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Perspectives on Research Mentorship

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The prototypical relationship most likely to be considered when we think of "research mentorship" is the student-advisor relationship that develops during a doctoral program and during the dissertation project in particular. No matter how satisfactory such relationships are, such experiences rarely seem sufficient to inspire productive research careers. For this reason, a major criterion used to evaluate the quality of teaching of programs and individual faculty members in research universities is the research productivity of their advisees. A number of strategies might be considered at a programmatic level to address more effectively the need for highly qualified researchers in the field of communication sciences and disorders. For example, providing more pervasive and more diverse research experiences may improve effectiveness. We may need to consider how to capitalize on existing opportunities to develop the interests and skills necessary for people to succeed at pursuing research careers in communication disorders and other fields. It may be worthwhile to broaden the context for research mentorship experiences to consider undergraduates, master's-degree students, and practicing clinicians, as well as pre- and postdoctoral students.

It may be valuable to examine what can be done at an individual level for advisors to be more effective at encouraging others' research careers. In a variety of fields, mentoring models have been proposed as mechanisms to promote a novice's professional and/or personal development and to improve the chances of success for novices encountering new challenges (Borman & Colson, 1984; Clawson, 1980; Collins & Scott, 1978; Fagan & Walter, 1982; Gray & Gray, 1986; Haring-Hidore, 1987; Kram, 1983; May, Meleis, & Winstead-Fry, 1982; Merriam, 1983; Rowe, 1981a,b; Wildman, Magliaro, Niles, & Niles, 1992; Woodlands Group, 1980). One goal of this paper is to broaden participants' perspectives on opportunities for developing mentoring relationships and to stimulate insights into how mentors and proteges might maximize benefits and reduce the burdens involved.

Allow me to contribute to this discussion with some perspectives on mentorship. First, what is mentorship? Are there unique components of mentor-protege relationships that enhance the effects of research training? Second, what are some common pitfalls addressed in the literature on mentorship that we might need to be prepared to resolve? Third, why is mentorship such an appealing concept?

What is Mentorship?

The term *mentorship* is popular these days; it is used often, but as most scientists would be quick to point out, without much precision. An examination of the literature on mentorship sheds more light on the concept, however. A colorful description of a mentor is someone who provides "a brain to pick, a shoulder to cry on, and a kick in the pants" (Josefowitz, 1980). In short, a mentor is someone who fosters development. Sometimes, mentorship is thought to involve producing "worthy successors." Many definitions of mentorship emphasize relationships involving two adults; these relationships must be comprehensive and intense enough to have an important effect on the development of a less experienced adult's potential (Clawson, 1980; Gluck, 1984; Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, & McKee, 1978; Phillips-Jones, 1982; Woodlands Group, 1980).

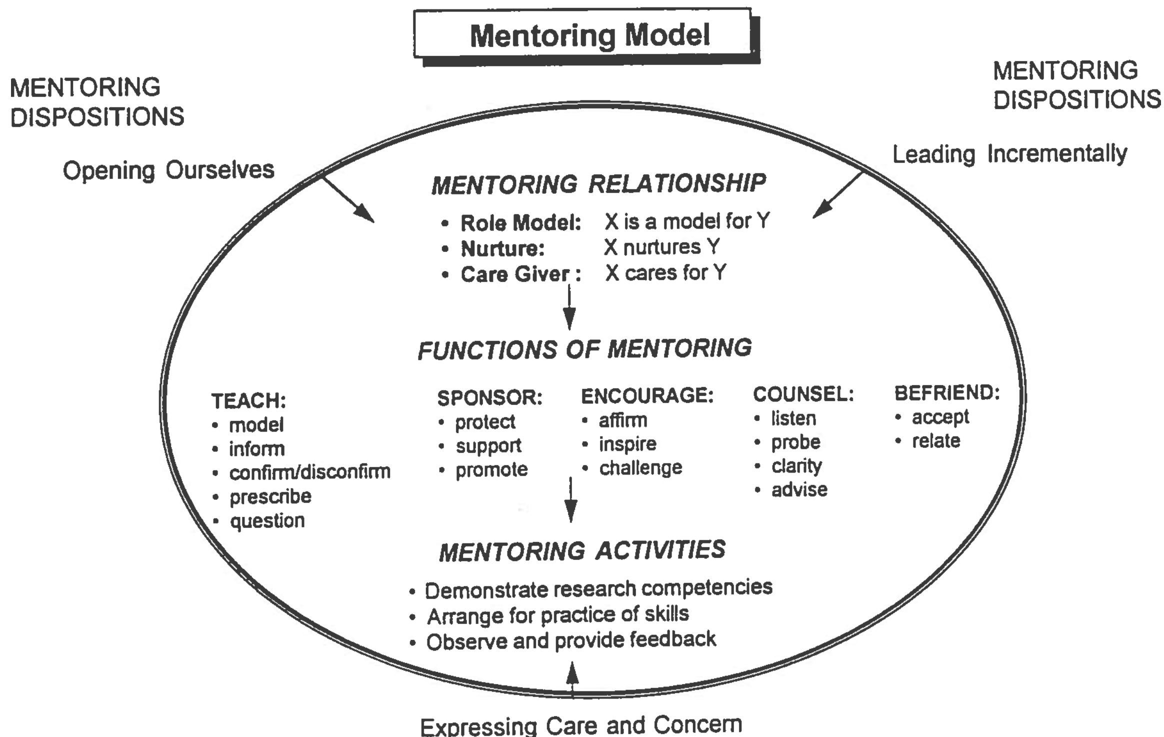
A Mentoring Model

The skillfulness of mentors or the effectiveness of mentoring relationships requires an examination of multiple behavioral dimensions. The model (see Figure 1) proposed by Anderson and Shannon (1988) does an admirable job of highlighting dimensions that have been considered components of mentoring—at least in traditional mentoring models that focus on mentor-protege dyads.

