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Mentoring Across Stages of Psychology Graduate Student Development: A Theoretical Model

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Abstract

Developmental stage theories have often been used to explain human behavior during the last century. They became especially popular following Erikson's (1968) theory of psychosocial development, which was viewed as a comprehensive model of psychosocial development. Throughout the last thirty years, developmental theories have become increasingly specific as researchers have focused more narrowly on limited and focused dimensions of human development. The focus of this dissertation will be on graduate student development and the impact of the mentoring relationship on this development. Specifically, the question of how mentors impact and promote the development of graduate students is addressed. A model of developmentally appropriate mentoring that accounts for variance in student needs related to developmental differences is presented. Expected outcomes are reviewed and implications of this model for graduate education and subsequent research are also discussed.

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Chapter 1

Graduate Student Development

This chapter addresses the different aspects of graduate student development within the academic setting, as well as in the clinical setting. It enhances the readers' sensitivity to the experience of graduate school and what the research on graduate students tells us. The process of graduate student development is approached from both an academic perspective and a clinical/professional perspective. Models of graduate student development are explored and followed by a discussion of the clinical models of development that are more specific to the helping professions. Finally, the role of faculty in graduate student development is discussed.

The Graduate School Experience

Most would agree that graduate school is a very stressful enterprise. It has been described as a mysterious process (Negrey, 1987) full of overwhelming workloads and difficult decisions. The majority of students are not only concerned about excelling in coursework, but are also striving to broaden the all-important professional vita that becomes so crucial upon exiting graduate school. Many students teach courses or engage in faculty research projects in addition to the expected coursework (Stewart, 1995), as well as working in order to meet financial demands.

Besides the practical demands of coursework and developing a strong vita, there are the personal demands of graduate school. Students may find graduate school to be a time when they

redefine themselves and their values and begin to align their identity more with that of the profession (Baird, 1995). The student may have relocated with or without family to attend school. Even if there is no relocation the student's family is likely to see less of the student in comparison to the time prior to graduate school. This may create difficulties in terms of perceived social support on the part of the student, as well. The personal changes and inherent difficulties of graduate school can create a stressful environment that may negatively impact the graduate student's development and career.

Research on Graduate Students

The stresses of graduate school have been enumerated in several studies (Goplerud, 1980; Hodgson & Simoni, 1995; Stewart, 1995). Social support, financial stress, and perceived academic success all mediate graduate student perceptions of stress in their lives (Goplerud, 1980). Halleck (1976) found that, after undergraduate freshman, graduate students were the most frequent users of psychiatric services on two university campuses. In a study of 22 graduate psychology students, Goplerud (1980) found that the frequency of reported stressful life events in graduate students was so high that 50% of first and second year students were in the "life crisis" category. Fifty-nine percent of these "life events" were related to school in some way. Eighty-two percent of the clinical psychology students surveyed experienced periods of intense anxiety. Fifty percent experienced feelings of depression for longer than 3 days and 32% experienced severe sleep problems that were unrelated to studying. This is important to note because stress may influence graduate student performance by increasing attrition rates and protracting the time it takes for a student to complete the degree (Cooke, Sims & Peyrefitte, 1995). In order to intervene before this happens, faculty members need to understand the needs of students and the distress they are experiencing.

Social support. Several studies have shown that support systems are critical in mediating graduate students' assessment of stressfulness (Cooke, et al., 1995; Goplerud, 1980). Goplerud found that students who had more social support reported fewer traumatic events, despite the fact that they actually experienced more traumatic events than those with minimal support systems. Lack of support from family and friends is also potentially associated with increased attrition rates (Cooke, et al., 1995). This is disturbing when one takes into account that the student probably relocated in order to attend graduate school.

Financial stress. In a study of 566 doctoral students from four disciplines (humanities, social sciences, life sciences, and physical sciences) Hodgson and Simoni (1995) found that social science students had significantly more financial problems than did those studying the physical sciences. It was hypothesized that physical science graduate students were provided more financial aid in the form of grants and research fellowships. Hodgeson and Simoni's (1995) study supports the concept that student needs and stresses vary between disciplines and that, at least financially, those in the social science graduate programs experience more stress. These different needs and stresses can be addressed in conjunction with general models of development in order for students to develop to their full professional capacity.

Perceived academic success. Research has shown that graduate students who believe themselves to be successful at graduate school tend to experience less stress than do those who perceive themselves to be failing (Goplerud, 1980; Hodgson & Simoni, 1995). Perceived academic success is not related to actual academic success. This becomes concerning when one considers that an increase in stress correlates with low self-esteem (Kreger, 1995) and low self-esteem may impact one's perception of academic success. Given this, a student may view himself or herself as failing, when in actuality they may be doing well.

Models of Graduate Student Development

The concept that there is a developmental theory to explain the way individuals progress through life is not a new one. Erik Erikson's (1968) theory of psychosocial development has certainly been one of the most influential stage theories due to Erikson's comprehensive approach to the entire lifetime. Many theories of human development have been proposed since Erikson's (Fowler, 1983; Kohlberg & Kramer, 1969; Piaget, 1952). Each of these theories attempts to explain a different facet of human development. For example, Kohlberg & Kramer (1969) describe moral development, Fowler (1983) describes faith development, and Piaget (1952) describes cognitive development.

Developmental theories have become even more specific during the last thirty years. Researchers have focused on increasingly narrow periods of life in which to discover and apply specific theories of development, including the area of student development. Theories of student development vary and may include theories of primary and secondary school development (Chickering, 1969), theories of undergraduate student development (Chickering & Reisser, 1993) and theories of graduate student development (Stewart, 1995).

While focusing on the specific nature of graduate student development, it is important to recognize the developmental context in which it takes place. Erikson's theory of psychosocial development serves to provide this context in developmental terms. Researchers disagree on where graduate students typically are in terms of various developmental markers (Holloway, 1987; Kaslow & Rice, 1985; Selke & Wong, 1993). They also hold differing perspectives on whether it is necessary to assess for developmental milestones before entrance to graduate school (Holloway, 1987). However, some (Kaslow & Rice, 1985) describe graduate school as a prolongation of Erikson's (1968) adolescence stage, during which the student is forced to address

the crisis of identity vs. role confusion. Others (Selke & Wong, 1993) state that the individual has progressed into the young adulthood and adulthood phases, which are characterized by the tasks of intimacy and generativity, respectively. Given the growing diversity of graduate student populations and the unique stressors inherent in graduate school (Hartnett, 1976), it is quite possible that several of Erikson's stages could be encompassed.

Stage models of development provide a framework for viewing an individual or a target group. The concept of developmental stages is helpful when conceptualizing the needs of a person, as well as his or her functioning in relation to normative standards (Brown & Dinnell, 1992). Holloway (1987) described the stage model of development as one in which a certain kind of thinking dominates a period of development and is replaced, in a succession of stages, by qualitatively different kinds of thinking. Lerner (1986) added that development always implies systematically organized change. However, a stage theory often does not have discrete, exclusive stages. Rather, the stages are frequently seen as overlapping and spirally cyclical (Hess, 1987; Lamb, et al., 1982).

There are very few developmental studies of graduate student development. For this reason, an integration or synthesis of different developmental theories is necessary to obtain a more complete picture of graduate student development. Stewart (1995) proposed a three-stage theory of graduate student development. Stewart felt his model was applicable to all students in graduate programs "of at least several years duration" (p.21). The first stage is called the "Entry Stage." During this stage, students face issues of maintaining motivation. This involves meeting academic demands and developing a sense of purpose within the program. During this time, students may experience increased isolation and decreasing independence due to the requirements of the program. Compounding this problem is the fact that there are very few

orientation programs in graduate school (unlike undergraduate) which foster a sense of community and encourage the development of support systems. In addition to lack of social support, the increase in dependency may re-enact individuation issues during this entry stage.

Stewart (1995) identified the second stage as the "Engagement Stage." This stage typically occurs in the second or third year of graduate school. It may last several years beyond that, depending on the length of time the student stays in graduate school. This period is considered the most comfortable period and is marked by confidence in one's ability to contribute to the field. The primary risk of this stage is that comfort may lead to complacency and procrastination as methods of dealing with fears of the future and self-doubts about one's ability to proceed beyond the current level. Comfort at this stage may also lead to a lengthier stay in graduate school, which may contribute to the chronic lifetime use of "survival strategies" as coping mechanisms (Solomon & Rothblum, 1984).

The "Exit Stage" of Stewart's (1995) theory is described as the most serious crisis that requires a "reorientation to reality." This occurs as students recognize through contact with real world employers that the job market may not be as good as he or she may have previously believed. At the same time the student may be experiencing increasing pressure from the advisory committee to make progress on the dissertation. This pressure comes right at the time that the student may be questioning the value of it all.

An alternative stage model was proposed by Baird (1995). In his study of master's level program development students, Baird focused more on the practical element of student development. His first stage is called the "beginning stage" and is marked by the student becoming socialized into the program and learning the basic structure of the field and program. The "middle stage" involves the mastering of the language of the profession, identifying

interests, and choosing a dissertation committee. The final stage is called the "dissertation stage" and involves work on and completion of the dissertation.

Chickering's (1969) theory has remained influential for three decades with one recent update (Chickering & Reisser, 1993). This theory focuses on the seven "vectors" of development. The term "vector" is used because it indicates direction and magnitude and the theory is about movement in a particular direction. This theory also builds on the concept of identity development in Erikson's model.

Chickering & Reisser (1993) describe college students as their target group. These authors propose that a theory of student development should be applicable to all students, regardless of age. However, some researchers would maintain that it is not possible to have one theory that simultaneously takes into account the special circumstances of each academic level and comprehensively explains student development, regardless of academic level (Stewart, 1995). Nonetheless, Reisser (1995) described Chickering's theory as one that may do just this.

The seven vectors of development described by Chickering (1969) and Chickering and Reisser (1993) include the following: The first vector is "Developing Competence." Competence, here, includes intellectual, physical/manual, and interpersonal competence. While intellectual and interpersonal competence are developmental goals most often associated with higher education, the authors are careful to include physical and manual competencies, as well. These competencies are related to skill development in art, athletics and other recreational activities. The authors maintain that skills developed in these areas may ground verbal skills and abstract intellectualizations through the concrete nature of the physical activities. The second vector is "Managing Emotions" and involves "being in touch with a full range of feelings, understanding what causes them, differentiating between levels of intensity, and learning to

counteract toxic feelings with self-transcending emotions" (Reisser, 1995, p. 507). This vector stems from the idea that age is not a guarantor of emotional maturity and it may be applied to a student at any age. "Moving Through Autonomy Toward Interdependence" is the third vector. It involves the development of emotional independence, which is characterized by freedom from the need for reassurance, affection, or approval. It also involves the development of instrumental dependence or the ability to problem solve in a self-directed manner. The fourth vector is about "Developing Mature Interpersonal Relationships." The authors believe that this occurs earlier than the establishment of identity and argue that relationships should precede the development of autonomy. The fifth vector, "Establishing Identity," "encompasses all of the other vectors" (Reisser, 1995, p. 509). Each of the other vectors contributes to the sense of who the student is, within the world. Classes, activities, exposure to new people and new cultures all give the student reasons to redefine himself or herself and to establish an identity. "Developing Purpose," the sixth vector, involves clarifying vocational plans, focusing priorities, and making lifestyle choices. The seventh vector is "Developing Integrity." In this vector, the student moves toward a relativistic approach to morality. The student begins to personalize his or her own values while respecting others' values.

