

# RESEARCH MENTORSHIP IN COUNSELOR EDUCATION

## CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

### Purpose of the Study

Research mentorship, a new construct emerging in the literature, has received limited attention and remains under examined (Dohm & Cummings 2002; Melicher, 2000). Research mentorship is specific to academia, and is the most common manifestation of mentorship in higher education (Clark & Watson, 1998). However, to date, little empirical data exist about the practice of research mentorship, and no specific definition has been proposed (Clark & Watson, 1998; Dohm & Cummings, 2002). Because it lacks clear definition, research mentorship must be understood by its functions (Clark, Harden, & Johnson, 2000). Like traditional mentorship, research mentorship involves supporting, affirming, and offering guidance to protégés (Lyons & Scroggins, 1990; Pierce, 1998). In addition to these relational elements, research mentorship also entails instructional utility specific to academia. These include, but are not limited to, guidance in submitting scholarly articles for publication; generating research ideas; refining research methodology; creating scholarly presentations for conferences; and writing grants (Creamer, 1998; Dixon-Reeves, 2003; Erwin, 2001). Essentially, research mentorship is as varied as research itself, and is tailored to match the protégé's level of experience and confidence with research (Reynolds, 2005).

The benefits of research mentorship are many, especially for pre-tenured faculty members. New faculty members experience multiple stressors, including isolation, overwork, and role confusion (Hill, 2004). Having a research mentor relationship with a more experienced faculty person may alleviate many of these

stressors, and may increase job satisfaction and performance for new faculty (Hill).

Though research mentorship can benefit all pre-tenured faculty members, special consideration must be given to faculty women. Because women cite “lack of publications” as a primary stressor during the pre-tenure years (Finkel & Olswang, 1994, p. 15), having a senior faculty person in a research mentor role may alleviate anxiety and stress. Also, traditional, hierarchical mentoring styles focus primarily on career functions such as networking and promotion (Levinson, 1978; Roche, 1979) even though women may prefer a feminist or multicultural mode of mentorship, where relational factors are stressed and mutuality occurs (Benishek, Bieschke, Park, & Slattery, 2004; Egan, 1996; Paterson & Hart-Wasekiesikaw, 1994; Schramm, 2000). Because of this, women may feel alienated by male mentors, preferring a more feminine way of being (Cullen & Luna, 1993). Also, women are less likely to be selected as protégés, and are less likely to find a research collaborator in higher education (Carr, Szalacha, Barnett, Caswell, & Inui, 2003). This sense of isolation may contribute to already high attrition rates for pre-tenured faculty women. Research mentorship may further mitigate faculty women’s stressors, as women are more likely to publish if they have a research mentor (Dohm & Cummings, 2002).

In general, mentorship receives little attention in counselor education literature; in fact, less than 1% of total articles explore mentoring (Black, Suarez, & Medina, 2004). Research mentorship appears even less frequently in a search of major databases. Few, if any, research studies in counselor education and psychology explore the relationship between research mentor and protégé. One of the purposes of

the current study is to bridge this gap, so counselor educators might better understand the role and function of research mentorship.

Because the application of research mentorship in counselor education remains relatively unexplored, the purpose of this study is two-fold: first, to examine whether research mentorship is occurring for counselor education faculty in their pre-tenured years; second, to determine if faculty women and faculty men experience different forms of research mentorship in the field of counselor education.

### Overview and History

#### *Definition of mentorship*

Throughout the literature researchers agree that there is no consistent definition of *mentor* (Benishek et al., 2004; Melicher, 2000). Because of this inconsistency, it is difficult to define mentorship with certainty. To create a clear definition, one might identify the specific functions that manifest over the course of the relationship (Clark et al., 2000). Specifically, mentors act as teachers, sponsors, encouragers, counselors, and friends (Rose, 2003; Tentoni, 1995), yet mentors are more than the sum of these parts. Specifically, mentoring activity falls into three categories: (a) career functions address discrete aspects of job functioning, success, and promotion; (b) psychosocial functions can create a significant interpersonal relationship experience; and (c) role modeling provides the protégé with a more advanced professional to emulate (Clark, et al. 2000; Rose, 2003). Mentorship possesses consistent qualities that make it distinct from other relationships in the workplace (Tentoni). First, the relationship is focused primarily on protégé success, though the mentor generally experiences satisfaction as a result of the relationship. Second, the mentor possesses greater

knowledge or experience in the area being mentored. Finally, the relationship includes direct contact between the mentor and protégé (Tentoni). In summary, a definition of mentoring emerges from both the functions of the mentoring relationship, and from the relational qualities. Brinson & Kottler (1993) propose one such definition: mentoring is “a complex process by which persons of superior rank, experience, special achievements, and prestige instruct, provide support, sponsor, and assist the intellectual, personal, and career development of persons identified as protégés” (p. 242). Similarly, Black et al. (2004) define mentoring as, “...a nurturing, complex, long-term, developmental process in which a more skilled and experienced person serves as a role model, teacher, sponsor, and coach...for the purpose of promoting... professional and /or personal development” (p. 46). These definitions serve as a foundation for this study.

### *Historical perspectives*

The concept of *mentor* first appeared in Greek mythology, thus is a social construct that has endured for generations (Haring-Hidore, 1987). In its initial manifestation, mentoring referred to the process of guiding a young man through adolescence into a leadership role. Shifting the focus into modern times, mentorship literature in the 1970's considered the experiences of Caucasian males, with little attention paid to women or people of color. The seminal works of Levinson (1978) and Roche (1979) specifically identified the process of mentoring as an essential aspect of career development for men. Roche included a paragraph on the experiences of women leaders in business, but noted that these women “needed” a male mentor, particularly if they lacked male relatives in the business world. The category of

mentoring described by Levinson and Roche can best be described as *grooming-mentoring*, as the central purpose was to prepare the protégé to take over the mentor's position in the business upon his retirement. The functions of this type of relationship were primarily external: networking, resume-building, and specific job requirements, to name a few (Haring-Hidore, 1987). Little attention was paid to the interpersonal relationship between protégé and mentor, and subsequently, the end of the relationship (upon the mentor's retirement) was often marked by animosity as the protégé eventually surpassed the mentor in status and rank within the company (Haring-Hidore, 1987).

Because of a lack of empirical data, and because mentoring theory grew from majority culture experiences, a "one size fits all" attitude toward mentoring emerged (Benishek et al., 2004). Over the past two decades, researchers have begun to acknowledge traditional mentorship may not meet the needs of all people. In particular, two new theories of mentoring address the needs of women and people of color.

#### *Current trends*

*Feminist mentoring* identifies aspects of the mentoring relationship that may prove to be particularly beneficial for women and others outside the majority culture. Because women tend to prefer the relational aspects of mentorship rather than the instructional, mentoring from a feminist perspective focuses on partnership, egalitarianism, nurturance, peace, open communication, and self-esteem building (Benishek et al., 2004; Egan, 1996; Paterson & Hart-Wasekeesikaw, 1994; Schramm, 2000). Thus, in a feminist mentor relationship, the protégé is the focus rather than the

mentor, and the mentor's aim is to promote the success and welfare of the protégé, as well as to facilitate a positive relationship with the protégé. Feminist mentoring can happen regardless of the gender identity of participants; however, same sex modeling appears important for women protégés (Cullen & Luna, 1993).

*Multicultural mentoring*, like feminist mentoring, strives to promote equity in the workplace for all people. However, because most mentoring and mentoring research has been conducted from a majority culture perspective (Dixon-Reeves, 2003), members of underrepresented groups may be neglected. Multicultural mentoring possesses qualities unique to its theoretical orientation. Benishek et al. (2004) characterizes multicultural mentoring by mutuality, empowerment, focus on protégé needs, and authenticity. Most importantly, cultural differences between the mentor and protégé are explored in an open, honest fashion, rather than denied or suppressed (Benishek et al.). In the realm of higher education, mentoring is essential in the socialization process for women and people of color in academia (Turner & Thompson, 1993) as it lessens isolation and stress, and promotes connectivity, particularly for new faculty (Hill, 2004). Thus mentoring models developed to meet the unique needs of underrepresented groups are essential.

#### Rationale for Study

For this study, the construct of *research mentorship* will be examined. Research mentorship is specific to academia, and is actually the most common form of mentorship in higher education (Clark & Watson, 1998). However, to date, little empirical data exist about the practice of research mentorship, and no specific definition has been proposed (Clark & Watson, 1998; Dohm & Cummings, 2002),

though general functions of research mentorship have been identified. It is the aim of this study to examine research mentorship in counselor education, to determine if it is happening, and whether it occurs differently for faculty men and women.

To understand research mentorship, it is necessary to briefly overview *research* itself. Though publication in peer-reviewed journals is given the most weight in an academic environment, research can embody many different elements (Ramsey, Cavallaro, Kiselica, & Zila, 2002). These include grant writing, presentations, speeches, and publication in non-reviewed journal and books. Furthermore, there are qualities of scholarship specific to counselor education (Ramsey et al.). Counselor educators tend to generate research in areas outside of scholarly journals more frequently than educators in other academic disciplines. Specifically, they engage in conference presentations, grant writing, book reviews, training manuals, workshops, and consultation (Ramsey et al.). With regard to gender, male counselor educators publish journal articles more frequently while women counselor educators present at conferences more often (Ramsey et al.). Gender differences in counselor education scholarship may impact the nature of research mentorship for faculty men and women.

Research mentorship, though not specifically defined in the literature, shares some common properties with more general mentorship. For example, research mentorship involves a more experienced person joining with someone less experienced to promote awareness, skill, and productivity in research and scholarly endeavors (Dohm & Cummings, 2002). Research mentorship can also be understood by its functions: These fall into two categories: relational factors and instructional factors (Clark & Watson, 1998; Magnuson et al., 2003). Relational factors build and

sustain a working alliance between the protégé and mentor, while instructional factors define the content of the mentorship sessions. Finally, research mentorship can be understood by its stages, as mentor and protégé define research goals, engage in research activities, and sustain their relationship through the accomplishment of research goals, for example, publications or conference presentations (Monash University, n.d.).

Research mentorship potentially benefits both protégé and mentor benefit from the wisdom and experience of the mentor (Benishek et al., 2004), while mentors experience generativity as they pass knowledge on to the next generation of counselor educators (Black et al.; Burke & McKeen, 1996). Also, for marginalized groups including women, mentoring validates their scholarly contributions in ways they might not have experienced previously (Benishek et al.). However, research mentorship also possesses its share of challenges. Protégés may have difficulty scheduling meetings or receiving feedback from mentors, or may suffer the emotional toll of criticism (Clark & Watson, 1998). Also, mentors may feel bogged down by a protégé who lacks basic research skills (Clark & Watson). Finally, because no specific definition for research mentorship has been introduced to date, mentors and protégés may have different, if not conflicting ideas of what the relationship should look like (Tentoni, 1995).

As this study examines whether research mentorship happens for counselor educators, and whether research mentorship differs for male and female counselor educators, a definition must be in place to create parameters for study. Based on already existing definitions of general mentorship, and observed functions and stages of research mentorship, the following definition is proposed: Research mentorship is a complex,

dynamic relationship that occurs within an academic setting. The mentor, a more experienced researcher, offers both relational and instructional support to the protégé in research generation and collaboration, and professional development. The relationship is goal and task-oriented, and primarily serves protégé needs, with secondary benefit for the mentor, who gains a research collaborator.

The construct of research mentorship is important to counselor education for several reasons. First, there is a paucity of literature about mentorship in counselor education; in fact, less than 1% of all journal articles refer to it at all (Black et al., 2004). Even less information exists about research mentorship, a critical relationship for new faculty who must generate research for tenure and promotion. Second, quality scholarship promotes and furthers the field of counselor education in two important ways: (a) scholarly productivity and research mentorship provide career benefits for counselor educators seeking tenure (Magnuson et al., 2003; Melicher, 2000); and (b) quality clinical services are based on quality research endeavors (Dohm & Cummings, 2002) which support our ultimate ethical responsibility to benefit, not harm, counseling clients (American Counseling Association, 2005). Third, promotion of diversity is emphasized in both the Council of Accreditation 2001 Standards, and the American Counseling Association 2005 Code of Ethics. Because women and people of color are underrepresented in tenured faculty positions in higher education (Curtis, 2003; Holcomb-McCoy & Bradley, 2003), counselor educators bear partial responsibility for promoting their retention and success. Research mentorship is an effective tool toward this goal (Benishek et al., 2004). Finally, counselors and counselor educators bear a philosophical charge to promote wellness, including

occupational wellness (Hill, 2004; Witmer & Young, 1996). Overwhelming workloads, isolation, and unclear expectations can diminish occupational wellness for pre-tenured faculty persons. Counselor educators are not immune to these stressors (Hill, 2004). Because quality mentoring is considered an effective means for reducing occupational stressors and improving wellness, some institutions have begun implementing mentoring programs to lower stressors and possible attrition of pre-tenured faculty persons (Carr et al., 2003; Casto et al., 2005; Hill, 2004). Thus, exploring ways research mentorship might alleviate counselor educator stress and promote occupational and holistic wellness is congruent with counseling's professional charge.

### Research Questions

The research questions proposed for this study have emerged from the literature as outlined above. Specifically:

#### Research Question One:

Do pre-tenured counselor educators receive research mentorship?

#### Research Question Two:

Do male and female pre-tenured counselor educators report different experiences of research mentorship?

### Glossary of Terms

#### ACA

American Counseling Association, the national professional organization for counselors and counselor educators.

### CACREP

Council for the Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs, the accrediting body for counselor education programs.

### Feminist

Feminism is a belief that women and men are inherently of equal worth. Because most societies privilege men as a group, social movements are necessary to achieve equality between women and men, with the understanding that gender always intersects with other social hierarchies (Freedman, 2002, p. 6).

### Grooming-mentoring

A traditional model of mentoring typically taking place in the business world, where an older male mentor prepares the protégé to eventually take the mentor's position in the organization.

### Majority Culture

Refers to dominant culture in the United States, which emerged from a Eurocentric, male, heterosexual perspective.

### Mentorship

“A complex process by which persons of superior rank, experience, special achievements, and prestige instruct, provide support, sponsor, and assist the intellectual, personal, and career development of persons identified as protégés” (Brinson & Kottler, 1993, p. 242).

### Networking-mentoring

A theory of mentoring that emerged during the 1980's in an effort to extend mentoring to women. This model was characterized by lateral relationships rather than hierarchical.

### Pre-tenured

The first years of a career in higher education, as educators are working toward the attainment of tenure at an institution of higher education.

### Research Mentorship

Research mentorship is a complex, dynamic relationship that occurs within an academic setting. The mentor, a more experienced researcher, offers both relational and instructional support to the protégé in research generation and collaboration, and professional development. The relationship is goal and task-oriented, and primarily serves protégé needs, with secondary benefit for the mentor, who gains a research collaborator.

### Underrepresented Group

Groups of people existing outside of the majority culture; including gay, lesbian, and transgendered people, people with disabilities, people of color, and women.

## CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

### Mentorship: An Overview

The purpose of this literature review is to provide background information regarding research mentorship, and to support justification for this study. The literature review will contain the following: (a) the definition of mentorship; (b) historical perspectives on mentorship; (c) current trends in the literature; (d) functions of mentorship; (e) emergence of research mentorship in the literature and practice; and finally, (f) the relevance of research mentorship to counselor education.

#### *Definition of Mentorship*

Throughout the literature, researchers note the lack of a clear definition for *mentor* (Benishek et al., 2004; Melicher, 2000). Similarly, early and contemporary literature on mentoring has been criticized for failing to produce a consistent, comprehensive definition of mentorship (Melicher, 2000). A recent review of academic literature on mentoring confirms the lack of definition and indicates a dearth of empirical research, despite the prevalence of articles and books on mentorship (Black et al., 2004). This oversight may create the impression that mentoring is a simple process. However, the mentoring relationship is complex, unique, and marked by distinct factors (Benishek et al.).

To define mentorship, it is necessary to identify the specific functions that emerge over the course of the relationship (Clark et al., 2000). Ideally, mentors transfer knowledge and teach skills to protégés, initiate the protégé into their chosen profession, and bolster the protégé's confidence through nurturing and praise (Lyons & Scroggins, 1990). This is best accomplished through active listening, being

mentally present when working with protégés, and creating a trusting atmosphere (Pierce, 1998). The mentor also acts as a coach and trusted advisor, assisting the protégé in navigating the overt and hidden realities of the workplace (Lyons & Scroggins, 1990). Mentoring benefits the mentor as well as the protégé. Mentors can gain a sense of generativity, make new use of knowledge, and experience career rejuvenation (Black et al., 2004; Burke & McKeen, 1996). And while mentor functions, including teaching, counseling, and supervising, may give us an idea of what mentorship entails, mentorship is more than a sum of parts.

In addition to identifying mentorship functions, describing mentor relationships in qualitative terms can aid in the creation of a definition. For example, Lyons and Scroggins (1990) describe mentoring as a nurturing, protective process that facilitates the realization of the dream. There are several relationship qualities that appear throughout the literature on mentoring, including:

- Mentoring transpires in a professional setting
- The mentor is more experienced
- The protégé is seeking guidance in a particular area
- The relationship includes career and psychosocial functions (Benishek et al., 2004; Black et al., 2004; Melicher, 2000).