Anderson and Shannon's mentoring model is divided into four levels of analysis: (a) the relationship between mentor and protege, (b) the functions of mentoring, (c) the behavior of mentors, and (d) the dispositions of mentors. A review of this model raises one's consciousness of the decisions that come into play in the development of mentoring relationships. For example, prospective mentors may want to consider what roles and functions they are willing and able to perform. They also may want to communicate such decisions to proteges explicitly and even suggest alternative ways for certain needs to be met.

Mentoring relationships. The relationship between mentor and protege has at least three dimensions worth considering: role modeling, nurturing, and caring. First, the mentor serves as a role model to the protege. Leading by example perhaps has the most robust effect

Figure 1. A model of research mentoring adapted from Anderson & Shannon (1988).



attributable to mentoring relationships (Anderson & Shannon, 1988; Bolton, 1980; Clawson, 1980; Schokett & Haring-Hidore, 1985; Speizer, 1981). We often mediate this modeling notion with a limited dose of "Do as I say, not as I do." But credibility on both a personal and scientific level is quickly dissipated with too much of this advice. Proteges must see a part of their adult and professional selves in their mentors. A sense of what they are and what they would like to become underlies the facilitation of growth and development in proteges.

Second, the mentor as nurturer must recognize the ability, experience, and maturity of the protege to provide appropriate growth-producing activities. Sensitivity to individual differences is necessary for the nurturer to provide or adapt learning environments. The mentor as nurturer decides how best to guide development and maximize growth in proteges. In addition to this flexibility, the mentor must operate with a belief that the protege being nurtured has the potential to blossom into a productive researcher and to contribute to the field.

This confidence in the protege relates to a third dimension, the mentor caring for and about the protege. An ongoing, caring relationship hinges on the belief and trust that the personal and professional growth of the protege is of utmost importance. Caring is, of course, expected to be reciprocated. The protege's gratitude for the mentor's help and guidance may kindle affection and respect.

One should be careful about drawing analogies between mentors' relationships to their proteges and parents' relationships to their children. Mentorship involves adult-adult relationships. Proteges enter mentorship relationships to gain assistance in achieving specific life goals (Clawson, 1980; Knowles, 1987; Levinson et al., 1978; Phillips-Jones, 1982; Zemke & Zemke, 1981). Indeed, proteges typically are adults who have established independent and multifaceted lifestyles. Mentorship addresses one aspect of the protege's life, most often an educational phase to prepare the protege for new or improved career opportunities. Although the scope of influence varies among mentoring relationships, the spirit of mentoring assumes that true mentors are concerned about the comprehensive welfare of their proteges. This attitude need not be wholly altruistic. We would be naive not to recognize that benefits accrue to both partners of mentor-protege relationships (Busch, 1985; Haring-Hidore & Paludi, 1989; Rawlins & Rawlins, 1983; Speizer, 1981). A list of advantages to proteges and mentors discussed by Phillips-Jones (1982) is presented in Table 1.

Functions of mentoring. The second level of analysis examines five functions of mentoring. Anderson and Shannon suggest that these functions are conjunctive, meaning that a mentor must be prepared to demonstrate any or all of the functions as the need arises. The functions subsume most if not all the roles that have been associated with mentorship historically (cf. Schockett & Haring-Hidore, 1985). Each of these functions alone has been viewed as synonymous with mentoring, which may have muddled the concept. More important, requiring that a mentor be prepared to engage in all five functions may help discriminate who is mentoring and to what extent. The multiple functions may help assign more potency to the concept of mentoring.

The first function, teaching, involves basic instructional techniques, including modeling, informing, assigning readings and tasks, prompting practice, confirming/disconfirming, and questioning. These behaviors are used within a context of adult education.

Although there are various perspectives on adult education, there are several common themes (Knowles, 1980; Merriam, 1988). Adults take an active role in learning; they typically prefer self-directed learning. Adult learners have expectations, which are products of their goals and experiences. It is important to take time to share expectations and to clarify

commonalities and differences that may exist. Learning is viewed as intrinsically reinforcing, but it is viewed as a means to an end, not an end in itself. Maintaining self-esteem and pleasure are strong secondary reinforcers for adult learners. Adults bring a great deal of life experience to the learning situation; it behooves mentors and proteges to take advantage of those experiences.

The second function, sponsoring, involves three essential behaviors: protecting, supporting, and promoting. Mentors may protect proteges by persuading them to avoid overzealous projects for the time being. They may protect proteges from injuring themselves (e.g., sleep deprivation). Mentors may offer support when they participate in an activity assigned to the protege or to the mentor and protege jointly (e.g., writing a chapter together). Mentors promote their proteges in a variety of ways (e.g., introducing them to other leaders in the field, encouraging them to present papers at conferences, recommending them for committees, and helping them find jobs).