While this theory is helpful in obtaining a view of student development from a general perspective, one can see where it may not necessarily apply to most graduate students. Many graduate students have established their primary relationships and are capable of managing their emotions. They may also have established their moral stance and physical competence. The areas that appear most pertinent to graduate student development are the vectors reflecting Identity Development, Moving Through Autonomy Toward Interdependence, and Developing

Purpose. These are issues that are repeatedly revisited in the literature on graduate student development.

Clinical Supervision Models of Development

Research on graduate student development in the field of psychology has focused heavily on the clinical supervision experience. One of the first theories of graduate student development focused on the supervision experience and delineated four stages of development (Hogan, 1964). According to this theory, the budding clinician is "neurosis bound" in the first level. The new clinician is bound by his or her training and is unable to go beyond what has been learned in class or from a book when working with a client. The beginning clinician is insecure and uninsightful.

During the second level, the student clinician begins to adapt theory to his or her own personality when working with a client. The student experiences the dependency- autonomy conflict and struggles with insight. The student is trying to establish a sense of autonomy within his or her work. The student also struggles with a deep sense of commitment to the field verses grave misgivings about what he or she is doing. The student gradually progresses to the third level, which is marked by a significant increase in professional confidence and insight. Motivation and commitment are more stable. Hogan (1964) states a "budding peership" develops between the supervisor and the supervisee during this stage.

Hogan (1964) labeled level four the "master therapist" level. This level is marked by personal autonomy, insightfulness with awareness of limitations of insight, and personal security based on an awareness of insecurity. At this point, supervision in the traditional sense is no longer needed and becomes much more akin to consultation.

Hogan's theory appears to be the basis for other theories of supervisee development. Stoltenberg (1981) added to Hogan's four levels Hunt's (1971) conceptual systems theory. Hunt's theory postulates that there are conceptual styles that are enacted at each of the levels and developmental tasks that must be completed before progressing to the next level. Hunt also outlined optimum environments that would facilitate advancement through the stages, which Stoltenberg (1981) also employed in his theory. Stoltenberg (1981) stated that a supervisor would provide the student with a growth-producing environment based on the supervisor's assessment of the student's level of development. Wiley (1982) tested Stoltenberg's theory and found that congruence between supervisee level of development and supervision environment was unrelated to both supervisor and supervisee reported satisfaction with the relationship. However, the problem with Wiley's research is that it was based on self-report from the supervisors, and the questions were paired in such a way as to possibly elicit a fake-good response in which the supervisors might state that they provided a congruent supervision environment when this was not actually the case. The problem is compounded by the finding that supervisees and supervisors view supervision differently (Heppner & Roehlke, 1984)

Loganbill, Hardy and Delworth (1982) proposed one of the most comprehensive developmental theories of supervision. It involved three stages labeled "stagnation," "confusion," and "integration." Within these three stages, the counselor in training needs to resolve eight critical issues: competence, emotional awareness, autonomy, theoretical identity, respect for individual differences, purpose and direction, personal motivation, and professional ethics. Each of these critical issues may occur in any of the three stages. The goal is to become a "master counselor". A potential flaw in this research is that "master counselor" is never defined (Worthington, 1987). There also appear to be many different critical issues to address

prior to the receipt of the doctoral degree or licensure, at the latest. The "master counselor," though not defined, is similar to Maslow's self-actualized person. It is difficult to imagine a therapist attaining this status by the end of a graduate program.

It is interesting to note that in each of the theories described thus far, the time span proposed is the period of graduate school (approximately five –seven years). The majority of the theories state that a person may re-experience or go through the stages again at any time when confronted with a difficult case or when beginning a new practice or job (Brown & Dinnel, 1992; Hogan, 1964; Skovholt & Ronnestad, 1992; Stoltenberg, 1981) or even an internship. This was clearly presented in a study by Lamb, et al. (1982). This study focused on the internship year and divided it into four stages, which are remarkably similar to the stages outlined above. The early intern syndrome (stage one) is marked by lack of identity, role ambiguity and anxiety. During the next four months, the intern is immersed in the intern role. This "intern identity" stage is characterized by increased insight into strengths and limitations. The emerging of the therapist's personality marks the third stage, the "emerging professional stage". The trainee may disagree and challenge the supervisor. The intern may also experience disillusionment due to the fact that he or she has the time to look around and potentially be aware of agency problems. The fourth stage is characterized by collegial supervision and autonomy. The therapist functions autonomously and prepares to leave the internship for the real world job market. These four stages contained within the internship year appear remarkably similar to those stages that describe the entire process of graduate student development. This contributes further to the idea that individuals "spiral" through the stages of development (Brown & Dinnel, 1992, Loganbill, et al, 1982). Put another way, the student may proceed through the stages within a stage.

Empirical Studies. There is very little empirical research that speaks to the theories of graduate student development or supervision development at all (Holloway, 1987; Worthington, 1987). Often when these theories are tested, methodological problems allow the research to be easily criticized and decrease the power of the results (Miars, et al. 1983; Wiley, 1982). One study that is considered methodologically sound followed 12 students longitudinally for three years through graduate school (Hill, Charles, & Reed, 1981). At the end of the three years, all twelve of the subjects in the study stated that the way they expressed empathy with clients had changed. They felt they could now focus more on the client and be concerned less with their own performance. They found the following had the most influence over their development: supervision, client contact, and personal therapy, respectively. The students were found to have increased basic therapy skills and higher order therapy skills. Students also reported a "tremendous decrease" in anxiety, although this was not observed behaviorally. This appears to support the concept that supervision effects students' professional development.

Common Themes in Graduate Student/Supervisee Development

There are two common or consistent themes in the literature on graduate student development. These are consistent markers of graduate student development, regardless of the specific stages employed by the author. First, research often reflects the difference between a "beginning therapist" and an "advanced therapist" (Ronnestad & Skovholt, 1993). Throughout graduate school, the student therapist gradually experiences a decrease in pervasive anxiety as his or her experience level increases (Grater, 1985; Wong, 1997). The beginning therapist is likely to be rigid and bound to academics initially, but allows more personality to show through as he or she advances (Brown, 1985; Skovholt & Ronnestad, 1992; Stoltenberg, 1981). The beginning student solicits confirmatory feedback from advisors and supervisors initially, whereas

advanced students seek corrective feedback (Hess, 1987; Ronnestad & Skovholt, 1993). Each of these reflects a single marker in the development of the student, which may be summarized as growth from dependency to autonomy (Hockey, 1991; Kaslow & Rice, 1985; Stoltenberg & Delworth, 1987; Wong, 1997). The autonomous student therapist seeks consultation with other professionals rather than seeking "supervision" (Lamb, et al., 1982). The student views himself or herself as a professional and demonstrates insight into self and clinical cases (Brown & Dinnel, 1992).

Second, autonomy and individuation (Kaslow & Rice, 1985) are used often in the literature and appear to be similar in meaning. Both develop in the context of a *relationship* with an advisor or supervisor (Brown & Dinnel, 1992; Hockey, 1991). Autonomy and individuation both point to separation from this important individual in the students life and mark the ability of the student to think independently while maintaining a consultative relationship with these instrumental individuals (Bernard, 1979). Each of these changes from the early student to the later student touch on the issues of Establishing Identity, Moving Through Autonomy Toward Interdependence, and Developing Purpose that Chickering and Reisser (1993) discuss as crucial to student development.

Common Themes in Stage Theories

Developmental stage theories of graduate development tend to have common themes, which is synthesized in Table 1. Although some theories do not list more than two stages, this dissertation will attempt to synthesize the various developmental stage models and present the most consistent three stages.

Table 1

Common Themes in Stage Theories

Stage	*Common Themes in Stage Theories*
Stage One	Establishing Roles, learning basic skills, realization of life changes, increased isolation/loneliness, increased insecurity, and decrease of social support. Typically occurs in the first year of graduate school.
Stage Two	Further skill development, beginning dissertation, increased professional discernment, beginning autonomy, increased comfort and confidence, language mastery, and discovering special interests.
Stage Three	Completion of the dissertation, preparation to move, anxiety, excitement, grief, and loss. Student may question the "value of it all."

Establishing Roles. Hess (1987) argued that the first stage of development addresses role definitions, basic skill learning, and the demystification of therapy. This appears to fit well with Hogan's (1964) model which suggests that students move from being insecure and uninsightful to autonomous "master therapists." Several theorists describe this stage as a period of insecurity and acclimation to graduate school (Chickering & Reisser, 1993; Stewart, 1995). In addition, it is theorized that the beginning student experiences a large gap between the theories learned in didactics and the clinical practice expected at the practicum site (Ronnestad & Skovholt, 1993). Some researchers (Ronnestad & Skovholt, 1993; Strange, 1994) call the period of the first stage a "teachable moment" that should focus on specific counseling skills.

Establishing Identity. Further skill development and the beginning of autonomy characterize the second stage. There tends to be an increasing fit between the didactic experience and the work with clients (Hess, 1987). It is during this stage that the student may begin to realize that no one textbook or supervisor has the defining answer, which contributes to

the beginning search for autonomy. Anxiety or panic is a possible response to this discovery (Brown & Dinnel, 1992). The student begins the assimilation and integration of information and experience. Didactic information and theories of evaluation or psychotherapy are seen as options or different approaches rather than as prescriptions (Brown & Dinnel, 1992). The therapist's personality begins to emerge and blend with the use of different approaches (Hess, 1987). Competence increases, as does the potential for disagreement with the supervisor (Littrell, Lee-Borden & Lorenz, 1979; Ronnestad & Skovholt, 1993). An increase in competence contributes to a sense of confidence and comfort with the student's identity. Sometime during the second stage the supervisee may become the most resistant to feedback and his or her self-concept is easily threatened (Stoltenberg & Delworth, 1987).

Establishing Autonomy. The final stage of graduate student development is characterized by autonomy and consultation rather than supervision with the traditional power differential (Bernard, 1979; Hess, 1987; Kaslow & Rice, 1985). One model even suggests that this stage is marked by "self-supervision" (Littrell, Lee-Borden & Lorenz, 1979) although most other studies propose consultation. The student may be simultaneously excited and anxious about leaving graduate school and may experience a "reorientation to reality" during this stage (Stewart, 1995). Grief and loss at leaving the school and classmates to begin an internship or job may also be an issue at this time.