In summary, a definition of mentorship emerges from both the functions of the mentor relationship, and from the relational qualities or characteristics. Specifically, mentoring, as will be discussed in this research, is “a complex process by which persons of superior rank, experience, special achievements, and prestige instruct,

provide support, sponsor, and assist the intellectual, personal, and career development of persons identified as protégés” (Brinson & Kottler, 1993, p. 242).

### *Historical Perspectives of Mentorship*

The concept of *mentor* first appears in Greek mythology. When Odysseus left his home to join the alliance against Troy, he entrusted his friend, Mentor, to educate and groom Odysseus’ son, Telemachus, for leadership (Haring-Hidore, 1987). Thus, mentorship was born of a man-made ideal, hatched during a time of war, patriarchy, and monarchy.

Since that earliest appearance, mentorship has evolved as a construct. Levinson (1978) first popularized the term *mentor* in business literature, identifying mentoring as a critical relationship in adult male career development. At that point in time, Levinson described a mentor as an admirable, more experienced older “sibling” who guided the protégé through the culture of work. He identified mentorship as an important aspect of adult development: however, he studied only men. His effort has been criticized as non-inclusive, and for the lack of empirical data available to support his claims (Rose, 2003). Nevertheless, Levinson’s work launched mentorship into the larger consciousness.

Roche (1979) published a flagship editorial about mentorship that expanded Levinson’s ideas. In studying predominantly male business executives, Roche identified several key qualities of the mentoring relationship: the mentor was generally an older executive or manager; the relationship fulfilled personnel development and management succession needs for the corporations; and protégés reported little or no mentorship during their higher education experiences. For these protégés, mentorship

did not happen until they were in the workplace. Roche also found that executives with mentors earned higher salaries, felt more satisfied at work, and received more extensive education. The article did not include multicultural considerations, except for respondents' perception that women without family connections in business benefit from "paternal" mentoring relationships, as so few women were available to act as mentors.

The mentoring relationship described by Levinson (1978) and Roche (1979) is best described as *grooming-mentoring* (Haring-Hidore, 1987). Grooming-mentoring possesses several unique qualities. The relationship generally evolves between two men, one elder and one younger, in a business setting. The relationship ends when the protégé takes over the mentor's position in the company, often resulting in animosity and bad feelings. The relationship promotes homogeneity, as mentors (in this model, typically European American Caucasian males) seek protégés who resemble them in culture and background (Haring-Hidore).

In the 1980's a new model of mentoring emerged, *networking-mentoring*. This model moved away from the traditional as it entailed lateral, not hierarchical, mentorship. Unlike grooming-mentoring, this new networking framework occurred informally when peers acted as alternating mentors and protégés as situations demanded. Those who engaged in networking-mentoring might have several peer mentors, both within their organization and without (Haring-Hidore, 1987). This model evolved to meet the needs of women who lacked traditional mentors, but who desired support in their professional endeavors. Criticism of this model implicates its ambiguity, and its lack of the clear social structure upon which mentorship is generally

framed. Some claim that networking-mentoring is a partnership of equals and cannot be considered true mentorship, which occurs when one with higher status passes knowledge on to one who is less experienced (Melicher, 2000). In fact, participants in this model were not called *mentor* and *protégé*, but *peer pals* or simply *peers*. Because of the lack of hierarchy, women who engaged in this type of mentoring often found their upward mobility stymied (Haring-Hidore). Thus, even though support was sought and found through grooming-mentoring relationships, other benefits of mentoring were sacrificed.

Because of the lack of empirical data, and because mentoring theory grew from majority culture experiences, a “one size fits all” attitude toward mentorship emerged (Benishek et al., 2004). To open up the possible benefits of mentorship to all people, new paradigms for mentor relationships exist in the literature today. Specifically, feminist and multicultural mentoring show promise for underrepresented groups.

### *Current Trends in Mentoring*

#### *Mentoring from a Feminist Perspective*

In order to describe mentoring from a feminist perspective, it first becomes necessary to understand the definition of *feminism*. Feminism is, at its most simple, the idea that women are as capable as men. This perspective evolved in the United States in the mid-1800s, birthed in the middle-class arena of white, married women. Since the first wave of feminism that accompanied the suffrage and abolitionist movements, feminism has been vilified and glorified, and enjoys an uneasy relationship, at best, with women in the United States (Freedman, 2002). In fact, in the 1980’s Alice Walker coined the term *womanism* to better describe the experience of Black/African

American women in the U.S. The term *womanist* is used to describe “the cultural, historical, and political positionality of African American women, a group that has experienced slavery, segregation, sexism and classism for most of its history in the United States,” (Beauboeuf-Lafontant, 2002, p. 72). Today, feminism, a term misunderstood and often poorly defined, is not widely embraced by women regardless of political, cultural, or philosophical stance (Freedman).

It can be asserted that there are as many definitions of feminism as there are feminists (hooks, 2000). On the one hand, this constructivist stance allows for women to own the term as it meets individual needs and situations. Women are freed from the constraints of a ready-made belief system. Instead, women can choose to identify as feminist in a personally relevant way based on race, class, sexual orientation, or nationality (Freedman, 2002). On the other hand, endless definitions may ultimately weaken the use of the term, and leave feminism as a movement without a supporting theory. In fact, the lack of a consistent definition in the U.S. may imply a growing apathy toward the feminist movement in general (hooks).

For the purpose of this paper, the following definition of feminism is used:

Feminism is a belief that women and men are inherently of equal worth. Because most societies privilege men as a group, social movements are necessary to achieve equality between women and men, with the understanding that gender always intersects with other social hierarchies (Freedman, 2002, p. 6).

By employing a feminist perspective, mentoring can be examined from a different lens than the traditional male paradigm of grooming-mentoring, and in a more structured manner than networking-mentoring. Specifically, this perspective asserts that leadership and professionalism can be exhibited in multiple ways. For example,

women who hold administrative positions in higher education tend toward a relational style of leadership, indicated by active skills (as opposed to a state of being), interdependence with staff, service orientation, global thinking, confidence in abilities, and vision (Oakes, 1999). With regard to mentorship, women may prefer a relationship that is different from the traditional paradigm. For example, women protégés tend to focus on the psychosocial (internal) benefits of the relationship rather than the external, job-specific benefits, such as skill development (Egan, 1996). Mentoring is perceived more as an interpersonal activity rather than a goal-oriented one (Paterson & Hart-Wasekeesikaw, 1994). Also, unlike networking-mentoring, a more structured social relationship exists, as the mentor is typically more experienced and/or of higher rank than the protégé (Moss et al., 1999). Mentoring with a feminist perspective focuses on:

- Partnership and collaboration
- Cooperation rather than competition
- Nurturance rather than individualism
- Peace rather than conflict
- Learner rather than mentor needs
- Dialog and interpersonal skill development
- Feedback and open communication
- Cultivating personal qualities such as self-esteem, autonomy, and balance between work and home life

- Exploring and valuing differences rather than denying or minimizing them (Benishek et al., 2004; Egan, 1996; Paterson & Hart-Wasekeesikaw, 1994; Schramm, 2000).

Therefore, “mentoring as a feminist praxis means promoting women, people of colour [sic], and others who are less favourably [sic] positioned within the academy and assisting them in negotiating the relations within the academy” (Moss et al., 1999, p. 414). Feminist mentoring is intended to create a nurturing environment: one where a protégé can grow professionally and personally, is encouraged in self-reflection, is given the opportunity to build skills and enhance her vita, is able to develop oral communication skills, and is modeled ethical and professional behavior (Moss et al.). Because there is evidence that women are less likely to receive mentoring than men, feminist mentoring also alleviates isolation (Carr et al., 2003). For women in academia, isolation is often one of the key factors leading to attrition prior to obtaining tenure (August & Waltman, 2004). Thus, women who are mentored can experience greater satisfaction at work, may be able to move more quickly through the advancement process, and receive more equitable salaries (Casto et al., 2005).

Finally, same sex modeling appears important for women protégés (Cullen & Luna, 1993). Women need to observe other women successfully navigating the system to feel confident in their own ability to do the same. Woman to woman mentoring can reduce feelings of isolation and failure, especially in male-dominated professions like higher education (Casto et al., 2005). Women need to feel comfortable asking questions and raising concerns, safe in the knowledge that their needs will be met without the influence of gender bias. Women who are mentored by men may

experience oppression within the relationship, as it may perpetuate the dominant male and subservient female gender stereotypes (Casto et al.; Kronik, 1990). Additionally, cross gender mentoring may result in romantic entanglements, gender bias, tokenism, and fewer professional development opportunities (Benishek et al., 2004). However, the literature is mixed about whether or not this cross gender mentoring is detrimental to women protégés (Dohm & Cummings, 2002), and many women report successful relationships with mentors who are men (Benishek et al.).

#### *Mentoring from a Multicultural Perspective*

Because most mentoring and mentoring research has been conducted from a majority culture perspective (Dixon-Reeves, 2003), members of underrepresented groups are often neglected. Majority culture within the academic workplace focuses on *organizational fit*, the idea that there is one right path to graduation, promotion, and/or tenure (Cullen & Luna, 1993). However, this path does not always benefit women, persons of color, or other underrepresented groups. Cullen and Luna suggest moving toward an *individual fit* model, where different developmental needs are acknowledged and supported. In this way, mentoring programs within the workplace can fit the needs of the individual, rather than simply reflecting the existing culture (Hansman, 2001). Also, traditional models of mentoring stem from a majority culture perspective, and thus may not meet the needs of faculty of color, women, and other marginalized groups (Benishek et al., 2004).

One example of a traditional element of mentoring is the definition of mentoring as a one-to-one relationship. Some models propose a formal arrangement where mentor and protégé carefully interview and select one another for the purpose

of a professional relationship (Black et al., 2004). However, operating from a multicultural perspective, one might have multiple mentors, operating more informally (Benishek et al., 2004; Casto et al., 2005). In fact, using multiple mentors may increase the likelihood that the protégé's needs are met, and may be more beneficial for women and people of color (Casto et al.). Multiple mentors might include peer counselor, adviser, role model, sponsor, coach (Dixon-Reeves, 2003), and research mentor (Dohm & Cummings, 2002). Also, protégés might look outside of their immediate place of employment for mentors, perhaps to national professional organizations or on-line mentor groups (Casto et al.).

Multicultural mentoring, like feminist mentoring, possesses certain, unique qualities. Benishek et al. (2004) note multicultural mentoring is marked by factors such as mutuality, empowerment, protégé needs, and authenticity. Most importantly, cultural differences between the mentor and protégé are explored in an open, honest fashion, rather than denied or suppressed. In this way, mentor and protégé acknowledge individual value systems, rather than forcing protégés to adapt to mentors' culture (Benishek et al., 2004). This type of mentoring reflects a commitment to individual fit attitudes rather than organizational fit stereotypes.

Mentoring is an essential step in the socialization process for women and people of color in academia as it assists them in acculturating to a higher education system founded on majority culture values. Turner and Thompson (1993) note that women of color had fewer socialization opportunities than majority women, fewer opportunities for teaching and research apprenticeships than majority women, and feel more detached from community. Also, mentors typically choose protégés who most

resemble themselves, thus formal mentoring may simply reflect the existing dominant culture (Hansman, 2001). Research shows that marginalized groups, including women, people of color, and gay or lesbian individuals, are less often chosen for mentoring, and thus suffer additional stigma and exclusion in the workplace (Hansman, 2001). This lack of integration can lead to increased attrition and decreased job satisfaction (Hagedorn, 1999). However, women and people of color who were effectively mentored often come to experience the same level of support as those from the majority group (Casto et al., 2005).

It is important to note that mentors who are people of color may often be overwhelmed by requests to mentor protégés from underrepresented groups. Because protégés often prefer mentors from the same cultural background (Cullen & Luna, 1993; Haring-Hidore, 1987), and because fewer people of color are advanced to the upper echelons of business or academia, these mentors are often stretched by multiple requests (Holcomb-McCoy & Bradley, 2003). However, some studies have shown that there is no discernable difference when working with a mentor outside of one's own race: that the mentoring relationship is beneficial regardless (Brinson & Kottler, 1993).

### *Functions of Mentorship*

As noted previously, mentorship defies easy definition. However, there are some commonly agreed upon elements of mentorship that are prevalent in the literature. First, mentoring generally entails these five overarching principles:

- Mentoring is, at its core, a helping relationship where the goal is long-term protégé success.

- Mentoring functions fall into three domains: psychosocial, career, and role modeling.
- Though mentoring focuses on protégé success, it remains a reciprocal relationship.
- The mentoring relationship is based on direct personal interaction between mentor and student.
- The mentor possesses greater experience, knowledge, or influence in the setting where mentoring occurs (Tentoni, 1995).

In addition to these essential principles of a mentoring relationship, mentorship encompasses five commonly regarded functions: (a) teaching, (b) sponsoring, (c) encouraging, (d) counseling, and (e) befriending (Rose, 2003; Tentoni, 1995).

*Teaching* implies all the foundational elements of instruction, including providing information, role modeling, confirming facts, and debunking myths. *Sponsoring* indicates instructing protégés in navigating overt and covert rules of the workplace.

Also, sponsoring implies promotion of protégés in their work environment.

*Encouraging* affirms protégés and opens the door for new success and achievement.

*Counseling* entails basic attending behaviors, and assisting protégés in movement through difficult employment and life phases. Finally, *befriending* does not mean casual friendship, but intent on the part of mentors to make time for protégés, and a commitment to accept protégés as whole, separate individuals (Rose, 2003; Tentoni, 1995).

These mentoring functions might occur in any one of three primary mentoring domains: career, psychosocial, and role modeling (Clark, Harden, & Johnson, 2000;

Rose, 2003). The *career* domain encompasses the concrete aspects of career development: offering career advisement and instruction (Casto, Caldwell, & Salazar, 2005) initiation into the profession (Lyons & Scroggins, 1990) sponsorship, exposure, and challenging work assignments (Clark et al). The *psychosocial* domain encompasses more abstract qualities: bolstering protégés' confidence through nurturing and praise (Lyons & Scroggins), offering support and understanding, protecting protégés from harmful elements (Casto et al.), confirmation, counseling, and friendship (Clark et al.). *Role modeling* provides protégés with a successful professional to emulate (Brinson & Kottler, 1993). This is especially important for women, who may lack role models in their chosen profession (Brinson & Kottler).

Just as protégés seek out mentor who will fulfill the functions described above, mentors seek particular qualities in protégés to ensure a successful pairing. Specifically, mentors seek protégés who have strong self-esteem, self-confidence, and a positive attitude about learning and feedback. Also qualities including dependability and an ability to follow through on tasks appealed to potential mentors. Finally, mentors tend to choose protégés who have similar career goals as themselves (Black et al., 2004).

Even though mentorship has been extensively examined in the business world, higher education has been slower to catch up (Dixon-Reeves, 2003). However, mentorship occurs in a variety of professional settings, including academia. The focus of this literature review thus far has been broad in scope. The lens narrows now to mentorship as it can be applied in academia, particularly counselor education, to promote quality research endeavors for pre-tenured faculty members.

## Research Mentorship

### *Emergence in Literature and Practice*

The construct of research mentorship emerged in the academic community, as less experienced academicians paired with their more experienced colleagues to produce scholarly work. New social science faculty members, including counselor educators, benefit from this pairing, as research mentorship can increase the quality of scholarly work. This is particularly important for the field of counselor education as quality research facilitates quality practice. Thus, if research quality is poor, then the future of practice is threatened (Dohm & Cummings, 2002). However, even though research mentorship is already being practiced in academia, it lacks mature definition and clarity in the literature. Also, because research mentorship is relatively new to the literature and practice, it lacks empirical support about functions, benefits, and challenges (Dohm & Cummings; Melicher, 2000). This section will outline the emergence of research mentorship, identify criteria and functions, and discuss similarities to and differences from general mentorship.

A review of several social science and educational databases reveal that the term *research mentor* appears to have emerged in the literature within the past 10 years. While general mentorship can be applied to a variety of settings, research mentorship is specific to academic, scientific, or other research-heavy occupations. In fact, it is the most common form of mentor relationship in academia (Clark & Watson, 1998), and research mentorship is expected to increase faculty members' scholarly productivity (Paul et al., 2002). In the literature, research mentorship is rarely defined outside of the general parameters of mentorship (Dohm & Cummings, 2002), and has

not been extensively researched (Clark & Watson, 1998). This is problematic because while mentorship addresses broad areas of occupational functioning (psychosocial, career, and role modeling), research mentorship meets specific needs that may not be met in a traditional mentoring relationship. For example, inexperienced researchers may perceive barriers to their own research endeavors (Dohm & Cummings, 2002) that are easily surmounted. However, their limited knowledge of outlets for research expression may intimidate novices from the start. Research mentors can assist protégés in understanding the full spectrum of research, and can facilitate first steps (Dohm & Cummings).

### *Understanding Research*

To date, no definition specific to research mentorship has been proposed. Instead, general qualities of mentoring are applied to research mentorship, with the implicit understanding that research will occur within those broad parameters. This perpetuates the mystery and ambiguity of the relationship, perhaps to the detriment of both mentor and protégé. In order to begin operationalizing a definition of research mentorship, parameters of *research* must be explored.

What exactly does research mean? Though publication in peer-reviewed journals is given the most weight in an academic environment, research can embody many different elements (Ramsey et al., 2002). These include conducting quantitative or qualitative studies; creating opinion or theory pieces for professional publications; presenting at professional conferences; conducting needs assessments; giving speeches; writing grants; and creating on-line resources and web pages (Creamer,

1998; Dixon-Reeves, 2003; & Erwin, 2001). Research mentorship might occur in all these situations.