Encouraging, the fourth function, is a process that includes affirming, inspiring, and challenging. Mentors can affirm the proteges' ability to function as scientists and educators. They can inspire their proteges by example and by their words of encouragement. They can challenge proteges to take advantage of growth-producing experiences. A useful concept introduced to me by Nicholas Hobbs is what he called JMD—just manageable difficulty. He perpetuated the idea that one should relish personal and professional development and the best opportunities for doing so are presented as JMDs.

Counseling is the fifth function, and involves behaviors that are used to help proteges solve their own problems. Counseling as a problem-solving process entails behaviors such as listening, probing, clarifying, and advising.

Lastly, mentoring demands befriending. As we all know, being friends can take a myriad of forms. Mentorship requires friendship, but not necessarily close friendship. In fact, mentors and proteges often must exercise considerable caution to avoid intimate relationships. Nonetheless, mentorship does entail at least two critical behaviors: accepting and relating. As a friend, mentors continually convey their understanding and support to proteges. They will express their acceptance and their recognition of the proteges' individuality. Mentors must be willing and able to relate to their proteges; they cannot truly be mentors if they communicate that they have no time for them. A good mentor-protege dynamic is built upon a good interpersonal relationship and sufficient time for the mentor and protege to relate; time to interact is needed to ensure an appropriate quantity and quality of mentoring.

Mentoring activities. The third level of analysis considers mentoring activities. Mentoring activities are the behavioral expressions of research training that correspond to the five mentoring functions outlined above. Discussions about research training explore a number of issues: What knowledge and skills should be taught? What competencies should be mastered? What are effective and efficient strategies for promoting learning? Mentors may demonstrate or provide models of research competencies. They may arrange for proteges to practice relevant skills. This allows mentors opportunities to observe and provide feedback and to shape proteges' application of those competencies (such as analytical, writing, oral expression, or clinical skills). Mentors may set the occasion for use of these skills in supportive contexts, exposing the protege first to simulated settings and later to real-world contingencies.

Mentoring dispositions. The final level of analysis identifies dispositions that mentors should have to carry out the full complement of mentoring functions and activities. Dispositions refer to prevailing tendencies and thus are broader constructs than skills. Anderson and Shannon (1988) identify three dispositions that they believe are essential to the concept of mentoring. First, mentors must be willing to open themselves to their proteges. They should allow their proteges opportunities to observe them in action and should be willing to openly discuss underlying rationale and purposes behind the decisions they make and the things they do. Second, mentors should be disposed to leading incrementally. They must be analytical, patient, and flexible in judging what knowledge and skills are needed by individuals and how quickly they can be introduced and mastered. Third, mentors should be disposed to express care and concern about the personal and professional welfare of their proteges. There is an expectation of reciprocity in adult relationships; status and hierarchical relationships play no part when it comes to caring and concern.

Figure 1 summarizes the essence of mentoring and its basic components. Perhaps its greatest value is pointing out what mentorship should be. If it seems like a tall order to be a mentor, it may help be helpful to recognize the need for other people's contributions to the nurturing of proteges. An examination of this model helps us understand the complexities of the definition of mentoring forwarded by Anderson and Shannon (1988):

> A nurturing process in which a more skilled or more experienced person, serving as a role model, teaches, sponsors, encourages, counsels, and befriends a less skilled or less experienced person for the purpose of promoting the latter's professional and/or personal development. Mentoring functions are carried out

within the context of an ongoing, caring relationship between the mentor and protege.

Anderson and Shannon's (1988) mentoring model incorporates many roles, functions, and activities that are evident in other research training contexts, such as teacher-student, advisor-advisee, or consultant-consultee relationships. The demands may appear daunting depending on the extent to which the multiple dimensions outlined are manifested in a particular mentor-protege relationship. The distribution of effort may be complicated by the existence of multiple proteges for a mentor or multiple mentors for a protege. Dr. Haring's paper introduces other models of mentorship. Certain variations may be better suited to the time and task juggling that mentors typically face.

Potential Problems

As in all kinds of relationships, mentors and proteges commonly encounter problems in their mentoring relationships. The literature indicates that as many as half the individuals who identify a past mentor express serious misgivings about their mentorship relationships (Bolton, 1980; Brooks & Haring-Hidore, 1987; Kram, 1983; Rawlins & Rawlins, 1983; Shapiro, Haseltine, & Rowe, 1978, Woodlands Group, 1980). An awareness of what mentoring is and how it develops may help prospective mentors and proteges prevent or resolve problems more effectively. I will introduce some of these common problems identified in the literature on mentorship and perhaps some productive ways to think about them.

Excessive time and energy commitments. Commitment to a mentoring relationship must be reflected in actions, not just words, to be successful (e.g., Brooks & Haring- Hidore, 1987; Phillips-Jones, 1982). Therefore, a certain amount of time and energy must be committed. Keep in mind that it takes more time at the beginning of the relationship. Commitments of time and energy must be discussed if a mentor and protege are to share common expectations. The mentor and protege must talk, plan, and review their plan. The protege must be willing to spend at least as much time as the mentor and usually more.

Inappropriate choice of mentor or protege. My mother's adage "There's a pot for every cover" seems to apply. A person who is a good mentor is not necessarily good for or compatible with all prospective proteges. From the outset, mentors and proteges should devote some time and energy before a firm commitment to the relationship is established to reduce the chances of inappropriate choices (Brooks & Haring-Hidore, 1987; Phillips-Jones, 1982; Rowe, 1981a, b). Despite one's best efforts, some inappropriate choices of mentors

and proteges cannot be prevented, and it may be necessary to terminate a relationship. If so, great care and grace is needed to deal with the situation. One might cite differences in style or differences in commitments when discussing terminating a mentoring relationship. It is not advisable to close the door to future interactions for the mentor or the protege.

