated on teaching, research, service, and clinical practice were compiled. The mean of 3.93 ($SD = 0.83$) indicated that the current sample believed, ‘to a large extent’, they were prepared to fulfill teaching, research, and service, and/or clinical responsibilities. The item with the highest mean centered on involvement in professional organizations and the community (4.33, $SD = 1.07$). Clinical counseling preparation had the lowest mean (3.26, $SD = 1.41$). Table 9 presents the questions, means, and standard deviations of the seven items.

Table 9

Means and Standard Deviations on Items Assessing Teaching, Research, Service, and Clinical Practice (N = 66)

Instrument	M	SD
<i>General Mentoring Questions</i>		
Your mentor...		
assisted you with publishing scholarly work as a doctoral student?	3.36	1.51
provided opportunities for you to teach more than one course as a doctoral student?	3.83	1.48
provided opportunities for you to practice clinical counseling skills?	3.26	1.41
encouraged you to be actively involved in professional organizations and community outreach?	4.33	1.07
provided opportunities and encouraged you to present at professional conferences as a doctoral student?	4.30	1.04

Note: Modified scale range 1 to 1.4 = not at all, 1.5 to 2.4 = to a slight extent, 2.5 to 3.4 = to some extent, 3.5 to 4.4 = to a large extent, 4.5 to 5 = to a very large extent.

Table 9 (*continued*).

Instrument	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
<i>Career Subscale</i>		
Your mentor... gave you assignments or tasks that have prepared you for faculty or clinical positions (becoming a professional).	4.20	1.19
gave you assignments that present opportunities to learn new skills such as teaching, research, and service.	4.23	1.08

Note: Modified scale range 1 to 1.4 = not at all, 1.5 to 2.4 = to a slight extent, 2.5 to 3.4 = to some extent, 3.5 to 4.4 = to a large extent, 4.5 to 5 = to a very large extent.

Question 1.a.ii To what extent do doctoral students believe they establish networks and connections?

Establishing networks and connections were assessed through the compilation of four items taken from both the GMQ and *Career* subscale. The mean of 3.91 (*SD* = 1.14) indicated that the current sample believed, ‘to a large extent’, opportunities for networking and making connections was provided during their mentorships. Networking during professional development opportunities had the highest mean (4.09, *SD* = 1.30). The item addressing having responsibilities that would increase potential career connections received the lowest mean (3.79, *SD* = 1.26). Table 10 presents the questions, means, and standard deviations of the four items.

Table 10

Means and Standard Deviations on Items Assessing Establishment of Networks and Connections (N = 66)

Instrument	M	SD
<i>General Mentoring Questions</i>		
Your mentor...		
introduced you to colleagues when attending conferences, workshops, and other professional development activities?		
	4.09	1.30
<i>Career Subscale</i>		
Your mentor...		
assigned responsibilities to you that have increased your contact with people who will judge your potential for future career positions.		
	3.79	1.26
helped you meet new colleagues.		
	3.95	1.25
gave you assignments that have increased your contact with leaders in your profession.		
	3.80	1.46

Note: Modified scale range 1 to 1.4 = not at all, 1.5 to 2.4 = to a slight extent, 2.5 to 3.4 = to some extent, 3.5 to 4.4 = to a large extent, 4.5 to 5 = to a very large extent.

Question 1.a.iii. To what extent do doctoral students believe they receive encouragement, protection, support, guidance, and respect from their mentors?

Sixteen items from the GMQ, and the *Psychosocial* and *Career* subscales that addressed being recipients of encouragement, protection, support, guidance, and respect

from mentors were compiled. Three items in the *Career* subscale appeared to address psychosocial elements thereby alluding to a level of interconnectedness between the two domains (Dreher & Ash, 1990). The mean of 4.02 ($SD = 0.68$) indicated that the current sample believed, ‘to a large extent’, that their mentors encouraged, protected, supported, guided, and respected them. The item on being respected received the highest mean (4.71, $SD = 0.63$) whereas being provided with information on licensure had the lowest mean (3.20, $SD = 1.41$). The 16 questions including their means and standard deviations are presented in Table 11.

Table 11

Means and Standard Deviations on Items Assessing Encouragement, Protection, Support, Guidance, and Respect Provided by Mentors (N = 66)

Instrument	M	SD
<i>General Mentoring Questions</i>		
Your mentor... made you aware of fellowships, scholarships, and/or assistantships?	3.41	1.54
helped you understand the program, department, and university polices?	4.27	0.97
provided information and feedback about potential internship and training sites?	3.39	1.33
helped identify prospective employment positions that interested you?	3.88	1.23
provided feedback on employment positions you were considering?	4.24	1.18
provided licensure information, resources, websites?	3.20	1.41
supported your decisions and contributions during times when others (professors, family, friends, etc.) did not?	3.89	1.22
served as a reference for positions you applied to?	4.65	0.95

Note: Modified scale range 1 to 1.4 = not at all, 1.5 to 2.4 = to a slight extent, 2.5 to 3.4 = to some extent, 3.5 to 4.4 = to a large extent, 4.5 to 5 = to a very large extent.

Table 11 (*continued*).

Instrument		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
<i>Psychosocial Subscale</i>			
Your mentor...			
encouraged you to try new ways of behaving in your program.	3.85	1.22	
discussed your questions or concerns regarding feelings of competence, commitment to the program and profession, relationships with peers and supervisors or work and family conflicts.	4.26	0.97	
demonstrated good listening skills in your conversations.	4.52	0.75	
conveyed feelings of respect for you as an individual.	4.71	0.63	
encouraged you to talk openly about anxieties and fears that detracts from your work.	4.26	1.00	
<i>Career Subscale</i>			
Your mentor...			
reduced unnecessary risks that could have threatened your opportunities to graduate.	3.68	1.30	
helped you finish assignments or tasks or meet deadlines that otherwise would have been difficult to complete.	3.62	1.39	
encouraged you to prepare for your future position(s).	4.48	0.86	

Note: Modified scale range 1 to 1.4 = not at all, 1.5 to 2.4 = to a slight extent, 2.5 to 3.4 = to some extent, 3.5 to 4.4 = to a large extent, 4.5 to 5 = to a very large extent.

Question 1.a.iv. To what extent do doctoral students discuss personal experiences and issues?

The extent to which personal experiences and issues were discussed was measured with two items taken from both the GMQ and *Psychosocial* subscale. The mean of 4.20 ($SD = 0.97$) indicated that the current sample believed, ‘to a large extent’, that they could discuss personal experiences and issues with their mentors. Table 12 presents the questions, means, and standard deviations of the two items.

Table 12

Means and Standard Deviations on Items Assessing Discussion of Personal Experiences and Issues (N = 66)

Instrument	M	SD
<i>General Mentoring Questions</i>		
Your mentor... discussed your personal life issues when you shared them with him or her?	4.24	0.98
<i>Psychosocial Subscale</i>		
Your mentor... shared personal experiences as an alternative perspective to your problems.	4.15	1.19

Note: Modified scale range 1 to 1.4 = not at all, 1.5 to 2.4 = to a slight extent, 2.5 to 3.4 = to some extent, 3.5 to 4.4 = to a large extent, 4.5 to 5 = to a very large extent.

Question 1.b. Do doctoral students experience greater or more intense mentoring in career or psychosocial domains?

The mean and standard deviation for the entire MFS was 4.14 ($SD = 0.68$). The total group mean of the *Psychosocial* subscale (4.30) was statistically significantly

($p < .05$) higher than the total group mean of the *Career* subscale (3.97). The data indicated that statistically significantly greater or more intense mentoring occurred in the psychosocial domain.

Question 1.c. Do doctoral students initiate the mentoring relationship more than mentors?

Of the 66 reported mentoring relationships, 32 (48%) commenced with both the mentors and mentees. These results do not support Kram's (1983) belief that initiation was primarily mutual. The data for the other forms of relationship initiation were as follows: (a) 14 (21%) were sought by the participants, of which three had assigned advisors as mentors; (b) 11 (17%) began with the mentors, of which five were identified as assigned advisors; and (c) 9 (14%) were assigned relationships. Despite being limited in potential choices for mentors, the reported data on the mutually based inter-racial mentoring initiations was consistent with the overall percentage for mutual initiations. Three participants indicated being assigned to their Caucasian mentors and two others reported their Caucasian mentors initiated the mentorship.

Question 1.d. Do doctoral students differentiate their mentor from their assigned program advisor?

Participants were asked if their mentors were also their assigned program advisors. Thirty two participants (48%) identified their mentors as being assigned program advisors and thirty four participants (52%) did not. All 12 male mentees who had female mentors identified them as assigned advisors whereas only 5 of the 20 (25%) female mentees identified their male mentors as assigned advisors. The data on mentors as assigned advisors based on gender pairings are presented in Table 13.

Table 13

Frequencies and Percentages of Mentors as Assigned Advisors

Mentors as Assigned Advisors	N*	Percentage
Same-gendered relationship		
Female Mentors and Mentees	11	79%
Male Mentors and Mentees	2	14%
Total	13	93%
Cross-gendered relationship		
Female Mentors and Male Mentees	12	71%
Male Mentors and Female Mentees	5	29%
Total	17	100%

* N = 31

From the 32 relationships in which the mentors were identified as assigned advisors 16 (50%) were mutual initiations and 8 (25%) were assigned. Five (16%) mentors were the initiators while 3 (9%) participants reported seeking the mentoring relationships.

Question 1.e. Do doctoral students have more than one mentor?

Data were collected for the total number of mentors. The number of mentors ranged from one to six. Reports on having two mentors were the most prevalent (36%) followed by one mentor (26%). Only 2% of the sample indicated having six mentors, which was the lowest percentage for the number of mentors. Table 14 displays a summary of frequencies and percentages of the number of mentors that were reported.

Table 14

Frequency and Percent of the Total Number of Mentors Participants Had (N = 66)

Total Number of Mentors	F	Percentage
1	17	26%
2	24	36%
3	14	21%
4	7	11%
5	3	5%
6	1	2%

Question 1f. Are there differences in mentoring experiences based on mentees' gender, age, and/or race?

Differences in mentoring experiences based on gender, age, and/or race were also computed. More specifically, the variables were examined individually and then further defined. In an attempt to determine if mentoring experiences differentiated by gender, participants were placed into female and male categories. In addition, gendered pairings were categorized as: (a) all female (N = 26), (b) all male (N = 7), (c) female mentors and male mentees (N = 12), and (d) male mentors and female mentees (N = 21). Data were also examined in two race groups: Caucasian (N = 46) and Minority Status (N = 19), which involved the collapsing of the identified ethnic groups. The participants' ages were categorized into the following four decades: (a) 20s (N = 6), (b) 30s (N = 43), (c) 40 (N = 14), and (d) 50s (N = 2).

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was utilized to obtain data on age and gendered pairings while two sample t-tests were used on the participants' gender and

ethnicity. There were no statistically significant differences ($p < .05$) based on age, gender, and/or ethnicity for the GMQ, MFS, and the *Psychosocial* and *Career* subscales. An ANOVA indicated that the effect of age was not significant on the: (a) GMQ, $F(3, 60) = 0.75, p = 0.530$; (b) MFS, $F(3, 60) = 0.31, p = 0.818$; (c) *Psychosocial* subscale, $F(3, 60) = 0.46, p = 0.710$; and (d) *Career* subscale, $F(3, 60) = 0.51, p = 0.677$.

Two sample t-tests showed that there were no statistically significant differences between the means of the female group ($M = 3.96, SD = 0.76$) and male group ($M = 3.86, SD = 0.67$) on the GMQ, $t(64) = 0.545, p < .05$, two-tailed. The same was true for the female group ($M = 4.14, SD = 0.65$) and male group ($M = 4.11, SD = 0.74$) on the MFS, $t(64) = 0.210, p < .05$, two-tailed, and its subscales. On the *Psychosocial* subscale, the mean for the female and male groups were 4.36 ($SD = 0.59$) and 4.17 ($SD = 0.78$) respectively with $t(64) = 1.001, p < .05$, two-tailed whereas the means on the *Career* subscale for the female and male groups were 3.93 ($SD = 0.95$) and 4.05 ($SD = 0.95$) respectively with $t(64) = -0.453, p < .05$, two-tailed.

With regard to ethnicity, the two sample t-tests also indicated there were no statistically significant differences between the means of the Caucasian and Minority status groups across all instruments. The means for the Caucasian and Minority status groups on the GMQ were ($M = 3.90, SD = 0.77$) and ($M = 3.95, SD = 0.64$) respectively with $t(63) = -0.232, p < .05$, two-tailed. On the MFS, the mean for the Caucasian group was ($M = 4.07, SD = 0.77$) while the mean for the Minority status group was ($M = 4.30, SD = 0.34$). The t value was $t(63) = -1.715, p < .05$, two-tailed. The *Psychosocial* subscale had a mean of 4.25 ($SD = 0.72$) for the Caucasian group and 4.47 ($SD = 0.45$) for the Minority status group with $t(63) = -1.510, p < .05$, two-tailed whereas the means on the

Career subscale for the Caucasian and Minority status groups were 3.88 ($SD = 1.02$) and 4.13 ($SD = 0.71$) respectively with $t(63) = -1.129, p < .05$, two-tailed.

In addition to the aforementioned variables, statistically significant differences were not found across gendered pairings of mentors and mentees. Again, an ANOVA revealed that the effect of gendered pairings was not significant on the: (a) GMQ, $F(3, 62) = 0.33, p = 0.806$; (b) MFS, $F(3, 62) = 0.64, p = 0.593$; (c) *Psychosocial* subscale, $F(3, 62) = 1.00, p = 0.400$; and (d) *Career* subscale, $F(3, 62) = 0.34, p = 0.795$.

Question 1.g. Have doctoral students' professional goals been affected by mentoring?

Mentorship influenced professional goals for 83% ($N = 55$) of the participants, but did not for 17% (11). An inquiry to how goals were impacted was not made.

Question 1.h. Do doctoral students serve as mentors once they have graduated?