Also, Ramsey et al. (2002) identify qualities of research specific to counselor education. It appears that counselor educators tend to generate research in areas outside of scholarly journals more frequently than other academic disciplines such as the hard sciences (Ramsey et al.). Though counselor educators do note the importance of publication in scholarly journals with regard to tenure and promotion (Magnuson et al., 2003), they also engage in conference presentations, grant writing, book reviews, training manuals, evaluations of external agencies, workshops, and consultation (Ramsey et al.). In addition to the importance of scholarly endeavors to obtainment of tenure, inclusion of evidence-based research (EBR) into counselor educator scholarship is integral as it promotes quality counseling practice (Bartley et al., 2003). EBR refers to the application of scientific research procedures to evaluate specific counseling practices, methodologies, or programs (Bartley et al.). Thus, counselor educators engage in research and scholarship both for individual career gain, and to promote quality practice within the counseling profession.

With regard to gender, it appears that men and women counselor educators prefer different types of scholarship: For example, men tend to publish journal articles while women are more likely to present at conferences (Ramsey et al.). Finally, it is important to note that simply providing didactic training in scholarly work was not as important as quality mentoring when teaching new faculty about research and scholarship (Magnuson et al.). This information provide a more comprehensive view

of how counselor educators are engaging in research, and thus, how they might mentor or how they might be mentored with regard to research.

### *Functions of Research Mentorship*

Like general mentorship, research mentorship occurs when a more experienced person joins with someone less experienced to promote awareness, skill, and productivity in research and scholarly endeavors (Dohm & Cummings, 2002). One's mentor may provide research mentorship as a function of mentoring as a whole. However, often multiple mentors meet the needs of an individual protégé (Dixon-Reeves, 2003). Thus, one mentor may not be able to provide for every need. Because research is a specialized function, protégés might require a mentor specifically for that purpose.

Research mentorship appears to include two broad categories: relational factors and instructional factors (Clark & Watson, 1998; Magnuson et al., 2003). *Relational factors* including the following: offering support to the protégé; welcoming protégé participation in research projects; role modeling; nurturing the protégé in times of disappointment; advocating on behalf of the protégé; and socializing the protégé into the academic environment (Magnuson et al.; Paul et al., 2002; Reynolds, 2005). Also, effective research mentors are “go to” individuals who respond quickly to emails and phone calls, set regular meetings with protégés, and invest themselves in their protégés success: “My mentor...had meetings, time set aside for me, emails, time at conferences to just encourage me to publish.” (Magnuson et al., p. 216). These behaviors reduce protégé isolation and loneliness (Clark & Watson, 1998). However,

relational qualities may not directly increase protégés' research productivity (Paul et al., 2002).

*Instructional factors* include several subcategories. First, mentors can assist protégés in beginning research projects through research question generation, critical analysis of ideas, and offering multiple perspectives on a topic (Magnuson et al., 2003). These behaviors enrich protégés' understanding of a subject (Clark & Watson, 1998). Second, when protégés are immersed in research projects, mentors can assist in concrete tasks such as research design, methodology, analyzing data, and feedback on writing (Magnuson et al.). Third, research mentors can offer career guidance of which protégés may be unaware, including submission of articles to scholarly journals, advice about career decisions, promoting scientific integrity, and time management (Magnuson et al.; Reynolds, 2005). Determining the instructional or relational needs of a protégé must be an individual process, based on protégés' past experience with research, level of confidence, and writing experience (Reynolds, 2005). As a whole, research mentorship appears more effective than mere didactic training (Magnuson et al.), as synergy created by collaboration drives and generates research (Clark & Watson, 1998). In sum, research mentorship includes:

#### Relational factors

- Offering support
- Encouraging research participation
- Role modeling professional research behaviors
- Nurturing in times of disappointment
- Advocating on behalf of the protégé

- Answering emails and phone calls quickly
- Attending regular meetings with the protégé
- Socializing protégé to the academic environment (Magnuson et al.; Paul et al., 2002; Reynolds, 2005).

#### Instructional factors

- Research question generation
- Critical analysis of ideas
- Offering multiple perspectives on a topic
- Assisting in research design
- Assisting in analyzing data
- Feedback on writing
- Assisting in submission of articles to scholarly journals
- Offering advice about career decisions
- Promoting scientific integrity
- Teaching time management skills (Clark & Watson, 1998; Magnuson et al.; Reynolds).

#### *Benefits.*

Research mentorship has the potential to benefit both parties. The protégé gains expertise, and contributes to the success of the project (Benishek et al., 2004). The mentor, who experiences work overload similar to junior colleagues, gains valuable assistance in completing tasks (Benishek et al.), and experiences generativity, as knowledge is passed from one generation to the next (Black et al.; Burke & McKeen, 1996). Also, when research mentorship is successful, both the mentor and

the protégé experience an increase in scholarly productivity (Paul et al., 2002).

Collaboration is of particular importance to protégés who have been marginalized, including women, people of color, and lesbian women, as it validates their contribution in a way they might not have experienced before (Benishek et al.).

### *Barriers.*

Though the potential benefits of research mentorship are many, challenges also exist. Protégés cite difficulty in scheduling meetings with mentors, the emotional toll of criticism, and power issues as some of the caveats when entering a research mentor relationship (Clark & Watson, 1998). One example of power issues lies in issues of intellectual property. The culture of academia has long supported mentors' and advisors' failure to acknowledge protégé contributions to research, in exchange for enhancing protégé career opportunities. Increasingly, however, as the academic market becomes more competitive, protégés are reluctant to forfeit ownership of ideas, often resulting in animosity (Tenner, 2004). For mentors, producing collaborative work with protégés may be more time consuming than working alone or with a colleague, as the mentor is simultaneously producing a work and training a neophyte (Clark & Watson; Paul et al., 2002). Also, because of the lack of clear definition to date, mentor and protégé may have different ideas about what the research mentor relationship should entail, which can create confusion and disappointment for both parties (Tentoni, 1995).

### *Stages of Research Mentorship*

Counselor education programs that already facilitate research mentorship offer insight into the stages that manifest within the relationship. Research mentorship

generally incorporates a specific project and deadlines into the relationship. Thus, it is more important for mentor and protégé to structure time in order to maximize effectiveness (Monash University, n.d.). To this end, structured, regularly scheduled, protected time is vital to construction of a research agenda (Reynolds, 2005). Meeting time is task-oriented, and focused on a particular project selected to meet mentor and protégé research needs (e.g., a pilot study, a conference presentation proposal, or a grant) (Reynolds, 2005).

There are three stages in a research mentor relationship (Monash University, n.d.). In stage one, mentor and protégé negotiate the parameters of the meetings: research needs, objectives, and meeting times. In stage two, the objectives are broken down into smaller tasks, outcomes are developed, and feedback is provided. In stage three, outcomes are processed, and new tasks are developed. If multiple projects are underway, these stages become quite fluid, and may occur out of order or simultaneously, depending on the mentorship needs.

#### *Definition of Research Mentorship*

For the purpose of this study and based on the preceding information, the following definition of research mentorship is proposed: Research mentorship is a complex, dynamic relationship that occurs within an academic setting. The mentor, a more experienced researcher, offers both relational and instructional support to the protégé in research generation and collaboration, and professional development. The relationship is goal and task-oriented, and primarily serves protégé needs, with secondary benefit for the mentor, who gains a research collaborator.

This definition emerged from a perspective of hierarchy within the relationship because research is a specialized activity that requires a level of expertise on behalf of the mentor. Additionally, the hierarchy established between one who is more experienced and one who is a novice does not necessarily result in oppression or negative power dynamics. Thus, the wording seemed appropriate for this area of study.

*Multicultural considerations.*

Similar to traditional mentorship, research mentorship deserves special consideration for women and people of color. For women, the opportunity to publish with a mentor provides hands-on experience, practical skills, and the chance to generate new knowledge. Moreover, a study by Dohm and Cummings (2002) demonstrated that women with a research mentor were more likely to be conducting research than women without a research mentor. Though access to collaboration may increase opportunities for women to publish, it may be difficult for women to find collaborators. Faculty women who experience marginalization in majority-dominated higher education cultures may be reluctant to ask a male colleague to mentor out of fear of losing credit for the work (Winkler, 2000). However, because there are so few women in the upper ranks of academia, it may be difficult to find a female mentor (Curtis, 2003; Winkler). Though women express a preference for working with same-sex mentors, it does not appear that the gender of the mentor alone impacts the quality of the mentoring relationship (Benishek et al.).

For faculty persons of color, similar barriers exist. The numbers of faculty of color have not kept up with the percentages of persons of color in the general

population (Holcomb-McCoy & Bradley, 2003). Thus, protégés seeking mentoring on research endeavors may have difficulty finding mentors from similar ethnic and cultural backgrounds. As protégés prefer mentors who resemble them, this may prove frustrating (Hansman, 2001). Also, research mentorship defined from a majority cultural perspective may not meet the needs of protégés from outside that culture (Dixon-Reeves, 2003). Additionally, people of color conducting research on race, discrimination, or oppression issues are finding their work devalued in the mainstream scholarly journals, and may not find mentor support for their work (Dixon-Reeves, 2003).

For women, people of color, and others who lack mentors with their university, or their departments, online or distance mentoring may be an option. Faculty persons from outside the majority culture may feel isolated, particularly if the rest of the faculty persons in their department come from a position of social privilege. This phenomenon holds true in counselor education also (Casto et al., 2005). Rather than seeking mentorship from fellow faculty persons, women and people of color might look outside the program to state or national counseling professionals who come from similar cultural backgrounds (Casto et al.). This mentoring model may benefit underrepresented groups in higher education more so than traditional models. However, online mentorship brings a unique set of concerns to the mentoring relationship: technical problems, lack of computer skills, or low motivation can undermine good intentions. Mentors and protégés who choose to relate through electronic media must demonstrate mutual commitment to the process, and a structured plan for communicating on a regular basis is advised (Hawkridge, 2003).

### Relevance of Research Mentorship to the Field of Counselor Education

In the following section, justification for this study is provided. Specifically, the current study is warranted as (a) the current counselor education literature lacks information on research mentorship, (b) producing quality research is an important individual and collective endeavor for counselor educators, (c) counselor educators have an ethical obligation to advocacy for underrepresented groups, and research mentorship can facilitate advocacy, and (d) wellness, an integral philosophical claim of counselors and counselor educators, can be enhanced by research mentorship.

#### *Paucity of Literature*

Literature about mentoring in counselor and counselor educator training is often anecdotal, is a relatively recent development, and is scarce (Black et al., 2004; Tentoni, 1995). Mentoring literature in counselor education is even scarcer. In fact less than 1% of articles in the main psychology and counseling journals discuss the issue of mentorship (Black et al., 2004). Definitions and roles of mentors lack clarity in counselor education literature, and faculty and students offer conflicting views about critical aspects of mentorship (Tentoni, 1995). Empirical studies on mentoring have been few and inconsistent in their results and examination of mentoring programs already in place demonstrate a lack of consistency with regard to framework and function (Tentoni). Furthermore, few studies have focused on whether counselor educators are receiving mentoring (Black et al.), and none appear to exist that examine whether research mentorship occurs for counselor educators. One study by Clark et al. (2000) examined mentoring among doctoral students in clinical psychology. It was found that approximately two-thirds of those surveyed (n=787) received mentoring,

with male students receiving mentoring at a slightly higher rate. No studies of this sort have been conducted in counselor education. Thus, this study aims to similarly examine the experience of pre-tenured counselor educators to determine to whether research mentorship occurs.

### *Importance of Research*

One reason it is so important to determine if counselor educators are receiving research mentorship is because quality research is critical on an individual and collective level for counselor educators. On an individual level, research is one of the primary facets of tenure, if not the most important consideration (Magnuson et al., 2003; Melicher, 2000). Thus, the first years of employment as counselor educators include a steep learning curve as new professors strive to fulfill their research agendas and build foundations for successful academic careers (Hill, 2004). The literature demonstrates that new faculty members who have mentors to guide them through the research process often experience less stress and greater productivity during their first years in the professoriate (Hill, 2004; Magnuson et al.; Melicher; Paul et al., 2002). However, many new counselor educators enter professional roles unprepared to dive into scholarly endeavors (Magnuson et al., 2003), making the presence or absence of a research mentor all the more critical.

Speaking collectively, counselor educators have offered a variety of written guidelines for conducting effective research (Magnuson et al., 2003), emphasizing our professional commitment to research endeavors. One reason for this commitment is that research lays the foundation for ethical and effective clinical practice in counseling (Dohm & Cummings, 2002; Paul et al., 2002). Thus, neglecting this vital

area weakens our professional practice and reputation. Unfortunately, the gap between researchers and practitioners appears to be growing, and recent studies have found that fewer doctoral graduates are engaging in research: more than half choose to enter clinical professions and abandon research endeavors (Erwin, 2001). As a result, counselor education faculty persons are called to engage in EBR to promote scientific inquiry into counseling theories and interventions (Bartley et al., 2003). As mentorship can play a significant role in learning how to produce quality research (Magnuson et al., 2003), research mentors become even more important for pre-tenured counselor educators.

#### *Professional Commitment to Diversity*

Similar to the professional commitment to quality research, counselor educators are called to promote and enhance diversity within the field of counselor education. Both the CACREP 2001 Standards, and the ACA 2005 Code of Ethics note the importance of attending to cultural values, promoting diversity, and engaging in social justice. In light of these professional standards, counselor educators bear the responsibility of promoting the welfare of clients, students, and faculty. This responsibility includes facilitating the success of women and people of color as tenure track individuals in academia. Research mentoring assists in fulfilling this professional obligation (Benishek et al., 2004).

#### *Faculty Women in Counselor Education*

Overall, women are underrepresented in the professoriate. Even though 51% of all PhD's are now granted to women (Mason & Goulden, 2004), women account for only 38% of faculty at all institutions for higher learning (Curtis, 2003). Also, faculty

women experience attrition before tenure at a rate of 2:1 to their male counterparts. One reason for the high rate of attrition may be that faculty women have a more difficult time than men in finding faculty willing to mentor them in their areas of research interest (Dohm & Cummings, 2002). In a recent study, Hill et al. (2005) determined that lack of mentors was one factor contributing to dissatisfaction among faculty women in the field of counselor education. Additionally, pre-tenured counselor educators stress the importance of strong collegial relationships and mentorship to ease the transition into the first year of teaching and research (Magnuson, 2002). Research mentorship can assist women faculty with this transition, increasing the likelihood of success in the academy.

Research mentorship may also support women's way of being, which is often more collaborative and collegial (Benishek et al., 2004; Egan, 1996; Paterson & Hart-Wasekeesikaw, 1994; Schramm, 2000). While men are more comfortable working in relative isolation (Winkler, 2000), women working in isolation tend to become perfectionistic about their work, and to take more time than men in crafting articles for submission (Winkler). This tendency contributes to lower publication rates, as women submit fewer articles than their male colleagues (Creamer, 1998). So, an environment where women work in isolation, or which fails to support research mentorship for pre-tenured faculty women may marginalize them, reducing opportunities to publish, and perhaps impacting their achievement of tenure.

#### *Faculty of Color in Counselor Education*

It is important to note the racial disparity that exists in counselor education. Though Caucasians comprise only 75% of the total United States population, they

make up 90% of faculty at institutions for higher education (Holcomb-McCoy & Bradley, 2003). Within counselor education, 15% of faculty persons are faculty of color, with African American and Latino/a/Hispanic educators among the most underrepresented (Holcomb-McCoy & Bradley). Perhaps because of limited numbers, people of color, women, and other marginalized populations often do not receive mentoring (Hansman, 2001). Again, mentors tend to choose protégés who resemble them in cultural terms (Hansman); thus in a majority culture system, majority culture faculty persons are more likely to be mentored. Also, faculty members of color may find themselves pressured to acculturate to the organization, rather than experiencing the organization meeting their individual needs (Cullen & Luna, 1993). This can create isolation, which can lead to attrition prior to tenure (Hill, 2004). Mentorship has been demonstrated as an effective antidote to a sense of isolation, and can promote connectivity within the system (Hill). Additionally, there is a lack of awareness among CACREP-accredited program faculty that special recruiting and retention methods, including mentoring are necessary to promote the success and job satisfaction of faculty of color (Holcomb-McCoy & Bradley, 2003). For the purpose of this study, data will be gathered regarding mentor and protégé racial identity as demographic information. However, differences in research mentorship experiences will not be examined by race, due to the limitations of this study. Future studies may focus on racial identity as a factor of research mentorship quality, as removing barriers to the success of counselor educators of color is an essential act of advocacy for our profession.

*Professional Commitment to Wellness*

Finally, counselor education includes an implicit commitment to the promotion of wellness. Counselor education faculty members are not immune to stressors. In academia, stressors “may include role overload, insufficient feedback, inadequate resources, lack of collegial support, and unrealistic expectations” (Hill, 2004, p. 135). If unchecked, stressors can lead to decreased productivity and lowered job satisfaction, negatively impacting the overall wellness of educators (Hill, 2004). For counselor educators, these repercussions are especially detrimental. Because promoting wellness is an integral philosophical claim of counselors, counselor educators are charged with maintaining and modeling effective wellness (Hill, 2004). In fact, Witmer and Young (1996) assert that recruiting standards for new faculty should include a personal wellness plan. Wellness “is a lifestyle focused on promoting health and well-being and supporting a balance between spirit, mind, and body” (Hill, 2004, p. 135). Holistic wellness indicates that all the elements in an individual’s life are in balance and functional, including one’s occupational identity.