Unrealistic expectations for mentors or proteges. A number of investigators have identified this problem (Brooks & Haring-Hidore, 1987; Phillips-Jones, 1982; Sorenson & Kagan, 1967). A mismatch in expectations is common and may underlie a variety of other problems. It is probably the most frequently identified problem in mentoring relationships, but it is one that is often preventable or resolvable. Mentors and proteges must examine carefully why they are frustrated with what appear to be unrealistic expectations. Mentors and proteges may need to review what they have communicated verbally and nonverbally. This problem should be dealth with promptly, so it is important to watch for signs of tension in mentoring relationships and stress in individuals.

Expectations of protege failure. An expectation of failure is often a self-fulfilling prophecy. No one should become a mentor who has serious doubts about a protege's potential for success. Just the opposite is needed. Phillips-Jones (1982) cites encouragement as the component of mentorship most often talked about by proteges—a "you and me against the world" spirit that spurs proteges on.

If a mentor has doubts or develops doubts about a protege, some effort needs to be made to identify and work on any weaknesses. Then, if adequate progress is not demonstrated, the mentor should help the protege find some other source of help. If the protege is determined to succeed, there is no doubt that someone—or a number of someones—could work wonders.

Protege's feelings of inferiority. Proteges may not feel worthy of their mentor, especially if their mentor has an impressive history of accomplishments (Phillips-Jones, 1982; Woodlands Group, 1980). Proteges may need a more appropriate basis of comparison. A healthier alternative would be to adopt a criterion-referenced assessment perspective. Proteges might be encouraged to judge their progress by monitoring a task analysis of objectives and successful completion of those objectives and related tasks.

Unfair manipulation by a mentor or a protege. Manipulation can take a myriad of forms (Brooks & Haring-Hidore, 1987; Phillips-Jones, 1982). Minor problems may stem from unintentional transgressions that can be quickly resolved through a process of reviewing whose best interests actually are being served by a person's behavior. More serious problems may stem from ethically questionable transgressions. Obviously, manipulations like stealing

ideas or working for one's own gain are likely to be devastating to a mentoring relationship. The negative influence on adult development can be profound to say nothing of its impact on the interest and desire to pursue a research career on the part of a protege.

When manipulation is experienced or suspected, one needs to take an objective look at the relationship and evaluate whether he or she is contributing to the problem intentionally or unintentionally. Then he or she must schedule time for a discussion, having decided on some tentative solutions beforehand. Chances are that there are patterns that both partners in the relationship want to alter. If a satisfactory resolution or compromise is not reached and the partners stay involved in the relationship, the person feeling manipulated may need to become more assertive or make limits clearer. If not, resentment will fester and will probably destroy the relationship.

Stifling development of a protege. One cannot assume that a relationship that is satisfactory for a mentor works equally well for the protege (Phillips-Jones, 1982; Woodlands Group, 1980). The mentor's best intentions cannot compensate for an inability to meet a protege's needs. Mentors must be careful to avoid confining their proteges' growth potential to their own knowledge and experiences. Investigators have noted the tendency for mentors to attempt to develop clones, albeit inadvertently (Blackburn, Chapman, & Cameron, 1981).

There may be a tendency for mentors to be overprotective. But mistakes through inexperience should be expected and mentors and proteges should strive not to take errors personally, as hard as that may seem.

Overdependence on mentors or proteges. Discussing expectations and planning seems in order to promote increasing independence during a mentoring relationship. Interacting with more than one mentor or protege at a time may help reduce the reliance on one riveting relationship.

Excessive jealousy from mentors or proteges. This problem is related to the self-esteem and the self-confidence of the partners in a relationship. It is natural to expect fits of jealousy, considering the close relationships and the progression through developmental phases inherent in mentoring relationships. Consequently, partners need to monitor their relationship, keep communication open, and discuss related problems frankly early in the relationship.

Excessive jealousy from others. Others may become suspicious of the time and attention exchanged, especially in cross-gender mentoring relationships. Similar to the previous problem, open channels of communication are essential.

Unwanted sexual involvement and harassment. Problems related to sexual involvement and harassment occur frequently in mentoring relationships despite repeated warnings, advice, and rules against sexual involvement (Brooks & Haring-Hidore, 1987; Fitzgerald et al., 1988; Haring-Hidore & Paludi, 1989; Swoboda & Millar, 1986). Such problems inevitably complicate mentoring relationships. Again, it is necessary to closely monitor relationships and to communicate openly in hopes of avoiding and preventing problems. These problems are less likely if one can develop emotional intimacy and sexual relationships outside mentor-protege alliances.

It is realistic to expect that problems will be experienced in mentoring relationships—in all relationships, for that matter. One cannot expect mentoring always to be mutually reinforcing to mentors and proteges. But making expectations explicit plays a large role in determining success. A clearer understanding of what mentorship is and a mutual understanding between mentor and protege is helpful in avoiding problems. Prevention and prompt resolution of problems enhance the chances that mentoring relationships will be successful.