More than half of the participants (62%) indicated that they, at the time of the study, were serving as mentors. Twenty-four (36%) participants reported they were not mentoring. A follow-up question was provided for those who did not identify being mentors. The responses to the inquiry of eventually serving as mentors were skewed. The results indicated that 36 (55%) participants reported that they would eventually mentor even though there were only 24 participants who believed that they were not mentoring.

Question 1.i. Are there differences in mentoring experiences between research and non-research based institutions?

Two programs were part of institutions that were not classified by the Carnegie Foundation for Advancement of Teaching (2005) as being research based. Drawing inferences was not possible due to the small number.

Question 1.j. Are there differences in mentoring experiences between CACREP and non-CACREP programs?

Data did not exist because all programs were CACREP accredited. Therefore comparisons could not be made.

The research sub-questions did not address the continuation of mentoring relationships after graduation or how the participants rated their experiences. However these two areas were addressed in the instruments. Participants also acknowledged the status of their mentorship after graduating. Eighty-two percent of the mentoring relationships continued post-graduation. Of the 15 participants who graduated between 2000 and 2002, 12 reported a continuation. This is noteworthy because the salience of mentoring relationships could be questioned due to the small number of participants who graduated before 2003. Individuals who have had their doctorate degrees for four to five years and were mentored might not have identified as strongly to the call for participants because of how they perceived the impact of their mentoring experiences.

More than two-thirds of the participants believed their mentorship was positive to a ‘very large extent’. Only one thought the experience was positive ‘to a slight extent’, which possibly could have been contributed to incompatible values and attitudes with the mentor. An explanation of the slightly positive mentorship was not provided in the second research question, which was an opportunity for participants to comment on their mentoring experience.

Qualitative Analysis of Data

Participants’ responses to the qualitatively based research question: *what was the most important aspect of your mentoring experience that you would like to share with*

counselor educators, counseling students, and the counseling profession highlighted their personalized perceptions of mentoring. The answers for the short answer (one-shot) question were continuously coded based on reoccurring themes. Per the guidelines for phenomenological data analysis presented by Creswell (1998), each response was read. Notes capturing key thoughts were then denoted in the margins by each response. Codes were then formulated and reformulated to create themes. Participants' statements providing support for the codes were listed. The themes and codes were then re-examined for further deductions. This process resulted in the creation of five thematic categories that seemed to capture the essence of the mentoring experience for the participants. The five overarching themes were: (a) genuineness, (b) self-growth and development, (c) directions and knowledge enhancement, (d) interpersonal connections and dynamics, and (e) results. Nineteen sub-thematic concepts were placed under the overarching themes that they most accurately represented. Each aspect of the participants' responses were examined and then listed under the sub-theme or sub-themes in which they represented. This process enabled the researcher to determine if responses under each theme and sub-theme were typical or reflective. Some sub-themes (ex. self-trust, networking, collaboration, and personal characteristics) had three to four responses listed whereas the themes of direction and knowledge enhancement, and results had between five and nine. The theme of genuineness and sub-themes of autonomy, relationships, and role model had ten or more responses. Table 15 displays these themes and concepts.

Table 15

Overarching Themes and Sub-themes for Most Important Aspects of Mentoring

Overarching themes	Sub-themes
Genuineness	Acceptance Accessibility Honesty Supportive
Self-growth and development	Autonomy Risk-taking Self-confidence Self-trust
Directions and knowledge	Collaboration Guidance Information giving Preparation and strategy
Interpersonal connections and dynamics	Personal characteristics Commonality Personal relationships Networking Role modeling
Results	Outcomes General importance

Genuineness

Genuineness, a core condition of the therapeutic relationship, is about authenticity and realness. In this study, it was conveyed through the mentors' acceptance, honesty, support, and accessibility of their mentees.

Acceptance.

Common responses of mentors' acceptance included: (a) caring, (b) respecting, (c) believing, (d) valuing, (e) encouraging, and (f) appreciating. These behaviors seemed to acknowledge and respect the mentees' humanness. One participant expressed how important it was to be seen as a human rather than just another name. This sentiment, which was a typical response, was echoed by both male and female participants. A male participant shared that his mentor "appreciated [him] as a person." A female participant wrote: "It was very valuable for me to have a mentor who cared about me as a person. She valued my opinions even when she disagreed with them. She pushed me to go farther both personally and professionally." Another male participant even went so far as to express that if he were given the opportunity to repeat his doctoral experience, he would choose his mentor to be his academic advisor as well. He described his mentoring relationship as:

making a real connection with a competent and kind individual who was willing to work with me in becoming a professional, not just someone with a degree. She not only took an interest in who I am and what I wanted to do, but she genuinely cared about my professional development and me as a person.

The same participant alluded to being respected by his mentor because the mentoring relationship "occurred within very well-defined boundaries and it was never awkward or

uncomfortable". Another perspective on boundaries and respect was, again, provided by a male participant who wrote: "My mentor kept me in the forefront of her mind. She involved me in her professional life and shared experiences with me as a peer." Other participants' responses indirectly touched upon boundaries.

The recognition of contributions along with providing opportunities to express and share these was also part of being humanized. A participant stated: "my mentor conveyed an acceptance of who I was and what I had to offer the program and the profession as a counselor educator." Another wrote that the mentor had "genuine regard for my own unique potential and contributions" and believed in the mentee's abilities. For both the male and female participants, endorsement by their mentors was often conveyed through invitations to participate in research and/or professional presentations. More specifically, a female participant indicated that she "was treated fairly, and as an equal when it came to research projects and opportunities." The mentor of a male participant "helped [him] to participate in [mentor's] research and trusted [him] with responsibilities." In essence, mentors validated and affirmed mentees' abilities, skills, and existence.

Honesty.

Establishing trust requires honesty, which was essential for many of the participants. One participant shared, "The most important aspect of my relationship with my mentor was honesty. We could communicate about my progress, the profession, and departmental politics. This honesty helped me have a better perspective on the doctoral process." For some participants, honest communication with mentors about academic progress, the counseling profession, and counselor education programs enabled them to

be more receptive to the more negative comments and feedback. This perspective was perhaps best captured by a participant who wrote, “My mentor was always honest with me, even if it were tough for me to hear or if it did not reflect well on the counseling profession. She did not try to sugar coat the profession.”

These two responses and others were indicative of the mentors being real with their mentees. More specifically, one participant wrote:

My mentor was “real” with me. She did not gloss over issues when I did not live up to expectations as a doctoral student. When my work was exceptional, she let me know. When it was sub-par, she let me know. I always knew where I stood in my development as a Counselor Educator and she always listened when I needed to talk about personal and professional experiences that was affecting my work.

Some mentors’ realness appeared to be more upfront and evaluative, whereas others seemed softer and perhaps more nurturing. The latter approach was depicted by another participant who wrote, “My mentor was real with me. She helped me identify my strengths and encouraged me to use those strengths to become a more competent and effective counselor educator.” Another perspective of being real included mentors’ ability to recognize personal limitations and provide referrals and/or references. A participant commented that the mentor “didn’t pretend to know all the answers, but was a resource that linked me to others if she didn’t have something.”

Supportive.

Support for the mentees was demonstrated through the provision of resources and references so that mentees were able to obtain answers that were unknown to their mentors. Responses often reflected mentors’ supportive nature from emotional, academic,

and professional stances. For example, one participant believed that the mentor “was extremely supportive emotionally when [they] would meet.” From a professional viewpoint, support was demonstrated, for another participant, as “consistent support in and dedication to helping me reach my professional goals”. Others conveyed that their mentors exemplified support via listening objectively, guiding, nurturing, and encouraging. This was captured by a participant who wrote that the mentor “was nurturing and encouraging, and supportive of all my efforts. She invested time, energy, and love for her mentees.”

Additionally, mentors served as support systems as conveyed by another participant who wrote: “The most important personal role my mentors served in was as my personal support system. They listened to my struggles and offered support and encouragement.” Knowing that mentors would be supportive seemed to offer solace for some participants. In particular, a participant reported: “There were some difficult times in the program when I was faced with an ethical dilemma and she guided me and supported me in sticking to decisions I knew were right, despite pressure from others to let things slide.” Essentially, the mentor provided the mentee with continuous and unwavering support while being available.

Accessibility.

Access to mentors especially during struggles, personal losses and the dissertation process seemed important to the participants. Confidence in the mentors’ availability was also reflected in the responses. One participant wrote that the “mentor was consistently available and dependable” during both the writing of the dissertation and occurrences of personal loss. Another reported “never [having] to wonder whether she [mentor] would

have enough time to discuss problem areas” because the mentor was “easily accessible especially at the time when I was writing my dissertation.” Additional comments highlighted mentors’ tendency to make time. In particular, one participant shared that the mentor “was extremely available...to a fault sometimes” while another participant stated that the mentor exhibited a “willingness to be there at any time”.

Mentors’ accessibility sometimes involved making personal sacrifices especially when they placed their mentees’ priorities before their own. This was, perhaps, best highlighted by a participant who reported: “My mentor is one of the most supportive people in the world. She selfishly gave up time during vacation to meet with me in order to help me finish my dissertation.” All of the provided examples of accessibility demonstrated mentors’ support, encouragement, and/or dedication to their mentees’ personal and professional development.

Self-growth and Development

Mentors seemed to help foster self-confidence and self-trust, which allowed for risk-taking and enhancement of participants’ overall sense of autonomy. Enabling behaviors were often absent. Instead, a majority of the mentors empowered their mentees to trust and believe in their abilities, skills, and strengths.

Autonomy.

In doing so, many participants expressed that they were in charge of their own development and decisions. This point was highlighted by a participant who wrote, “I was given room to grow, stretch, struggle, yearn, fail, and finally succeed on both a personal as well as professional level.” Essentially the participant was not required to become a “mini version” of the mentor, which was a sentiment shared by others. Being

encouraged to develop a personal style, however, was not experienced by some participants. In fact, one shared feeling “steered” in a particular direction; one that did not always match [the mentee’s] own professional and personal goals.” The participant further wrote that developing a more personalized professional identity required a separation from the mentor.

Self-reliance and personalizing ways to address and resolve issues, and develop a professional identity were mentioned in other responses. Both male and female participants highlighted the support and encouragement they received from their mentors. A female participant described her experience by acknowledging that her mentor “helped guide [her] without being prescriptive” and ”had an excellent balance of knowing when to let [her] try [her] own ways.” A similar approach was experienced by a male participant whose mentor “allowed [him] to flounder at times but always supported; never took the easy route by just telling [him] but paced the process and helped [him] to discover.” According to another female participant, the mentor “challenged [her] to find [her] own path” by having her “reflect on [her] professional identity” and incorporate what she “thought was beneficial to [her] professional development...and identity”.

Risk-taking.

Only a few of the responses reflected the concept of risk-taking. For example, one participant indicated that “the journey through the doctoral program is a challenging experience for most students.” Yet being challenged seemed to enhance participants’ development in terms of autonomy, decision-making, and problem-solving both during and after the mentoring relationships. One mentor “challenged and encouraged [the mentee] to try new approaches and new ways of viewing problems/concerns/ideas” while

another provided the mentee with the confidence “to think outside the box.” Mentors appeared to encourage mentees to accept risks in order to grow both personally and professionally because in some ways they were engaging in risks by exerting energy and time into the relationships. This was recognized and commented upon by a participant who wondered how the mentor has personally benefited from their interactions.

Self-confidence.

Perhaps one of the benefits experienced by some of the participants was becoming more self-confident with who they were as individuals and professionals. On an individual level, self-confidence was illustrated by two participants who acknowledged all of their mentors. One wrote “knowing that they see me as a highly competent educator and counselor; and as a person they love and respect, has helped me through many times when I questioned these things in myself.” The other expressed that the mentors “reassured” and “confirmed my own self-concept” especially during the obstacle-filled moments of the program. Mentors also facilitated self-confidence to grow professionally, which was captured by another participant who wrote: “Having a mentor provided me with courage to succeed in my career. She helped me to understand that anything was possible as long as you worked hard and completed the work.” Some mentors focused on specific aspects of professional identity. For example, a participant stated that the mentor “helped me understand that I did not need to be this perfect publishing machine to be successful in this field.” Others assumed a more global approach to fostering self-confidence. This was, perhaps, best illustrated by a participant who shared: “I feel I was prepared well for the profession and would have been a bit naïve had I not had her as a mentor. I felt safe and secure with my clients and supervisees.”

Self-trust

Being self-confident encompasses self-trust, which was reflected in a few of the responses. Participants learned to trust themselves through the assistance of their mentors who believed in them, recognized their abilities, and offered encouragement. One mentor, according to a participant, not only “encouraged me to trust myself and my own judgment” but gave “valuable information so that my decisions would be informed ones.” Perhaps the simplest yet most profound piece of advice given to another participant was to “follow [the] heart.”

Directions and Knowledge

Self-confidence and trust were often boosted by mentors’ willingness to collaborate, guide, and provide information. These actions not only helped solidify participants’ preparations and strategies for becoming professionals, but displayed mentors’ proficiency (Kerka, 1998) in doing so. The experiences of obtaining direction and knowledge were diversified in foci that ranged from research, leadership, networking, teaching, and balancing both professional and personal goals.

Collaboration.

Responses regarding collaboration primarily focused on scholarly activities such as writing, publishing, and presenting. Being provided with these opportunities, especially writing and publishing, was deemed valuable for professional growth. This was communicated in-depth by a participant who wrote:

In my view, collaborating on scholarly work is the most important professional mentoring that doctoral students need. It is useful for doctoral students to be walked through the publication process and to accrue publications and works in

progress upon entering a faculty position. Particularly, engagement on work that can be then completed in the first year faculty position assists new faculty professionally. This gives first year faculty a step to build upon in creating an individual research agenda and meeting promotion and tenure guidelines. Another expressed a “wish [to] have had more” collaborative writing opportunities. A few others commented on being encouraged to participate and receiving support.

Guidance.