While there is a paucity of literature regarding counselor educator impairment, there appears to be an isomorphic link between counselor wellness and client wellness. In other words, well counselors are more likely to promote wellness in their clients (Witmer & Young, 1996). It would stand to reason that well counselor educators are similarly likely to positively impact the wellness of their counselors in training. If counselor educators are successfully managing occupational stressors, they are better able to model positive behaviors to their students, and to increase their own job satisfaction and productivity (Hill, 2004).

While some institutions have begun implementing formal mentorship programs to lower attrition of pre-tenured faculty persons (Carr et al., 2003; Casto et al., 2005; Hill, 2004), the culture of academia is such that “publish or perish” is an oft-heard comment among faculty members new and old alike. The idea that one must make one’s own way in an academic culture, that each sinks or swims on her own, is a long-held tenet of academia (Mwamwenda, 1994). As such, pre-tenured faculty persons experience multiple intense stressors, including isolation, feeling overwhelmed, unmanageable workloads, and uncertainty about responsibilities. Mentoring has been demonstrated as an effective antidote to all these conditions, and can benefit protégés both occupationally and personally (Hill, 2004). Because mentoring has been shown to be an effective tool in mitigating stress and maintaining occupational wellness, counselor educators might consider implementing mentorship into the workplace. Specifically, research mentorship can enhance the occupational wellness of pre-tenured counselor educators, as it reduces isolation, increases productivity, and can lead to greater job satisfaction (Benishek et al., 2004; Paul et al., 2002).

#### Summary of Key Points

Mentorship is a construct closely examined in business literature, and, increasingly, in higher education and counseling literature. Research mentorship is general mentorship applied to an academic setting with the goal of producing scholarly work. Research mentorship, though shown to be valuable as new faculty members make their way toward tenure, has been scarcely examined and lacks clear definition. The aim of this study is to examine the role of research mentorship in the

development of novice counselor educators. Research mentorship in the field of counselor education is worthy of study for several reasons including the paucity of literature. First, quality research is important to counselor education and to counseling, as it promotes quality service in both professions. Second, research mentorship can advantage underrepresented groups in counselor education, partially fulfilling our professional commitment to diversity. Finally, research mentorship may enhance occupational wellness, another integral philosophical claim of the counseling profession. This study aims to fill the gap in the literature, potentially offering benefit to new counselor educators struggling to successfully fulfill their roles in academia.

## CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

This chapter proposes research methodology for this study based on Creswell's (2003) and Dillman's (2000) research design recommendations. Research questions, survey design, population, sampling procedures, instrumentation, research procedures, and statistical analyses are reviewed.

### Overview

The purpose of this descriptive/comparative quantitative study was to explore research mentorship as it occurs in the field of counselor education. Specific research questions were as follows:

- Research question one: Do pre-tenured counselor educators receive research mentorship?
- Research question two: Do male and female pre-tenured counselor educators report different experiences of research mentorship?

As noted in chapter two of this proposal, there is a dearth of literature regarding research mentorship for pre-tenured faculty members in counselor education. Subsequently, it was difficult to hypothesize objectively about whether pre-tenured counselor educators receive research mentorship. Using research questions to drive the investigation rather than hypotheses is acceptable according to Gall, Gall, and Borg (2005), who state, "If theory or previous research do not provide an adequate basis for formulating specific hypotheses, many researchers instead will formulate questions or objectives to guide their investigation" (pp. 125-126). It was the intent of this researcher to approach this study with these open-ended questions to gather information that might be used to promote understanding of research mentorship in

practice. Specifically, quantitative methodology allowed for a national survey of pre-tenured counselor educators, which provided a broad foundation upon which future research questions can be explored.

To that end, a survey instrument was designed specifically for this study. The Research Mentor Quality Questionnaire (RMQQ) (see Appendix I) was developed using Dillman (2000) and Creswell (2003) methodologies for survey design. The RMQQ contains questions specific to research mentorship functions as described in the literature (Paul et al., 2002; Schroeder & Mynatt, 1993), elements of scholarship as defined in the literature (Paul et al., 2002; Roland & Fontanesi-Seime, 1996), and dossier guidelines for promotion and tenure in the Oregon State University (OSU) faculty handbook (OSU Faculty Handbook, 1999). Demographic data was gathered to further understand the individual qualities of survey participants, and to run significance tests to compare male and female responses. This web-based survey was administered according to Dillman's outline of five elements contributing to higher response rates, and 11 recommendations specific to web-based surveys. The survey link was emailed to assistant professor counselor educators in programs accredited by the Council for the Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP) who hold the rank of assistant professor. The data from this study was analyzed using descriptive and comparative statistics. Research design and statistical analysis are further described below.

### Research Design

The RMQQ was intended to investigate the research mentorship experiences of pre-tenured counselor educators. This survey was a self-administered Web-based

questionnaire, as participants could complete the survey in their own time without assistance from the researcher. The survey inquired about descriptive information about the experiences of pre-tenured counselor educators within their occupational environments. According to Gall et al. (2005), survey research is effective in providing information about behaviors, beliefs, and experiences of respondents. The information resulting from this survey may be used to generalize to the larger population (including those working in non-CACREP accredited programs) of counselor education pre-tenured faculty persons (Dillman, 2000). The primary goal of this researcher was to inform doctoral students, pre-tenured faculty, tenured faculty, and administrative leaders of the practice of research mentorship in the field of counselor education. This goal may be achieved by subsequent publication and presentation of study results.

### *Population and Sample*

The sample population included pre-tenured faculty members in CACREP-accredited counselor education programs. Using the CACREP database aided in identifying counselor education programs. Also, as CACREP standards are considered the highest standards for counselor education programs, it was important to examine to what degree these programs facilitate faculty development and scholarship.

Currently, there are 198 CACREP accredited programs in the United States (CACREP, 2005). This researcher's home institution was excluded from study, resulting in 197 possible programs. The population database was created via the following steps. First, each of the 197 CACREP program websites was accessed via the Internet. Second, each faculty roster was culled for members who identified as

assistant professor. This rank was chosen as most pre-tenured faculty persons hold the rank of assistant professor. Demographic questions in the survey further determined which respondents were pre-tenured. Third, individual faculty members were selected based on whether their website profile contained an email contact address. Of the 197 possible programs, two programs were not included in the sampling as their counselor education programs have been phased out, and their websites no longer exist. Additionally, 19 programs did not provide faculty listings, and 22 programs did not provide titles for faculty. Thus, ultimately 155 programs were included in this study.

Minimum sample size was determined using formulas published in Courtney (2004). Specifically, these include  $N = 2 (\delta / y)^2$  for contrasting formulas and  $N = 2 (\delta / y)^2 + 1$  for correlating formulas (where N is the sample size,  $\delta$  is the standard deviation from the median, and y is the effect size, or degree that what is measured is present in the population). Using these formulas, a minimum sample size of 251 was recommended. From the 155 included CACREP programs, a population of n=319 resulted. Under recommendation of doctoral committee members, the entire population was sampled, as the total population was quite small. Also, with a larger sample, a better estimate of the true characteristics of the population can be drawn (Courtney, 2004).

Over the course of survey implementation, the sample size decreased in size due to the following: nine email addresses proved invalid; 36 participants self-identified as not appropriate for study because they were either not counselor educators, not tenure track, or already tenured; one participant was recently deceased; one participant was on maternity leave; one participant was on sabbatical; one participant was on a

leave of absence; and one participant asked to be removed from the sample due to lack of interest in participating. All these participants self-identified without taking the actual survey. Thus, the final sample included 269 counselor educators. This sample resulted in 153 responses. Fourteen of these responses were discarded, as participants answered “no” to question number one of the survey, “Are you a counselor educator working toward tenure?” Thus, the final response rate was 51.7%, or 139 eligible responses. This is well above the 30% response rate that is considered acceptable for web-based surveys (The University of Texas at Austin, 2006).

### *Survey Design*

Survey format was selected for this study for a variety of reasons. First, surveys possess the unique ability to determine characteristics of a larger population through sampling of a smaller population (Dillman, 2000). In this case, the larger population includes non-CACREP accredited counseling programs. Second, surveys produce rapid results, are economical to perform, and generally exhibit quick turnaround (Creswell, 2003). Third, a societal trend toward self-administration has been noted, demonstrated by increasing dependence on devices such as personal computers and ATM’s to perform many functions that once required face-to-face interaction. This trend indicates a culture comfortable with self-report via questionnaire (Dillman).

However, caveats exist for using surveys as well. Respondents may be reluctant to reveal information related to highly sensitive topics, particularly if anonymity cannot be ensured. Additionally, because surveys are based on self-report, respondents have the option of being less than truthful (Gall et al., 2005). While it is

impossible to predict how each respondent might react to a questionnaire, this survey was written using simple, neutral language to minimize marginalization and unfavorable reaction (Dillman, 2000).

For this research project, Web-based survey administration appeared most appropriate for several reasons. First, use of a Web-based survey provided significant financial advantage over paper and pencil surveys (Shannon et al, 2002). In fact, because the survey for this study was constructed using free software, there were virtually no monetary costs associated with this study. Other benefits included convenience of using email for pre-survey and follow up notices, and compatibility of data gathered with database software (Shannon et al.). In other words, the data gathered from this survey automatically loaded into an Excel spreadsheet for analysis. Finally, use of a Web-based survey provided time advantages, as no data entry or paper mailing tasks were required.

Limitations of this survey method must also be acknowledged. First, participants may have had concerns about the confidentiality of a Web-based survey. Second, Web-based surveys may be available to those outside the targeted sample, possibly resulting in contamination of results. Third, Web-based surveys may be intimidating for those with limited technological expertise, or inaccessible to those with no email address (Shannon et al., 2002). However, as higher education faculty members use computers as a part of their employment, this final caveat did not apply to most participants in this study. Shannon et al. recommend surveying only those with published email addresses, which was the case in this study.

This survey was piloted for content, construct, and face validity prior to beginning research study. Specifically, members of Oregon State University's CACREP-accredited counselor education faculty reviewed this survey and offered critique. Suggestions and corrections offered by these faculty members were included in the final survey. Also, this study was piloted with six pre-tenured counselor educators from outside OSU for feedback and refinement, as well as two statistics experts who commented on research design (Thomas, 2004). Based on feedback from the piloting procedure, it appeared that face validity was met. However, content and construct validity were questionable due to the lack of empirical data on research mentorship currently in the research literature, and because this locally-designed survey has not yet been tested for reliability and validity.

#### *Research Mentor Quality Questionnaire*

The RMQQ was designed and administered via the Business Solutions Group (BSG) Survey System developed within the College of Business at OSU. The BSG Survey System is a free service available to OSU community members. This data collection tool allows users to design surveys online, load data automatically into a database (such as Microsoft Excel), and create tables and charts from that data. Also, data can be loaded into statistics software such as SPSS for further analysis (BSG Survey System, n.d.). In order to overcome possible technical difficulties, Hal Koenig, Ph.D., Associate Professor of Marketing at OSU, provided consultation on survey design.

The survey was divided into two sections. The first section begins with a question written to appeal to any counselor educator participating in this survey

(Dillman, 2000). This section explored participants' experiences with research mentorship at their institutions. The questions in this section were based on information gleaned from the literature regarding *instructional* (Clark & Watson, 1998; Magnuson et al., 2003; Reynolds, 2005) and *relational* (Magnuson et al.; Paul et al., 2002; Reynolds, 2005) functions of research mentorship. Also, participants were asked about their collaborative scholarly productivity based on tenure and promotion dossier items outlined within OSU's faculty handbook (1999).

Per Dillman's (2000) recommendation, the demographic section was included last. In this section, demographic information was gathered both on the mentor and the respondent (protégé). Respondents were asked to describe their mentors in terms of gender, ethnicity, and employment status. Also, respondents were asked to identify themselves in terms of gender, race/ethnicity, number of years at institution, tenure status, and plans to obtain tenure. As recommended by Dillman, questions were simple and user-friendly, avoided extensive historical information, and occurred in a logical progression.

#### *Research Procedures*

Upon approval of this research proposal by the doctoral committee, approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at OSU was obtained (#3144; Informed Consent, see Appendix VII). Following approval, the survey was implemented using the Tailored Design Method (TDM) developed by Dillman (2000), who conducted exhaustive empirical studies identifying the most effective techniques for survey implementation and optimum response rates. Use of the TDM has been shown to increase rates of return of research surveys (Dillman, 2000). Specifically, Dillman's

recommendations for a modified TDM for web-based surveys were implemented, including one telephone contact and four email contacts. The telephone contact occurred first, informing participants that they were selected to participate in an Internet survey (See Appendix II). Within three days of the phone call, a pre-notice email (See Appendix III) was sent, three days before the actual survey was emailed. This email contained a brief overview of the survey content and process and a paragraph outlining the purpose of the study.

After the pre-survey contacts were complete, an email with a link to the questionnaire was sent. The email itself included a cover letter (see Appendix IV) to explain again the purpose and importance of the survey. The respondents clicked a link to access the survey. Once there, the respondents found a welcome page, which included the purpose of the survey and informed consent. Each participant gave consent by clicking a button labeled “Continue” to proceed with the survey.

The third and fourth contacts consisted of an email reminder and link to the questionnaire (see Appendices V & VI). These were emailed one week and two weeks after the survey to encourage non-responders to comply.

#### *Special Considerations of Implementation Process*

Dillman (2000) outlines the dynamics of handling challenges that may arise during the survey process. Specifically, challenges tend to fall into three categories: handling email bounces, handling respondent inquiries, and evaluating early returns.

Email bounces occur when messages are sent to addresses that are no longer valid. To minimize the impact of this technological problem, email addresses for all participants were confirmed via their departmental websites. In the case of respondent

inquiries, Dillman (2000) recommends handling questions in an honest, straightforward manner according to ethical research principles. When questions do arise, Dillman suggests emphasizing the social benefit of the study, as well as the importance of each individual response to the survey results. Finally, early returns offer the researcher an opportunity to determine whether problems existed in the implementation of the survey. Dillman (2000) stresses that each survey is different; that it is impossible for researchers to anticipate every problem that might arise. He suggests reviewing early returns for completeness, and addressing quickly any evident problems.

#### *Data Analysis*

To analyze resulting data, the researcher employed Timothy M. Bergquist, PhD, Professor of Quantitative Methods and Director of Institutional Research and Assessment at Northwest Christian College in Eugene, Oregon. First, demographic data were analyzed in order to determine percentages within the sample. In this way, the researcher was able to label and understand particular characteristics of the sample as a whole (Gall et al., 2005). Descriptive data were gathered across the entire population to determine to what degree the participants experienced research mentorship. Comparative inferential statistics, in particular two-tailed hypothesis test of proportions and chi-square test of independence were used to compare results for women and men to determine to what degree differences exist between the two.

#### *Limitations of the Study*

This study contained several limitations worthy of consideration, as proposed by Gall et al. (2004). First, because this survey utilized self-report on the part of the

participants, there is a risk of personal bias, embellishment, or minimization on the part of the respondent. This is an inherent risk of survey research. Second, random sampling is generally preferred in survey research. However, in this case, because the population that the sample could have been drawn from was quite small, the entire population was surveyed. It is difficult to know how this factor might have impacted survey results. Third, non-respondent error is worthy of consideration. In this case, the possibility exists that non-responders were actually inappropriate for this study; i.e., not tenure track, already tenured, or not counselor educators. Because this study maintained respondent anonymity, there is no way to know who did or didn't reply to the survey.

Threats to reliability and validity existed in the survey instrument as well. For example, with regard to reliability, it is likely that participants' level of mentorship will shift significantly over time. Also, participants' feelings of support and mentorship may vary based on workload, stress, or years at institution. Thus, administering this survey at another point in time might result in very different responses. With regard to validity, many questions in this survey were open to subjective interpretation. For example, in question six, mentor qualities may mean different things to individual participants based on race, ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, age, or socioeconomic background. In this sense, there is no way to truly predict whether participants' actual experiences were measured, or their subjective interpretations of mentor qualities were measured. Effort was made, of course, to maximize validity and reliability of the study. However, flaws in design are likely to exist.

## CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

This chapter presents resulting survey data in a non-evaluative format. Descriptive statistical data are presented, as well as comparative results based on gender. For the purpose of this section, *research mentor* and *senior collaborator* will be used interchangeably.

The research questions examined in this study were (a) do pre-tenured counselor educators receive research mentorship; and (b) do male and female pre-tenured counselor educators report different experiences of research mentorship? A web-based survey was developed and administered to assistant professors at 155 eligible CACREP programs. As discussed in chapter 3, the initial population of 319 resulted in a sample size of 269, after removing those who were unavailable for study, or who were inappropriate for this study based on their tenure-track status. This sample resulted in 139 usable responses, a response rate of 51.7%.

The survey consisted of two sections and 19 questions. The first section examined the respondents' experiences with research mentorship, and requested demographic data about the respondents' collaborator(s). The second section requested demographic data about the respondent. For the purpose of this chapter, the results will be presented in three sections: (a) demographic data; (b) research mentor and mentorship data; and (c) comparative results based on gender. Descriptive statistics were used for (a) and (b). Inferential statistics were applied to (c).