Others have provided insights into developmental phases of mentoring relationships (Kram, 1983; Phillips-Jones, 1982; Haring, this volume). The developmental process also must be considered in facilitating shared expectations. Keep in mind that successful mentoring relationships evolve to the point where two more experienced adults relate productively, but with increasing independence, both benefiting from their intense and shared experiences together.

The Appeal of Mentorship

Having reviewed some of the complexities and challenges inherent in mentoring relationships, it may be valuable to evaluate the appeal of mentorship to prospective research mentors. Why has mentorship, an abstract concept with a modest research foundation, caught the imagination of so many?

Mentorship may have appeal because it allays researchers' feelings of loneliness and tokenism (Speizer, 1981). Those of us striving to succeed in times and environments with heavy restrictions on available resources, with extraordinarily thin schedules of reinforcement,

and with a rather punitive process for disseminating our findings may feel a bit estranged. It is not that misery loves company, as few researchers would consider their lives as scientists miserable. But it may be natural for mentors to believe that alienation could be alleviated if there were more people like themselves.

We also can rationalize our interest in research mentorship on loftier grounds. Mentorship may enable individuals in the discipline to meet a longstanding need—the need for individuals who will generate a stronger empirical foundation for understanding, treating, and preventing communication disorders.

The appeal of mentorship may stem from the realization that close relationships between mentors and proteges have a high likelihood of furthering one's own development. Surely, mentoring relationships are a good source of stimulation, fun, and fulfillment.

Others may have embraced the idea that mentorship is necessary for success. This notion was given a good deal of credibility when the *Harvard Business Review* published an article in 1978 entitled "Everyone Who Makes It Has a Mentor." Researchers might point to one of the statistics cited in that article. Collins and Scott (1978) noted that 41% of the 286 Nobel laureates named between 1901 and 1972 had a mentor or a senior collaborator who also was a Nobel laureate.

Is mentorship necessary to contribute worthwhile research in communication sciences and disorders? Certainly, others have argued that this is not the case (Speizer, 1981). One can pursue such a goal by trusting in one's own competence, unconcerned about whether one has a role model or a mentor. The problem is that such goals are not so highly valued and reinforced in our society that many people would choose that path on their own. On the other hand, the nurturing of interest and desire and the development of knowledge and skills are most likely to be accomplished through close, caring, productive relationships. Maybe it is the nurturing of interest and desire that is best accomplished through mentoring relationships. A commitment to research mentorship may require a reevaluation of priorities; mentors are asked to value the development of new and talented researchers, their proteges, as much as any of their own scientific discoveries. Those of us in university settings know that nurturing the development of researchers is part of our job descriptions. A number of other papers (see chapters in this volume by Boysen, Johnson, and Krantz) present convincing arguments that clinical settings should, can, and do afford opportunities to mentor researchers as well.

One final note to prospective proteges—working with mentors is not necessarily the easy way of getting ahead. First, finding the right mentor(s) is and should be a demanding,

tedious process. Second, mentors can be demanding. Proteges cannot expect mentors to do their work for them. It is only realistic to anticipate that proteges will need to work at least as hard as their mentors. Third, although mentors may have the best of intentions, there may be a strong tendency for them to steer proteges toward their own goals instead of those of their proteges. Thus, a certain amount of assertiveness is required. Fourth, others will often expect proteges to be just like their mentors. That expectation may be a source of pressure on you to do well. It also may make it more difficult to develop your own distinct identity. Finally, many seasoned researchers consider themselves proteges who have had the pleasure of long-lasting relationships with one or more mentors. Those relationships have evolved, they have continued, and one can look back fondly on experiences that would not be exchanged for anything in the world.

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Table 1. How mentorship relationships benefit both partners.

Proteges may:

1. Gain advice on career goals
2. Receive encouragement to build their self-confidence
3. Acquire new or improved skills and knowledge
4. Be offered models to follow, especially for how to handle baffling or intimidating situations
5. Be afforded opportunities and resources
6. Be provided increased exposure and visibility
7. Be provided guidance and an example to help bridge difficult life transitions

Mentors may:

1. Get more work done with proteges' help
2. Be rewarded for spotting and developing new talent
3. Achieve vicariously through proteges
4. Find that investments in proteges are returned later through their proteges' contacts, advice, expertise, and so forth
5. Gain a sense of fulfilling obligations to society or to those who helped them
6. Gain satisfaction from trying to remedy the situation for underdogs—women, racial and ethnic minorities, persons with disabilities
7. Find that relationships with proteges are a good alternative to professional loneliness
8. Find mentoring a good means of avoiding stagnation as proteges inspire rejuvenation and creativity

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Mentoring for Research: Examining Alternative Models

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This conference on research mentorship has dramatically underscored the challenge of fostering a new generation of researchers in the field of communication sciences and disorders. An important part of the challenge is to encourage larger numbers of professionals in audiology and speech-language pathology to become researchers. At the present time, ASHA is experiencing a decline in the number of researchers even as there is an increase in the number of practitioners. In addition, Shewan (1993, this volume) reported that women compose 90% of ASHA membership but only 65% of the researchers. Thus, a second part of the challenge is to attract more women in the field to research. (Because women form the largest group in the professions on which mentoring could or should be focused, the feminine "protegee" will be used throughout this paper.)

It is evident that mentoring a new generation of researchers in our fields must incorporate models that include many more protegees and are compatible with what may be different needs and styles of the desired cadre, that is, women researchers. The traditional models of mentoring have not been effective in meeting the challenge. Those models have focused on educating and grooming one newcomer at a time for a research career, and they have been derived largely from the male experience. Alternative models of mentoring are needed if we are to meet the present challenge.