The collaborative nature of the scholarly productivity appeared to be one way in which mentors guided their mentees. Professional guidance, for some participants, also encompassed helping mentees aspire toward and accomplish their professional goals. According to one participant, the “mentor was attune[d] to career goals and helped to achieve them.” This experience was not shared by all of the participants whose responses reflected the concept of guidance. Perhaps the most appropriate example of partially fulfilled career goals was captured by a participant whose experience was mainly centered on the development of clinical skills rather than preparation in the professoriate. The participant believed the most important aspect of mentoring was preparing to become a counselor educator. The clinical emphasis did not provide for such an opportunity. Thus the participant wrote: “the most important aspect ...that I missed out on was to help prepare me for life as a counselor educator”. Focus and guidance in this area “would have been beneficial – specifically how to form an identity as a counselor educator, how to truly prepare classes or how to even teach.”

Information giving.

Having an insider's view of what it really meant to be a counselor educator was beneficial for one participant who wrote that the mentor shared "most aspects of a counselor educator's job" with the mentee. Information obtainment, whether it was in the form of feedback or facts, helped participants develop more comprehensive and/or alternative perspectives. The feedback one participant received was a "different perspective of...gripes and challenges." Even with the advice giving, the mentor still "supported [the mentee's] perspective." For another, the information that was received focused on securing a teaching position. The following is what the participant recalled of the mentoring experience:

My mentor was most helpful in my job search. He engaged in several lengthy discussions involving the interview process, doctoral vs. master's programs, the curriculum vitae and the overall process of obtaining a job in higher education.

We discussed negotiating a job offer.

In some cases the information provided by mentors simply centered on financial aid opportunities and active involvement in professional organizations via presentations.

Preparation and strategy.

Mentors provided information that they believed would help their mentees prepare to become effective and competent counselor educators and/or counselors. A majority of the responses focused on professional development in academe yet only a few specifically commented on the actual preparation and strategy. One participant recalled how the mentor wanted the participant to know "who to meet, what to read, where to present, [and] what kind of research studies to shoot for conducting each year" because it

was part of creating “a detailed plan for…professional development.” Another mentor helped a participant be “able to design effective research studies.” The participant thought this focus would “help [with] work[ing] with future professionals.” While these responses may have reflected the mentor’s goals, not all mentoring experiences took the same approach. Perhaps the most in-depth description of how a mentor helped the mentee prepare was provided by a participant who wrote:

I think my mentor believed in me and wanted to develop me as a leader. He helped me to develop a plan to move toward my goal of becoming a professor. He helped to identify short term and long term goals in the areas of course work, conference presentations, research to conduct, organizations to join, individuals to meet, books to read, and journals to submit to. We met periodically throughout my doctoral program and reviewed the goals and refined them. I still speak with him periodically to discuss new goals and plans. In addition, he helped me to balance my professional goals with my family goals. He helped me to keep my priorities in perspective and still does. In addition, he taught me how to always make things count twice to get the most out of my work and that starting is more than half the battle.

Interpersonal Connections and Dynamics

The ability to communicate and connect with mentors was a necessary component of mentorships. Both the participants and their mentors contributed to their relationships in terms of personal characteristics, shared commonalities, and the level of personal and/or professional interactions. Perspectives of the interpersonal connections and dynamics were highlighted in the responses.

Personal characteristics.

Some participants shared personal characteristics for both their mentors and themselves. According to these participants, mentors needed to have a good sense of humor as well as be able to listen well. Mentees on the other hand, according to one female participant, must be aware and knowledgeable about their goals and be able to “communicate them clearly” so that mentors are “able to assist”. A much more in-depth response that addressed not only the characteristics mentees need to have, but also the rationale was given by a participant who thought the characteristics included, “having an open-mind, taking direction, realizing [that there is] a lot to learn, [and] having a sense of humbleness.” Although the participant acknowledged that mentees may have a difficult time embodying these characteristics, the participant believed that these were essential “in order for the molding and shaping process of the mentoring relationship to be effective.”

Commonality.

Connecting in relationships also involved similarities in personal characteristics, values, and beliefs. These helped to create a sense of commonality with mentors. A participant’s statement: “I think we are a lot alike in many ways” was reflective of statements made by other participants. Some were more specific in their responses on how they felt supported and encouraged due to the similarities. More specifically, one participant and mentor were able to be empathetic toward each other because they had “similar family issues arise during critical times.” Possessing a similar status (e.g. minority, parent, etc.) and value system with the mentor was also deemed important for some participants. Sometimes the search for a mentor and/or additional mentor who

shared commonalities extended beyond the participants' programs and into conferences and/or networking. A participant expressed that mentees must possess a "level of resiliency" for being in mentoring relationships.

Personal relationships.

Developing strong relationships in which a deep connection occurred was the most important aspect for many of the participants. According to one participant, establishing a "working alliance" made it "possible to glean tremendous growth" as a mentee. Similar sentiments were expressed by other participants. One perceived the personalized mentoring relationship as being "the container for all the skills and professional development that [were] learned." The other wrote: "I could not have accomplished all that I have without my mentor." Perhaps one of the more poignant responses emphasizing the perception of mentors was given by a participant who shared:

The most important aspect of my mentoring relationship is that it continues to this day. In my second year of teaching, I still pick up the phone to call or send off a quick email with some question or observation (or occasional rant) about professional issues, academia, counselor education, my current position, CACREP standards, negotiating with colleagues, sitting on committees, service work, etc."

Additional responses also reverberated with the continuation of the mentoring relationships post-graduation. Some seemed to retain the professional atmosphere whereas others became more collegial and/or friendship based.

Regardless of whether mentoring relationships continued after graduation, some male and female participants desired both professional and personal interactions.

Knowing that he could “talk about personal and professional experiences that were affecting [his] work” in addition to being aware of his academic standing was shared by a male participant. Another male participant had the opposite experience, one which he hoped not to repeat. He wrote: “There were not many personal matters shared with my mentor, it was all business. I did not like the fact that it was all business, and hope I do not take such a firm stand when I work with my students.” The absence of personal information sharing during mentorship was also shared by other participants. Remedyng the separation of the personal and professional dimensions was provided by a female participant who had two mentors, one for each arena. Both were instrumental in her degree completion.

Personalized mentoring relationships were more likely to foster a sense of security as well as creating friendships, and collegial bonds. Mentors were viewed beyond the mentoring relationship as evidenced by a participant who wrote: “she is much more than a mentor, she is a friend.” Although mentors were often seen beyond the mentoring role, potential problems could exist especially if the different relationships were not clearly delineated. Understanding the nature of relationships was expressed by a participant who stated: “I think one of the difficult things about being in a mentoring relationship as a doc[toral] student is the multiple levels in which we relate. For example when to be in the colleague role, teacher role, counselor role, etc.” According to another participant, “it is critical that mentors respect boundaries between themselves and those they mentor.”

Networking.

In addition to assuming the responsibility of establishing clear boundaries, mentors seem to have a vital role in helping their mentees network. Some participants recognized that their mentors introduced them to professionals in the field and encouraged them to be actively involved in professional organizations. The connections were facilitated in the best interests of the mentees, which was conveyed by one participant who wrote: “I look forward to connecting with my mentor at conferences where he continues to introduce me to “professional elders” and anyone he thinks I will benefit from knowing personally or professionally.” Mentors’ willingness to present mentees with a starting place to develop and expand networks of their own seemed to reinforce the mentors’ commitment to their mentees’ development.

Role-modeling.

Essentially, through their actions, mentors were modeling professional behaviors. Ethically, role modeling of professional behaviors must occur (ACA Code of Ethics, 2005, Section F.6.a.). The role modeling behaviors seemed to fall into two categories: actions by mentors; and the cycle of mentoring. Responses that addressed role modeling were expressions of personalized beliefs. Adjectives such as incredible, ultimate, and good were used to describe the mentor as a role model. For example, one participant stated:

My mentor was an incredible role model of what a counselor educator should be.

He was productive in research and even though he was an administrator, he continued to teach class. He always had time for students and took student’s work very seriously. He also challenged me to produce quality work, but was still

approachable when I had questions.

Mentors are able to communicate professionalism through words and behaviors, which according to another participant made the mentor the “ultimate role model” and somebody whom the participant still seeks “opinions in regard to training, practice, and professional development issues.” Another reported that the mentor “was a good role model related to professional involvement.”

Mentors not only modeled professional conduct and/or what professionalism encompassed. A few of the participants indicated that, at times, they were provided opportunities to observe the more personal sides of their mentors. For example, one wrote “I learned not only how my mentor operates on a daily basis, but I also had the opportunity to see the person beyond the publications and awards.” The combination of professional and personal behaviors could potentially influence participants’ views on becoming mentors themselves.

The desire and motivation to serve as mentors was rooted in the perception of mentoring being honorable and respectful, making a difference as evidenced by their own experiences, and instilling a desire to be successful. Perhaps the following response best exemplifies the reasons to mentor: “the idea that for a number of years someone was interested in my personal and professional development...served as the catalyst for my own desire to serve as a mentor to others. There is a cycle of mentoring that develops.” Even so, one participant wrote: “I can only hope that I can begin to offer my students some semblance of what I was offered.”

Results

The responses seemed to overwhelmingly focus on the quality of the mentoring relationships. Some, however, reflected on the powerful impact mentoring had on the mentees' personal and professional development. The importance of and the need for mentoring was also denoted.

Outcomes.

The impact of being mentored was unique to each individual participant. For some, the influence was profound and life-altering. One participant reported that the doctorate degree provided opportunities for monumental life changes. Another stated that the mentor helped make "the experience in the doctoral program challenging, fun, supportive, and life-changing." Perhaps the most powerful illustration of the mentoring impact was from a participant who wrote:

the best way I can summarize my mentoring relationship is to say that it changed my life; it made me a better person; it made me want to keep becoming a better person and it made me want to make that difference in someone else's life.

The concepts of enhancing self-identity and giving back that this participant touched upon were also demonstrated by another whose contributions included being "active involvement in leadership roles on state, national and international levels" and assisting with the creation of "a formal mentoring program between beginning doctoral students and advanced doctoral students." The intonation of these responses and others seemed to reflect participants' self-growth and development with regard to autonomy, self-confidence, self-trust, and professional contributions.

The process of developing oneself through mentoring experiences, however, was not always positive and/or was hindered. Some male and female participants disclosed experiencing and/or observing negative aspects that centered on availability and autonomy. One female participant wrote, “...a negative learning experience was my mentor’s lack of willingness to set deadlines and help me stick to them during the dissertation process. His lack of support during this time was hurtful...” A male participant reported that he “didn’t feel as though [he] could really disagree without some sort of retribution (based on what [he] saw happen to others).” Other participants provided similar reports of witnessing and/or hearing about colleagues who were penalized for not becoming mini-versions of their mentors and/or fulfilling the image their mentors had of them. It is not surprising that negative experiences and/or aspects leave mentees feeling bitter. However, reframing might help mentees obtain clearer understanding of their experiences. The participants who provided negative aspects also wrote about mentors being human and possibly holding a different view of the mentoring relationships. A participant provided an alternative perspective of looking at negative aspects by stating, “...it’s important to learn from the negative interactions just as readily as the positive ones.”

Generalized importance.

Summations of the general importance of mentoring, which was seen as imperative, helpful, and invaluable were provided. A participant provided a broader perspective of mentoring by indicating that “mentoring is an art, not to be taken for granted”. For another participant, mentoring was essential in “converting the dissertation to articles” because “this fits with guiding new professionals in the development of skills

for publication and other scholarly work.” Others addressed the need to seek and have mentors who would provide assistance, be supportive, and serve as a role model as the doctoral experience is being completed. Awareness of personal goals and effectively communicating these to the mentors were the mentees’ responsibility. Possessing this knowledge would assist in establishing mentorships.

Engaging in mentoring relationships with junior and tenured professors was highlighted as well. One participant noted that the mentor “did not know quite enough to take a strong stance on many of the issues that I confronted” however they “got through it together”. Additionally, the participant “never doubted her [the mentor] commitment to help” and thus “the trade off between technical competency of a long-standing professor with tenure and a new professor with a high likeability factor eventually equals out. There is something to be learned from each path.” The latter part of this disclosure seems to capture the spirit of mentoring in that learning will occur not only for the mentor-mentee pairs but for the profession as well.

Triangulation of Data

Utilization of a QUAN-QUAL model in this study allowed for equal weight to be given to both the quantitative and qualitative data. The latter often provided additional information for the former. The quantitatively based data indicated that the mentoring experienced by the participants encompassed both psychosocial and career-oriented functions to ‘a large extent’. Yet the greater emphasis on the psychosocial domain ($M = 4.30$) suggested that participants believed they experienced interpersonal aspects such as (a) being encouraged, heard, protected, supported, and respected; (b) having a role model; and (c) expressing and addressing concerns such as personal issues, self-doubt, and

competence more than the career based functions ($M = 3.97$) of mentoring. Qualitatively, the responses appeared to be more heavily oriented toward the psychosocial domain.

Career domain.

Many of the career-related functions were described from a psychosocial perspective. Words such as encouraged, supported, guided, believed, challenged, and respected were directly and indirectly reflected in the responses. An example of a typical response was provided by a participant who shared that the mentor's "valuable advice, support, and encouragement...facilitated...development as a counselor and...transition from the role of doctoral student to that of a successful professional counselor educator." Another wrote that the mentor "took me seriously enough to encourage me to pursue a position in academe."

The participants believed 'to a large extent' that they were given opportunities to develop their teaching, research, service, and/or clinical skills. Independent examination of the GMQ and *Career* subscale items addressing each area revealed that service and preparation for faculty and clinical positions were reported at 'a large extent'. The concept of service encompassed two aspects: (a) professional and community involvement and (b) presentation opportunities. The question on mentors encouraging the participants to be active in professional organizations and community outreach had a mean of 4.33 ($SD = 1.07$). This result may be skewed because a clearer delineation between the two activities was not made. Involvement in professional organizations may not actually be considered service in academe. Qualitatively, service activities were minimally mentioned unless presenting at conferences, assuming leadership positions in professional organizations, and mentoring were viewed as service activities. Specific

reports on service activities included one participant who shared being able to discuss “sitting on committees” and “service work” with the mentor. However such interactions occurred after obtaining the doctorate degree. Another participant stated that the mentor “encouraged me... to develop my scholarship and service interests” while still a student. Other service related responses focused more on “professional involvement” and “professional development.”