The Role of Faculty in Graduate Student Development

When considering the development of graduate students, it is crucial to explore the relationships of graduate students to faculty members and supervisors. Goplerud (1980) determined that the more often students interacted with faculty outside of classes during the first weeks of school, the less likely they were to report prolonged life disruptions. Increased

satisfactory relationships with faculty were linked to a decrease in health or emotional problems (Hartnett, 1976; Hodgson & Simoni, 1995; Selke & Wong, 1993). The participation of faculty with students in both program related and extra-curricular activities appears to play a role in mediating graduate student stress, as well as increasing graduate student satisfaction with the program.

The adviser/supervisor is a very important influence in the student's life. The literature on graduate student development and supervisee development addresses the ways in which the adviser may intervene in the student's life. The role of the adviser is to facilitate growth and development within the students life, while still meeting them where they are at developmentally (Hunt, 1971). Adviser roles vary with the stage of the student's career which makes different actions appropriate at different times (Leddick, 1994). Negrey (1987) describes a "demystification" process in which the student initially sees the faculty member as an "other" but gradually learns to see him or her self as one of "them." While stating that the faculty relationship is one of structured inequality, Negrey acknowledges the importance of faculty members in this process. Schaefer and Schaefer (1993) found that students value faculty who care for them. Faculty show this caring through availability and showing interest or concern for students (Schaefer & Schaefer, 1993).

Each theory of development discussed thus far describes the adviser or supervisor's role as an instructional one at the onset of the graduate student's career. This is to facilitate the learning of basic skills and foundational theory (Bernard, 1979; Ronnestad & Skovholt, 1993). In addition to the instructional nature of the relationship, encouragement and support have been identified as extremely helpful in mediating graduate student stress and attrition rates (Hodgson & Simoni, 1995; Rabinowitz et al, 1986; Worthington & Roehlke, 1979). It is important for the

supervisor or adviser to realize how much power they are perceived as having by the beginning student (Doehrman, 1976) and mitigate the intimidation that may result from this with empathy and understanding in order to ensure honest communication and the effective growth of the student.

The advanced student has less need for the instructional aspects of the adviser/advisee relationship. The advanced student has attained at least some amount of autonomy. The supervisor or adviser is seen as more of a consultant during this time frame. Supervision during this time should foster independence and assist the student practically in applying for internships and jobs, as well as helping the student to say good-bye (Lamb et al., 1982; Stewart, 1995). Carifio and Hess (1987) found that students in all stages of development described the ideal supervisor as respectful, empathic, genuine, concrete, and one who participates in self-disclosure with his or her supervisees. Certainly these qualities would help provide an atmosphere that is conducive to the development of both the supervisor and the supervisee.

Summary

Although stage theories have been determined to be helpful when conceptualizing where students are developmentally and what their needs are, it is unclear which stages, or what number of stages best depict the developmental experience for graduate students. (Brown & Dinnel, 1992; Holloway, 1987). Clearly, developmental theories offer a framework from which one may conceptualize student development and student needs. It is incumbent on faculty to recognize these needs and intervene in the appropriate manner in order to increase retention rates and assist in the development of healthy competent professionals. Sometimes, due to the power differential and the evaluative role of faculty and supervisors, students do not feel comfortable in expressing their needs directly (Negrey, 1987; Stewart, 1995) leaving faculty

to rely solely on their own judgement and assessment of each student's developmental level and competency. This suggests the need for an advocate for each student who is someone the student can trust and depend on. The ideal faculty member would incorporate student assessment and student feedback, as well as a solid working knowledge of developmental theory into the relationship. These components would additionally inform faculty of the student's competency and readiness for advancement. In order to further the discussion of how student development may inform intentional faculty interaction with students, a more specific faculty role must be defined which emphasizes trust, is qualitatively different from the adviser or supervisor roles, and which seeks to foster the optimum development of the student within the program. This faculty role is that of the mentor.

Chapter 2

Mentoring in Graduate School

The concept of mentoring has been passed down through the ages. In The Odyssey, Homer tells the tale of how the King of Ithaca entrusted his son, Telemachus, to a wise elder by the name of Mentor when the King went off to war. From this wise elder's name came the term "mentor," or "wise guide," which is associated with the bonding of a young inexperienced person to a wiser, more experienced person. Many highly visible examples of this relationship have been documented in literature such as Socrates and Plato, Augustine and Ambrose, Annie Sullivan and Helen Keller, and Sigmund Freud and Carl Jung. Based on this distinguished list of those who have mentored and been mentored one can assume that there are significant benefits to being mentored. This chapter discusses these benefits, as well as the mentoring relationship in general. The characteristics of effective mentors and successful protégés are explored. The functions of a mentor in a graduate student's career are outlined, development of mentor relationships are discussed, and the potential liabilities of this relationship are considered. By the end of this chapter, the reader should have a sense of the form and importance of mentoring relationships in the development of graduate students.

The Concept of Mentoring

If one looks solely to the diverse pairs listed above (e.g. Socrates and Plato)for the parameters of the mentor relationship, one may have difficulty deriving definitive characteristics

of the mentoring phenomenon. The problem of multiple definitions has been pervasive in the literature on mentoring. Although there is no widely accepted operational definition (Jacobi, 1991) there are commonalities that can be explored (Cronan-Hillix, Gensheimer, Cronan-Hillix, & Davidson, 1986). Many of these commonalities began with Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson and McKee (1978). Levinson, et al. (1978) stated that a mentor is usually older than the protégé and is "a person of greater experience and seniority in the world" (p. 97) than the person he or she will be mentoring. The mentor welcomes the younger, less experienced protégé into the professional world and assists the protégé in this transition. Levinson and Levinson (1996) describe mentoring in relational terms. Mentoring cannot be seen in terms of two individuals. Rather, "It is a relationship which the two participants conjointly initiate, form, sustain, exploit, benefit, and suffer from, and, ultimately, terminate" (Levinson & Levinson, 1996, p. 239).

In a study of graduate psychology students, Cronan-Hillix et al. (1986) built upon the definition provided by Levinson, et al. (1978) and other researchers, and defined a mentor as "an experienced adult who guides, advises, and supports inexperienced protégés for the purpose of furthering their careers" (p. 123). In 1998, following a thorough review of the literature, Clark, Harden and Johnson operationalized this definition even further, which is the definition that is used for this dissertation. Their study defined mentoring as "a personal relationship in which a more experienced (usually older) individual acts as a guide, role model, teacher, and sponsor of a less experienced (usually younger) protégé." This definition incorporates the functions of a mentor while also including typical characteristics of both mentor and protégé.

Characteristics of Successful Protégés and Effective Mentors

Mentors do not choose protégés randomly due to the potential costs and the time involved in mentoring a student (Green & Bauer, 1995). They look for a particular kind of student to devote time and energy to. A potential protégé must be perceived as competent, trustworthy, and motivated in order for mentoring to occur (Noe, 1988). A student must have talent and drive and must show "exceptional promise" in order to become a protégé (Kram, 1988). Zey (1984) also found that mentors look for specific characteristics in protégés. The student must be intelligent and ambitious. He or she must have the desire and ability to accept power and risk. The potential protégé must have the ability to perform the mentor's job. Loyalty is critical and the student must hold similar perceptions of work and the organization (administration) as the mentor. He or she must have commitment to the organization and display organizational savvy. The student must be perceived positively by the organization and must have the ability to establish alliances. A student displaying these qualities would be the ideal protégé. Paradoxically, some would argue that if a student could do all of these things, the student would have little need for a mentor and would probably be successful with or without one (Jacobi, 1991). Regardless, the literature suggests that these protégé characteristics may help explain which students get mentored and which do not (Cronan-Hillix et al., 1986; Levinson et al., 1978).

Whether one has or has not had a mentor in his or her life, it is easy to imagine what one would like a mentor to be like. One can also imagine characteristics of an undesirable or "bad" mentor. In terms of graduate students, a bad mentor is likely to be unfair and emotionally distant (Schaefer & Schaefer, 1993). He or she would be uninterested and unsupportive, would lack knowledge or competency and might be exploitive. This person would also be experienced by

the protégé as unavailable or inaccessible (Cronan-Hillix et al., 1986). In addition to these practical concerns, students often rated certain personality characteristics as the primary markers of a bad mentor. Rigidity, criticality, and egocentricity have been associated with being a bad mentor (Cronan-Hillix et al, 1986). Lack of trustworthiness and fairness on the part of the faculty member have also been listed by students as impediments to the mentor relationship (Schaefer & Schaefer, 1993).

An effective mentor is one who assists the protégé in his or her professional development. In order to do this, the protégé must be able to trust the mentor and a relationship must develop. A study of graduate psychology students found that the number one characteristic of a good mentor, as rated by students, was that the mentor was interested and supportive (Cronan-Hillix et al, 1986). Other aspects of a good mentor that were identified were personality characteristics (for example, a sense of humor, honesty, dedication, and empathy). Good mentors were described as knowledgeable and competent, sharing and giving, unexploitive, involved in research, and as holding positive attitudes toward students. A sense of caring has also been identified as critical to the relationship (Schaefer & Schaefer, 1993).

As one reads the lists describing good mentors and bad mentors, one can see that these characteristics describe desirable and undesirable people in general. Certainly a sense of humor is more desirable than rigidity in any friendship or partnership. One generally wishes to embark on a relationship with someone who shows interest and is supportive, rather than with someone who doesn't care and is non-supportive. However, the general applicability of these characteristics supports this research rather than detracting from it. Of course we want primary people in our lives to care for us, and the power and primacy of the mentor relationship lies in that caring, support, and interest. What this research indicates, however, is that a mentor

relationship may not develop out of an assignment (Cronan-Hillix et al., 1986). Rather, it may be more likely to develop out of common interests and attraction to personalities, both of which cannot be assigned.

Mentor Functions

Levinson et al. (1978) discussed several different functions of the mentor. He or she may act as a teacher, a sponsor, host and guide, an exemplar (or role model), or a counselor. Kram (1988) argued that a hierarchical relationship must provide several functions, many similar to Levinson's, in order to truly realize a mentoring relationship. She divided these functions into Career Functions and Psychosocial Functions. The Career Functions are those functions that serve to enhance the protégé's career and the Psychosocial Functions are those that enhance the professional development of the protégé (See Table 2).

Table 2

Kram's (1988) Mentor Functions

Career Functions	Psychosocial Functions
Sponsorship	Role Modeling
Exposure and Visibility	Acceptance and Confirmation
Coaching	Counseling
Protection	Friendship
Challenging Assignments	

Career Functions. The Career Functions include: Sponsorship, Exposure and Visibility, Coaching, Protection, and Challenging Assignments. Although Kram (1988) was writing to a business audience, it is easy to apply these same functions to a graduate school setting. The Sponsorship function involves public support by a faculty member for a protégé. The key component is the public nature of this support. The mentor may actively support the protege in applying for fellowships or teaching positions. This continues when the protégé applies for internships or jobs after graduate school. The public nature of the sponsorship may empower the protégé to seek positions or explore professional possibilities that he or she may not have been able to without the support of the mentor.