In the comments that follow, I will focus very briefly on the development of mentoring and then explore how two traditional and two alternative mentoring models relate to hierarchy, power, and the status quo.

Development of Mentoring

From its beginnings in Homer's *Odyssey*, mentoring has been identified largely with a wise older man tutoring a promising younger man. In the Homerian epic, young Telemachus was prepared by the wise Mentor for succeeding his father as ruler. Although Mentor was really the goddess Athena in disguise, the practice of grooming a younger colleague is called "mentoring" and not "athening"! Thus, this helpful practice from its inception was identified with men.

More recently, the resurgence of interest in mentoring was stimulated by an examination of the lives of 40 white males in the upper middle class in *The Seasons of a Man's Life* (Levinson, Barrow, Levinson, Klein, & McKee, 1978). It is not surprising, then, that mentoring continues to be based on traditional models for helping that are especially congenial to men for schooling new professionals in old ways. The phrase "old ways" is used here to represent both the process of delivering mentoring assistance (i.e., a process in which hierarchy and power are emphasized in a dyadic relationship) and the traditional business (or research) in the organization where mentoring occurs. These old ways are the status quo. The topic of this conference suggests that we are attempting to overcome the status quo.

In discussing traditional and alternative mentoring models, it is useful to address two categories of models. The first category is based on an analysis of the expectation of flow of benefits between/among participants (i.e., from mentor to protegee in a top-down fashion or in a reciprocal fashion among two or more people). The second category is based on an analysis of the dominant type of mentoring assistance in the relationship (i.e., vocational or psychosocial). The alternative models that are suggested for meeting current needs are those that incorporate reciprocal benefits among networked professionals and psychosocial assistance that generally supports professional/personal development.

The Flow-of-Benefits Traditional Model—Top Down From Mentor to Protegee

The traditional model of mentoring emphasizes a dyad in which benefits flow from a mentor to a protegee. In this model, an experienced person schools a less experienced one in old, established ways. The model is heavily influenced by both hierarchy and a power differential. Within an organization, the more experienced person (mentor) is positioned much higher than the younger, less experienced one (protegee) and wields considerably more power. Their relationship assumes the ability of the mentor to sponsor the protegee in moving up the ladder, often by using the mentor's personal and positional power to the protegee's advantage.

Another aspect of power in this type of mentoring relationship, however, is that status differences are emphasized within the dyad, and the mentor may use power over the protegee. An example of this (mis)use of power is a protegee doing a mentor's work without receiving credit. Brooks and Haring-Hidore (1986) found this to be a significant problem in the mentoring relationships they studied.

This traditional model of mentoring, which emphasizes hierarchy and power for doing business in old ways, was called "grooming-mentoring" by Swoboda and Millar (1986). In grooming-mentoring, a highly promising person (protegee) is selected to the exclusion of others who might want to be mentored. The protegee then is sponsored and educated in the traditions of the organization by a well-placed, senior person. In a successful mentoring relationship based on this model, the protegee gains the knowledge, skills, and eventually the position of the mentor.

With this type of mentoring, there is a tendency to perpetuate the status quo, that is, groups that long have been insiders remain so because they consciously choose their own junior members as protegees and groom them. Also contributing to maintaining the status quo is the fact that established ways of doing business continue unchallenged because they are passed very carefully from one generation to the next. An additional contributor to maintaining the status quo is that longstanding institutional values are validated because protegees are selected partly on the basis of their being exemplars of an institution's closely held beliefs.

An Alternative Model—Reciprocal Benefits Among Networked People

An alternative approach to mentoring places little emphasis on hierarchy and power and the one-way flow of benefits associated with grooming-mentoring. Instead, mentoring assistance in the alternative model is offered to others with an expectation that there will be reciprocity. Inherent in this view is that each of the two or more persons in the mentoring relationship has something important to offer the others, for example, support, encouragement, sponsorship, knowledge. Because of this expectation, there is little emphasis on hierarchy (i.e., there is an exchange among people who are able and willing to assist each other, regardless of the positions they occupy in the organization or their tenure with it). In addition, there is emphasis on empowerment of all parties in the relationship rather than on the use of power exclusively on behalf of one person or over someone.

The alternative model of mentoring that has just been described was called "networking-mentoring" by Swoboda and Millar (1986). In networking-mentoring, groups of people join

together to exchange benefits in order to be successful within an organization. In terms of who participates in this alternative model of mentoring, Haring-Hidore (1987) noted that networking-mentoring seems particularly compatible with women's styles, experiences, and needs. Further, some of the participants in networking-mentoring are veterans—mature professionals who especially enjoy collaboration. Many, however, are newcomers who have not been selected as protegees for traditional mentoring. Perhaps their exclusion is because they are not like the prototypical professionals in their organization in terms of race, gender, style, background, or other characteristics, or they are not perceived as exemplars of the institution's values and beliefs. Whatever the reasons, these newcomers are not regarded as promising candidates for grooming-mentoring, so they seek others with whom to network.

Networking-mentoring groups are less likely to preserve the status quo than are traditional mentoring dyads. Instead, those who engage in networking-mentoring are freer to bring new perspectives, grounded in their personal and professional differences from those people who typified the organization in the past. These new perspectives, combined with the empowerment of networking with others, virtually ensure a departure from the organization's old business.