### Demographic Data

Of the 139 respondents, 58.99% (n=82) were female, while 41.01% (n=57) were male. With regard to race and ethnicity, 73.38% (n=102) identified as European

American/Caucasian/White, not of Hispanic Origin; 11.51% (n=16) identified as African American/Black, not of Hispanic Origin; 5.76% (n=8) identified as Asian-American or Pacific Islander; 5.04% (n=7) identified as Hispanic/Latino/a; 1.44% (n=2) identified as American Indian, Alaska Native, Native American; 1.44% (n=2) identified as Other; 0.72% (n=1) identified as Multi or Biracial; and 0.72% (n=1) declined to identify according to race of ethnicity. No respondents identified as Arabian American or of Middle Eastern descent (see Figure 1).

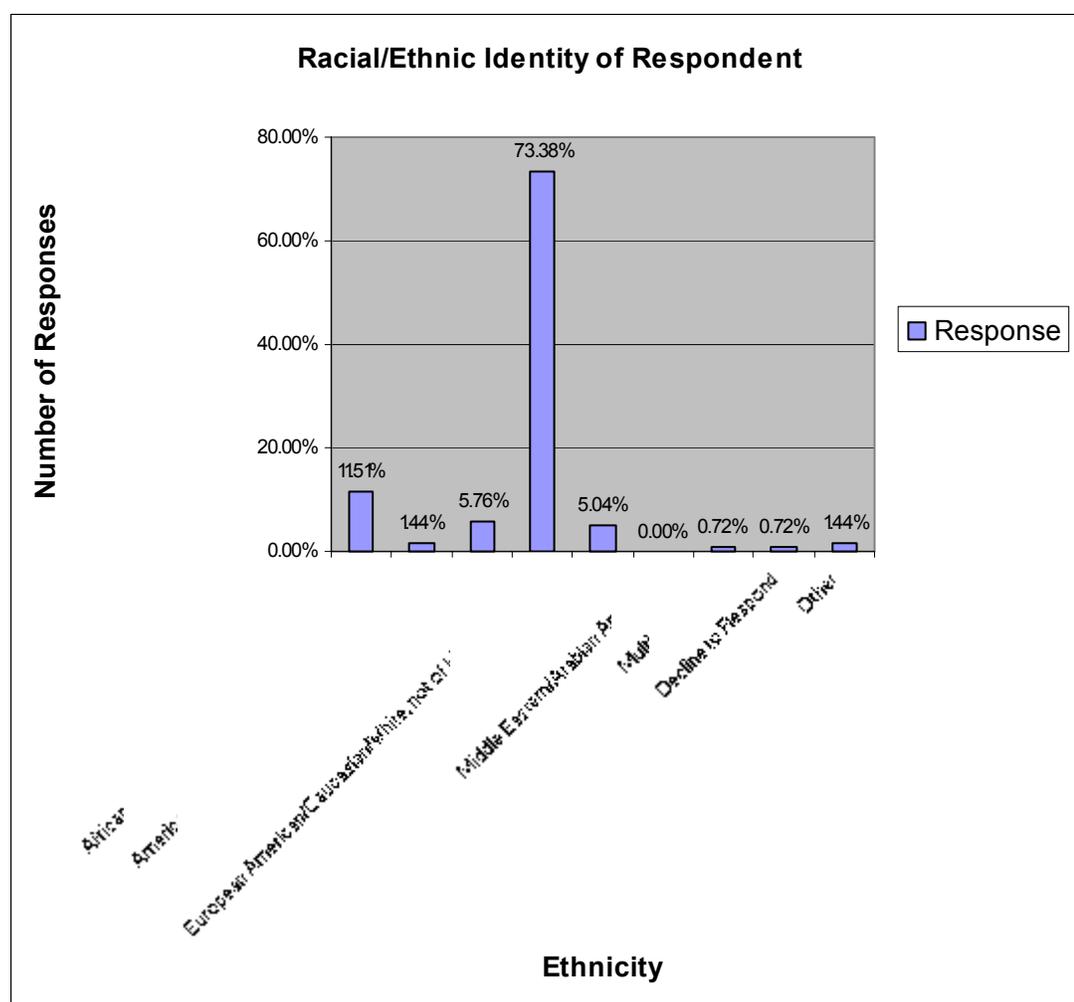


Figure 1. Racial/Ethnic identity of respondent.

Respondents were also asked to report their current academic rank: 97.76% (n=131) identified as assistant professor, with two respondents identifying as associate professor, and one respondent identifying as “other”. Greater variation existed when respondents reported the number of years employed at their current university: 21.01% (n=29) responded one year; 15.22% (n=21) responded two years; 13.04% (n=18) responded three years; 17.39% (n=24) responded four years; 15.22% (n=21) responded five years; 5.80% (n=8) responded six years; 2.90% (n=4) responded more than six years; and 9.42% (n=13) responded “other”. Other responses ranged from four to 18 months, and one respondent indicated working six years tenure track and two years as an adjunct (see Figure 2).

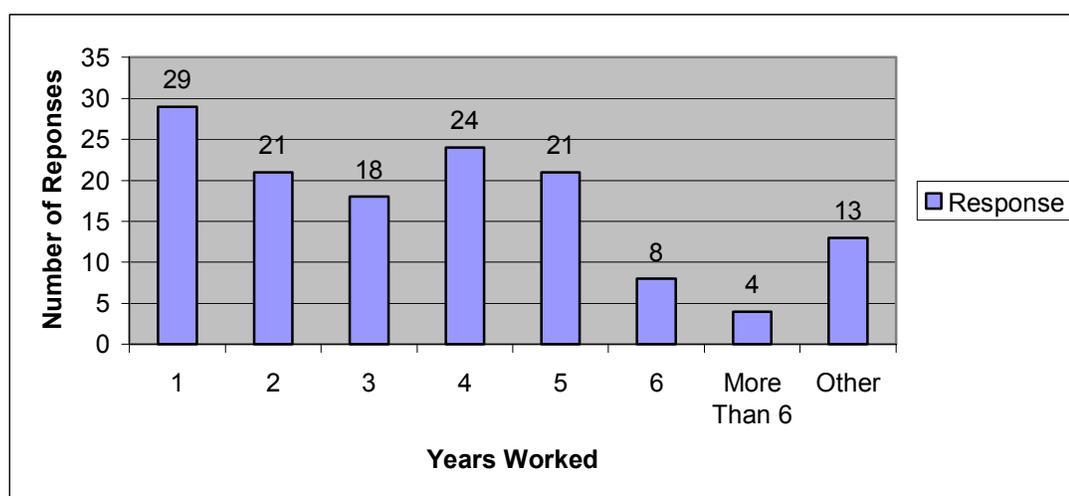


Figure 2. Years worked as counselor educator at current university of employment.

The remaining demographic data related to whether respondents had obtained tenure or were seeking tenure. Ninety-nine percent of respondents were pre-tenured. Of those, 98% planned to seek tenure at their present university. Additionally, 4% of pre-tenured counselor educators had actually obtained tenure at another institution before working at their current university of employment.

### Research Mentor and Mentorship Data

In this section, results of survey responses related to participants' experiences with research collaboration and mentorship are presented. Of the 153 initial responses, 14 were ultimately discarded as the respondents indicated in the first question that they were not currently working toward tenure. Thus, the final sample size included 139 respondents.

In the second question posed, respondents indicated whether they had collaborated on a research project with a more experienced faculty person: 76.98% (n=107) indicated that they had, while 23.02% (n=32) had not. These results differed slightly from those obtained in Question 3, where only 16.67% (n=22) indicated that they had "zero" more experienced collaborators. The majority of respondents, 58.33% (n=77) reported one or two collaborators; 18.18% (n=24) reported three or four collaborators; and 6.82% (n=9) reported more than four collaborators.

Questions 4, 5, and 6 allowed respondents to select multiple responses to describe their relationships with their more senior collaborators. The responses are presented here in narrative form and in figures; the top three responses to each question will be presented in the text, with the remaining responses reported and displayed in table figures 3, 4, and 5. Because multiple responses could be selected for each question, the resulting percentages sum greater than 100%.

Question 4 listed types of scholarly projects protégés may have produced with their senior collaborators. This list was certainly not exhaustive: rather, it reflected dossier requirements for tenure at Oregon State University (OSU Faculty Handbook, 1999), and thus the projects that would likely assume top priority for pre-tenured

faculty. When asked about what types of scholarly projects involved collaborative work with a research mentor, respondents indicated that refereed publications were the most prevalent (68.35%; n=95). Refereed presentations ranked second with 51.80% (n=72), followed by book chapters with 35.25% (n=49). The full results can be found in Figure 3.

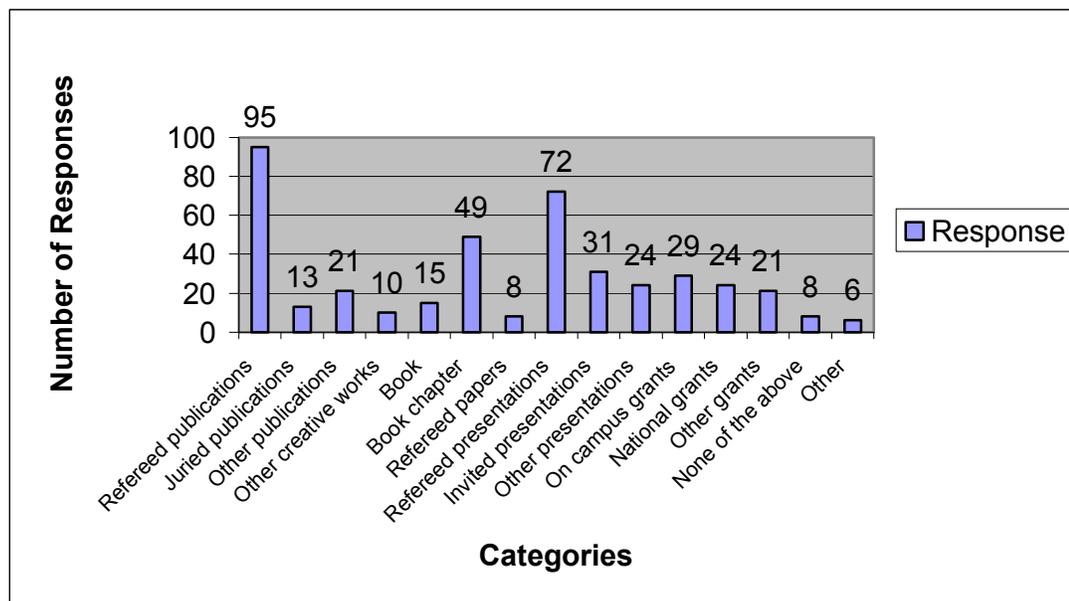


Figure 3. Research mentored scholarly projects.

Question 5 inquired about the type of guidance respondents received from their research mentors. Sixty-three percent (n=87) indicated that they received guidance through the promotion and tenure process; 50.36% (n=70) received feedback on writing; and 45.32% (n=63) gained assistance in editing their work. The remaining responses are presented in Figure 4.

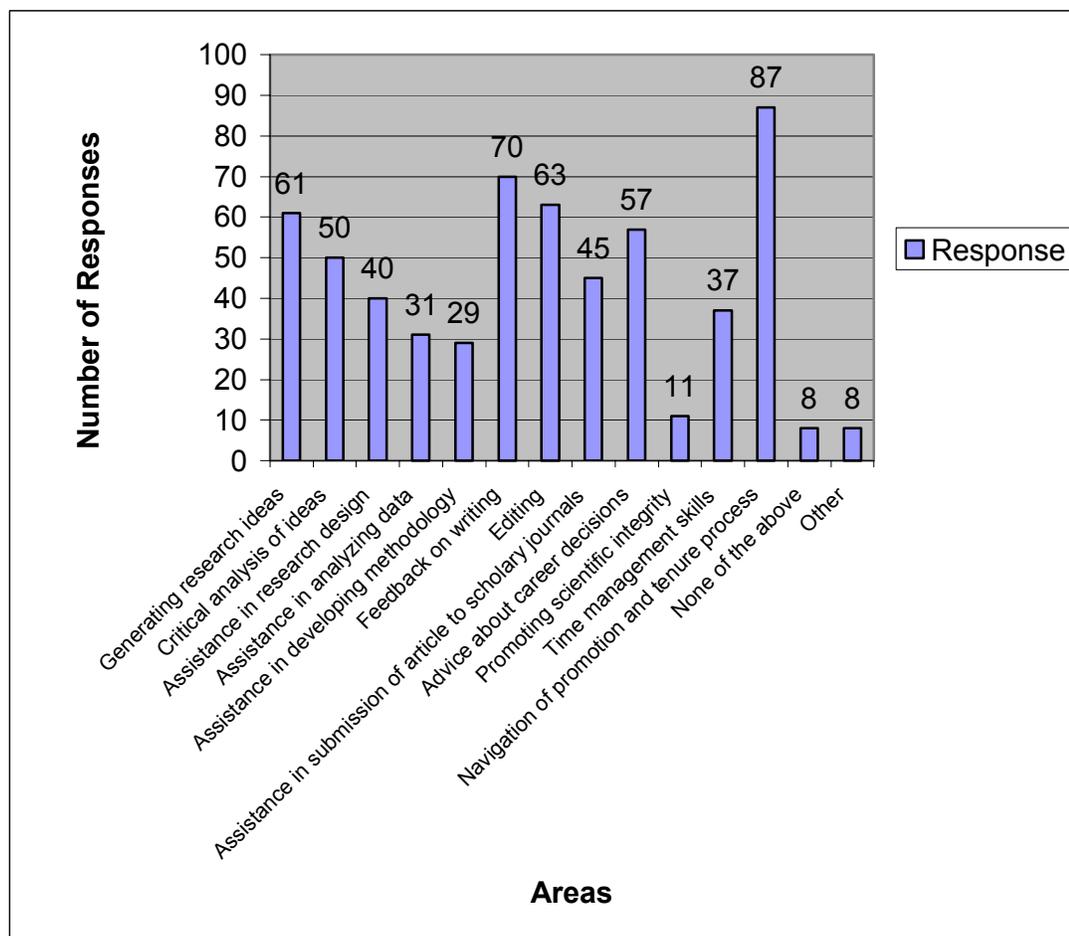


Figure 4. Respondents received guidance from senior collaborators in these areas.

Question 6 asked respondents to describe the interpersonal qualities of their relationship with their research mentor. Sixty percent (n=84) described the relationship as cooperative; 50.36% (n=70) stated that “open communication is encouraged” by the mentor; and 36.69% (n=51) described the relationship as nurturing. The remaining responses are summarized in Figure 5.

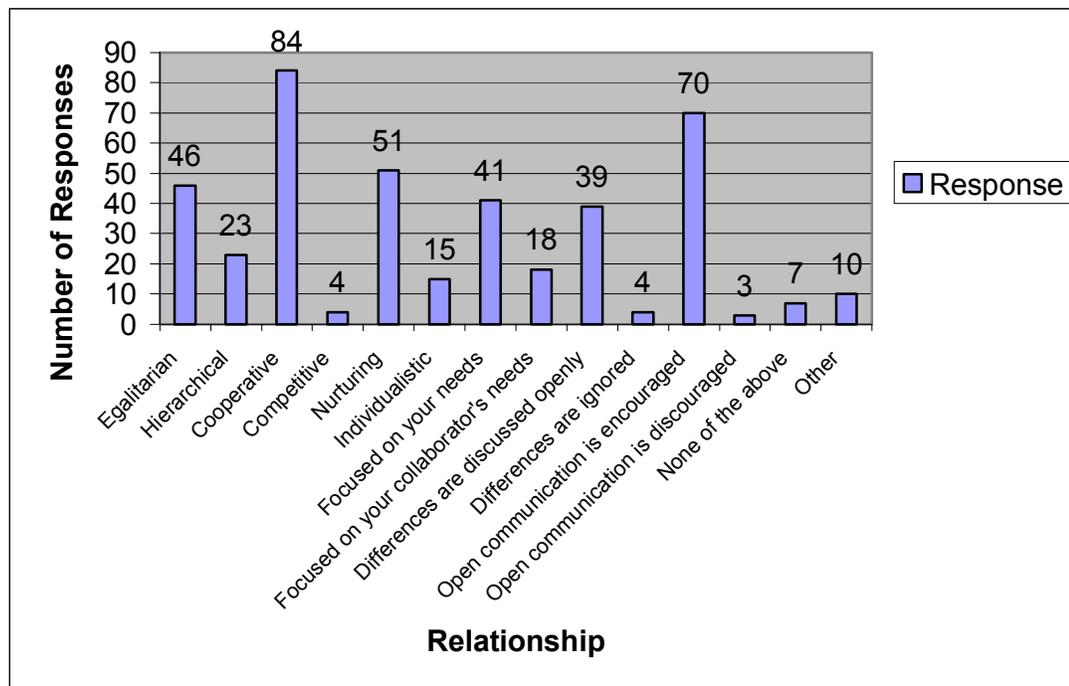


Figure 5. Relationship with primary senior collaborator.

The remaining questions in this section address demographic information about respondents' primary research mentor. Fifty-eight percent (n=74) identified their primary research mentor as male; 40% (n=52) identified their primary research mentor as female; and 2% (n=3) selected other.

With regard to race and ethnicity, 87.50% (n=112) identified their primary research mentor as European American/Caucasian/White, not of Hispanic Origin; 4.69% Hispanic/Latina/o (n=6); 3.91% (n=5) African American/Black, not of Hispanic Origin; and 0.78% (n=1) Asian American/Pacific Islander. Complete results are displayed in Figure 6.