Exposure and Visibility are offered by the mentor in the form of responsibilities given by the mentor that would not have been available otherwise. These responsibilities allow the protégé to demonstrate competence to others and expose the protégé to future opportunities. An example of this might be teaching a course while the mentor is out of town, thereby providing the student with teaching experience as well as allowing the administration to witness the protégé's teaching abilities, which may open the door for teaching in the future. The same could be said for publishing a paper with the mentor. Once others in the professional community see the protégé's capabilities, he or she may gain entry into professional groups or become familiar to important colleagues.

Clearly, the Coaching function is important to the protégé as he or she moves through graduate school. This function helps the student navigate his or her way into the professional world. The mentor proceeds to teach the protégé the "ins and outs" of the professional world, including the subtle politics of working within an administration and the realities of the job

market. Academic planning and applying for internships or jobs are critical times for the Coaching function; however, it can be present throughout the relationship.

The Protection function involves shielding the protégé from potentially damaging contact with professors or administrators. While protection may not be something the protégé is aware of requiring, it can be very helpful if the protégé falls behind in his or her work, or fails to complete a project on time. The mentor may choose to intervene on behalf of the student. In effect, the mentor shields the protégé from negative attention while highlighting his or her accomplishments.

Finally, the mentor may provide the protégé with Challenging Assignments that are rich with opportunities for career development and the establishment of competencies. These may take the form of research, teaching, or practical experiences provided by the mentor. These assignments may also relieve the mentor of time-consuming responsibilities while giving the protégé an opportunity to learn.

Psychosocial Functions. Kram's (1988) Psychosocial Functions include Role Modeling, Acceptance-And-Confirmation, Counseling, and Friendship. It is more difficult to apply some of these functions to graduate school than it is to apply the career functions. This is, in part, due to the dual-relationships inherent in student-faculty relationships, which is addressed later.

Role Modeling is a critical part any hierarchical developmental relationship (Folse, 1991; Kram, 1988). Through Role-Modeling, the mentor communicates valuable information about what it means to be a successful professional by setting a desirable example. Through the identification with the role-model (the mentor), the protégé develops his or her own style and values by incorporating and rejecting what he or she sees in the mentor.

The Acceptance and Confirmation function benefits both individuals due to the positive feelings each has for the other. It is through this function that the protégé receives support and encouragement from the mentor and a sense that he or she "belongs" in graduate school. Kram (1988) states that the "relationship provides psychological nurturance through this function" (p. 35).

The Counseling Function allows the protégé to examine personal issues that may affect the protégé's sense of self within the profession. The mentor provides a forum for the protégé to express anxieties and engage in self-exploration. It is important to recognize that Kram (1988) does not present Counseling as a form of psychotherapy. It is designed to promote open discussion of values as they relate to career development. For example, the protégé may wonder how one becomes successful while maintaining his or her values and personal life. Counseling allows the protégé to process this with a mentor who has waded through these issues successfully.

Friendship is the final function discussed by Kram (1988). She describes this friendship as one in which informal social interactions result in mutual liking and experiences outside of work or the professional atmosphere. However, Kram acknowledges that there are limits to this friendship given the power differential that exists. Kram points out that most individuals choose to keep social interactions related to the professional environment in order to avoid conflict due to dual-relationships.

Mentor Functions vs. Non-Mentor Functions.

Each of the functions described above is very important and the functions are not necessarily discrete. The mentor and protégé working on a wide range of different projects may find any number of career and psychosocial functions present. Kram (1988) argued that the

the Psychosocial Functions. Therefore, if a relationship does not involve friendship or acceptance and confirmation, it is not really a mentoring relationship. Based on this research, it appears that the difference between mentor relationships and non-mentor relationships between faculty and students is qualitative rather than practical. A student and faculty member can do research together without any additional relational functions. Similarly, a student may be "advised" but not necessarily "coached." In order for the relationship to be a mentor relationship there has to be a degree of personal interest and caring. These qualitative elements impact the career or practical functions of the mentor relationship in a positive way. Rather than simply advising during a given situation, the mentor will coach the student throughout graduate school. Instead of providing letters of recommendation when asked, the mentor will seek out and sponsor the student as he or she searches for a professional position.

Benefits of Mentoring Relationships

There are many benefits of having a mentoring relationship for both the mentor and the protégé. In a business study, Roche (1979) found that protégés are happier with their work, make more money at a younger age, and are promoted more quickly. Mentoring also fosters greater commitment, better socialization, and increased job performance or productivity (Jacobi, 1991). Benefits of being mentored have been found to span the career. One theory postulates that different benefits are experienced according to career level (Twale & Jellinek, 1996). At the graduate level, mentoring boosts self-esteem and enriches learning. One of the functions of mentoring outlined above, sponsorship, is seen as critical to the success of graduate students. Role modeling is seen as a benefit throughout the protégé's early career. In addition, the mentoring relationship continues to enrich learning and enhance long term career planning.

Ultimately, the protégé becomes a mentor and imparts to his or her protégé many of the same benefits, even while continuing to be mentored him or herself.

Benefits to the mentor include acting as a role model for the profession. The mentor's learning is enriched through the process and he or she is able to give advice to protégé's (Twale & Jellinek, 1996). The mentor may experience intrinsic satisfaction from watching the protégé grow and develop (Green & Bauer, 1995). The mentor may experience a sense of generativity, which is a critical developmental milestone, according to Erikson (1968). The mentor relationship may enhance performance in ways such as increasing productivity while also contributing to the positive reputation of the mentor (Green & Bauer, 1995). The mentor also benefits from increased networking and social support as the protégé advances and becomes a colleague (Jacobi, 1991).

Risks and Liabilities in Mentoring

Although there are many benefits within the mentoring relationship, there are some risks as well, for both the protégé and the mentor. One of the risks inherent in the relationship is the potential for harmful dual relationships. The structure of the relationship involves a clear power differential and an evaluative dimension. This power differential is obvious, and can be problematic if not addressed openly at the beginning of the relationship. Bowman, Hatley, and Bowman (1995) state that the trainee, or student, is vulnerable due to the power differential and has diminished capacity for consent as a result. They speculated that it is therefore impossible for the student to enter into a fully informed dual relationship. While this statement seems too strong in the assertion of student powerlessness, it does address the importance of discussing the dual relationship potential and the manifestations of related problems early on.

Termination issues can be particularly problematic for both mentor and protégé (Desjardins, 1993; Kram, 1988). Depending on the way the relationship ends, resentment and bitterness may cloud the perception of the relationship. Of particular interest, is the issue of independence around termination. The mentor may resent that the student wishes to "go it alone" at this point, or the student may feel like he or she is being pushed aside as the relationship comes to a close. Again, difficulties with termination may be the result of unclear expectations, which might be averted if they are discussed ahead of time.

Risks for the mentor lay in the possibility that mentoring a protégé may lead to frustration or a decrease in productivity (Green & Bauer, 1995). This may result from spending large quantities of time on a protégé who does not fulfill his or her perceived promise. The relationship also has the potential to be exploitive or unhealthy (Green & Bauer, 1995) in terms of boundaries and expectations on the part of the protégé. For example, a highly gifted student may have narcissistic traits and may exploit the mentor solely for his or her gain, without the mutuality and loyalty which are more characteristic of these relationships (Mehlman & Glickhauf-Hughes, 1994). Clearly, the mentor is at risk here for loss of resources with little to gain. In addition, strained resources (both personal and professional) may result from the student becoming dependent upon the mentor. The mentor may also experience conflict with the protégé or conflict with peers within the department due to perceived favoritism of the protégé (Desjardins, 1993).

Conflict with the mentor is also a risk for the protégé. This can be more difficult for the protégé due to the power differential. The student may experience problems with the dual nature of the relationship around issues such as confidentiality and the limits of confidentiality. Students may also risk falling outside the mentor's range of interest if they leave the academic

arena, thereby abruptly terminating the relationship (Blackburn, Chapman, & Cameron, 1981). The mentor may also exploit the protégé. This may take the form of the mentor taking credit for protégé's work or sexual exploitation of the student (Glaser & Thorpe, 1986). Obviously, these are also ethical violations, but the power difference may make it difficult for the student to confront these issues.

Relationship Formation

Although there are several risks involved in mentoring, most of these can be prevented by discussing expectations at the beginning of the relationship. This would occur during the first stage of the relationship. There are several developmental theories about the mentor relationship (Kram, 1988; Levinson, et al., 1978; O'Neill & Wrightsman, 1981), yet Kram's (1988)theory appears to be the most parsimonious and applicable for this dissertation. Kram identified the first stage as the Initiation stage. This stage usually lasts for the first 10-12 months and is characterized by mutual attraction and an effort to keep the best foot forward. It is a time for introduction and would also be an appropriate time to discuss expectations and the formation of the relationship.

The second stage is the Cultivation stage. This usually lasts between 2-5 years. During this time expectations are tested against reality, and trust and an emotional bond develop through meaningful interactions. Cultivation ends when changes in individual needs and organizational circumstances disrupt the equilibrium that characterized the relationship. This may occur when the protégé or the mentor moves to another professional position.

Separation is the third stage. It is marked by significant changes in the functions provided by the relationship. It is often marked by physical and psychological separation. Both the mentor and the protégé may experience a sense of loss while simultaneously experiencing

excitement for the new opportunities presented by the impetus for the separation. This experience is critical to the development of the protégé and the relationship.

The final stage is the Redefinition stage. This stage occurs after several years of separation. As the protégé achieves an increasingly collegial status, the relationship becomes a friendship. The protégé may experience a sense of indebtedness and the mentor may experience pride in the success of the protégé. There is typically little interpersonal contact during this stage, but the mentor remains available as a sort of touchstone for the protégé.

Kram's (1988) model indicates that this relationship can be life long, or may be as short as graduate school, itself, with the redefinition stage extending far beyond. Obviously, many factors could affect the development of the relationship, not the least of which would be the personal and professional development of each individual in the relationship. While Kram's model is not stagnant, it does not account well for the personal or professional development of the protégé. It is also unclear how the functions of the mentor relationship change across the stages in response to the development of the relationship and the persons in the relationship.