Participants indicated that their mentors promoted and/or recommended being active in state and/or national organizations via leadership roles and presentations. For a participant, the encouragement received from the mentor allowed the participant to “pursue [a] passion – professional presentations.” Being invited to present was important to another participant. Responses such as these could help explain why the question on opportunities to present at conferences while still a doctoral student ($M = 4.30$, $SD = 1.04$) was ‘to a large extent’.

Participants also believed their mentors not only helped prepare them for their professional roles but provided encouragement ‘to a large extent’. The individual item on the *Career* subscale that inquired about the preparation for becoming a counselor educator or clinical practitioner had a mean score of 4.20 ($SD = 1.19$). This item did not differentiate between the two roles however items on the GMQ addressed each independently. The counselor educator role encompassed both teaching and publishing. Participants reported ‘to a large extent’ that they were able to teach more than one class during their doctoral experience ($M = 3.83$, $SD = 1.48$). Receiving assistance with publishing scholarly activities ($M = 3.36$, $SD = 1.51$) and opportunities to practice clinically based skills ($M = 3.26$, $SD = 1.41$) were both experienced ‘to some extent’.

Additionally the provision of licensure information and resources was also reported ‘to some extent’ ($M = 3.20$, $SD = 1.43$).

Despite the low occurrence in scholarly publishing, researching, publishing, and writing were mentioned more often than teaching and clinical practice but not as much as other aspects of professorial preparation. The comments on research spanned across (a) collaborating with mentors in research endeavors, (b) learning how to publish, (c) enhancing writing skills, (d) identifying and pursuing research interests, (e) establishing timelines, (f) presenting scholarly work, and (g) even being abandoned when it came to publishing. One mentor reassured a participant not to be encumbered with the “need to be [a] perfect publishing machine” because professional success could occur in multiple ways. Responses did not always indicate that assistance with publishing was given, which was the focus of the question on the GMQ. Instead the research related comments conveyed participants’ perceptions that obtaining a doctoral degree was primarily associated with researching, writing, and publishing thereby providing an explanation for the quantitative result.

Qualitatively, responses on learning how to be an effective and competent counselor educator were expressed more than being a clinical practitioner. Specific teaching related responses ranged from receiving suggestions on how to prepare materials, develop personal styles, and address student issues. One participant expressed a desire to have had the opportunity to receive the aforementioned advice and guidance. Some participants commented on other responsibilities associated with being a counselor educator. In particular, participants indicated that their mentors provided guidance regarding academic policies ($M = 4.27$, $SD = 0.97$) and potential positions that were

being considered ($M = 4.24$, $SD = 1.18$) ‘to a large extent’. Mentors, ‘to a large extent’, assisted with finding and/or providing potential positions ($M = 3.88$, $SD = 1.23$). Furthermore, they served as references for their mentees ($M = 4.65$, $SD = 0.95$) ‘to a very large extent’. Qualitatively based responses did not address mentors as references, however, they did include learning about departmental and program politics and the profession, receiving advice on how to acquire a position, and being challenged to develop and enhance their skills, competence, contributions to the profession, and professional identity.

Other responses were not specific with regard to preparing for the professoriate. In particular, one participant wrote: “I feel I was prepared well for the profession” yet did not provide more specific information. One preparation requirement of doctoral programs is internship, which was addressed by an item in the GMQ. According to the participants, guidance on potential internship and training placements ($M = 3.39$, $SD = 1.33$) occurred to ‘some extent’. Both the specific and vague comments on professional development seemed to strengthen the quantitative result that preparation occurred at ‘a large extent’.

Developing a professional identity extended beyond the aforementioned responsibilities. It also incorporated the establishment of networks. Participants believed that they were presented with opportunities to create networks and connections at ‘a large extent’. In-depth information about networking was not provided in the qualitative responses. However, opportunities for meeting new colleagues ($M = 3.95$, $SD = 1.25$), potential employers and/or evaluators ($M = 3.79$, $SD = 1.26$), and leaders in the profession ($M = 3.80$, $SD = 1.46$) were all reported ‘to a large extent’. Participants also reported being introduced to their mentors’ colleagues during professional

conferences, workshops, etc. at ‘a large extent’ ($M = 4.09$, $SD = 1.30$). In fact, one participant reported that the mentor, even after graduating, still assists with networking.

Psychosocial domain.

Participants indicated that they experienced, ‘to a large extent’, encouragement, protection, support, guidance, and respect from their mentors. They also believed their mentors were role models ‘to a very large extent’. These psychosocial based actions and the modeling were further illustrated in the qualitative responses.

Personal statements about the mentoring experience conveyed realness in the relationships. Receiving respect from ($M = 4.71$, $SD = 0.63$) and being heard by mentors ($M = 4.52$, $SD = 0.75$) occurred ‘to a very large extent’ for this current sample. Respect was conveyed in multiple ways. For instance, acknowledging the humanness and welfare of another demonstrated respect. This was highlighted by a participant who wrote: “She [the mentor] not only took an interest in who I am and what I wanted to do, but she genuinely cared about my professional development and me as a person.” Another participant conveyed the mentor’s respect for autonomy by sharing: “My mentor provided me with adequate flexibility and permission to make decisions on my own and work at my own pace.” Being autonomous was expressed again by a participant who hoped that others would “find someone that [would]…allow the room for the individual to find their own path no matter how difficult.”

Acceptance of what participants already know was another way in which respect was shown. This was captured by a participant who shared that the mentor: “taught me what I needed to know while respecting what I knew.” Respect also helped instill self-confidence as evidenced by the following response provided by a participant: “I believe

that respect was a great catalyst to providing me with assurance that I was in the right program and that I was capable of finishing the program.” Another means of demonstrating respect was through listening.

A participant believed that “having a mentor that actively listens to what your needs are and supports you in accomplishing goals that you truly desire” was essential. Other participants also echoed this sentiment. Knowing that the mentors truly listened established a sense of trust and comfort thereby enabling the sharing of more personal and professional issues. This could be an explanation for the item on the GMQ and the two items on the *Psychosocial* subscale, all of which were reported ‘to a large extent’. The item on the GMQ focused on further discussion of personal issues ($M = 4.24$, $SD = 0.98$). Some participants reported talking about more personal issues with their mentors. One of the *Psychosocial* subscale items addressed the discussion of questions and concerns about competence, commitment, and interpersonal relationships ($M = 4.26$, $SD = 0.97$). Knowing that the mentor could remain objective was the most important aspect for a participant who was able to trust the mentor to “listen to my experience as a doctoral student.” Others shared being able to communicate about their progress and uncertainty and doubt especially regarding the dissertation process. The second item inquired about being able to openly discuss fears and anxieties impacting work performance ($M = 4.26$, $SD = 1.00$). For one participant, the mentor “always listened when I needed to talk about personal and professional experiences that were affecting my work.” Another mentor provided his mentee with assistance on learning how to balance personal and professional goals.

The valuing of differing opinions illustrated an additional method of listening.

Participants also reported that their mentors utilized self-disclosure ‘to a large extent’ as a way of offering a different perspective on the issue ($M = 4.15$, $SD = 1.19$). However this was not directly reflected in the qualitative responses. Instead, participants shared being encouraged and challenged to see alternative perspectives and find solutions that would satisfy them. Furthermore, mentors recommended ‘to a large extent’ that their mentees engage in new behaviors ($M = 3.85$, $SD = 1.22$).

The following functions that were rooted in support, guidance, and protection all occurred ‘to a large extent’ with the exception of financial guidance, which was reported at ‘some extent’ ($M = 3.41$, $SD = 1.54$). Only one participant provided a qualitative response about being guided toward “opportunities for financial support.” Participants did not mention, qualitatively, how their mentors might have decreased risks that could have impacted the degree obtainment even though quantitatively, this protection occurred ‘to a large extent’ ($M = 3.68$, $SD = 1.30$). Some participants reported knowing that their mentors would always support the choices and contributions they made even when others would not. A few conveyed their wish of having mentors who were more supportive and perhaps even guiding in terms of completing difficult requirements ($M = 3.62$, $SD = 1.40$) such as the dissertation. Perhaps this was best captured by a participant who wrote:

His lack of support during this time [dissertation process] was hurtful because I first saw it as him letting me down, however, I was able to depend on myself and other supportive resources to get everything finished in time. It was easy to put my mentor on a pedestal, and it was difficult when he proved to be human, but it was a learning experience.

For a majority of the participants who commented on doctoral requirements, their mentors' support and guidance were evident. There were other ways in which these two psychosocially based functions were most likely expressed, however, the responses often did not go into detail. Participants simply shared that their mentors supported and guided.

The ability to establish connections with a mentor who understood, empathized, and remained supportive seemed important especially for participants of minority status, which may help explain the statistically significant difference in the psychosocial domain. Of the 19 participants who were of minority status, 18 were in inter-racial mentoring relationships. Only three of these inter-racial relationships had mentors who were of minority status. The gender and race of the mentors did not seem to be an issue for these participants. Their responses reflected upon the quality of the mentorship including their mentors' abilities to adequately address mentoring needs. One participant who was in an inter-racial and same-gendered mentoring relationship indicated that the mentor helped to instill self-confidence by providing reminders that success involved dedication and commitment. Another participant who was of the same racial membership as the mentor but was of a different gender shared being able to trust the mentor with the "experience as a doctoral student." The simple advice to "seek out and find mentors" to assist in degree completion was provided by a participant who had an inter-racial and cross-gendered mentorship.

Ensuring welfare through the professional development process seemed to be at the forefront for a majority of the mentoring relationships. Participants highlighted their mentors' abilities to: (a) recognize individuality and autonomy; (b) provide support and encouragement; (c) foster writing, research, publication, and presentation skills; (d)

facilitate introductions to other professionals; (e) serve as a role model; and (f) understand needs, wants and struggles that were academically and personally oriented. All of the aforementioned required time, availability, commitment, dedication, and investment, which was captured by a participant who wrote “my mentor was present, active in my education and development.” Most participants felt connected, reassured, self-confident, successful, and competent because their personal and professional growth was facilitated and validated through the mentoring experience.

Being affirmed, support, and receiving guidance may have continued after obtaining the degree. The end of mentoring relationships was not necessarily marked by graduation. In fact, 82% of the participants indicated that their mentoring relationships continued after receiving their doctorate degrees. However, only one participant specifically acknowledged the continuation of the relationship. In fact, the participant, who graduated two years ago, believed that this was the most important aspect of the mentorship. The provided response focused on the participant’s actions that included:

...pick[ing] up the phone to call or send off a quick email with some question or observation (or occasional rant) about professional issues, academia, counselor education, [the participant’s]current position, CACREP standards, negotiating with colleagues, sitting on committees, service work, etc.

Other participants expressed similar sentiments. Post-graduate interactions could have been under the guise of mentorship, friendship, and/or collegiality for those who did not report how their mentoring relationships continued. The same could be said for the 12 participants (18%) whose mentorships terminated upon the successful completion of their

doctorate program. Some responses reflected the transitions from one role to another while others depicted desires for longevity in the friendships and/or relationships.

Summary of Chapter

Mentoring occurred within two contexts: within the participants' programs, which was primary, and outside of programs. Regardless of the context, the foundation of mentoring relationships seemed to be built on authenticity and honesty. Additionally, the data provided characteristics of mentorship, many of which were reflected in the definition utilized for the study. This definition was based on previous mentoring literature, which provided further validation of identified mentoring concepts.

The results indicated that mentoring relationships promoted personal and professional growth and development. Additionally psychosocial functions were experienced more than career related functions. Participants acknowledged that their mentors often provided encouragement, support, guidance, knowledge, and expertise. Mentors also exhibited acceptance and respect, and were readily accessible. They were real with their mentees and acknowledged the value and worth of who their mentees were personally and professionally.

More specifically, mentors encouraged their mentees to take risks and pursue their passions such as presenting, being actively involved in professional organizations, and researching. Other provided opportunities centered on teaching, service, developing clinical skills, and building professional networks, which were often described in psychosocial terms. Many of the participants noted that their mentors were role models and offered strategies on how to address issues. Some also noted that their mentors preferred that they develop their own personal style rather than mimicking while others

did not believe this to be true in their own mentorships. Essentially, mentoring enabled mentees to become more autonomous, empowered, self-confident, and self-trusting within their responsibilities and roles.

CHAPTER V

Discussion and Recommendations

The purpose of this study was to examine doctoral-level mentorship in counselor education programs. More specifically, the focus was on identifying the impact of mentoring, its structural components, and important aspects via personal experiences of individuals who were mentored. An adapted, theoretically based, conceptual framework (Chapter I, *Figure 1*) was created to provide a foundation for examining mentoring in counselor education. Thus, the results will be discussed utilizing components of the suggested framework.

Conceptual Mentoring Framework

Context

The first component addressed the context, which included academic institutions, counselor education programs, and doctoral students. Currently, 49 doctorate granting counselor education programs are CACREP accredited (CACREP, 2006), of which 28 were represented in this study. Additionally, 66 mentees comprised the context for this study. It is important to keep in mind the context of the participants, who were asked to participate only if they had experienced mentorship during their doctoral program. Bruce (1995) suggested that counselor education programs were not capitalizing on mentorship, and the complete status of mentorship within the doctoral experience remains unknown. The results from the current study suggested that the participants experienced mentoring primarily within their doctoral programs as opposed to externally.

Mentoring Definition for Counselor Education

Participants were asked to base their responses regarding their experiences on a definition of mentoring that was created for the study. This definition comprised the second component of the conceptual framework. Although some individuals requested the definition prior to their decision on whether or not to participate, a method for validating the utilization of the definition by each participant was absent. However, several aspects of the definition were captured in the responses to the short-answer question. In particular, participants indicated that their relationships involved interpersonal connections and dynamics, collaboration, and sharing of information, resources, and knowledge, all of which provided evidence of social support.

Mentor Characteristics

Descriptors that reflected the definitional based characteristics of mentors included genuineness, supportiveness, encouragement, knowledgeable, expert, and guide. These in addition to others created the third component of the conceptualized mentoring framework. Responses highlighting characteristics such as mentors' accessibility, ethical behaviors, competency, responsibilities, and influence validated the characteristics indicated not only in the framework but previous mentoring literature as well. Age, gender, and ethnicity were also included in mentor characteristics and addressed by a majority of participants in separate question items. Furthermore, a majority of the participants' primary mentors (89%) were academicians during the mentoring relationships. An inquiry to mentors' licensure and certification status as well as sexual identity was not made during the study. These were the only characteristics in the conceptual framework that were not addressed.