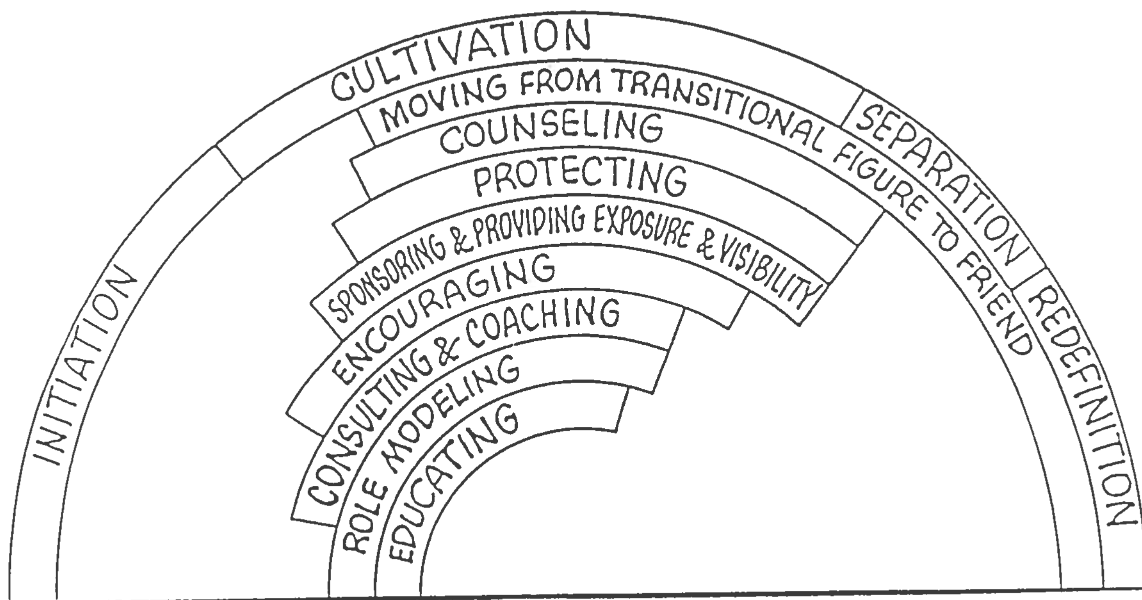
It appears, then, that networking-mentoring is consistent with ASHA's present challenge of bringing in a new generation of researchers that includes mainly women and people of color. Both Olswang (1993, this volume) and Taylor (1993, this volume) spoke to the new approaches this generation will bring in terms of qualitative methodology and more attention to the subjective as addressed in *Women's Ways of Knowing* (Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, & Tarule, 1988). In addition, at this conference the new generation of ASHA researchers were urged to work collaboratively (Jerger, 1993, this volume) to address a new research agenda that includes neuroscience and the etiology of disorders (Tallal, 1993, this volume). Again, networking-mentoring is compatible with these calls.

Models Categorized by Dominant Type of Mentoring Assistance

In 1983, Schockett, Yoshimura, Beyard-Tyler, and Haring developed a model of mentoring based on the extant mentoring literature (Figure 1). In that model, four typical stages of a mentoring relationship are depicted in the outer band of the rainbow; they unfold from left to right. In addition, the model depicts the kind of assistance that can develop in a mentoring relationship; these roles emerge in an order posited from the bottom arc of the rainbow to the top arc (i.e., from educating and role modeling to moving from transitional figure to friend). Further, Schockett and Haring-Hidore (1985) reported that the eight roles

Figure 1: A Model of Mentoring

Corresponding Set of Functions. The Initiation Phase begins as the mentor provides educating and role modeling for the protegee. The mentor's subsequent undertaking of the function of sponsoring involves the risk of greater commitment to the protegee which marks the onset of the Cultivation Phase. As mentor and protegee actively engage in the functions which emerge during the Cultivation their relationship grows stronger and correspondingly the overall width and breadth of the arc expands. As the mentor provides these later appearing functions, however, less time may be allotted to some of the earlier appearing functions such as educating. Thus, the width of some of the earlier appearing bands, which represent specific functions, necessarily will become narrower or disappear altogether. The waxing and waning of functions continues during the Separation Phase at which time ambivalence is experienced as mentor and protegee begin a process of psychological disengagement. As noted in the model, by the time the relationship has progressed to the Redefinition Phase, the primary function of the mentor is one of moving from a transitional figure to friend/peer.



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clustered into two factors, based on research on preferences expressed by 144 teacher education candidates. The two factors and the roles associated with them are important to the discussion of a categorization of mentoring models according to dominant type of assistance offered.

Vocational assistance in a mentoring relationship aids a protegee in adjusting to and advancing in an occupation. Vocational roles include:

1. Educating—Teaching, challenging, and evaluating in order to enhance a protegee's technical skills or intellectual development.

2. Consulting and coaching—Acquainting a protegee with the political dynamics or informal power structures of a community, including the occupation's values and norms, enabling a protegee to develop a set of personal and professional standards.

3. Sponsoring—Providing "good press," visibility, and exposure.

4. Protecting—Shielding a protegee from negative publicity or from potentially damaging contacts with influential people.

Psychosocial assistance enables a protegee to clarify her sense of identity and develop a greater sense of competence and worth. Psychosocial roles include:

1. Role modeling—Providing an opportunity for the protegee to observe the mentor dealing with conflict and meeting personal and professional demands.