Summary

The importance of a mentor relationship for graduate students cannot be ignored. Mentoring has been shown to increase productivity, increase satisfaction with the work organization (or graduate school), and increase potential promotions and job placements (Roche, 1979). In addition to these clear external markers of the value of mentoring, there are numerous psychosocial benefits connected to being mentored in graduate school. The protégé receives coaching and sponsorship that students without mentors do not, opening doors to advancement and possible teaching opportunities. The protégé also receives support, acceptance and individual contact with a faculty member, which Goplerud (1980) and others (Hartnett, 1976;

Hodgson & Simoni, 1995; Selke & Wong, 1993; Worthington & Roehlke, 1979) have convincingly linked to student adjustment. It is fair to say that nearly every student would benefit from a mentor.

The mentor relationship is certainly a vital component of a graduate student's career, yet this dissertation proposes to go further. There is no research or theory which addresses the mentor relationship in connection with student development. The mentor relationship and the functions it provides need to be addressed in terms of the development of the student within the relationship. An intentional and developmentally informed relationship between mentor and protégé would increase the efficiency of the relationship while enhancing its impact. Informed by graduate student development literature, the mentor may implement a stage specific approach to mentoring, including selection of appropriate mentor functions. In this way, the protégé and the mentor would engage in a relationship that is maximally conducive to this growth. A developmentally informed relationship would also allow for awareness and discussion of problems related to personal or professional developmental stagnation, as well as stagnation within the development of the relationship.

Chapter 3

Developmentally Appropriate Mentoring

It has been established thus far that graduate school is very stressful (Goplerud, 1980; Hodgson & Simoni, 1995; Stewart, 1995) and that these stresses change as a student progresses through certain developmental stages and attempts different developmental tasks (Chickering & Reisser, 1993; Stewart, 1995). Satisfactory relationships with faculty members help ameliorate this stress while promoting graduate student health and progression through the stages of development (Hartnett, 1976; Hodgson & Simoni, 1995; Selke & Wong, 1993; Stewart, 1995; Worthington & Roehlke, 1979). The power differential inherent in the faculty student relationship may make some graduate students hesitant to approach faculty members (Negrey, 1987), which points to the importance of one particular advocate among the faculty, or a mentor.

The mentor relationship has been established as one of the most important relationships one might have in an academic and professional career (Jacobi, 1991; Levinson et al., 1978; Kram, 1988; Roche, 1979). Because of the impact of the faculty relationship and the importance of the mentor relationship, it makes sense that a faculty member would serve as a mentor to the student during graduate school. Currently, there is no research that addresses the interaction between the mentoring relationship and student development. This is a significant omission given the impact the mentor relationship has on the development of a student. I propose that this gap be addressed using a model of intentional mentoring that is informed by the development of

the student and uses developmentally appropriate interventions to assist the student in developing fully.

Developmentally Appropriate Mentoring (DAM) describes intentional mentoring as the purposeful intervention of the mentor with attention to the graduate student's stage of development in order to assist the student in the completion of relevant developmental tasks and subsequent growth. DAM relies on a three-stage model of development, which focuses on developmental tasks which, when completed serve as signs of growing professional and personal competence. DAM involves the intentional use of the career and psychosocial functions identified by Kram (1988) at specific points in the student's development to increase the efficiency of the mentor relationship and to enhance the impact of the relationship. This ensures that the student achieves some level of developmental maturity prior to termination of the relationship

This chapter describes the three-stage model of graduate student development, which was proposed in the previous chapter. It describes the developmental tasks that occur within each stage. By the end of the chapter, the reader will have an understanding of how the mentor functions outlined by Kram (1988) interact with the stages of student development, creating the DAM model. Potential outcomes related to the use of this model are discussed.

Graduate Student Development

Several theories of graduate student development and supervision models of development have been discussed. The model of graduate student development proposed here attempts to synthesize many of the salient points drawn from various theories of student development. This model relies heavily on Stewart (1995) in that it is comprised of three stages and employs the

same names coined in Stewart's theory. However, there are differences in the content of the stages of development.

Although this model is referred to as a "stage theory," it does not contain completely discrete stages (See Figure 1). The stages may overlap and may be revisited as necessary to address unresolved issues or developmental tasks that are integral to the development of the student. Although students typically complete each stage before progressing to the next one, this is not always the case. The overlap in stages and the ability to revisit each stage is critical if a stage theory is to be used to describe the developmental trajectory of most graduate students, including non-traditional students and those who extend their programs beyond the prescribed time frame. For example, those who take seven years to complete a five-year program are likely to experience intense overlap between the stages due to the different composition of courses, progress on dissertation, and interaction or lack of interaction with faculty. For these reasons, the stages of graduate student development are seen as three interwoven overlapping circles (see Figure 1).

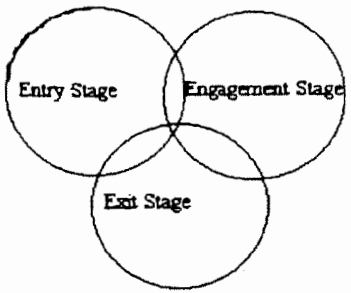

Figure 1. The stages of graduate student development may potentially overlap and intersect, as seen here.

Entry Stage. The first stage of graduate student development is called the Entry Stage (See Table 3). During this stage, students are establishing their roles as graduate students (Hess, 1987). They are primarily concerned with learning the basic skills of graduate school and the profession they are embarking upon. The student is evaluated in the academic setting and the clinical setting by faculty and supervisors on a constant basis. The life changes that accompany graduate school, particularly in one's personal life (Goplerud, 1980; Stewart, 1995) become apparent during this stage. In addition to these new experiences, the student is confronted with the reality of decreased social support from those he or she previously relied upon, regardless of whether that is due to geographical change or a decrease in time allotment for socializing.

The context of this first stage contributes considerably to the emotional and cognitive experience of the graduate student. During the Entry Stage, the student may experience increased isolation and loneliness (Stewart, 1995). The student becomes aware that he or she is constantly being evaluated by the faculty and must strive to meet academic demands that may seem particularly grueling to the beginning student (Stewart, 1995). This period has also been characterized by insecurity on the part of the student (Chickering & Reisser, 1993; Hogan, 1964). The Entry Stage may be a time of loss for the student due to the absence of a familiar support system. The student may also experience a large gap between what he or she learns in didactics and what is expected of him or her at the practicum site, which may cause distress.

Engagement Stage. The Engagement Stage is the second and often longest stage. There is much to do during this stage and much is expected of the student. This stage typically begins in the second year of graduate school and may last much longer, depending on how long the student stays in graduate school (Stewart, 1995). Skills are developed further during this stage and the student begins to experience autonomy (Brown & Dinnel, 1992). During this stage, the

student realizes an increasing fit between what is learned in practicum didactics and what is experienced in the field. The student becomes aware that clinical practice is the result of a synthesis of "answers" and that no textbook or professor has the defining answer. The student spends much of this stage establishing his or her personal and professional identity (Hess, 1987). During this stage, the student masters the language of the profession, discovers special interests, and explores potential specialty areas for the future (Baird, 1995). The dissertation gets under way, bringing with it additional stress as well as opportunities for further learning. Evaluation from faculty and supervisors continues, but may become more personalized as evaluators gain more experience with the student and, perhaps even work on projects with him or her.

This period is considered the most comfortable (Stewart, 1995) and is marked by confidence in one's ability to contribute to the field. This confidence is related to the student's increasing ability to assimilate and integrate information and experience, providing choices in clinical practice, rather than prescriptions (Brown & Dinnel, 1992). Anxiety may result when a student begins to view faculty members as imperfect humans who cannot provide all of the answers and who make mistakes. Avoidance of the dissertation or excessive comfort in this stage may lead to a protracted length of stay in graduate school, which is a danger during this stage. This is also the time when relationships are solidified with both faculty and other support systems through increased contact and possible professional projects on which faculty and students work together.

Exit Stage. The final stage of graduate student development is the Exit Stage, which typically occurs during the final year of graduate school. Stewart (1995) stated this stage contains a "reorientation to reality" for the graduate student. This occurs through the very real process of preparing for internship and receiving information from prospective employers that

the job market may not be as good as the student had previously believed. Simultaneously, the student is finishing the dissertation process and preparing to move (Baird, 1995). This involves practical issues of geographical relocation as well as emotional issues of leaving the safety of graduate school. In terms of clinical practice, the student may have a more consultative role in supervision and may even have the responsibility of supervising beginning students.

The context of the Exit Stage is one that contributes to considerable stress. This is compounded by the fact that this stress comes at the point when the student may be questioning the value of the education and the sacrifices made to obtain it (Stewart, 1995). Excitement and anxiety are both likely to be present during this time. The student will experience a significant increase in autonomy during this time, as he or she prepares to leave graduate school for clinical practice or internship. Although feeling autonomous, the student is likely to experience grief and loss at leaving school and classmates.

Table 3

Stage Theory of Graduate Student Development

Stage	*Characteristic Markers*
Entry Stage (first year)	Establishing Roles, learning basic skills, realization of life changes, increased isolation/loneliness, increased insecurity, and decrease of social support. Typically occurs in the first year of graduate school.
Engagement Stage (2^{nd} year +)	Further skill development, beginning dissertation, increased professional discernment, beginning autonomy, increased comfort and confidence, language mastery, and discovering special interests.
Exit Stage (final year)	Completion of the dissertation, preparation to move, anxiety, excitement, grief, and loss. Student may question the "value of it all."

Developmental Tasks

Several theorists have proposed "critical issues" (Loganbill, Hardy & Delworth, 1982), developmental (psychosocial) "crises" (Erikson, 1968), and "vectors" (Chickering & Reisser, 1993) to describe tasks which must be completed in order for a person to progress through developmental stages. Each of the "critical issues" that are listed in Loganbill, Hardy and Delworth's theory of supervision may occur in any of the three stages of development their theory proposes. Conversely, Erikson (1968) proposes that in each stage of his theory, there is a crisis that must be resolved. If not, this will cause pathology later on because one may never go back to that stage to resolve that issue. The theory of graduate student development presented here proposes that some developmental tasks are more appropriate to a specific stage of graduate student development and that they are more likely to facilitate growth if completed in that particular stage (See Table 4). However, due to student individuality, it is possible that each of these tasks can be accomplished at different points in development or the task may be revisited at a later time if temporarily unfinished. Even so, it seems that there are tasks that match well with specific stages and appear to facilitate smooth progression to the next stage of development.