Mentee Characteristics

The framework would have been incomplete without the inclusion of mentee characteristics. While many of these characteristics were not directly requested in this study, some participants seemed to include thoughts of their own competence, motivation, commitment, focus, and self-awareness thereby demonstrating insight. Humility, open-mindedness, and following directions were mentioned as characteristics that all mentees would benefit from having because mentoring stimulates growth and knowledge acquisition. These characteristics would enable mentees to maximize their experiences. Data were collected on age, gender, and ethnicity characteristics.

The enrollment trend in higher education during the last couple decades has been dominated by women, primarily Caucasian women (DiPrete & Buchmann, 2006). They are approximately two times more likely than men to pursue an advanced degree (NCES, 2006). Yet the number of women assuming professorial positions still remains relatively low (Hargens & Long, 2002). Counseling programs, in particular, seem to have more female students, which could possibly explain the higher percentage of female participation in this study. Furthermore, there has been an increase in enrollment of individuals in their mid-twenties and beyond, which is predicted to continue (NCES, 2004). Although the participants' ages seemed to reflect the national trend, it is important to note that participants were not asked to provide their age upon beginning their doctorate degree. They most likely reported their ages at the time of participation because the question read "what is your age?" National statistics targeting the age and ethnicity of doctoral students enrolled specifically in counselor education could not be provided as this information does not exist.

According to the NCES of the U.S. Department of Education (2006), the number of minority status individuals in higher education has nearly doubled since the mid-1970s. During the last three decades, there has been an approximate 6% increase in enrollment of Latino/as, 5% of Asians/Pacific Islanders, and 4% Blacks. These results do not seem out of the ordinary due to the constant diversification trends in the United States. Higher education, especially master's and doctoral programs, will probably continue to experience an increase in enrollment of minority status individuals. This pattern has implications for the counseling profession, which has not been ignorant of the demographic changes. A more diversified membership will most likely serve to strengthen and enhance multicultural counseling practices that are addressed in counselor education programs. Perhaps, counselor educators and their students can challenge themselves to further their acquisition of multicultural knowledge by establishing and utilizing relationships and interactions with each other.

Stages of the Mentor-Mentee Relationship

Within the conceptual framework, the four stages of the mentoring relationship followed the characteristics of both mentors and mentees. The first stage essentially encompassed the 'who' and 'why' of mentorship initiation. An assumption regarding initiation was inclusive of both mentors and mentees. For example, Phillips-Jones (1982) postulated that mentors were the initiators whereas Kram (1983) suggested based on her examination of managerial relationships that the commencement of mentoring relationships was primarily mutual. The results of this study did not concur with either Phillips-Jones' or Kram's statements. This difference could be credited to the settings in which mentoring occurred (ex. corporate v. academic).

Options for initiating mentoring relationships might not differ across venues however perceptions regarding ‘rules of engagement’ pertaining to professional behaviors might influence mentoring practices. Choices and decisions could also be influenced by individuals’ value systems, level of situation-based knowledge, and mentoring focus. Mentoring outside of academia often focuses on specific responsibilities of a position that have been acquired and/or desired. Thus individuals may enter into either formal (i.e. assigned) or informal (i.e. choosing to establish) mentoring relationships with colleagues who are knowledgeable and skilled in the positions. Their choices may be limited. Within academia, perceptions of choices and control vary. Some individuals may believe that they are in control of their education and make choices that will benefit them the most. These individuals are probably more likely to seek mentors because they know what they desire and need (Johnson & Huwe, 2003; Young & Wright, 2001) and initiate the relationship (Clark & Johnson, 2000). Others may not object to being assigned a mentor and/or invitation to be mentored out of respect for the individual and hierarchy of power. They may fear that ‘rejecting’ what has been established and/or requested could result in negative consequences that will impact their education. In addition, students might be unaware that requesting changes and/or saying “no” are options. Uncertainty about appropriate responses and behaviors may impede those who are aware of choices. Due to the nature of the discipline, counseling programs are supposed to encourage students to be proactive and empowered so that they are able to serve as role models for their clients and students.

The second stage of the mentoring relationship encompassed the relationship itself. Essentially, the core or essence of mentorship is captured during this stage. The

primary purpose, which is to establish and strengthen professional and personal identities, comes to fruition. This outcome involves relational elements that include the acquisition of roles and their functions, and engagement in activities that produce specific benefits. In addition, these elements often occur within psychosocial and career contexts, which created the fifth component of the conceptual mentoring framework. Examining the elements in conjunction with the psychosocial and career functions might help establish a clearer understanding and more comprehensive picture of the mentoring practices that influence professional and personal development in addition to the mentoring relationships, themselves.

It is not uncommon for relationships to end especially those that are established for specific purposes such as in the cases of counseling, education, and even mentoring. Thus, the third stage in the framework recognized the termination and continuation of mentorship. A majority of the participants reported that their mentoring relationships continued after they graduated. At first, this result seemed a bit surprising because the assumption was most relationships would terminate. The view of mentorship was, perhaps, too narrow. The focus of mentorship may change and evolve post-graduation. It is quite possible that mentees turn to their mentors for assistance when acclimating into the profession. Some participants reported seeking their mentors' advice regarding job positions, student issues, counseling trends, and professional development.

Being able to rely on and utilize an already established connection can be comforting. A degree of intimacy develops (Fields, 1998) because the cultivation of meaningful yet appropriate relationships requires the giving of personal resources such as time, knowledge, and skills as well as risk-taking. Bonds will most likely remain even if

mentoring relationships terminate. These may be reflective of the mentor-mentee relationship (ex. continued recognition of mentor) and/or transformation into colleagues and/or friends. Modifications in relationship status were denoted by the participants. Some emphasized the shedding of the student role and replacing it with the collegial one. Others remarked on being and/or becoming friends with their mentors in addition to being colleagues. Developing collegial relationships and/or friendships marked the last stage of mentorship.

Psychosocial Mentoring Functions

Mentorship is unique from other types of relationships. From its inception, a major principle of mentoring and thus responsibility for mentors centered on individuals' professional development and advancement from psychosocial (personal) and career (professional) lenses. These two lenses created the fifth component of the conceptual framework. An attempt to clarify and examine psychosocial and career-related mentoring functions within the context of counselor education programs that grant doctoral degrees was made in the current study. The results of the study indicated that mentoring practices experienced by the participants encompassed both psychosocial and career-oriented functions 'to a large extent'. The emphasis on the psychosocial domain was statistically significantly greater than the career thereby indicating that participants believed they experienced: (a) being encouraged, heard, protected, supported, and respected; (b) having a role model; and (c) expressing and addressing concerns such as personal issues, self-doubt, and competence more than career based mentoring functions.

This result concurred with previous research, which often focused on mentoring relationships within formal and informal contexts. In particular, Fagenson-Eland et al.

(1997) found that in the participant-represented technological businesses, the reported level of experienced psychosocially based mentoring was higher for participants whose relationships were established informally rather than formally. Although Tenebaum, Crosby, and Gliner (2001) did not specifically indicate the mentoring relationships they examined were formal, their study only utilized participants whose mentors were also their assigned advisors in doctoral programs within the humanities and sciences disciplines. These researchers found that psychosocially based mentoring was experienced more often than the career based. Mentoring relationships in the current study were, for the most part, informal establishments and consisted of both advisors turned mentors and non-advisors. The primary point of including the two research findings was to provide evidence that helps support the current study's result on the higher level of psychosocial based mentoring.

The greater emphasis in the psychosocial domain may not be a surprise to the counseling profession due to its foundation, which is rooted in relationships. The fundamental principle, which is to promote individuals' growth, development, and physical, mental and emotion well-being, must encompass genuineness, empathy, unconditional positive regard, respect, encouragement, and empowerment. Trust and honesty in relationships is essential because these variables enable communication to be more open and personal. According to Fagenson-Eland et al. (1997), psychologically and socially based behaviors tend to be experienced immediately especially when personal and professional needs, wants, and desires can be expressed openly. The author and colleagues also suggested that time, communication, and accessibility impacted the level of experienced psychosocial support. Similar sentiments were expressed by lesbian, gay,

and bisexual (LGB) counseling psychology doctoral students whom also emphasized the importance of establishing and maintaining connection and respect with mentors (Lark & Croteau, 1998). Psychosocially rooted behaviors tend to promote as well as influence emotional well-being.

For participants in the current study, relationships with their mentors were an integral part of the mentoring and doctoral experiences. In many respects, their mentorship parallels the elements of a therapeutic relationship. The ability to enter relationships rested on several factors such as comfort level, respect, sharing similar values and beliefs, compatibility, and being heard. The intonation of their responses reflected perceived sense of experiencing psychosocial support from their mentors. During times of uncertainty and self-doubt, which seemed more prominent during the dissertation process, mentors listened objectively while providing encouragement and guidance. Opportunities and challenges to obtain different lenses to examine issues and find solutions for handling obstacles were presented. Thus, participants' mentoring experiences alluded to the fostering of their growth and development especially in terms of self-trust, self-confidence, autonomy, and validation. Furthermore, the depictions of their mentors' behaviors seemed to illustrate an adherence to the ethical responsibilities of ensuring welfare (ACA Code of Ethics, 2005, Standard A.1.a) and establishing relationships in which the parameters were clearly defined (Section F Introduction).

Appropriate boundaries are of paramount importance and speak to welfare, which influences growth. It is not uncommon for counselor educators who mentor to assume more than one role at one time. In fact, several participants noted the dual and/or multiple relationships they had with their mentors. Role combinations often include the positions

of professor, supervisor, role model, dissertation chair or committee member, colleague, and friend. Due to program requirements and perhaps even the institutional structure, the feasibility of having only one role is highly unlikely. Thus, clarifying roles including transitioning periods is crucial as this may help decrease confusion, increase productivity, and promote a sense of autonomy that will lead to independence.

Maintaining healthy relationships is an ethical responsibility (ACA Code of Ethics, 2005) however individuals are fallible. Mentoring relationships in academia, in particular, are more susceptible to obscuring boundaries because personal intimacy often develops (Warren, 2005). According to Johnson and Huwe (2002), faculty members might not always have the ability to maintain appropriate relationships or emotional stability thereby rendering them incompetent. Mentors and mentees can become emotionally connected, which was evident in many of the participants' responses. Warren warned that this may affect mentors' ability to remain objective when they engage in the roles that require evaluations. Welfel (2002) proposed that ethical violations could be avoided if mentoring relationships focused solely on professional issues rather than personal, and boundaries were clearly identified from the onset.

The points made by both authors are of merit and should not be dismissed or ignored. However the participants' comments did not always concur. Some participants indicated that their relationships were all business-like and that they would have liked to have had opportunities to discuss some more personal options and/or issues with their mentors. The psychosocial support they experienced was within the professional realm rather than the personal. Those who were able to discuss personal issues acknowledged their mentors' ability to establish and maintain boundaries in their roles while providing

support in both realms. These mentors demonstrated their competence by being proficient in their professional roles (Kerka, 1998). Furthermore, they proved that both personal and professional issues could be addressed ethically.

Perhaps choosing to only address professional aspects in mentorship will help reduce potential conflicts and accusations. However, intimate connections do not only occur at the personal level as Welfel might have been alluding to in her proposal. Cognitive, emotional, social, and personal aspects (Ragins & McFarlin, 1990) are also addressed within the professional realm. Dismissing and/or ignoring personal dimensions implies that a holistic approach of the individual is not being assumed and that the professional dimensions are of more worth. Effectively addressing personal and professional issues is most likely influenced by the personal development of mentors and mentees and stage and/or strength of the mentoring relationship. From a developmental perspective, a new relationship involves the learning therefore the mentor-mentee pair is in the process of learning about each other especially in terms of strengths and contributions. Mistakes and errors are most likely to occur, which can promote learning and growth if accountability and ownership are assumed. The ability to do so is not only a characteristic of being a counselor, but also enhances the quality of the mentorship.

Career Mentoring Functions

Engaging in quality mentoring relationships empowers doctoral students to develop and/or enhance skills, strategies, and identities (McGuire & Reger, 2003; Niles, Akos, & Cutler, 2001). Through mentorship, they receive assistance with career-related responsibilities via challenging opportunities, acquiring and/or enhancing abilities, and networking. These experiences are meant to help ensure their professional survival. For

minted doctoral graduates to survive in the professoriate, they must depend upon their abilities to manage their professional responsibilities and tasks within the teaching, research, and service domains (Luna & Cullen, 1995), all of which should have been addressed during their doctoral programs.

In fact, the proposed revisions for the CACREP 2008 standards commences with program expectations, which is “to prepare graduates to work as counselor educators, supervisors, researchers, and advanced practitioners in academic and clinical settings” (CACREP, 2006, p.39). Per the standards, during the doctoral process, students must be able to: (a) acquire knowledge and skills for teaching, research, and service through various media such as practicum and internships, presentations, scholarly writing, and networking (Section I); (b) develop a professional identity (Section II); and (c) be competent to practice (Section III). Counselor educators in accredited programs possess an ethical duty to adhere to these standards, which can be fulfilled through mentorship. Each responsibility and expectation can be and has been addressed and/or reinforced in mentoring relationships.

Individualized functions within the career domain that encompassed preparations to fulfill academic and/or clinical responsibilities, and establish networks were primarily experienced at ‘a large extent’ by the current sample. These results might seem a bit low for doctoral programs especially when the primary purpose is to produce academicians and researchers. Additionally, the findings seem to indicate that the participants could have received more guidance and preparation in their roles as researchers, educators, and practitioners and service responsibilities. They are not alone. In fact, Niles, et al. (2001) and Nyquist and Woodford (2000) suggested that doctoral students believed they were

inadequately prepared during their programs to effectively fulfill and manage the roles and responsibilities expected of them.