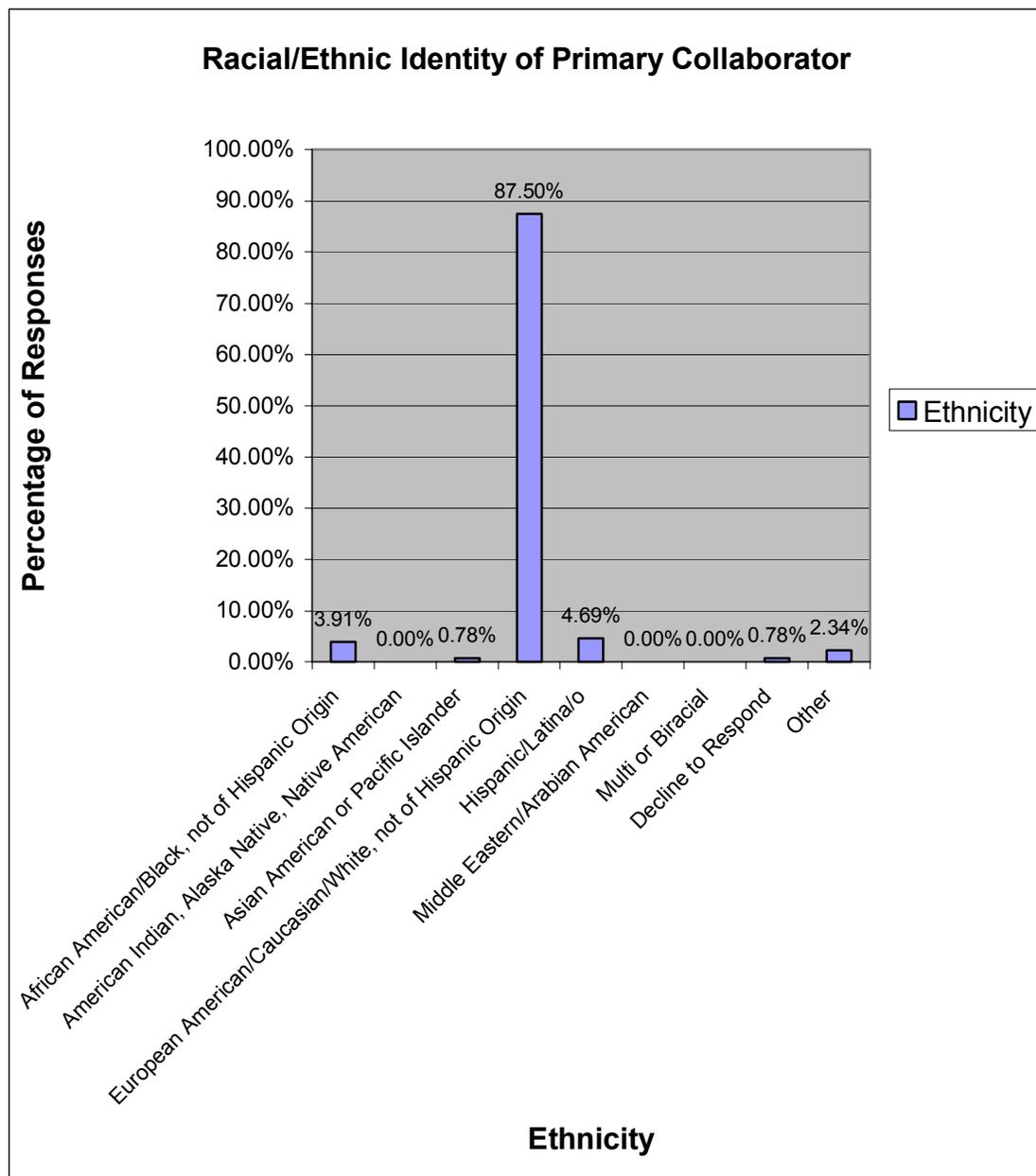


Figure 6. Ethnicity of Senior Collaborator/Research Mentor.

With regard to employment status, 48.84% (n=63) of research mentors held the rank of full professor, 35.66% (n=46) were associate professors, 6.20% (n=8) were assistant professors, and 9.30% (n=12) were described as “other”, including research associates, retired faculty, clinical faculty, and higher education administrators,

including deans. Ninety-one percent (n=110) of research mentors were tenured faculty, while 9.15% (n=14) were not. Twenty-seven percent (n=33) of respondents listed their former doctoral major advisor as their primary research collaborator.

#### Comparative Results Based on Gender

To understand whether pre-tenured counselor education faculty women and men experience research mentorship differently, two types of inferential analyses were performed: a normal distribution two-tailed hypothesis test for proportions was applied to questions 4, 5, and 6. Second, and a chi-square test of independence was applied to data related to gender of the respondent and gender and number of the primary senior collaborator(s). Both testing procedures will be described in greater detail below.

#### *Two-Tailed Hypothesis Test*

First, a normal distribution two-tailed hypothesis test for proportions was applied to questions 4, 5, and 6. This particular analysis was chosen because the data gathered were nominal, or counts, as opposed to a range of values (if a range of values had resulted from this survey, then t-tests would have been appropriate). A two-tailed test examines differences on both sides of the normal curve: in other words, it examines both greater or fewer occurrences of a quality in the mentor relationship. In order to use this test, a null hypothesis needed to be developed. For the purpose of this analysis, the null hypothesis asserts that no difference exists in the proportion of men and women experiencing specified research mentorship qualities. The alpha level is set at .05 for all significance testing. Questions 4, 5, and 6 were chosen for analysis because they specifically address qualities and functions of research mentorship.

*Question Four Results*

Question 4 asked respondents to describe collaborative efforts on specific types of scholarly projects. Of the 13 types of projects listed, no significant difference existed between men and women, except with regard to (a) juried publications, where women engaged in this activity more than men; (b) on campus grants, where women engaged in this activity more often than men; (c) other grants, where men engaged in this activity more often than women; and (d) none of the above, which men selected more often than women. This final result was only marginally significant. The full results are presented in Table 1.

Table 1

*Scholarly Activities*

<u>Response</u>	<u>Total</u>		<u>Male</u>		<u>Female</u>		<u>Proportion</u>
	<u>Count</u>	<u>Proportion</u>	<u>Count</u>	<u>Proportion</u>	<u>Count</u>	<u>Proportion</u>	<u>two-tail</u> <u>test</u> <u>p-value</u>
Refereed publications	95	0.683	39	0.684	56	0.683	0.9872
Juried publications	13	0.094	0	0.000	13	0.159	0.0016 *
Other publications	21	0.151	9	0.158	12	0.146	0.8516
Other creative works	10	0.072	5	0.088	5	0.061	0.5484
Book	15	0.108	7	0.123	8	0.098	0.6370
Book chapter	49	0.353	25	0.439	24	0.293	0.0766
Refereed papers	8	0.058	2	0.035	6	0.073	0.3430
Refereed presentations	72	0.518	29	0.509	43	0.524	0.8562
Invited presentations	31	0.223	12	0.211	19	0.232	0.7680
Other presentations	24	0.173	9	0.158	15	0.183	0.7009
On campus grants	29	0.209	7	0.123	22	0.268	0.0379 *
National grants	24	0.173	8	0.140	16	0.195	0.4007
Other grants	21	0.151	13	0.228	8	0.098	0.0346 *
None of the above	8	0.058	6	0.105	2	0.024	0.0441 *
Other	6	0.043	1	0.018	5	0.061	0.2153
Total Respondents	139	1.000					

Note. Significance is indicated by \* in p-value column.

*Question Five Results*

Question 5 asked respondents to select options that best described areas in which they received guidance from their research mentors. Once again, no significant difference existed between men and women except on one option, none of the above, which men chose more often than women. The full results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2

*Areas of Guidance*

<u>Response</u>	<u>Total</u>		<u>Male</u>		<u>Female</u>		<u>Proportion</u>
	<u>Count</u>	<u>Proportion</u>	<u>Count</u>	<u>Proportion</u>	<u>Count</u>	<u>Proportion</u>	<u>two-tail test</u> <u>p-value</u>
Generating research ideas	61	0.439	24	0.421	37	0.451	0.7245
Critical analysis of ideas	50	0.360	19	0.333	31	0.378	0.5890
Assistance in research design	40	0.288	14	0.246	26	0.317	0.3600
Assistance in analyzing data	31	0.223	11	0.193	20	0.244	0.4781
Assistance in developing methodology	29	0.209	11	0.193	18	0.220	0.7050
Feedback on writing	70	0.504	30	0.526	40	0.488	0.6551
Editing	63	0.453	24	0.421	39	0.476	0.5251
Assistance in submission of article to scholarly journals	45	0.324	15	0.263	30	0.366	0.2031
Advice about career decisions	57	0.410	26	0.456	31	0.378	0.3572
Promoting scientific integrity	11	0.079	5	0.088	6	0.073	0.7546
Time management skills	37	0.266	15	0.263	22	0.268	0.9463
Navigation of promotion and tenure process	87	0.626	33	0.579	54	0.659	0.3402
None of the above	8	0.058	7	0.123	1	0.012	0.0059 *
Other	8	0.058	3	0.053	5	0.061	0.8354
Total Respondents	139	1.000					

Note. Significance is indicated by \* in p-value column.

*Question Six Results*

Question 6 asked respondents to describe relational qualities experienced within the research mentor relationship. No significant difference existed between men and women except (a) “focused on your (respondents’) needs” was selected more frequently by men than by women, though the significance was marginal; and (b)

“open communication is discouraged” was selected more often by men than by women, though the sample size of men selecting this option (n=3) was so small, the results are questionable. The complete results can be found in Table 3.

Table 3

*Relational Qualities*

<u>Response</u>	<u>Total</u>		<u>Male</u>		<u>Female</u>		<u>Proportion</u>
	<u>Count</u>	<u>Proportion</u>	<u>Count</u>	<u>Proportion</u>	<u>Count</u>	<u>Proportion</u>	<u>two-tail test</u> <u>p-value</u>
Egalitarian	46	0.331	22	0.386	24	0.293	0.2503
Hierarchical	23	0.165	13	0.228	10	0.122	0.0977
Cooperative	84	0.604	37	0.649	47	0.573	0.3678
Competitive	4	0.029	2	0.035	2	0.024	0.7106
Nurturing	51	0.367	25	0.439	26	0.317	0.1437
Individualistic	15	0.108	6	0.105	9	0.110	0.9331
Focused on your needs	41	0.295	22	0.386	19	0.232	0.0498 *
Focused on your collaborator's needs	18	0.129	8	0.140	10	0.122	0.7506
Differences are discussed openly	39	0.281	20	0.351	19	0.232	0.1240
Differences are ignored	4	0.029	1	0.018	3	0.037	0.5089
Open communication is encouraged	70	0.504	30	0.526	40	0.488	0.6551
Open communication is discouraged	3	0.022	3	0.053	0	0.000	0.0357 *
None of the above	7	0.050	1	0.018	6	0.073	0.1402
Other	10	0.072	2	0.035	8	0.098	0.1609
Total	139	1.000					

Note. Significance is indicated by \* in p-value column.

*Chi-Square Test of Independence*

A chi-square test of independence was applied to data related to gender of respondent and presence or absence of a research mentor, as well as to gender of respondent and gender of research mentor. The chi-square tests the association between two variables. The *observed number* is the actual results from this survey.

The *expected number* is what would hypothetically occur in the sample population if the null hypothesis were true. Significance occurs when, after calculation, a great enough difference occurs between the observed and expected numbers. For this test, the null hypotheses stated that (a) no association exists between gender of protégé and presence or absence of senior collaborator (based on responses to Questions 2, 3 and 12); and (b) no association exists between gender of protégé and gender of mentor (based on responses to Questions 7 and 12).

In the case of hypothesis (a), the null hypothesis was not rejected, as it appears the absence or presence of a research mentor is independent of the gender of the protégé. In other words, the gender of the protégé does not effect whether the protégé has a research mentor. Results are presented in Tables 4 and 5.

Table 4

*Association Between Gender of Respondent and Presence or Absence of Senior Collaborator*

<u>Observed</u> <u>Collaboration</u>	<u>Gender</u>		<u>Grand Total</u>
	<u>Female</u>	<u>Male</u>	
No	19	13	32
Yes	63	44	107
Grand Total	82	57	139

<u>Expected</u> <u>Collaboration</u>	<u>Gender</u>		<u>Grand Total</u>
	<u>Female</u>	<u>Male</u>	
No	18.878	13.122	32
Yes	63.122	43.878	107
Grand Total	82	57	139

**Chi-square**      **0.0025**  
**p-value**        **0.9600**

Table 5

*Association Between Gender of Respondent and Number of Senior Collaborators*

<u>Observed</u>			
<u>Number Collaborators</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>Grand Total</u>
0	11	11	22
1-2	50	27	77
3 or more	16	17	33
Grand Total	77	55	132

<u>Expected</u>			
<u>Number Collaborators</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>Grand Total</u>
0	12.833	9.167	22
1-2	44.917	32.083	77
3-4	19.250	13.750	33
Grand Total	77	55	132

<b>Chi-square</b>	<b>3.3262</b>
<b>p-value</b>	<b>0.1896</b>

In the case of hypothesis (b), the null hypothesis was not rejected, as it appears the gender of the mentor is independent of the gender of the protégé. In other words, the gender of the respondent, or protégé, has no relation to the gender of the research mentor. Results are presented in Table 6.

Table 6

*Association Between Gender of Respondent and Gender of Research Mentor*

<u>Observed Numbers</u>			
<u>Collaborator</u>	<u>Respondent</u>		
<u>Gender</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>Grand Total</u>
Female	34	18	52
Male	45	29	74
Grand Total	79	47	126
<u>Expected Numbers</u>			
<u>Collaborator</u>	<u>Respondent</u>		
<u>Gender</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>Grand Total</u>
Female	32.603	19.397	52
Male	46.397	27.603	74
Grand Total	79	47	126
	<b>Chi-square</b>	<b>0.2732</b>	
	<b>p-value</b>	<b>0.6012</b>	

These inferential analyses were performed in order to determine whether pre-tenured counselor education faculty men and women experience research mentorship differently. With few exceptions, it appears that they do not. The majority of the data indicate that women and men have very similar experiences of research mentorship as defined by the items on this survey.

### Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to provide a non-evaluative summary of the results of this study, and to determine the outcomes for the two research questions proposed for study. Overall, it appears that most pre-tenured counselor educators do receive research mentorship in some form, and that the goal of this relationship is to produce scholarly work and to receive career guidance related to promotion and

tenure. It also appears that there is no overall significant difference in the experiences of male and female counselor education faculty members with regard to research mentorship.

## CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to examine the role of research mentorship in the professional development of pre-tenured counselor educators. The literature shows novices in counselor education experience intense stressors including isolation, ambiguity, multiple responsibilities, role confusion, and fear of “publish or perish” (Hill, 2004; Mwamwenda, 1994). Mentorship has been determined to be one way that senior faculty and administrators might mitigate these stressors for junior faculty, increasing chances of successful tenure, and possibly reducing attrition (Dohm & Cummings, 2002; Hill). Faculty women, in particular, perceive a lack of mentors as one barrier to achieving tenure (Dohm & Cummings; Finkel & Olswang, 1996). Research mentorship as applied in higher education assists new faculty persons in developing a research agenda, producing quality research, and enhancing both personal and professional satisfaction and success (Clark & Watson, 1998; Dohm & Cummings). The research questions proposed for this study were as follows:

Research Question One:

Do pre-tenured counselor educators receive research mentorship?

Research Question Two:

Do male and female pre-tenured counselor educators report different experiences of research mentorship?

Research questions, as opposed to hypotheses, were created for this study because the dearth of information currently in the literature about this topic prohibits speculation of research study outcomes (Gall et al., 2005).

The purpose of this chapter is to present evaluation of the results of this study, implications for the field of counselor education, limitations of this study, and recommendations for future research.

## Results

The outline of this section will mirror chapter 4: the results will be presented in three sections: (a) demographic data; (b) research mentor and mentorship data; and (c) comparative results based on gender. Sections (a) and (b) provide answers to research question one, while (c) informs research question two.

### *Demographic Data*

To begin, it is interesting to note that of the 139 usable responses, 59% of respondents identified as female, while 41% identified as male. This differed from the data reported by the American Association of University Professors in their 2003-2004 Fact Sheet, where it is reported that women make up only 46% of assistant professors (Curtis, 2004). The numbers gathered in this study indicate that perhaps counselor education is female-dominated, in particular at the assistant professor, or pre-tenure level. Another possible alternative is that this study was more appealing to women faculty members than to men, resulting in a higher response rate of women participants.

Similar disparity was found in demographic data related to race and ethnicity. Among counselor educators surveyed, just over 73% identified as Caucasian. In other recent research studies, an estimated 85% of counselor educators identify as Caucasian. Again, these results indicate that perhaps a demographic shift is underway in counselor education, as greater numbers of assistant professors are people of color.

With regard to tenure status, some response inconsistency emerged in the final results. Specifically, of the 153 initial responses, 14 self-identified as tenured faculty in Question 1, and their responses were eliminated from the final sample. However, one respondent who answered “no” to Question 1 (“Are you a counselor educator currently working toward tenure?”) answered “yes” to Question 16 (“Have you achieved tenure at this university?”), and in Question 18, five indicated that tenure had been obtained at another university. It is difficult to know whether the survey questions were worded poorly, so as to evoke confusion, whether some respondents work at multiple universities, or whether this was due to respondent error.