Table 4

Stage Appropriate Developmental Tasks

Stage	*Developmental Task*
Entry Stage (first year)	Establishing Roles Developing Competence Constructing Professional Boundaries Identifying a Purpose
Engagement Stage (second year +)	Establishing Personal and Professional Identity Developing Autonomy Investing in a Career Trajectory Building Collegial Relationships Establishing Integrity
Exit Stage (final year)	Developing a Balanced Assessment of Supervisors and Mentor Learning to Supervise Others Acknowledging Limits of One's Ability Establishing Integrity Accepting Loss Asserting Professional Autonomy

Entry Stage

Establishing Roles. Hess (1987) identified one of the crucial tasks of professional development as that of establishing roles. He focused primarily on the supervision relationship and explained that the supervisor and supervisee need to be aware of the roles that each person assumes within the relationship in order for the relationship to be fruitful and develop. It is equally necessary for the student to establish his or her roles within the academic and personal settings in order to survive graduate school. Many students may find that the roles they were once comfortable in no longer apply, or may need to become secondary to the role of student. For example, if a man is having his second child and has just entered graduate school, he may find that he must allocate less time to his role as new father in comparison to time available

following the birth of his first child. A woman may find that her role as primary caregiver in the home has been supplanted by her role as student. Both of these situations involve prioritizing roles and establishing new ones, ideally with the help of a strong support system. A second part of Establishing Roles is to firmly establish one's role within the academic community. This involves developing a strong support group and building friendships with other students.

Developing Competence. This task is reminiscent of Chickering's (1969) developmental task of developing competence. The focus here is on the development of competence within the field. This task involves learning basic skills for clinical practice and acquiring research skills in order to find needed information. Developing clinical competence also includes learning to seek supervision when in doubt. Clearly, learning basic skills and when to seek supervision is foundational to the development of a student within any discipline.

Constructing Professional Boundaries. A large part of this stage involves the student's awareness of the roles he or she has chosen. In order to remain in graduate school, the student must choose the role of student. Once this occurs, the student must construct professional boundaries that are respectful of the differences and similarities between professional relationships and friendships. These professional relationships include the relationships the student might have with faculty, supervisors, clients, and other students. These professional boundaries lay the groundwork for further ethical development that, ideally result in the student eventually becoming intrinsically ethical.

Identifying a Purpose. The beginning student spends a fair portion of time identifying a purpose within the discipline (Brown, 1985; Chickering, 1969). The student's increasing intentionality positively affects his or her ability to base choices on a clearly developed purpose. A student with an identified purpose will demonstrate determination to achieve established goals

despite obstacles (Reisser, 1995). It is a sense of purpose that continues to carry the student through graduate school during particularly stressful times.

Engagement Stage

Establishing Identity. As the student begins to establish identity, a sense of self as a professional and as a graduate student begins to emerge. This task reflects increased independence and a blending of self with theory and practice in practica and didactics. During this process, the student confirms his or her core characteristics (Chickering, 1969) and allows these characteristics to inform professional development and identity. This is in direct contrast to the compartmentalizing of information, practice, and personal characteristics that is rigidly adhered to in the Entry Stage. Establishing Identity may be best described as the assimilation of knowledge, practice, and personality characteristics into a sense of self for the student that comprehensively reflects each of these components.

This task is closely related to other tasks during this stage, particularly Developing Autonomy. Autonomy relates to feelings toward self as a professional and professional identity contributes to the amount of comfort one feels with autonomy- creating a spiral relationship between these two tasks (Brown, 1985). Although each of these tasks effects one another, they are distinct.

Developing Autonomy. The struggle to develop autonomy begins during the Engagement Stage and continues through to the Exit Stage. This is in large part due to the involvement of relationship in the development of autonomy (Brown & Dinnel, 1992). Autonomy appears to develop in a spiral fashion. The student becomes autonomous (or able to function independently of the supervisor) in a function of training, and feels increased self-confidence as a result. The increase in self-confidence provides the impetus to assume new

challenges, in which the same process of movement from dependency on the supervisor to autonomy occurs. This task is addressed during the Engagement Stage in order for the student to have sufficient time and supervision to become autonomous in a wide variety of clinical practices, and be employable or able to secure an internship upon leaving graduate school.

Investing in a Career Trajectory. Having a clearly defined sense of purpose is critical before investing in a career trajectory, which is why this task belongs in the second stage of graduate student development. The graduate student must establish both purpose and direction as a part of development (Loganbill, Hardy, & Delworth, 1982). Purpose was established in the Entry Stage and this task focuses on direction. Investment in a career trajectory begins with the selection of a dissertation topic and committee (Baird, 1995). The dissertation follows the student in his or her career and is often the source of additional scholarly contributions to the profession, which illustrates its importance in establishing the direction of one's career. In addition to the dissertation, the student may work with professors on other projects, which may be published or presented at conferences. Those may also contribute to career direction. An important decision for many students during this time is whether publications and focus on preparation for an academic career is important or whether they will pursue a strictly professional career. In order to invest in a specific career trajectory, the student must begin planning and investigating what kind of licensure or certification is needed in order to continue in the direction that he or she wishes to go. The student also begins to obtain experience in his or her desired area at this time.

Building Collegial Relationships. Collegial relationships are an important part of the graduate school experience (Goplerud, 1980) and being a clinician (Lamb, Baker, Jennings, & Yarris, 1982). They provide a safe environment in which to "check in" on difficult cases and

serve as a vital support system for both students and clinicians. Networking for jobs, client referrals, and research projects often develops out of these relationships for future benefits as well. In addition, building relationships with other clinicians solidifies the student's sense of belonging in the field and increases the student's identity with the profession.

Establishing Integrity. This task involves a shift from dichotomous thinking to a more relativistic approach that involves appraisal of situations and context, and is more humanitarian (Chickering, 1969). The student affirms his or her own values while simultaneously respecting others' values. The student also engages in behavior that is congruent with his or her personal values. Establishing Integrity carries with it a responsibility to challenge deception and "shady" behavior, which may place the student in some very uncomfortable situations. In addition, the student may have heightened awareness of integrity issues during this process and afterward, and may become sensitive to situations or individuals that appear to have less integrity, which might lead to frustration. This is particularly true if the student is noticing these things within the graduate program and feels helpless to effect change (Stewart, 1995).

Exit Stage

Developing a Balanced Assessment of Supervisors and Mentors. This task is crucial to the development of the student because the student cannot simultaneously identify with the profession and those in it, and hold supervisors and mentors as being infallible (Negrey, 1987). In order for the student to truly incorporate his or her professional identity with his or her personal identity, the student must begin to see faculty and supervisors as balanced individuals with both strengths and weaknesses. With this comes recognition that the supervisor or mentor does not have all of the answers. The result is a "budding peership" (Hogan, 1964) in the mentor relationship and an awareness that supervisors and mentors may need to be confronted on issues

as well. Clearly this task belongs in the final stage of development due to the level of autonomy, identity development, and skill development necessary in order for the student and the mentor to feel comfortable with the amount of disclosure necessary for a peer relationship to occur.

Learning to Supervise Others. An important piece of development for clinical graduate students is learning to supervise others. Experience with or willingness to supervise is often expected in order to obtain employment. Supervising others also provides a unique opportunity for the student to share what he or she has learned with junior students, as well as the opportunity to identify with his or her own supervisor. Through learning to supervise others, the student assumes responsibility for the profession as a whole by communicating professional values and expectations within the field, while also clarifying his or her own thoughts about these expectations and values.

Acknowledging Limits of One's Abilities. An important task for the student is to realize that there are limits to one's abilities and insight (Hogan, 1964). The student will recognize that, as a clinician, there are many things he or she will not be able to "fix." Additionally, the student must recognize the limits of the profession and what a clinician can and cannot do. For example, a client may present with many mental health difficulties and may be experiencing legal problems as a result. The student must acknowledge that he or she may not provide any legal advice. The student must separate the issues so this boundary is not inadvertently crossed. This may become a particularly sensitive area when addressing medications with a client. It is important for the student to recognize how and when a clinician can intervene in this area. In addition to the boundaries of the discipline, the student must be aware of the limitations of his or her own abilities. This requires insight regarding which populations one is competent to work with, as well as reasonable comfort with referring those one is not competent to work with.

Because insight is limited, acknowledging the value of supervision from a more experienced person is crucial to this task. Recognizing one's limitations also exists on a more sophisticated level, which is why it occurs in the final stage. The student must acknowledge that success with a client may look very different than what the student envisioned upon entrance to graduate school, particularly if the student envisioned "saving people" or "curing" them.

Accepting Loss. A key developmental task during the Exit Stage is accepting loss and acknowledging grief (Lamb, Baker, Jennings, & Yarris, 1982; Stewart, 1995). By accepting loss, the student circumvents the stagnation that may occur as a result of the avoidance of these emotions. Loss and grief may be related to the loss of a client or may be the result of leaving graduate school and saying good-bye to friends. Whatever the source, this task involves accepting these emotions as part of life experiences, rather than engaging in elaborate defense mechanisms to avoid these feelings.

Asserting Professional Autonomy. The completion of this task further demonstrates individuation from the graduate program and identity development for the student. The student may begin to make choices without consulting his or her adviser during this period. This task may also involve seeking consultation with other professionals outside the realm of the graduate school or praticum site. This task requires that the student begin to rely on his or her professional judgement and present himself or herself to the public as a confident and competent clinician (Lamb, Baker, Jennings, & Yarris, 1982; Stewart, 1995).

It is necessary for the student to address each of the developmental tasks listed above in order for the student to develop to his or her full potential. This can be difficult and students may "get stuck" in one particular place working on a task and may be unable to get past it. For example, if a student is struggling with Establishing Identity, the student may not have the

energy to Invest in a Career Trajectory. In order to assist in student development and prevent stagnation, the mentor may intervene using specific functions in each of the stages.

Mentor Functions

As discussed in Chapter 2, the mentor is an important figure in the graduate student's development. Kram's (1988) career or psychosocial mentor functions can be made intentional and framed as focal methods of intervention that the mentor may utilize to assist the student in the completion of developmental tasks. The interventions may be more or less actively applied, yet they are each designed for creating a specific environment that is conducive to development. Each function that Kram outlines will ideally occur to a greater or lesser extent in each stage of development. Nevertheless, there are specific functions that are more likely to be helpful or may occur more often at each stage. In this section, the expression of each function in relation to each of the three stages will be discussed. Those functions that are particularly appropriate to each stage will be highlighted (See Table 5).

Table 5

Developmentally Appropriate Mentoring

Stage	*Developmental Task*	*Mentor Function*
Entry Stage (first year)	Establishing Roles Developing Competence Constructing Professional Boundaries Identifying Purpose	Primary: Coaching, Acceptance-and-Confirmation Others: Sponsorship, Exposure-And-Visibility, Protection, Challenging Assignments, Role Modeling, Counseling, Friendship
Engagement Stage (2^{nd} year +)	Establishing Identity Developing Autonomy Investing in a Career Trajectory Building Collegial Relationships Establishing Integrity	Primary: Sponsorship, Exposure and Visibility, Challenging Assignments Others: Coaching, Protection, Role Modeling, Acceptance-and-Confirmation, Counseling, Friendship
Exit Stage (final year)	Developing a Balanced Assessment of Supervisors and Mentors Learning to Supervise Others Acknowledging Limits of One's Ability Accepting Loss Asserting Professional Autonomy	Primary: Sponsorship, Role Modeling, Acceptance-and-Confirmation Others: Exposure-and-Visibility, Coaching, Protection, Challenging Assignments, Counseling, Friendship

Entry Stage. Sponsorship may initially occur when the mentor announces that he or she has accepted the student as a protégé. The mentor may encourage the student to apply for fellowships at the end of the year for the next academic year. Exposure and Visibility during this stage may occur when the mentor creates roles for the student in the department or mentions the student's positive attributes to the faculty. The student and mentor may begin to work on a project together, or simply meet on a weekly basis, which demonstrates early public support of the protégé, while also affording the student visibility as a desirable protégé.