Nyquist and Woodford (2000) noted that academic institutions possess different missions, which may influence professional preparation. For example, non-research focused institutions might place a heavier emphasis on teaching and service rather than scholarly productivity. Thus expectations between participants and the programs may have differed. This sentiment was conveyed by a participant in the current study. The response seemed to highlight what was not experienced in the mentoring relationship, which was the preparation for becoming a counselor educator. This individual indicated being inadequately prepared in knowledge and strategies for effectively balancing teaching, service, and research due to the clinical focus of the program and lack of opportunities. Adequacy to fulfill these responsibilities was not addressed specifically however participants did not indicate that they were prepared ‘to a large extent’ or even ‘to a very large extent’. It may be safe to posit that effective and adequate management of responsibilities requires more exposure and experience.

Other factors such as time, finances, and opportunities must also be considered even though institutional and program dynamics seem to impact students’ preparation. Individuals may only take courses that are required of them. Learning to teach and conduct research might be provided through internships, assistantships, and/or directed studies in which time constraints exist. Further opportunities to research and teach could be scarce and/or not sought. Nyquist and Woodford (2000) found a common consensus among doctoral students whom they interviewed. These individuals not only expressed the need for mentoring that was consistent and of sustenance, they emphasized the

importance of having a well-rounded approach to acquiring research, teaching, and clinical skills. Exposure to these elements helps prepare doctoral students for life in academia. Programs and professions would benefit from having a more inclusive approach to student preparation (ex. more equal focus on different responsibilities) rather than being exclusive (ex. single focus). This approach could be implemented through internships.

In accordance to CACREP (2001) standards, three internships are often required in the doctoral coursework. Each may center on teaching, supervision, and/or clinical practice. Students and/or programs determine what types of internships are completed. Mentors might be utilized more often in teaching and supervision based internships when compared to clinical internships. Students who choose clinical internships may opt to utilize their on-site or designated supervisor for support, advice, and growth. Mentors, especially those with clinical experience, could provide additional encouragement and guidance. In particular, they could model how to ethically integrate clinical experiences with didactic approaches. Being mentored in service related activities seems essential especially because internships often do not exist in this arena. Research based internships especially in CACREP accredited programs might be uncommon as well. This type of internships has not been mandated by CACREP even though the standards indicate that programs need to promote scholarly activity. Perhaps a more equalized focus on teaching, research, clinical practice, and service during mentorship would decrease the lopsidedness in professional preparation in addition to preventing or minimizing frustration and stress associated with having to balance these responsibilities.

One of the more notable findings in this study was the slightly higher emphasis on teaching over research. This result contradicted those found by Wilson, Valentine, and Pereira (2002) in their study with social workers. In the current study, preparing to teach occurred at ‘a large extent’ whereas research and clinical practice were experienced at “some extent”. Minimal focus on clinical counseling abilities and skills was expected. A doctorate degree is not required to be a clinician. In fact, participants could have been licensed, working toward licensure, and/or delaying licensure attainment while they were in their programs.

The expectation that research preparation and productivity would dominate arose because a majority of the represented academic institutions were research based. A stronger scholarly emphasis only seemed natural. However, research could require more skills, time, and diligence than teaching. Doctoral students may be uncertain about their areas of interests and will need time to find and establish a niche. During their programs, they may or may not work on scholarly projects with professors. Additionally, students may not enjoy writing scholarly and/or question their abilities to make meaningful contributions. Fears and uncertainties about the writing and publication processes could make this task appear to be more daunting than what it may actually be. Furthermore, students may be more likely to experience teaching opportunities under the tutelage of a professor. As minted Ph.D.s, they often teach courses in which they have some level of knowledge and competence. Obtaining subject matter might be easier than piecing together a study and/or manuscript. Vast resources exist for seeking and finding suggestions on how to prepare teaching materials, develop personal teaching styles, and address student issues.

Even though the results from the instruments indicated lower levels of occurrence in research when compared to teaching, the participants' short answer responses did not. Research was mentioned more often than teaching and being a clinician, which may signify that participants were aware of its importance in their professional survival. Shambaugh (2000) proposed that very essence of doctoral programs was research. Thus students' focus on research was only natural. Comments on research ranged from collaborating with mentors in research endeavors, learning how to publish, enhancing writing skills, identifying research interests, establishing timelines, and presenting scholarly work. Research and scholarly experiences varied. Some mentors seemed to be more structured and supportive than others in terms of direct and indirect involvement. In particular, some participants believed they had to teach themselves and/or seek outside assistance about the publication process while others received guidance. Resources for researching and publishing are not abundant. However, there seems to be more of an effort to bring resources for scholarly productivity to the forefront. In particular, sessions have been offered at counseling conferences at both the state and national levels. Students could benefit from these opportunities by seeking the tutelage of individuals who are seasoned and/or productive in scholarly activities.

This type of networking serves as an avenue for building resources not only for research but other professional responsibilities. Networks can facilitate personal and professional growth in addition to easing the transition from student to professional. Participants reported making connections through their mentors and on their own. Active involvement in professional organizations seemed to be a common way for meeting other professionals. Although in-depth information about networking was not provided,

developing and establishing professional relationships can be extremely beneficial especially during times of consultation and supervision, which allow for collaboration, guidance, and informational sharing. Learning how to be an effective and competent counselor educator involves risks, open-mindedness, resource utilization, and a propensity for feedback. Furthermore, the ability to synthesize and apply knowledge and skills influences perceptions regarding professional identity and competence (Bowman, Bowman, & DeLucia, 1990).

Psychosocial and Career Mentoring Functions: Diversity Focus

The conceptual framework for mentoring did not include a separate component on diversity even though another purpose of the current study was to assess the influence of gender and race variables in mentorship. The recognition of a rapidly diversifying society has led to numerous research studies on multiculturalism. One primary focus in the counseling based multicultural research has been on the impact and influence of utilizing various pedagogical methods for teaching diversity issues. A more robust emphasis on multiculturalism will require more than the curricula in counselor education programs.

One method that could have great potential is mentoring. Social interactions and connectedness are demonstrated throughout the relationships thereby providing a forum for facilitating accurate synthesis and application of awareness, knowledge, and skills. Statistically significant differences in the psychosocial and career mentoring domains by gender were not obtained. These results supported Ragins and McFarlin's (1990) findings that psychosocial and/or career oriented functions were not provided differently in same-gender or cross-gender mentoring relationships. Even though mentoring practices have

been rooted in gender bias, the results from both studies seemed to indicate that male and female mentors can be equally effective in the career and psychosocial domains.

Davidson and Foster-Johnson (2001) emphasized the quality of mentorship was dependant upon the mentors, themselves, not the socio-cultural factors of race or gender. However, King and Schweitzer (1999) suggested that mentoring experiences of underrepresented groups should not be dismissed. Students, especially those who are female and/or of minority status, may seek and/or desire mentors who know how to help address the challenges and obstacles they face. In the current study, statistically significant differences were not found in the psychosocial and career domains for the participants of minority status. However, the ability to establish connections with a mentor who understands, empathizes, is unconditional, and remains supportive throughout the educational experience is of importance to mentees as evidenced by the responses. Mentees seemed to receive the additional push and encouragement to persevere, commit, and become more self-confident in their abilities to be successful. Thus, mentors are encouraged to be competent in addressing multicultural issues and recognizing how these might influence the mentorship experience (Brinson & Kottler, 1993; Schwiebert, 2000).

Psychosocial and Career-related Outcomes of Mentoring

Even though participants were not directly asked to identify the outcomes of their mentoring experiences, the expected outcomes focused on personal growth and professional preparedness. The sixth component of the mentoring framework encompassed psychosocial and career outcomes of mentoring for both mentees and mentors. The psychosocial outcomes centered on self-growth and development and were

validated by the participants' responses. A majority of the mentors invested time in their mentees by getting to know who they were, being respectful of their perspectives, and extending invitations to participate in various activities. Their mentors' validation made them feel cared about and important. In addition, their interactions fostered a sense of autonomy, self-confidence, self-trust, empowerment, and even self-transformation. For some participants, the mentoring relationships changed their lives. Responses reverberated with enthusiasm and passion for the profession and even their own being. New perspectives were obtained such as learning to balance personal arena with the academic and professional arenas, and being flexible and adaptive. Some participants shared their desires to better themselves while others wanted to follow in the footsteps of their mentors and serve as mentors to others if they were not already doing so.

Being a mentor was one career-related outcome that was extracted from the data. Other outcomes within the framework were also validated by the participants. More specifically, they indicated that professional goals were impacted by their mentoring relationships, however further data were not collected. Possible shifts might have centered on academic versus clinical practice settings and teaching-oriented versus research-oriented institutions. Additional outcomes that were experienced included becoming professors and/or clinical practitioners (i.e. developing professional identity), active involvement in professional organizations, and networking. Those who are in academia might also be enhancing and/or fine-tuning their research, service, and teaching skills. Further and/or future outcomes may also be experienced in terms of publications, tenure, promotions, leadership positions, and increased network systems.

Despite having distinct functions, there seems to be a level of interconnectedness between the psychosocial and career domains (Dreher & Ash, 1990; Tenebaum et al., 2001), which was alluded to in the current study. Participants often described career based functions with psychosocial terms. Career success and failures could influence psychosocial outcomes just as the absence and/or presence of psychological and social supports could influence career movements.

Implications for Counselor Education Programs: Possible Outcomes

The eighth component of the mentoring framework suggested graduation, retention, producing new leaders, and consistency and professional identity as possible outcomes for counselor education. Results were not obtained during the current study. However, inferences based on the collected data can be made and presented as reasons for why the profession needs to implement and utilize mentoring.

During the past few years the counseling profession, especially at the national level, has directed its attention to mentorship. Presidents of the American Counseling Association (ACA), the parent organization of the profession, have recognized the need to provide mentoring to student members, women, LGBT members, and new faculty members. The heightened focus has lead to the development of mentoring related networks and programs. However, the practice has not been clearly defined among members nor has a consensus been reached. The actual importance of mentoring in the counseling profession remains unanswered. The ability to acquire answers might be impeded by the focus and direction, both of which seems to be tailored to individuals and/or groups. Assuming a more global approach might prove to be beneficial.

For example, mentoring in counselor education programs might help address issues that seem to be common amongst academic institutions. Program survival rests in matriculation, retention, and graduation rates. Researchers found that the attrition rate in doctoral programs is between the thirty-fifth and seventy-fourth percentile (Denecke & Frasier, 2005). Currently, the humanities and social science disciplines have the lowest rates of awarding doctorate degrees (Hoskins & Goldberg, 2005). Furthermore, females and students of minority status are less likely to complete their doctoral work when compared to males and Caucasians (Smallwood, 2004). Reasons for leaving doctoral programs often center on finances, relationships with faculty, program and departmental politics, clinical v. research focus, and contentment (Blair, 1999). These types of issues, according to scholars such as Schoen (1991); Grant-Vallone and Ensher (2000); Schwiebert (2000); and Hurte (2002) can be addressed with mentorship.

Thus, an argument for utilizing mentoring and understanding its relevance pertains to curbing dropout rates. Counselor education doctorate programs fall in the social science discipline, which has one of the highest incompletion rates. Based on the estimations provided by Denicke and Frasier (2005), it seems safe to posit that, at a minimum, 26% of students entering doctoral programs will successfully attain their degree. There is a possibility that the actual percentage of awarded degrees might be higher in counselor education programs. However national statistics do not exist because academic institutions have not been able to keep accurate records of degree completions due to the absence and/or minimal communication with students and varying degree requirements (National Research Council, 1995). Despite the dearth of information, counselor education doctoral programs might need to consider collecting data on: (a) how

many doctorates are actually granted, (b) an approximate degree completion time, (c) withdrawal and/or incompletion rates, (d) demographic information, and (e) projected position openings.

Currently, attaining a position as a Counselor Educator at a university or college requires a terminal degree from related areas of counseling. The proposed 2008 revisions of the CACREP standards will require that in five years (year 2011) counselor educators, who are new to the profession, will need to have a counselor education doctorate (CACREP, 2005, Standard V.2.). According to the National Research Council (1995), the average time for completing a doctoral degree is approximately 10.5 years. Even though women and minorities are often sought in job postings, they are more likely to withdraw from their programs. The longer completion times and lower completion rates for women and minorities might have a direct impact on counselor education programs in terms of establishing a diverse professoriate.

The lack of data for completion rates and times especially for women and minorities in addition to projected need for filling positions can be an argument for and against the need for mentoring. Lindholm (2004) noted that more positions will be available within the next few years due to retirements by individuals of the baby boom generation. Even with limited information, two certainties exist. The first is that doctorate holding members are needed to teach the future counselors and educators who will help keep the counseling profession alive. Secondly, counseling involves prevention, intervention, and resolution. Mentoring could potentially address all three. It only seems natural that programs practice what is being taught to students.

Changes in the profession and academic trends are inevitable. Retirements may spark a need for more individuals to enter the professions and/or result in newer professionals assuming leadership roles and thus acquiring the responsibility to continue the professions (Schoen, 1991). From a survivalist point-of-view, the time for utilizing mentorship in counselor education is now. It will help ensure continuity and professional identity within the profession's infrastructure that will lead to longevity.

Implications for Future Research

The study has implications for further research in counselor education programs and the counseling profession as a whole. Future studies will help validate mentoring within counselor education. Avenues for continued exploration include: (a) definitional examination, (b) the occurrence of mentoring in programs, (c) in-depth examination of psychosocial and career functions, (d) masters versus doctoral level mentoring, and (e) utilization of dual perspectives. Schwiebert (2000) believed there is a need to examine and validate a mentoring definition. Future studies might attempt to validate the mentoring definition that was utilized in this study to determine if it accurately describes mentorship in counselor education. Research regarding the extent to which mentoring is utilized is necessary for identifying and examining perceptions, practices, and usefulness across programs. Researchers may want to consider both mentored and non-mentored populations. This information could begin to clarify the dimensions of mentorship.

A more robust understanding of mentoring could be obtained if future studies focused on mentees' reasons for initiating mentoring, agreeing to their mentors' invitations, remaining with assigned advisors who became mentors, beginning the relationship mutually, and engaging in mentoring relationships. Such data might help

identify whether the decisions were based on availability of faculty members, established advisory relationship, and/or likeability due to ease of communication and shared commonalities. Furthermore, the process of mutual commencement in terms of what the interactions encompass and how the decision to establish a mentorship was reached might be clarified with more information.