Finally, with regard to years worked at the current university (Question 15), the numbers were quite evenly distributed between one and six years. Thus the results of this study emerged from counselor educators with a range of experience, rather than predominantly from counselor educators, for example, in their first year of work. It would appear that this increases the richness and generalizability of the data.

#### *Research Mentor and Mentorship Data*

Research Question 1 asked, “Do pre-tenured counselor educators receive research mentorship?” Questions 2 through 11 of the RMQQ attempted to glean this information from respondents. In this section, responses to these questions are reviewed, and interpretations of the results offered. To begin, Question 2 asked respondents to indicate whether or not they collaborate on scholarly endeavors with a more senior faculty person: about 77% indicated they do while 23% said they do not. Inconsistency emerged in Question 3, where only 17% of respondents selected “none” as the number of senior faculty collaborated with (seven respondents did not reply to

this question). Thus, it appears that as few as 17% and as many as 23% of counselor educators do not work with a senior collaborator on scholarly endeavors. This may cause counselor educators concern, as it is still a considerable number of the population who do not receive significant assistance in negotiating the norms of academia and scholarly work during the earliest years of professional life.

Of respondents who did receive research mentorship, responses to Questions, 4, 5, and 6 provide insight into the nature of this type of mentorship. Question 4 identifies scholarly projects that respondents may have collaborated on with a research mentor. The most prevalent responses (20% or greater) included refereed publications (68.35%), refereed presentations (51.80%), book chapters (35.25%), invited presentations (22.30%), and on-campus grants (20.86%). These data validate observations by Ramsey et al. (2002) and Magnuson et al. (2003) who indicate that counselor educators engage in a wide variety of scholarly activities. In fact, every scholarly project listed in Question 4 received responses, indicating that respondents received research mentorship across the spectrum of academic activities. The fact that refereed publications and presentations top the list indicates that traditional scholarly activity continues to be valued by novice faculty.

Where Question 4 addressed areas of research mentorship related to the faculty dossier, Question 5 broadened the focus to more general activities. In other words, where Question 4 asked about outcomes of research mentorship, Question 5 investigated the process that leads to a specific research outcome. The items included in this question were gleaned from existing research literature describing the functions of research mentorship: they are not meant to be inclusive of all possible research

mentorship activity, but reflect what is currently known about research mentorship. Respondents indicated a broader range of activities in Question 5 than in Question 4. To clarify, 20% or more of respondents selected five of 15 choices in Question 4; however, 11 of the 14 choices in Question 5 were selected by 20% or more of respondents. Interestingly, “negotiation of the tenure and promotion process” topped the list with almost 63% of the respondents. This is important for consideration as the current literature indicates that tenure and promotion is a confounding and confusing process for new faculty, particularly for women and people of color (Finkel & Olswang, 1996; Hill, 2004). This result supports that counselor educators are concerned with the obtainment of tenure and promotion. One limitation of this study is that it is impossible to determine what kind of guidance mentors are providing to protégés, and whether their guidance increases the chances of obtaining tenure. This is worthy of future study.

In addition to promotion and tenure guidance, respondents also indicated strongly that assistance with the writing process is a primary function of research mentorship, with feedback on writing (50.36%), editing (45.32%), and generating research ideas (43.88%) among the most frequently selected options. Clearly, generating written, scholarly work was important to these new faculty in counselor education. Rounding out the top five most selected items was “advice about career decisions” (41.01%). It is interesting to note that these five items all relate in some way to traditional avenues of scholarship, promotion, and tenure. In other words, it is generally acknowledged that producing scholarly, published written work is one of the most heavily weighted aspects of the tenure process. Furthermore, Question 4 results

indicated that about 68% of respondents collaborated with their research mentor on the production of articles for refereed journals, again, often the most heavily weighted aspect of tenure (Magnuson et al., 2003; Melicher, 2000). This information mirrors the current literature that identifies tenure, promotion, and publishing among the most daunting activities for new faculty (Hill, 2004). Clearly, this holds true for new counselor educators as well.

It is compelling to note that three of the lowest ranked choices (followed only by “none of the above” and “other”) pertained to research methodology, data analysis, and promoting scientific inquiry. This is troubling because, as noted previously, producing quality research ultimately provides counselors and clients with guidelines for quality care. Yet it appears that pre-tenured counselor educators are more concerned with promotion and tenure and writing rather than research design and data analysis. This may reflect the priorities of the academy, where publication numbers outweigh publication quality. Regardless, ultimately it is the recipients of counseling who suffer, and the field of counseling may be weakened by a lack of high quality research design and interpretation.

While Questions 4 and 5 elicited information about career functions of research mentorship, Question 6 investigated relational aspects of the relationship as identified in the literature. Six of possible 14 items were selected by 20% or more of the respondents: cooperative, 60.43%; open communication is encouraged, 50.36%; nurturing, 36.69%; egalitarian, 33.09%; focused on your (protégé) needs, 29.5%; and differences are discussed openly, 28.06%. Interestingly, all of these qualities are described as essential to a feminist mentorship model, and deviate from what is

considered traditional mentorship (Benishek et al., 2004; Egan, 1996; Paterson & Hart-Wasekeesikaw, 1994; Schramm, 2000). This is of particular interest because, as previously discussed, the responses to Questions 4 and 5 aligned more closely with traditional tenure and promotion expectations. Thus, it appears that while the goals and outcomes of research mentorship for pre-tenured counselor educators remains traditional, the process of the relationship itself may be feminist in nature. It seems that counselor educators are suspended between two ways of being: honoring the traditions of academia, while building collaborative relationships that are more progressive and sensitive to cultural differences.

Another way to examine results to Question 6 is to consider alternatives: For example, if only 28.06% of protégés stated “differences are discussed openly” in the research mentor relationship, can it then be assumed 72% of protégés and mentors do not discuss differences? In fact, only 2.88% of respondents stated “differences are ignored”. This means about 70% of respondents were unable to state whether differences between mentor and protégé were discussed or not. One limitation of this study, and of this particular question, may be the duality of it: perhaps a third option exists, where differences, though acknowledged, were not discussed; or, a fourth possibility, where no perceived differences between mentor and protégé existed. Regardless, this may prove fertile ground for further study.

Where Questions 4, 5, and 6 offered information about the process and outcomes of the research mentorship relationship, Questions 7 through 11 provided information about research mentors. Interestingly, the gender of the research mentors was almost exactly opposite to reported gender of protégés: while the respondents

were 60% female and 40% male, the mentors were identified as 40% female and 58% male (2% described as “other”). This data mirrors broader trends in higher education where women are concentrated in lower ranks while those with seniority and tenure tend to be male (Curtis, 2004). There are two possible explanations for this disparity. The first is that a shift in demographics is occurring, as more women obtain PhD’s and subsequently enter the professoriate. The second possibility confirms that women are more likely to suffer attrition prior to tenure than men. There is no way to confirm one hypothesis or another with data gleaned from this study, but it is certainly an area worthy of future research.

With regard to race, the vast majority of research mentors were described as “European American/Caucasian/White, not of Hispanic Origin” (87.5%). The remaining responses included Hispanic/Latina/o (4.69%) or African American/Black not of Hispanic Origin (3.91%). In comparison, only 73% of respondents identified as Caucasian, while 11.5% identified as African American, and 5% identified as Hispanic. Similar to gender, it appears demographics in the field of counselor education are shifting, or it could indicate that people of color are not advancing through the ranks of the professoriate. Again, it is impossible to discern which hypothesis is accurate with the data derived from this study. This, again, is an area worthy of future research.

Finally, about 84% of research mentors held the rank of associate or full professor, about 88% held tenure, and about 73% were not the respondents’ former major advisor. This validates the idea that research mentorship for pre-tenured faculty members typically takes place with a tenured faculty member.

The data presented above confirms the majority of pre-tenured counselor educators do indeed receive research mentorship, though not all do. Generally, the research mentorship relationship produced outcomes that may lead to tenure, including scholarly publications and presentations. Furthermore, protégés gained assistance from their research mentors in crafting quality research and navigating the tenure and promotion process. The relationship itself was most often described as open, nurturing, and/or egalitarian. Finally, the research mentor was most likely to be a white male with tenure, who was not the former major professor of the protégé.

#### *Comparative Results Based on Gender*

While descriptive statistics based on responses to the RMQQ provided answers related to Research Question One, inferential statistics (as described in chapter 4) applied to the data informed answers to Research Question Two: Do male and female pre-tenured counselor educators report different experiences of research mentorship? Specifically, inferential statistics were applied to (a) Questions 4, 5, and 6 to determine if women and men experienced these research mentorship factors differently, (b) to Questions 2 and 3 to determine if women and men indicated significant difference in whether a research mentor was present or absent, and (c) to demographic gender information of respondent and research mentor to determine if there was an association between the two.

Analysis of data from Questions 4, 5, and 6 indicated very few significant differences between pre-tenured faculty men and women in counselor education with regard to research mentorship. Specifically, faculty women produced more juried publications and on-campus grants applications with their research mentors than

faculty men. In this case, perhaps women counselor educators are more likely to engage in scholarly endeavors considered less prestigious (juried publications and on-campus grants are considered less prestigious than refereed journals and federal grants in the tenure and promotion process). This supplements data gleaned by Ramsey et al. (2002) which indicates that women counselor educators were more engaged in conference presentations, while men counselor educators were more invested in publication of journal articles. Again in this case, women were more likely to engage in activities considered less prestigious in the promotion and tenure process.

Additionally, faculty men applied for more “other grants” with their research mentors than faculty women. Furthermore, faculty men described their research mentor relationship as more focused on their needs (as opposed to on mentor needs) than faculty women; however, this result was only marginally significant (p-value = 0.0498 where  $p < .05$  indicates significance). Faculty men were more likely than faculty women to state that within their research mentor relationship, open communication was discouraged, but the number was so small ( $n=3$ ) that the result was questionable in merit.

Similarly, analysis of other gender elements, including gender of mentor vs. gender of protégé and presence, absence, or number of research mentors demonstrated no significant differences between faculty men and faculty women experiences with research mentorship. Overall, this study informs us that, with regard to Research Question Two, pre-tenured faculty men and women in counselor education appeared to have more similar than different experiences with research mentorship.

### Implications for the Field of Counselor Education

Though the review of the literature that began this document demonstrated a disconnect between those from outside the majority culture and success and academia, the results of this study suggests a greater degree of equity for men and women pre-tenured faculty members in counselor education than perhaps exists in the culture at large. First, nearly 60% of respondents were women, 97% of whom identify as assistant professors. This is far above the national average of 46% women assistant professors in higher education (Curtis, 2004). Second, 77% of respondents stated they were currently collaborating with a more senior faculty person on research projects; in other words, over three fourths of the sample population received research mentorship. This bodes well for retention and promotion of pre-tenured counselor educators, as mentorship is cited as one influential factor in both of these processes (Hill, 2004; Holcomb-McCoy & Bradley, 2003). Finally, there seemed to be little or no association between gender of the respondent/protégé and presence of research mentorship, quality of research mentorship, and gender of senior collaborator/research mentor. Thus, faculty women and men received research mentorship to similar degrees, and under similar conditions as described by the survey questions.

Though faculty men and women described similar research mentor relationships, most participants described the relationship in terms of feminist behaviors, including collaboration, nurturance, and open communication. These qualities differed from those described in traditional mentorship. One possibility for this discrepancy is the clinical training that counselor educators receive prior to entering the professoriate. In other words, even though their current professional role

is as academician, all counselor educators received training in helping skills. Thus, perhaps counselor educators are better equipped than others in higher education to mentor women and other individuals from outside the majority culture, as their clinical training facilitates the building of working alliance with individuals from many different cultural backgrounds. Interestingly, *working alliance*, a therapeutic factor created through collaboration, warmth, and mutuality, also seems to parallel feminist mentorship techniques. Shared techniques include congruence between mentor and protégé expectations, inclusion, cultivating autonomy, nurturance and cooperation (Benishek et al., 2004; Egan, 1996; Gellhaus Thomas, Werner-Wilson, & Murphy, 2005; Paterson & Hart-Wasekeesikaw, 1994; Schramm, 2000; Shaw, McMahon, Chang, & Hannold, 2004). Thus, it seems counselor training may be linked to research mentor relationship qualities. It may prove worthwhile for counselor educators to explore the role of working alliance in their mentoring relationships, and possibly to formalize the types of interactions that occur between mentor and protégé in the same way microskills are applied to counseling relationships. The research mentor relationship is inadequately understood, thus quantifying effective behaviors for mentors in the context of working alliance may prove beneficial for protégés.

Finally, it appears the primary goals of research mentorship include (a) promotion and tenure and career guidance, and (b) production of refereed publications and presentations. This appears to reinforce the notion that the pre-tenured years are focused on the obtainment of tenure, and that university systems still reward more traditional modes of scholarship. As discussed in Ramsey et al. (2002), counselor educators engage in many forms of creative scholarship, including articles, grants,

book chapters, external program reviews, consultation, workshops, and training manuals. Thus, it may be challenging for counselor educators to conform to the expectations of a system that rewards only specific types of scholarly work, such as refereed journal articles. However, the reported emphasis in this study on refereed publications and presentations also indicates that perhaps counselor educators are taking seriously their responsibilities to their students and by proxy, clients, in producing high quality research endeavors.

What is perhaps the most significant outcome of this study is the majority of pre-tenured counselor educators do receive research mentorship, and that counselor education is far ahead of the national average with regard to employing women and people of color at the assistant professor rank. Also, it appears that women and men receive similar degrees of research mentorship, and that women are not at an obvious disadvantage. This bodes well for the profession of counselor education as it moves into the future. Issues around diversity, multiculturalism, and inequity are of concern in higher education, though it seems that counselor education is well ahead of the game.

### Limitations of this Study

#### *Survey Design*

The limitations of web-based surveys, including technology and confidentiality barriers, were mitigated as much as possible by utilizing Dillman's (2000) recommendations for implementing internet surveys. However, several complications did occur.

First, one respondent had a technical problem with the survey, as it “froze up” halfway through her response and her results were lost. Only one person indicated that this was a problem, though it certainly could have been more widespread. As new faculty members often feel overwhelmed in their roles, this kind of hindrance could compromise the response rate.

Second, the survey did not accommodate respondents who had no research mentor. Several emails were received about this oversight, and one suggested incorporating a “skip feature” to allow respondents to move directly from Question 2 to demographic information if they did not have a senior collaborator. Furthermore, one respondent stated that the title of “senior collaborator” was confusing for him: he assumed it meant co-publisher, and thus the survey did not apply to him, as he had not co-published with senior faculty. Thus, the survey appeared alienating to some, possibly losing respondents who could have provided interesting information if earlier questions had been worded more explicitly. Indeed, the wording of the survey seemed confusing to some, as the focus of the survey questions moved from multiple senior collaborators to one primary senior collaborator. Several respondents indicated this made it challenging as they were unsure how to address their responses.

Another limitation related to confusing wording relates to the use of both “juried” and “refereed” publications. The two are quite similar, though refereed publications generally emerge in research journals after blind review by a panel of counselor educators, while juried publications might be read by one editor before acceptance. Novice counselor educators may not have distinguished between the two, perhaps resulting in confusion for the respondent.

Finally, two respondents complained that by neglecting to include the IRB approval number in the Informed Consent document, the survey lacked credibility, possibly lowering the response rate. This was an oversight, and could have compromised the study somewhat.

### *Research Design*

Use of the Dillman (2000) method of web-based survey design was intended to increase response rates and generalizability. With a response rate of almost 52%, this study appeared modestly successful. However, as the response rate was less than 80%, nonresponse error is important to consider with regard to external threats to validity (Linder, Murphy, & Briers, 2001).

In addition to the surveying techniques, the methods for sample selection may have been problematic. Though CACREP accredited programs are considered the highest professional standard for counselor training; only 155 of 198 programs were accessed, as many websites lacked information about eligible faculty. Of these 155 programs, and from the initial population of 319 individuals, 36 respondents (11%) emailed to indicate that they were ineligible for this study because they were already tenured, or because they were not counselor educators (these were clinical or psychology faculty predominantly). Thus, information provided by the 155 accessible websites included incorrect information, or correct information about hybrid programs which combined counseling and psychology. In the latter, it is often impossible to tell which faculty members teach counseling and which teach psychology. Either way, it is safe to assume that other nonresponders may have also been ineligible, increasing nonresponse error.

Additionally, surveying only faculty members of CACREP accredited programs limited the generalizability of this study. Because no control group was used to determine if differences exist between CACREP and unaccredited programs, it is difficult to determine if the results are applicable to the larger counselor education community.

Finally, feedback was received from respondents regarding research design qualities that may have alienated members of the population sample. One such response stated mass emails were impersonal, particularly as the survey requested quite personal information. This respondent felt this technique, though ensuring anonymity might make some potential respondents unlikely to complete the survey. On the flip side, other respondents stated they appreciated the multiple contacts, particularly the personal phone call, and asked for details of how to implement these techniques themselves.

#### Recommendations for Future Research

Because of the dearth of information on research mentorship in counselor education, this area is truly wide open for investigation. This survey is a partial initial effort in determining the most effective ways to train new counselor educators for successful, satisfying careers in higher education. Based on feedback from respondents, one possible avenue for exploration is to examine research mentorship from the other side of tenure: in other words, investigate the research mentorship experiences of those who achieved tenure and promotion, and to compare those results with the results from this study. This type of study could provide important clues about what factors truly lead to successful careers. Related areas for exploration might

include the relationship of research mentorship to job satisfaction and retention. Again, based on previous literature, these issues are particularly important for people of color, GLBTQ individuals, women, and individuals with disabilities.