Coaching is a critical mentor function during this initial period of graduate school. At this time the student begins to make plans for the future based on an identified purpose and the mentor can assist the student in ensuring that his or her academic career is sufficient preparation to meet these goals.

The Protection function may emerge if the student is struggling in a particular course, or is having difficulty with a certain professor. It is unlikely that this function is at the forefront during this stage. It is also unlikely that the mentor would be providing the protégé with many Challenging Assignments during this time, due to the consuming task of simply adjusting to graduate school. Even so, the mentor may ask the student to engage in self-exploration in order for the student to Identify Purpose or Establish Roles.

Role Modeling is an important function during the Entry Stage as the student attempts to explore how members of the profession behave and present themselves. The student may rely on surreptitious observation in order to determine what appropriate professional boundaries are like and how professional psychologists interact with peers, clients, and students. Good mentors should be intentional in their modeling for students at this stage.

Acceptance and Confirmation is the most critical function the mentor can provide the protégé during this period. The mentor may provide acceptance by letting the student know that he or she is happy the student is on board with him or her. The mentor may also tell the student that he or she belongs at the school and that he or she will succeed in graduate school. A large portion of providing Acceptance and Confirmation is providing verbal assurances to the student that he or she is alright and is doing a good job. The mentor may provide positive feedback for the student, even if the student is doing poorly in one or two areas. The mentor remains

unconditionally accepting while encouraging specific interventions to address the student's poor performance in certain areas.

A mentor may provide Counseling at this stage by exploring how the student is adjusting to graduate school and remaining open to discussing role struggles. The mentor may also articulate a common purpose with the student. The Friendship function may be less visible during this time due to the requirements of time in building a friendship, particularly in a relationship with an inherent power differential.

Engagement Stage. Sponsorship during the Engagement Stage becomes much more prominent. During this period, Sponsorship may be expressed directly by the mentor through sponsoring the protégé for graduate fellowships or teaching positions. The mentor may communicate the protégé's skills tc other faculty members or the administration. Preliminary applications to practicum sites, internship sites, and jobs are another opportunity for sponsorship.

Exposure and Visibility is also a vital function of this stage. The mentor might ask the protégé to work on a presentation for a conference with him or her, or may encourage the protégé to publish an article with the mentor. These activities expose the student to more colleagues in the profession, thereby facilitating the potential for the student to build collegial relationships. This exposure may also help the student establish his or her identity as a clinician in the field.

Coaching is not as important during this stage as it is in the other two. The mentor may continue to interact with the protégé about career planning, but as the student's autonomy increases, this occurs in a less formal way. Protection may be less prominent during this time as well. Again, it would be present only if the student began having difficulties of some sort at school. In this case, the mentor would highlight the student's accomplishments and protect the student from negative attention.

There is typically a significant increase in Challenging Assignments during this time. As mentioned before, the mentor might ask the protégé to write an article or engage in a presentation with him or her. The mentor may ask for the student's assistance with research or with teaching a class. Developing challenging assignments that help the student to invest in his or her career trajectory may be difficult for the mentor, but would certainly be a valuable intervention on behalf of the student.

Role Modeling continues to be an important function during this time as the protégé incorporates or rejects what he or she sees in the mentor with his or her own developing identity. Acceptance and Confirmation also continue to be important, and may be expressed through active verbal and non-verbal support of career interests, research interests, and dissertation topics. Acceptance might also be communicated through sponsorship activities or through challenging assignments. Acknowledging the protégé's struggles as graduate school becomes more consuming, and normalizing these struggles may be another way of expressing Confirmation of the student as a good student who will succeed in spite of these challenges.

Counseling is present as needed during this stage. This will obviously vary from student to student. Because the engagement stage is identified as the most comfortable period of graduate school, it is anticipated that counseling will not occur very often. However, many students experience difficulty with primary support groups as graduate school intensifies. The mentor can express openness to processing this experience and what it means for the students future plans relating to career choices.

Friendship may begin to deepen during this stage as a natural result of time spent together in meetings and working on projects. Although the power differential still exists, it should become less dramatic as the student becomes more autonomous and establishes his or her own

identity- allowing for a more open exchange of ideas and opinions. Ideally, the mentor might articulate and model the changing and progressively more collegial nature of the relationship.

Exit Stage. The mentor actively sponsors the student in job searches and in searching for an internship. This may take the form of phone calls to training directors and impressive letters of recommendation for the protégé. The mentor may contact his or her colleagues in the field to promote the protégé for a particular position. The public nature of Sponsorship definitely extends beyond the immediate community of the graduate student into the professional community at large during this time.

Exposure and Visibility within the graduate school may moderately decrease as the mentor and protégé focus outward. However, the protégé will experience Exposure and Visibility secondary to the Sponsorship function discussed above.

The Coaching function emerges again as a critical function during the Exit Stage. The mentor may provide the student with specific strategies for applying to jobs and internships. The mentor may also provide a "preview" of sorts regarding what the protégé might expect at an internship or job. This results in an advantage when the protégé begins a new job or internship.

Protection may occur more at this stage than any other as the protégé devotes more time to securing a job or an internship. The Exit Stage is one of the most stressful periods of graduate school due to the anticipated life change and possible burnout. The student may experience academic difficulties or struggle with deadlines in courses and the mentor may need to intervene on the behalf of the student.

The mentor is likely to provide fewer challenging assignments during this time given the nature of the Exit Stage and the necessity of preparing to decrease involvement and say good-bye. The mentor is more likely to engage in Role Modeling during this time. It is important for

the mentor to heighten his or her awareness of how he or she models ethical behavior and integrity. When the mentor models integrity and ethical behavior, the protégé is likely to identify with this and integrate it into his or her sense of identity. Obviously, the mentor should always model this sort of behavior, but it becomes even more important as the protégé leaves the direct influence of the mentor and begins to present him or herself to the public as an independent professional.

In communicating Acceptance and Confirmation, the mentor might support the protégé in his or her need to disagree with the mentor. It may also involve expressing approval for a career track that the mentor may not have hoped for (for example, if the student chooses to work with adults instead of adolescents). In addition, the mentor might communicate verbally and non-verbally that the student is a good clinician and will function well independently.

Counseling during the Exit Stage may involve issues of saying good-bye to other students, the program, the comfort of graduate school and especially the mentor. The mentor might express his or her own grief at the protégé leaving and affirm the student's grief and excitement at moving on. The Exit Stage is also an important time for the Friendship function. As the friendship has had time to develop, the mentor might model valuing of the relationship and seek opportunities for expression of this, such as a "good-bye" meeting over coffee or lunch.

Each of Kram's (1988) career and psychosocial mentor functions is present at each of the three stages, and may at times overlap and effect other mentor functions. However, for each stage, there are certain functions that are more prominent than others. In the Entry Stage, Coaching and Acceptance and Confirmation appear to be the most appropriate functions. Sponsorship, Exposure and Visibility, and Challenging Assignments appear to be the most efficacious functions during the Engagement Stage. Students in the Exit Stage might

maximally benefit from the Sponsorship, Role Modeling, and Acceptance and Confirmation functions.

Summary

The Developmentally Appropriate Mentoring (DAM) model relies on the use of Stewart's (1995) labels for the three stages of graduate student development. Although the names are used and some of the content is included in Stewart's description of each stage, the stage descriptions in the model (DAM) presented in this dissertation are more comprehensive. The model has amplified the experiences and essential tasks at each stage. Several of the developmental tasks are evidence of Chickering's (1969) influence. They differ in that they are tailored to a graduate student population as opposed to those from a broader spectrum of educational levels. The theory of development presented here encompasses literature from education and the supervision literature from the helping professions (with an emphasis in psychology) and attempts to explain the development of graduate students in the helping professions. The theory allows the reader to understand graduate student development further, and to ascertain the appropriate method and target of intervention by a mentor in order to promote growth and contribute effectively to the development of competent, healthy psychologists. The expression of each mentor function has been explained in relation to each stage of development. In addition, it has been shown that certain functions or interventions are more appropriate than others in each stage. This leads to the discussion of the desired outcomes, implications, limitations, and prospective research associated with this theory.

Chapter 4

Discussion

The Developmentally Appropriate Mentoring (DAM) model is based on a three-stage sequence of graduate student development, which consists of an Entry Stage, an Engagement Stage, and an Exit Stage. Within each stage there are several developmental tasks, which may be cognitive or emotional, or both in nature. It is not essential for these tasks to be completed within the appointed stage, and unfinished tasks may be revisited later in development. However, this model proposed to match the tasks with the stage in which experience would make completion of the task most likely. During the Entry Stage, the student will establish roles, develop competence, construct professional boundaries, and identify purpose. Establishing identity, developing autonomy, investing in a career trajectory, building collegial relationships, and establishing integrity are the developmental tasks most appropriate to the Engagement Stage. During the Exit Stage, the student is working on developing a balanced assessment of supervisors and mentors, learning to supervise others, acknowledging the limits of his or her ability, accepting loss, and asserting professional autonomy.

The DAM model suggests that through assessing and understanding the development of students and the professional tasks they must complete at each stage of development, a mentor may be more efficacious in helping students become competent, confident clinical psychologists. The DAM model proposed specific functions in the mentor relationship, which are particularly

effective in assisting personal and professional growth in the protégé during certain periods of graduate student development. Although each mentor function is present at each stage, functions should be expressed more or less in a manner that reflects and is tailored to the student's developmental needs. During the Entry Stage, Coaching and Acceptance and Confirmation appear to be the most prominent functions of the relationship. Sponsorship, Exposure and Visibility, and Challenging Assignments are more critical during the Engagement Stage. A good mentor spends significant time engaged in the Sponsorship, Role Modeling, and Acceptance and Confirmation functions while the student is in the Exit Stage.

This leads to a discussion of expected outcomes related to this model. In the section that follows, a proposal of expected outcomes from implementation of the DAM model is discussed. This chapter explores implications for practice, as well as implications for previous theories and research. The limitations of the DAM theory is outlined and recommendations for research and further development will be provided.

Outcomes

The DAM model makes a priori assumptions that beneficial outcomes will occur for the graduate student and the Psychology profession as a whole. These anticipated outcomes are outlined in Table 6 and are discussed below.