Another area in need of a richer understanding is how mentoring influences doctoral students' preparation for handling the responsibilities of teaching, research, service, and/or clinical practice. Independent examinations of these functions will be required to obtain this type of information. Obtaining participants' perceived degree of importance for each responsibility might also be beneficial. Additionally, their ability to adequately balance teaching, research, service, and/or clinical practice in addition to being prepared needs to be addressed. Future studies might also examine the occurrence of mentoring within each responsibility.

The career and psychosocial domains do not necessarily have to be studied together. In the current study, the results indicated that separate mentoring functions were measured in the career and psychosocial domains. Additional research could examine the domains for further verification. A more in-depth exploration of psychosocial support and its importance could help clarify and validate mentoring practices. More data could strengthen and/or enhance mentoring practices in counselor education programs.

The focus and results of mentoring may differ between masters and doctoral students. Future studies may want to focus on delineating psychosocial and career mentoring functions at the master's and doctoral level. Even though Swerdlik and Bardon (1988) stated that evidence supporting differences in mentoring between master's and

doctoral level students does not exist, several key factors such as program length, status, guidelines, focus and students' life phases (Jacobi, 1991; Kelly & Schweitzer, 1999) could produce different results between the two populations. For example, mentoring for doctoral students may focus more on research, teaching, and service, which are all responsibilities of being members of the professoriate. Mentoring for master's students may be geared toward becoming a clinical practitioner and/or doctoral work.

Richer data might be provided through the utilization of a dual perspective approach. If the current study were to continue, seeking mentors' perspectives would be an option. The researcher could ask the participants to identify their primary mentors and request permission to contact their mentors in order to obtain their mentors' perspectives of the mentoring experience. Comparing responses from both the mentors and mentees would provide a more comprehensive illustration of mentoring especially in terms of psychosocial and career functions.

Casto et al. (2005) proposed that mentees be aware of their personalities, goals, and expectations in addition to being proactive about fostering and maintaining both the mentorship and networks. Mentors, according to the authors, would benefit from possessing "a mentoring mindset" (p. 334) that encompasses knowing their expectations, availability, limitations including boundary establishment, and abilities to recognize and foster connections with students especially those who might be experiencing more obstacles. Further exploration of the mentoring guidelines as suggested by these authors might provide insight on how to structure mentoring relationships and/or reasons for relationship commencement and maintenance.

Additional mentoring research should not preclude socio-cultural variables (i.e. gender, ethnicity, age, etc.) because these encompass individuals' sense of being and thus are often reflected in individuals' everyday life experiences. Ignoring and/or dismissing these variables results in a failure to examine individuals holistically. Furthermore, recognizing diversity within the mentoring context is of importance as it is one of the main arteries in the counseling profession. Thus a fuller comprehension of mentoring in the counseling profession requires a more robust examination of mentorship through gendered, ethnic, age, and other socio-cultural lenses. Researchers of future studies are encouraged to find different ways for examining these lenses. For example, an in-depth picture of the psychosocial and career based mentoring functions might be obtained if the participants were asked to provide explanations for their responses and/or were able to respond to questions from each lens (i.e. to what extent do they believe their age, ethnicity, and gender influenced each function). Perhaps, the separation of mentoring functions could also establish a stronger yet concentrated focus that might lead to stronger empirical evidence when examined across socio-cultural factors. Future studies may also consider exploring mentorship variables among cross-gendered and inter-racial mentoring pairs.

Another area for study involves mentoring and ethics. The counseling profession would most likely benefit from research on ethical mentoring. Emphasizing mentoring relationships via ethical guidelines and standards will enable counselors to obtain a firmer understanding and comprehension of what their responsibilities are to students, colleagues, and themselves. Future research could continue to focus on ways in which mentorship adheres to the ACA Code of Ethics and CACREP standards. It could also

address how counselor educators behave competently as mentors (ACA Code of Ethics, Standard C.2.) including ways in which they monitor and develop their competency (ACA Code of Ethics, C.2.d.) and are aware of and address potential ethical dilemmas such as dual and/or multiple relationships.

The multi-faceted nature of mentorship provides several avenues for research. Other areas that have not been mentioned include: (a) benefits and outcomes at all levels (i.e. individual, academic, profession), (b) the use and benefits of multiple mentors, (c) personal and career changes as a result of mentorship, (d) examining negative aspects to mentorship, and (e) overall impact on personal and professional identity. Although the current study did not focus on completion versus non-completion rates, the counseling profession might benefit from studies that examine the impact of mentoring on degree completion. Studies that address mentoring and non-mentoring might consider including items that address progress toward degree completion. Furthermore, research on attrition and ABD status could incorporate items on mentoring.

Summary of Chapter

A glimpse of how participants experienced mentoring as doctoral students in counselor education programs was provided in this study. Despite the dearth in conclusive, statistically significant results, a few concepts and trends were identified and/or validated. Mentoring seems to coincide with the philosophy of the counseling profession, which is to promote well-being. Doctoral students are often presented with the challenge of maneuvering through academic and personal obstacles. Mentorship can help alleviate the stress, anxiety, pressure, and other emotions that arise.

The data indicated that both male and female mentors were and are equally capable of providing both psychosocial and career based mentoring. This finding is significant for counselors in that they can challenge gender expectations and/or give themselves permission to focus on both mentoring aspects throughout their mentorships. Mentors will be able to more effectively meet the needs of their mentees. For the participants, receiving psychosocial support was important. Even the career-based functions were described from a psychosocial standpoint. Being encouraged and supported throughout the career based opportunities and personal experiences enabled the participants to become more confident.

According to Casto et al. (2005), empowerment and validation influence determination and fortitude, which are required for successful attainment of the doctorate. Learning how to balance personal aspects with academic and professional aspects may be as beneficial as strengthening and fine tuning abilities to be educators, researchers, and clinicians. Mentors may have differing perspectives, which was illustrated in participants' responses. Some mentors addressed personal issues while others did not. Identifying and communicating expectations and needs are essential for establishing rules and boundaries that will help define mentoring relationships and outcomes.

The impact of mentorship can be profound in the areas of identity development, information, leadership development for professional change, holistic personal development, and increase social networks. Thus, mentoring will most likely strengthen the consistency of professional responsibilities and services while enhancing the development and overall professional identity of the counseling profession and its members. However it is still a new concept to the counseling profession; thus gray areas

may exist within the mentoring construct and practice. It only seems prudent to obtain a deeper comprehension of mentoring from an ethical lens. By doing so some of the uncertainty and potential dilemmas might be eradicated. Additionally, the effects of mentoring might be more positive and long-lasting when the relationships occur ethically. The data indicated that mentees were still experiencing the impact of their mentorships even after being terminated and/or transformed (i.e. friendship, collegial). As mentees become mentors, a more robust comprehension of mentoring within counselor education programs and the profession may be facilitated.

APPENDICES

Appendix A

E-mail Announcement: Request for Dissertation Assistance

Distribution: CESNET listserv at CESNET-L@LISTSERV.KENT.EDU
Counselor Education Programs

Subject: Request for dissertation assistance: *Personal mentoring experiences among doctoral students in counselor education programs*

Announcement:

Dear Professor:

Greetings! My name is Rebecca Farrell and I am a doctoral candidate in the Counselor Education and Supervision program at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University (Virginia Tech). The purpose for this e-mail is to request your assistance by extending an invitation to participate in my dissertation study entitled *The impact of mentoring on career and psychosocial development of doctoral students in counselor education programs*. Participation, which is both voluntary and anonymous, will involve responding to electronic surveys that will take approximately 15 to 20 minutes to complete. I will be donating \$1.00 to the Professional Counseling Fund, which is a political action committee that promotes counseling issues at the national level, for each completed survey that is submitted and usable. Up to \$150.00 will be donated on behalf of the participants.

A. IRB Approval:

This study has been reviewed and approved by The Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University Institutional Review Board (IRB) has reviewed and approved this study. The corresponding IRB log number is 05-351. Dr. Nancy Bodenhorn (nanboden@vt.edu) will be supervising the study.

B. Qualifications to Participate:

If you graduated with a doctorate degree in Counselor Education within the last five (5) years and engaged in a mentoring relationship while you were a doctoral student, you are eligible to participate. Please feel free to invite your colleagues who are eligible to participate by forwarding this e-mail invitation.

C. Purpose of Study:

Mentoring is a popular yet poorly understood concept, especially in counselor education. The purpose of this study is to examine doctoral students' perceptions on how their personal mentoring experiences impacted their career and psychosocial development during their doctoral program. Participants will be asked to identify the most important aspect of their mentoring experiences.

D. Accessing the Surveys:

Please click on the following links to access the online survey:

<https://survey.vt.edu/survey/entry.jsp?id=1116470786432>

If the links are not functioning properly, please copy and paste the link into your browser.

E. Comprehensive Informed Consent:

Once you have accessed the link, you will be provided with a more in-depth informed consent. Please take time to read this as it explains the structure of the study including your rights and responsibilities. Please note that your completion of the surveys will indicate your consent.

F. Availability of Results:

Participants will have the opportunity to request a summary of the results after completing the surveys. The results will be made available after the conclusion of the study.

G. Questions, Contact, and Links

Should you have any questions regarding this study, please do not hesitate to contact me. I will do my best to respond promptly. If you prefer to complete a paper format of the

survey, please contact me with your request and mailing address at rfarrell@vt.edu. Once again, the links to the online survey for my dissertation study are:

<https://survey.vt.edu/survey/entry.jsp?id=1116470786432>

Many thanks, in advance, for taking the time to share your experiences. Your participation and time are greatly appreciated!

Sincerely,
Rebecca L. Farrell, M.A.
Doctoral Candidate –Virginia Tech
rfarrell@vt.edu
606.783.2505

Appendix B

A DISSERTATION STUDY INVITATION

Theme: Mentoring experiences in Counselor Education Doctoral programs

Invitee Criteria*: (a) Graduated with doctorate degree within last 5 years (2000-2005) & (b) Mentored during doctoral program

Place:

<https://survey.vt.edu/survey/entry.jsp?id=1116470786432>
(informed consent is provided upon access)

Time Commitment: 15 – 20 minutes

Primary Researcher: Rebecca L. Farrell (rfarrell@vt.edu)

“Sponsors”: Virginia Tech (IRB log number is 05-351)
Dr. Nancy Bodenhorn (nanboden@vt.edu), Chair

Your Contributions: assist with establishing a clearer understanding of the mentoring experience in counselor education; facilitate possible recommendations for how mentoring might be implemented in counseling programs; and provide avenues for further mentoring research.

Donations: will be made on your behalf to the Professional Counseling Fund (PCF): www.counselingfund.org

***Invite Others:** please share the invitation with colleagues who (a) meet the criteria to participate and or (b) know of others who meet the criteria as well.

Questions, Comments: for more information please contact Rebecca.

Thank you, in advance for participating and/or passing the invitation to your colleagues!

Appendix C

American Counseling Association *Counseling Today* Newspaper Advertisement

DISSERTATION STUDY ON MENTORING IN COUNSELOR EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Participants needed to help identify the impact of experienced mentorship in our profession.

Donations will be made on participants' behalf to the Professional Counseling Fund.

If interested, please contact Becca Farrell at rfarrell@vt.edu.

Appendix D

Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University

Informed Consent for Participants in Research Projects Involving Human Subjects

Title of Project: *Personal mentoring experiences among doctoral students in counselor education programs*

Investigators: Rebecca L. Farrell, M.A.: rfarrell@vt.edu

Nancy Bodenhorn, Ph.D. (dissertation chair): nanboden@vt.edu

I. Invitation to Participate

- a. You are invited to participate in a research study examining mentoring experiences in counselor education doctoral programs. The following information is being provided to help you make an informed decision on whether or not you would like to participate. If you have questions, please do not hesitate to ask.

II. Purpose of this Project

- a. The purpose of this study is five-fold. It is meant to examine how mentoring impacts: (a) the career and psychosocial development of doctoral students in counselor education programs; (b) what mentoring encompasses for doctoral students; and (c) the most important aspect of their mentoring experiences. In addition, due to the dearth of literature on mentoring in counselor education, this study serves to contribute to the existing literature and provide recommendations for further mentoring research in counselor education.

III. Procedures

- a. The procedures for this study include the completion of a demographic questionnaire that includes information on the doctoral and mentoring experience and mentors, *General Mentoring Questions, Mentoring Functions Instrument*, and a short-answer question. Completion of the instruments and demographic information will take approximately 15 to 20 minutes.

IV. Risks

- a. Ideally, there are no risks to you as a participant in this study. However, minimal risks may arise for those who are uncertain or have mixed feelings and thoughts about their mentoring experiences.

V. Benefits of this Project

- a. Sharing your personal mentoring experiences may lead to the following benefits: (a) helping to establish a clearer understanding of the mentoring experience in counselor education; (b) facilitating possible

recommendations for how mentoring might be implemented in counseling programs; (c) providing avenues for further mentoring research; and (d) allowing for reflection on the impact your mentoring experience had on you both personally and professionally.

- b. At the conclusion of the research project, a summary of the results will be available to all participants who wish to receive them. Please contact the primary investigator at rfarrell@vt.edu.

VI. Extent of Anonymity and Confidentiality

- a. Any information obtained during the study, which could identify you, will be kept strictly confidential. Your name will not appear anywhere on the instruments and demographic information. Instead, your answers will be provided with a numerical sequence so that the investigators are able to identify you individually within the data collected.
- b. Completed instruments will remain with the primary investigator. These will be kept in a secured and locked file except when the data is being compiled. In addition, the instruments, when being transported by the primary investigator, will be in a locked briefcase. The instruments will be destroyed within one year of the completion of the study.
- c. If the study design or use of data is changed, you will be informed and your consent obtained for the revised research study.

VII. Professional Publications and Presentations

- a. The information may be published in professional journals or presented at professional meetings. Your identity will continue to remain strictly confidential.

VIII. Freedom to Withdraw

- a. You are free to refuse to answer any questions that you do not wish to answer. On the whole, however, I believe that most participants will benefit from sharing their thoughts, feelings, and experiences of mentoring. In addition, participants will have an opportunity to provide valuable insight for other students, counselor education programs, and the counseling profession.
- b. You are free to withdraw from the study at any time without penalty.