A second possible avenue for future exploration lies in qualitative research. This survey included an open-ended comment section, which resulted in fascinating feedback about respondents' experiences with research mentorship. For example, several stated that even though they had been mentored with support and encouragement, they lacked a structured relationship with someone willing to help them publish or present scholarly work. Others suggested that though they had a research mentor, their time together was unproductive, oppressive, or insufficient to create scholarly work. Also, one respondent mentioned that she was included in a formal, assigned mentor program at her university, but that she had never met with or received guidance from her mentor. These reflections are strong reminders that not all mentorship is helpful to protégés. Exploring research mentor relationships through qualitative means may enlighten counselor educators about what factors help or hinder protégé progress and success.

Thirdly, it is important to remember that 23% of respondents to this study indicated that they had not collaborated with a more senior faculty person on a research endeavor. While studying successful mentoring relationships can provide important information, addressing the needs of the underserved informs our practice as experienced counselor educators. Through a willingness to explore weaknesses and areas of growth, the profession of counselor education might increase capacity for welcoming in all who wish to join. Ignoring deficits does nothing to enhance the

profession or scholarly work: it merely weakens the system. Thus critically examining areas of failure will strengthen the profession as a whole.

Additionally, while this study examines specifically the differences in mentorship experiences between male and female counselor educators, it would also be enlightening to examine differences based on race, ethnicity, ability status, sexual orientation and sexual identity. Identifying ways that those from outside the majority culture experience mentorship in the early years of their professional development further supports the professional call to enhance and value diversity.

Finally, a qualitative or quantitative study examining the experiences and recommendations of senior mentors might elicit intriguing information about mentorship from the other side of the relationship. Senior mentors might describe their mentoring training, their own experiences as protégés, and the skill set involved in quality mentorship. Examining how mentors evaluate their protégé's accomplishments could provide the foundation for an evaluation tool that might be applicable throughout the profession.

### Conclusion

The purpose of this descriptive/comparative research study was to examine the phenomenon of research mentorship in counselor education. Research mentorship, a new and growing area of study in the research literature, shows promise for pre-tenured faculty members seeking guidance in scholarly research and the tenure and promotion process. This study surveyed pre-tenured counselor educators from 155 CACREP-accredited programs. The research questions guiding this study included (a) do pre-tenured counselor educators receive research mentorship; and (b) do male and

female pre-tenured counselor educators report different experiences of research mentorship. The results of this survey indicated that 77% of pre-tenured counselor educators surveyed do engage in research mentorship, and that of these, few differences existed between the experiences of faculty men and women. Future directions for additional research include qualitative studies, including examination of successfully tenured counselor educators, and those who report negative research mentorship experiences.

This area is worthy of study because research mentorship, a potentially powerful and beneficial experience for novice counselor education faculty members, is barely understood or formalized in professional literature. Without formalization, senior faculty persons who are most positioned to assist the pre-tenured are less able or less likely to do so. Additionally, if senior faculty members choose to offer research mentorship to junior faculty, an in-depth understanding of the process will increase the probability of a positive, not negative experience. With our current limited knowledge of research mentorship, mentors and protégés are less likely to create healthy, productive relationships, opening up the possibility of alienation or frustration for both. This is particularly true if those protégés are already marginalized or oppressed in some way, and as this study demonstrates, there are more pre-tenured counselor educators from non-majority groups than seen in higher education in general. Counselor training involves learning discrete, concise microskills and theory: yet research mentorship, which is potentially longer term and just as meaningful has received no attention in the research literature. It is time to understand and prepare for this critical yet overlooked role of seniority in the professoriate. It is essential to the

survival and continued growth of the profession of counselor education. This study offers a start in this direction, with the hope that future exploration can take it further.

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## APPENDICES

## Appendix I

**RESEARCH MENTOR QUALITY QUESTIONNAIRE****Oregon State University****Counselor Education and Supervision Program****Dale-Elizabeth Pehrsson, Ed.D., Associate Professor****Cynthia A. Briggs, Ph.D. Candidate**

**Thank you for completing the following survey. Completion of this survey should take less than 10 minutes. For each question, select the answer(s) that best describe your experiences as a counselor educator.**

**Prior to beginning the survey, please read the Informed Consent Document below and click "Continue" to proceed to the survey.**

**(Insert Informed Consent Here; see Appendix VII)**

1. Are you a counselor educator currently working toward tenure?
  - a. Yes
  - b. No (If no, please do not continue with this survey)
  
2. As a pre-tenured counselor educator, have/are you collaborating on research projects with a more experienced faculty person(s)?
  - a. Yes
  - b. No
  
3. If you have/are collaborating with a more experienced faculty person(s), select the number of individuals:
  - a. 0
  - b. 1-2
  - c. 3-4

d. more than four

4. On which of the following scholarly projects have you collaborated with a more experienced faculty person(s)? (check all that apply)

- Refereed publications
- Juried publications
- Other publications (newsletter articles, etc.)
- Other creative works
- Book
- Book chapter
- Refereed papers
- Refereed presentations
- Invited presentations
- Other presentations
- On campus grants
- National grants
- Other grants
- None of the above
- Other

5. As a pre-tenured counselor educator, have you received guidance from a more experience faculty person(s) in the following areas? (check all that apply)

- Generating research ideas
- Critical analysis of ideas
- Assistance in research design
- Assistance in analyzing data
- Assistance in developing methodology
- Feedback on writing
- Editing
- Assistance in submission of articles to scholarly journals
- Advice about career decisions
- Promoting scientific integrity
- Time management skills
- Navigation of the promotion and tenure process
- None of the above
- Other

6. How would you best describe your relationship with your senior collaborator? (check all that apply)

- Egalitarian
  - Hierarchical
  - Cooperative
  - Competitive
  - Nurturing
  - Individualistic
  - Focused on your needs
  - Focused on your collaborator's needs
  - Differences are discussed openly
  - Differences are ignored
  - Open communication is encouraged
  - Open communication is discouraged
  - None of the above
  - Other
7. What is the gender of this primary collaborator?
- a. Male
  - b. Female
  - c. Identifies as other
8. What is the racial/ethnic identity of this primary collaborator?
- a. African American/Black, not of Hispanic Origin
  - b. American Indian, Alaska Native, Native American
  - c. Asian American or Pacific Islander
  - d. European American/Caucasian/White, not of Hispanic Origin
  - e. Hispanic/Latina/o
  - f. Middle Eastern/ Arabian American
  - g. Multi or Biracial
  - h. Decline to respond
  - i. Other
9. What is the employment status of this primary collaborator?
- a. Full Professor
  - b. Associate Professor
  - c. Assistant Professor
  - d. Full-time Instructor/Lecturer
  - e. Part-time Adjunct Professor/Lecturer
  - f. Other
10. Is this primary collaborator tenured?
- a. Yes
  - b. No
11. Is this primary collaborator also your major advisor/professor?
- a. Yes

- b. No

*Demographic Information:* Please describe yourself by answering the questions below.

12. Gender

- a. Male
- b. Female
- c. Identifies as other

13. Racial/Ethnic identity

- a. African American/Black, not of Hispanic Origin
- b. American Indian, Alaska Native, Native American
- c. Asian American or Pacific Islander
- d. European American/Caucasian/White, not of Hispanic Origin
- e. Hispanic/Latina/o
- f. Middle Eastern/ Arabian American
- g. Multi or Biracial
- h. Decline to respond
- i. Other

14. Employment status at your current university

- a. Full Professor
- b. Associate Professor
- c. Assistant Professor
- d. Full-time Instructor/Lecturer
- e. Part-time Adjunct Professor/Lecturer
- f. Other

15. How many years have you worked as a counselor educator at this university?

- a. 1 year
- b. 2 years
- c. 3 years
- d. 4 years
- e. 5 years
- f. 6 years
- g. more than six years
- h. Other

16. Have you achieved tenure at this university?

- a. Yes
- b. No

17. If no, do you plan to seek tenure at this university?

- a. Yes
- b. No

18. Have you achieved tenure at another university?

- a. Yes
- b. No

Other Comments:

***Thank you for taking the time to complete this survey! Your participation is appreciated.***

Appendix II

Phone script for pre-survey contact

Hello. My name is Cynthia Briggs and I am a doctoral candidate in Counseling at Oregon State University. For my dissertation, I am conducting a web-based survey to learn more about counselor educators' experiences with research collaboration. In a few days, you will receive an email with a link to the survey, which should take about 10 minutes to complete. You have been selected for this study because you hold the rank of Assistant Professor at a CACREP-accredited counseling program. Thank you in advance for your assistance with this study. Your input is invaluable. If you have questions or concerns, feel free to contact me at [Cynthia.briggs@oregonstate.edu](mailto:Cynthia.briggs@oregonstate.edu), or 541-738-0828. Thank you.

### Appendix III

Pre-survey email

A few days from now, you will receive an email request to complete a brief online questionnaire. The results of this questionnaire will be used in my dissertation research conducted at Oregon State University.

The purpose of this survey is to explore the departmental culture and publication practices of pre-tenured counselor educators.

I am writing to you in advance so that you might know ahead of time that you have been selected and invited to participate in this study. This study is an important one, as it focuses on the unique challenges and needs of pre-tenured faculty members in counselor education. The aim of this study is to promote awareness about the experiences of this population, in order to improve working conditions and employment success.

Your generous participation in this study will help ensure our success. Thank you for your time and consideration.

Sincerely,

Cynthia A. Briggs  
Ph.D. Candidate in Counseling  
Oregon State University  
541-737-3175  
[cynthia.briggs@oregonstate.edu](mailto:cynthia.briggs@oregonstate.edu)

Dale-Elizabeth Pehrsson  
Associate Professor, Counselor Education and Supervision  
Oregon State University  
[Dale.pehrsson@oregonstate.edu](mailto:Dale.pehrsson@oregonstate.edu)

#### Appendix IV

Cover letter email to be sent with survey link and survey

I am writing to request your help in a study about pre-tenured counselor educators. The aim of this study is to better understand the unique needs and experiences of these faculty members, that administrators and senior faculty might increase their knowledge of how to support new faculty.

It is my understanding that you are a pre-tenured faculty member in a CACREP-accredited counselor education program. I am contacting counselor educators in order to better understand their departmental culture and publishing activity.

Results from this study will benefit counselor educators like you as new professionals enter academia. By understanding the experiences and struggles of pre-tenured faculty members, administrators can build more effective policy and procedure to prevent attrition and encourage successful completion of the tenure process.

Your answers are completely confidential and will be published as summaries with no individual names included. This survey is voluntary. Your response will help create a more complete description of the experiences of pre-tenured counselor educators.

If you have any questions at all, I would welcome hearing from you at the contact information below.

Thank you so much for your participation in this important study.

Sincerely,

Cynthia A. Briggs  
Ph.D. Candidate in Counseling  
Oregon State University  
541-737-3175  
[cynthia.briggs@oregonstate.edu](mailto:cynthia.briggs@oregonstate.edu)

Dale-Elizabeth Pehrsson  
Associate Professor, Counselor Education and Supervision  
Oregon State University  
[Dale.pehrsson@oregonstate.edu](mailto:Dale.pehrsson@oregonstate.edu)

## Appendix V

First reminder email (sent with URL to survey)

Greetings

Last week my online questionnaire was sent to you regarding your experiences as a pre-tenured counselor educator. Your name was selected from a list generated from CACREP accredited counselor education programs.

If you have already completed the questionnaire, thank you again for your time and effort. If you have not completed the questionnaire, I hope that you will do so today. Your input is valuable to this study so that we might better come to understand the unique challenges and needs of counselor educators seeking tenure.

Again, thank you for your time and attention.

Cynthia A. Briggs  
Ph.D. Candidate in Counseling  
Oregon State University  
541-737-3175  
[cynthia.briggs@oregonstate.edu](mailto:cynthia.briggs@oregonstate.edu)

Dale-Elizabeth Pehrsson  
Associate Professor, Counselor Education and Supervision  
Oregon State University  
[Dale.pehrsson@oregonstate.edu](mailto:Dale.pehrsson@oregonstate.edu)

## Appendix VI

Second reminder email (sent with URL link to survey)

Greetings

During the past month you have received several emails about a survey conducted as a part of my doctoral research in counselor education at Oregon State University.

The purpose of this survey is to expand our understanding of the unique experiences and needs of pre-tenured counselor educators.

The study is drawing to a close, and this is your final opportunity to participate. You were selected to participate in this study as a faculty member in a CACREP accredited program.

Because counselor educators have vastly different experiences from setting to setting, it is important to hear from everyone in order to truly offer a representative sample of faculty experiences. Your input is valuable to these results.

If you would prefer not to participate in this study, or if you feel you have received this questionnaire in error, please respond and let me know. This would be helpful as I begin tallying data.

Thank you again for your time and consideration. I hope to hear from you soon.

Sincerely,

Cynthia A. Briggs  
Ph.D. Candidate in Counseling  
Oregon State University  
541-737-3175  
[cynthia.briggs@oregonstate.edu](mailto:cynthia.briggs@oregonstate.edu)

Dale-Elizabeth Pehrsson  
Associate Professor, Counselor Education and Supervision  
Oregon State University  
[Dale.pehrsson@oregonstate.edu](mailto:Dale.pehrsson@oregonstate.edu)

## Appendix VII

### INFORMED CONSENT DOCUMENT

Project Title: **Research Mentorship in Counselor Education**  
Principal Investigator: **Dale-Elizabeth Pehrsson, Associate Professor, Counseling**  
Co-Investigator(s): **Cynthia A. Briggs, PhD Candidate, Counseling**

#### **WHAT IS THE PURPOSE OF THIS STUDY?**

You are being invited to take part in a research study designed to examine functions of research mentorship for pre-tenured counselor educators. Research mentoring occurs when a more experienced faculty person offers to guide and collaborate with a junior faculty person on scholarly endeavors. For the purpose of this study, two research questions will be investigated: whether pre-tenured counselor educators are receiving research mentorship, and whether research mentorship differs between men and women. This study is the dissertation project of the Co-Investigators listed above, and the results of this study will be used to inform mentorship practice within counselor education programs. We are studying this because research mentorship is a scarcely examined construct in counselor education.

#### **WHAT IS THE PURPOSE OF THIS FORM?**

This consent form gives you the information you will need to help you decide whether to be in the study or not. Please read the form carefully. You may ask any questions about the research, the possible risks and benefits, your rights as a volunteer, and anything else that is not clear. When all of your questions have been answered, you can decide if you want to be in this study or not.

#### **WHY AM I BEING INVITED TO TAKE PART IN THIS STUDY?**

You are being invited to take part in this study because you have been identified as a faculty person in a CACREP-accredited counselor education program who holds the rank of assistant professor.

#### **WHAT WILL HAPPEN DURING THIS STUDY AND HOW LONG WILL IT TAKE?**

During this study, you will be asked to complete a brief questionnaire. If you agree to take part in this study, your involvement will last for approximately 10 minutes.

#### **WHAT ARE THE RISKS OF THIS STUDY?**

This study entails no foreseeable risks.

#### **WHAT ARE THE BENEFITS OF THIS STUDY?**

We do not know if you will benefit from being in this study. However, we hope that, in the future, other people might benefit from this study because the data collected will

better inform senior faculty and administrators about the particular needs of pre-tenured faculty persons in counselor education.

### **WILL I BE PAID FOR PARTICIPATING?**

You will not be paid for being in this research study.

### **WHO WILL SEE THE INFORMATION I GIVE?**

The information you provide during this research study will be kept confidential to the extent permitted by law. To help protect your confidentiality, we will follow the following procedure. Identified counselor educators will be sent email including a link to the website where this survey is located. The email will be sent to the entire sample at once, and email addresses will be kept confidential as they will be entered into the blind carbon copy (bcc) address line. To access the survey, participants click a button labeled "Continue" to accept this informed consent and to proceed with the survey. No identifying information will be attached to the survey itself.

If the results of this project are published your identity will not be made public.

### **DO I HAVE A CHOICE TO BE IN THE STUDY?**

If you decide to take part in the study, it should be because you really want to volunteer. You will not lose any benefits or rights you would normally have if you choose not to volunteer. You can stop at any time during the study and still keep the benefits and rights you had before volunteering.

You will not be treated differently if you decide to stop taking part in the study. You are free to skip any question on the questionnaire if you wish. If you choose to withdraw from this project before it ends, the researchers may keep information collected about you and this information may be included in study reports.

### **WHAT IF I HAVE QUESTIONS?**

If you have any questions about this research project, please contact:

Dale Pehrsson  
(541) 737-8551  
[dale.pehrsson@oregonstate.edu](mailto:dale.pehrsson@oregonstate.edu)

Cynthia A. Briggs  
(541) 737-3175  
[cynthia.briggs@oregonstate.edu](mailto:cynthia.briggs@oregonstate.edu)

If you have questions about your rights as a participant, please contact the Oregon State University Institutional Review Board (IRB) Human Protections Administrator, at (541) 737-3437 or by email at [IRB@oregonstate.edu](mailto:IRB@oregonstate.edu).

Selecting the “Continue” button below indicates that this research study has been explained to you, that your questions have been answered, and that you agree to take part in this study. You may print out a copy of this form.