Entry Stage. The student develops a sense of "mission" as a result of successful completion of the Entry Stage tasks. The student leaves the Entry Stage with a mission to complete graduate school training, become a psychologist and research or practice in an area of particular need or personal/professional interest. Although the exact method of serving this population may not be established, there is a commitment to helping in some way, which helps shape the student's training and career decisions.

Table 6

Developmentally Appropriate Mentoring Outcomes

Stages	*Developmental Tasks*
Entry Stage (first year)	Establishing Roles Developing Competence Constructing Professional Boundar Identifying Purpose
Engagement Stage (2^{nd} year +)	Establishing Identity Developing Autonomy Investing in a Career Trajectory Building Collegial Relationships Establishing Integrity
Exit Stage (final year)	Developing a Balanced Assessmen of Supervisors and Mentors Learning to Supervise Others Acknowledging Limits of One's Ability Accepting Loss Asserting Professional Autonomy

The second important outcome of the Entry Stage is establishing Ethical Behavior. If the student has developed basic competence and has worked on constructing professional boundaries and establishing roles, ethical concerns and behavior should emerge. Basic competence in and knowledge of ethical guidelines and punishments should serve to reinforce early development of professional demeanor and ethical behavior.

Implementation of the DAM model should also result in Decreased Attrition. Research has shown that relationships with faculty members markedly decrease graduate student attrition rates through the mediation of student stress (Goplerud, 1980; Hodgson & Simoni, 1995). Because unconditional acceptance is the primary quality that students look for in faculty members during their first year of graduate school (Schaefer & Schaefer, 1993), the DAM model proposes a more intentional model of faculty/student relationship that utilizes Acceptance and Confirmation as a primary function of the relationship during the Entry Stage. Affirmation of the student helps build confidence and a sense of belongingness to the profession, which establishes the foundation for the student's commitment to the program, as well as the later commitment to the profession.

Engagement Stage. The cycle of autonomy and confidence (Brown & Dinnell, 1992) established earlier in the chapter supports the notion that Stage Appropriate Confidence will be a natural outcome from the development of autonomy. As the student gradually establishes his or her identity as a clinician and builds relationships with colleagues, the student will feel a sense of belonging to the graduate school and the profession. This sense of belonging is an important outcome as it leads to increased connection and satisfaction with the graduate program.

A second outcome is that the student will make a Commitment to the Profession during this stage. Commitment to the Profession is the result of a combination of the commitment to the

program established in the first stage, increased confidence, establishing a career trajectory, and building collegial relationships. As the mentor facilitates more contacts for the student with other professionals through the Exposure and Visibility and Sponsorship functions of the relationship, the student's commitment to the profession will increase.

A third outcome of the engagement stage is Intrinsically Ethical Behavior. It would be naive to state that all clinicians are intrinsically ethical. Therefore it should be clear that not all students reach this outcome. However, it seems the majority of those who establish integrity would be motivated by this intrinsic sense of integrity to act ethically. The desire to assert oneself as a professional within the community may also contribute to an internal desire to demonstrate ethical behavior. Becoming intrinsically ethical involves a commitment to ethical guidelines and procedures without reference to external punishments, or with disregard to external punishments. For example, if a judge subpoenas therapy records for a client and the clinician does not think the benefits outweigh the costs of breaching confidentiality, the clinician may withhold the records based on the aspirational principles of the ethical guidelines. The clinician will be punished for this, and probably would not have been punished for turning over the records. Certainly, not all ethical dilemmas are as dramatic as this, yet it makes the point that the clinician may increasingly rely on his or her intrinsically rooted commitment to ethics, and may simultaneously give less weight to pragmatics or third party policies.

Exit Stage. Developing a balanced assessment of supervisors and mentors leads to Less Idealization and Greater Collegiality with Faculty. The student views both faculty and the profession in a much more realistic manner- significantly decreasing the "mystery" (Negrey, 1987) that surrounds professional psychologists. Once this occurs, it allows the student to engage in an open, honest dialogue with faculty. This outcome is also a partial result of the

student asserting his or her professional autonomy. Once the student has asserted his or her professional autonomy, faculty are more likely to assess the student as a colleague, rather than as a student, and are more likely to treat the student in a collegial manner.

The student develops a Balanced View of Professional Strengths and Weaknesses as a result of supervising others and acknowledging the limits of his or her ability. The student should avoid emphasizing limitations during this time, as this may deplete confidence and impede autonomous functioning. Supervising junior students allows the student to become more aware of how much he or she knows and is able to apply to clinical situations. The supervision context should allow the student to authentically assess his or her own strengths as the student relates to the junior student's clinical issues. Simultaneously assessing strengths and acknowledging limitations allows the student to hold these in tension and permits a balanced assessment of each.

The third outcome associated with the exit stage is the Transition to Career and Autonomous Functioning. This outcome involves the individuation of the student from the graduate program and the mentor. The student has accepted the loss of leaving graduate school, has asserted his or her autonomous functioning during the internship, and has secured employment.

Practical Implications

The findings in Chapter One suggested that there has not been a comprehensive model of graduate student development that addresses focal tasks inherent in that developmental process. This dissertation has attempted to address this gap in theory, and hopefully promote greater understanding of graduate student development. A faculty member, specifically a mentor (Jacobi, 1991), who acts as an advocate and provides support (Schaefer & Schaefer, 1993) has consistently been shown to be vital to a graduate student's development. In the DAM model, the

specific functions provided by the mentor are intentionally varied according to the developmental stage of the student.

A major implication that stems from this theory is a potential change in the way the mentor interacts with students. The DAM model provides information and a guide for efficacious mentoring with graduate students in psychology. The specific mentor functions most relevant for a particular stage highlight and inform the mentor regarding how to intentionally and helpfully engage the student during a specific period of time. For example, during the Entry Stage, the mentor would intentionally look for opportunities to affirm and support the new graduate student. During the Exit Stage, the mentor may be more aware of Role Modeling professional behaviors and being more authentic and collegial with students.

Ideally, the DAM model could be implemented as a training component for faculty within graduate programs. The graduate program would organize and structure training in mentoring with an emphasis on mentoring that is informed by student development in order to familiarize faculty with the potential benefits of engaging in this relationship. Once faculty members appreciate the rewards of a mentoring relationship, it would also be important for them to understand student development in order to provide the student with the maximum benefits. The DAM model would ensure effective communication of each of these issues and would provide a "practical guide" of sorts.

The DAM model serves as a practical guide of developmentally appropriate mentor interventions that are available, and hopefully more faculty and supervisors will become mentors and more students will experience being mentored. One purpose of this model is to remove a small portion of the mystery from mentoring in order to appeal to more graduate students and faculty, and help create more effective mentor relationships. The purpose is not to remove all of

the mystery or the distinct character of individual relationships. However, information on recommended interventions may make the role appear less daunting to some, and provide additional information to those who are already engaged in the process.

Implications for Theory and Research

The DAM model attempts to expand upon what is already recognized in the literature. The benefits of mentoring have been enumerated in several studies (Clark, et al., 1998; Jacobi, 1991; Roche, 1979). Additionally, faculty relationships are a critical mediator in graduate student development (Goplerud, 1980; Hartnett, 1976; Hodgson & Simoni, 1995; Selke & Wong, 1993; Worthington & Roehlke, 1979). Due to the primacy of the mentor relationship for students and the impact of faculty relationships on student development, it is imperative that mentoring occur within a developmentally informed framework.

The DAM model expands on existing literature on mentoring in order to provide a model for developmentally appropriate mentoring. Kram (1988) detailed the functions of the mentoring relationship and research has since supported these functions as robust and present in most mentor relationships (Clark et al., 1998; Cronan-Hillix et al., 1986). The DAM model takes Kram's model a step further and recommends that mentors be aware of which functions are most appropriate given the developmental stage of the protégé. In this model, mentoring is an intentional, purposive relationship that leads to specific outcomes.

Limitations/Potential Criticisms

The DAM model is limited by the fact that it is not based on empirical data. Because there is no data to support the major tenant of the model that a developmental perspective of graduate student development will enhance mentor outcomes, its validity is unknown. The proliferation of research on developmental theories suggests that there is strong interest in this

perspective, however there is little or no data to support this perspective in relation to graduate students. Although there is little data in this area, there is empirical support for the benefits of mentor relationships (Clark et al., 1998; Cronan-Hillix et al., 1986; Roche, 1979) and the functions of these relationships (Kram, 1988).

The DAM model is limited to the mentoring relationship. Mentor relationships are qualitatively different from other faculty/student relationships. It is unlikely that sufficient relationship development would occur to sustain the interventions described in this model without the a priori assumption that a mentor relationship was the goal. There are many interventions that simply would not occur without the elements of unconditional caring that are present in the mentor relationship, such as Acceptance and Confirmation and Protection. For this reason, this model does not appear entirely appropriate for application outside the mentor relationship.

Another difficulty with this theory is that there is currently no instrument that measures the outcomes of mentoring. Without an instrument to assess the effects of mentoring, there is no way to compare developmentally appropriate mentoring to mentoring in general. Although satisfaction ratings are typically used for outcome assessment, as are demographic markers (i.e. salary), there is substantial need for more sophisticated outcome indicators.

The DAM model seems to apply to the "typical" graduate student or those described in the literature on graduate students. It is unclear if the DAM model can provide a comprehensive model of developmentally appropriate mentoring including specific employment of interventions, while simultaneously accommodating the individual differences among graduate students. For the majority of students, the mentoring functions proposed in the DAM model are likely to be most appropriate. However, it would be interesting to explore whether these apply as

well to students who extend their programs over several years, those who take a leave of absence, and those from focal minority groups.

Recommendations for Research and Further Development

The DAM model assumes that the mentor is able to assess the developmental state of the protégé. This is not necessarily the case. Further research into the qualitative and quantitative assessment of student development is necessary. This may be in the form of a structured interview, or simply a checklist that the mentor would use with the protégé. Future theory and research should address methods of collecting the necessary information to assess the developmental needs of the student.

In order to measure outcome, the outcome variables of interest need to be outlined and operationalized. Those that seem pertinent involve mentor satisfaction with the relationship, protégé satisfaction with the relationship, and protégé success. It would also be useful to note if the mentor continued to provide mentoring to a graduate student as a measure of how valuable he or she viewed the mentor relationship. Ideally, there would be a "mentor outcome" survey or inventory that could be used by a graduate program in conjunction with the DAM model. This would allow the program to measure the efficacy of the model and determine whether it was achieving its goals (outcomes). This inventory would be given to both mentors and protégés and would assess for the outcomes listed above.

Conclusion

Although there are limitations to the validity of this model due to its theoretical nature and lack of empirical basis, it appears to fit quite well with previous literature on both graduate student development and mentoring relationships. The employment of this model serves to enhance mentoring relationships and assist students in reaching their full potential as

professionals in clinical psychology. Future research is necessary to establish an empirical base. It is hypothesized that utilization of the DAM theory will foster more competent and confident clinical psychologists.

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