2. Encouraging—Building a protegee's self-confidence by providing emotional support and positive feedback.

3. Counseling—Discussing a protegee's fears, anxieties, and uncertainties regarding personal and career-related issues.

4. Moving from a transitional figure to a friend—Assisting a protegee in achieving a sense of being valued as a peer.

The richest mentoring relationships incorporate a large number of these vocational and psychosocial roles, but it is not necessary for each role to be present in a mentoring relationship. In designing mentoring programs and doing mentoring research, frequently I am asked whether a person's major professor qualifies as a mentor. The genesis of this question seems to be a belief that a person who is in an important educational role in a person's life and fulfills that role very well should receive special recognition, that is, should be called a mentor. In that sense, a mentor is "super educator." I usually respond to such an inquiry by elaborating on the rainbow model of Schockett et al. (1983) and suggesting the myriad of roles and assistance that can be present in a mentoring relationship, not just educating.

Also, it is useful to respond to inquiries about major professors by giving the definition of mentoring that I use in my research:

> Mentoring is significant career and/or personal assistance given by more experienced professional(s) to less experienced one(s) during a period of transition.

In this definition, it is the protegee who must judge if assistance is "significant" in the context of successfully negotiating a transition (when the outcome is in doubt). The definition assumes that experience, not age, is the salient factor in being able to offer mentoring assistance. It also assumes that the assistance could be either career (vocational) or personal (psychosocial) or both.

In fact, however, mentoring programs and mentoring relationships often emphasize either the vocational or the psychosocial roles, but not both. For the purposes of the present discussion, it is useful to conceptualize mentoring models according to whether the vocational or the psychosocial roles are dominant.

Traditional Model—Vocational Assistance Is Dominant

When mentoring stresses the vocational roles discussed previously, it is quite easy for old ways of doing business to prevail. The rationale for this statement includes the following:

1. By their nature, the vocational roles are oriented toward a traditional goal of facilitating a protegee's career advancement. Presumably, that advancement is up a well-established ladder.

2. The most basic vocational role, educating, lends itself especially well to grooming, when a mentor possesses knowledge that a protegee must acquire in order to succeed.

3. Consulting emphasizes learning the political dynamics and power structure of a community, not necessarily changing them. Thus, a good mentor will help a protegee "learn the ropes" in order to operate effectively within the existing system.

4. Protecting is based on hierarchy and a power differential and gives the mentor particular say in who the next generation of professionals will be. Often, this means that the next generation looks, acts, and believes like the previous one.

Doing business in the established ways is not inherently bad, and it would be unwise to label mentoring that is conducive to such practice as being somehow misguided. In cases where change is desired, however, emphasis on the vocational roles of mentoring does not seem likely to develop a new generation of professionals who will lead a transformation. For that purpose there is a better alternative.

Alternative Model—Psychosocial Assistance Is Dominant

Because the psychosocial roles address an individual's personal development (competence and self-worth), there is considerable latitude to mentor a person generally to be the best she can be. Although this can be related to career advancement, it certainly is not the only (or even the main) goal of psychosocial assistance. Further, in each of the four psychosocial roles there is focus on professional/personal development rather than on achieving success within an organization. For example, encouraging is intended to foster self-confidence, but the resulting self-confidence may or may not be used to climb a traditional career ladder. Even counseling is not focused on how to succeed in a career, but instead addresses a protegee's fears and anxieties in order to support her.

Mentoring assistance that stresses the psychosocial roles, then, is not prescriptive of what an individual must do, know, or be for the purpose of succeeding in the established ways of an organization. Nor does such mentoring assistance rely on hierarchy or power; rather, it eschews them. Very simply, mentoring based on psychosocial assistance enables protegees to develop in their individual ways. As a result, they are more likely to bring their differences to organizations as strengths, and to bring innovation and change.

In terms of meeting the challenge of mentoring for a new generation of researchers, a strong focus on psychosocial roles is highly desirable. Although incorporating vocational roles into the mix also is important, emphasis on psychosocial assistance will be more helpful in supporting the continued presence of newcomers and in producing change. An additional reason for emphasizing psychosocial assistance is that there is evidence these roles are desired more by protegees (Schockett & Haring-Hidore, 1985). Finally, psychosocial roles such as encouraging, counseling, and moving from transitional figure to friend are especially conducive to the reciprocal relationships fostered in the networking-mentoring model, which was discussed previously and recommended for our purposes.

Emergent Issues—A Final Comment

Throughout the course of this conference, as mentoring has been discussed in considerable detail, related issues have emerged. Those that seem to me to demand our attention revolve around the following questions:

1. Can we afford to perpetuate a mentoring model whose strength is the intensive preparation of one new professional at a time?

2. Can the communication sciences and disorders professions afford a model of mentoring that in the past has excluded, intentionally or not, large numbers of women and people of color, who represent the largest potential for adding new researchers?

3. Do we have the collective will to pursue a new science and research agenda?

4. Should the old system that has brought us to our present point remain intact?

5. Do the experienced researchers in our fields desire mentoring that can enliven their present pursuits?

For each of these emergent issues, the mentoring models that are favored in the future will influence their resolution greatly—just as the mentoring models of the past contributed significantly to the development of the issues. Using the alternative models of mentoring suggested in this paper will require a certain amount of determination, but they hold strong promise for addressing the emergent issues, as well as the central challenge of producing more researchers.

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