IX. Compensation

- a. For each completed survey that is submitted and usable, \$1.00 will be donated to the Professional Counseling Fund, which is a political action committee that promotes counseling issues at the national level. Up to \$150.00 will be donated on behalf of the participants. For more information about the Fund, visit www.counselingfund.org.

X. Approval of Research

- a. The Institutional Review Board involving Human Subjects (IRB) at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University and the primary

investigator's five dissertation committee members have approved this research project. The corresponding IRB log number is 05-351.

XI. Subject's Responsibilities

- a. I understand that I have the following responsibilities: (a) have received my doctorate degree in counselor education within the past five years; (b) have voluntarily agree to participate in the study; (c) will remain anonymous by not providing my name on any of the instruments and demographic information; (d) will complete the instruments and demographic information; and (e) am able to withdraw at any time from the study without penalty.
- b. I may also request a copy of the results

XII. Subject's Permission

- a. I have read and understand the conditions of this study and what is being asked of me in the project.
- b. I have been provided the opportunity to ask questions, and those questions have been answered to my satisfaction.
- c. I understand that I may withdraw at any time without penalty.
- d. I agree to abide by the conditions outlined in this informed consent.
- e. My completion of the study's instruments indicates that I voluntarily decided to participate in this research project as a subject.

If you should have any questions, comments, and or concerns, please do not hesitate to contact:

Rebecca L. Farrell at rfarrell@vt.edu

Dr. Nancy Bodenhorn at nanboden@vt.edu

Appendix E

Demographic Questionnaire

Overview: The demographic questionnaire consists of three sections: (a) demographic information; (b) mentor and mentoring experience questions; and (c) *General Mentoring Questions*. It may take approximately 15 to 20 minutes to complete depending on how quickly you type and the depth of your answers to some questions. After you complete this section, you will be asked to complete the *Mentor Function Scale* and a short-answer question.

Instructions: Please respond to each question honestly and with thought. Right and wrong answers do not exist since you will be reporting your experiences and opinions. Although participation is voluntary and you, as the participant, have the option to leave any question unanswered, responses to each question will assist the researcher in gathering richer data about your mentoring experiences. Your responses and time are greatly valued. Thank you, in advance, for taking the time to share your experiences.

I. Demographic information:

A. Please tell us about yourself:

1. What is your gender? Female _____ Male _____
2. What is your age? _____ (please type your age in years)
3. What is your ethnicity? _____ (please type your self-identification)
4. Where do you currently work?
Clinical Setting _____ Higher Education Setting _____ School Setting _____
5. How long have you been at your current place of employment? _____
Less than 1 year _____ Between 1-2 _____ Between 2-3 _____ Between 3-4 _____
Between 4-5 _____ Over 5 years _____

B. Questions about your years as a doctoral student:

6. In what year did you receive your doctorate? _____ (please type year in 4 digits)
7. Was your doctoral program CACREP? Yes _____ No _____
8. From what institution did you receive your doctorate degree? _____ (please type your response)

II. Mentor and mentoring experience questions:

Please respond to the questions in the following sections using the definition provided here.

Mentorship in counselor education (and the counseling profession) is an interpersonal, interdependent, collaborative, and continuously evolving relationship between individuals who are differentiated by skills, experiences, expertise and knowledge. The more experienced individual [mentor] provides the lesser experienced individual [mentee] with guidance, encouragement, support, resources and direction in the roles of educator, role model, and sponsor. The mentee, in turn, reciprocates support, encouragement, and direction. Additional resources may be provided for the mentor as well. Furthermore, the relationship is marked by trust, empathy, respect, open communication, active listening, genuineness, commitment, and clearly established boundaries. Through mentoring interactions, both the mentor and mentee develop holistic personal (psychosocial based) and professional (career based) identities.

C. Questions about your primary mentor and mentoring experiences: Reflecting on your time in your doctoral program, please identify one primary mentor and answer the following questions regarding that mentoring experience.

13. Where was your primary mentor working at the time he/she mentored you?
(1) within your doctoral program _____
(2) outside your doctoral program, but within your institution _____
(3) outside your doctoral program AND your institution _____
14. What is your primary mentor's gender? Female _____ Male _____
15. What is your primary mentor's age? _____ (please type age or approximate in years)
16. What is your mentor's ethnicity? _____ (please type identification)
17. Who initiated the mentoring relationship? (please choose one)
(1) you _____ (2) mentor _____ (3) mutually _____ (4) were assigned _____
18. Has your mentoring relationship extended beyond graduation? Yes _____ No _____
19. Were your professional goals influenced as a result of mentoring? Yes _____ No _____
20. Was your mentor your assigned advisor in the program? Yes _____ No _____
21. How many mentors including your primary mentor did you have? _____ (please type a number)

D. Questions about you being a mentor to others:

22. Are you a mentor now? Yes _____ No _____
23. If you are not currently mentoring, do you see yourself eventually serving as a mentor?
Yes _____ No _____

III. General Mentoring Questions:

Please read each question carefully and respond by <i>checking</i> the rating circle on the 5-point scale to the right of <i>each</i> item.		not at all	to a slight extent	to some extent	to a large extent	to a very large extent
Your mentor...						
1. made you aware of fellowships, scholarships, and or assistantships?		1	2	3	4	5
2. helped you understand the program, department, and university polices?		1	2	3	4	5
3. provided information and feedback about potential internship and training sites?		1	2	3	4	5
4. helped identify prospective employment positions that interested you?		1	2	3	4	5
5. provided feedback on employment positions you were considering?		1	2	3	4	5
6. provided licensure information, resources, websites?						
7. assisted you with publishing scholarly work as a doctoral student?		1	2	3	4	5
8. provided opportunities for you to teach more than one course as a doctoral student?		1	2	3	4	5
9. provided opportunities for you to practice clinical counseling skills?		1	2	3	4	5
10. encouraged you to be actively involved in professional organizations and community outreach?		1	2	3	4	5
11. provided opportunities and encouraged you to present at professional conferences as a doctoral student?		1	2	3	4	5
12. introduced you to colleagues when attending conferences, workshops, and other professional development activities?		1	2	3	4	5
13. discussed your personal life issues when you shared them with him or her?		1	2	3	4	5
14. supported your decisions and contributions during times when others (professors, family, friends, etc.) did not?		1	2	3	4	5
15. served as a reference for positions you applied to?		1	2	3	4	5
16. My mentoring experience as a doctoral student was positive.						

Appendix F

Mentoring Function Scale (Tepper, Shaffer, & Tepper, 1996)*

<p>Please read each question carefully and respond by <i>checking</i> the rating circle on the 5-point scale to the right of <i>each</i> item.</p> <p>1=not at all, 2=to a slight extent, 3=to some extent, 4=to a large extent, 5=to a very large extent.</p>					
A. Psychosocial Mentoring Functions		not at all	to a slight extent	to some extent	to a large extent
Your mentor...					
1. encouraged you to try new ways of behaving in your program.		1	2	3	4
2. discussed your questions or concerns regarding feelings of competence, commitment to the program and profession, relationships with peers and supervisors or work and family conflicts.		1	2	3	4
3. served as a role model.		1	2	3	4
4. demonstrated good listening skills in your conversations.		1	2	3	4
5. conveyed feelings of respect for you as an individual.		1	2	3	4
6. encouraged you to talk openly about anxieties and fears that detracts from your work.		1	2	3	4
7. shared personal experiences as an alternative perspective to your problems.		1	2	3	4
8. displayed attitudes and values similar to your own		1	2	3	4
B. Career-Related Mentoring Functions		not at all	to a slight extent	to some extent	to a large extent
Your mentor...					
9. assigned responsibilities to you that have increased your contact with people who will judge your potential for future career positions.		1	2	3	4
10. reduced unnecessary risks that could have threatened your opportunities to graduate.		1	2	3	4
11. helped you meet new colleagues.		1	2	3	4
12. gave you assignments or tasks that have prepared you for faculty or clinical positions (becoming a professional).		1	2	3	4

13. helped you finish assignments or tasks or meet deadlines that otherwise would have been difficult to complete.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Encouraged you to prepare for your future position(s).	1	2	3	4	5
15. gave you assignments that present opportunities to learn new skills such as teaching, research, and service.	1	2	3	4	5
16. gave you assignments that have increased your contact with leaders in your profession.	1	2	3	4	5

*(Adapted with permission of the authors and the *Educational and Psychological Measurement* journal)

Short-Answer Question

In an attempt to learn more about your mentoring experience, please answer the following question in the space provided.

What was the most important aspect of your mentoring experience that you would like to share with counselor educators, counseling students, and the counseling profession?

APPENDIX G



VIRGINIA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE
AND STATE UNIVERSITY

Institutional Review Board

Dr. David M. Moore
IRB (Human Subjects)Chair
Assistant Vice President for Research Compliance
CVM Phase II- Duckpond Dr., Blacksburg, VA 24061-0442
Office: 540/231-4991; FAX: 540/231-6033
email: moored@vt.edu

DATE: May 24, 2005

MEMORANDUM

TO: Nancy E. Bodenhorn ELPS 0302
Rebecca Farrell

FROM: David Moore 

SUBJECT: IRB Exempt Approval: "Personal Experiences of Mentoring Among Doctoral Students in Counselor Education Programs" IRB # 05-351

I have reviewed your request to the IRB for exemption for the above referenced project. I concur that the research falls within the exempt status. Approval is granted effective as of May 23, 2005.

Virginia Tech has an approved Federal Wide Assurance (FWA00000572, exp. 7/20/07) on file with OHRP, and its IRB Registration Number is IRB00000667.

cc: File

Department Reviewer: M. D. Alexander

Curriculum Vita

REBECCA L. FARRELL, Ph.D.

EDUCATION:

Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University Blacksburg, Virginia
Doctor of Philosophy: Counselor Education & Supervision May 2007
Cognate: Marriage and Family
Dissertation: *Personal experiences of mentoring among doctoral students in counselor education.*
(Defense date: January 15, 2007).

Central Michigan University Mt. Pleasant, Michigan
Master of Arts: Professional Counseling December 2001
Bachelor of Science December 1997
Cognate: Child Development & Minor in Biology

TEACHING & SUPERVISION EXPERIENCE:

August 2006 to present	Counseling – Morehead State University Instructor in Dept. Professional Programs in Education (fixed term)	Morehead, Kentucky
May 2005 to August 2006	Human Services & Counseling – Lindsey Wilson College Instructor in Division of Human Services and Counseling Practicum and Internship Group Supervisor at Maysville campus.	Columbia, Kentucky
June 3-4 & 17-18, 2005	Counseling – Central Michigan University Adjunct Instructor	Richmond, Virginia
June 2004 to May 2005	Counseling – Morehead State University Instructor in Dept. of Counseling, Leadership, Adult, Higher and Secondary Education (fixed term)	Morehead, Kentucky
	Counselor Education & Supervision – Virginia Polytechnic Institute & State University	Blacksburg, Virginia
August to December 2002	Clinical Supervision Internship	
January to May 2002	Teaching Assistant Internship: Counseling Diverse Populations	

COUNSELING EXPERIENCE:

October 2003 to June 2004	Roland E. Cook Alternative School Student Assistant Program Coordinator	Vinton, Virginia
August 2003 to June 2004	Family Service of Roanoke Valley	Roanoke, Virginia
May 2003 to June 2004	VASAP Treatment Group Facilitator	
January 2003 to May 2003	Doctoral Counseling Intern & Counselor	
July 2003 to August 2003	Governor's School for Agriculture	Blacksburg, Virginia
July 2002 to August 2002	Counselor	

June 2001 to July 2001	Institutional Diversity Office – CMU Upward Bound Summer Academy 2001: Residence Hall Coordinator	Mt. Pleasant, Michigan
October to December 2000	Catholic Family Services Group Co-Facilitator	Mt. Pleasant, Michigan
August 2000 to June 2001	Central Michigan University (CMU) Group Facilitator	Mt. Pleasant, Michigan
June to August 2000	Central Michigan University Summer Remedial Clinic Counselor	Mt. Pleasant, Michigan
December 1999 to May 2001	Women's Aid Service Counseling Intern/Outreach/Volunteer	Mt. Pleasant, Michigan

PUBLICATIONS:

Bodenhorn, N., Jackson, A. D., & Farrell, R. (2006). Increasing personal cultural awareness through discussions with international students. *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*.

UNPUBLISHED THESIS:

Farrell, R. (2001). *The adoption experience and its influence on ethnic identity, depression, suicidal ideation, and purpose in life*. Unpublished thesis. Central Michigan University: Mt. Pleasant, MI.

CONVENTION PRESENTATIONS:

Mudd, J., & Farrell, R. (2006, April 2). *Gay fathers: Identity development, parenting, and self-disclosure*. Accepted presentation for American Counseling Association, Montreal, Canada.

Ambrose, H., & Farrell, R. (2006, March 10). Exploring the relationship, process of change, and techniques in supervision: An integrative approach. Accepted presentation for Kentucky Mental Health Counseling Association, Somerset, KY.

Snow, K., Farrell, R., Hughes, J., & Conyne, R. (2005, April). *Mentoring the leaders of tomorrow..* Accepted roundtable presentation for the American Counseling Association, Atlanta, GA.

Farrell, R., Cannon, E., Mudd, J., & Mills, J. (2004, April & 2004, November). *My family is special: Listening to the Voices of LGBT families*. Presentation at the American Counseling Association, Kansas City, MO & Virginia Counseling Association, Roanoke, VA.

Cannon, E., Farrell, R., & Mills, J. (2003, September & 2004, February). *Changing roles, changing voices: The experience of doctoral student supervisors*. Presentation at Southern Association of Counselor Education and Supervision, Chattanooga, TN & Virginia Association of Counselor Education and Supervision, Williamsburg, VA.

PROFESSIONAL AFFILIATIONS:

American Counseling Association (ACA) – 1999 to present
Association of Counselor Education and Supervision – 2005 to present
Kentucky Counseling Association – 2004 to present
Kentucky School Counselor Association - 2007

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