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The Advisor-advisee relationship: A qualitative study of advisee perspectives

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THE ADVISOR-ADVISEE RELATIONSHIP: A QUALITATIVE STUDY
OF ADVISEE PERSPECTIVES

by

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ABSTRACT

The Advisor-Advisee Relationship: A Qualitative Study of Advisee Perspectives

by

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Attempts to understand the nature and course of advising relationships in clinical psychology doctoral training have been limited in number and scope. Furthermore, they have almost universally applied theoretical models derived for the explanation of different types of relationships, with very little empirical inquiry aimed at examining the advising relationship as it actually exists. The present study sought to better understand advisory relationships in clinical psychology doctoral training and propose a theoretical model related to the dimensions of the relationship that emerged.

This was accomplished via semi-structured interviews with 18 clinical psychology Ph.D. candidates from training programs across the United States. There were four prominent themes which emerged from the interviews. First, participants consistently noted the importance of the interpersonal aspect of the relationship. Second, participants discussed the various goals of the advising relationship including: facilitating progress, developing research skill, and receiving professional advice. Third, participants noted contextual forces which shaped the relationship including: their history, the research lab and the department. Fourth and finally, participants discussed the dynamic nature of the relationship noting both gradual changes and critical shifts over time. These four themes

were then integrated into a proposed theoretical model and contextualized within the prevailing literature.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The scientist-practitioner or Boulder model of training has dominated the field of professional psychology¹ since its inception in August of 1949. It calls for psychologists to place equal emphasis on their identities as researcher and clinician. Despite the model's dual focus, research consistently indicates that most professional psychologists, especially those working in a clinical context, publish very infrequently (Brems, Johnson, & Fallucci, 1996; Garfield & Kurtz, 1976). Several researchers have attempted to explain this phenomenon, faulting the practicalities of working in a clinical setting or the job market more generally, for the low publication rates (Perry, 1979; Schneider, 1981).

Another explanation, originally offered by Charles Gelso in 1979, faults poor research training experiences during graduate school as the source of low research productivity post graduation (Gelso, 1993, 1997, 2006). From this perspective, a psychologist's likelihood of completing research is positively correlated with how reinforcing the experience of research was during graduate school. Thus, it follows that if the field of psychology has low research productive graduates it is because the practice of research was not made enjoyable (in fact, it might have even been painful).

Gelso's notion that the responsibility for the low productivity of professional psychologists rests on the shoulders of the research training institutions initiated a flurry of research. Researchers began taking a closer look at several elements of the research training environment and their impact on research (e.g. students' research attitudes, self-efficacy and productivity; Galassi, Brooks, Stoltz, Trexler, 1986; Galassi, Stoltz, Brooks

¹ The term professional psychology will be used throughout this document to refer to those fields which involve counseling or clinical practice, specifically clinical or counseling psychology fields.

& Trexler, 1987; Hollingsworth & Fassinger, 2002; Krebs, Smither, & Hurley, 1991; O'Brien, 1995; Gelso, Raphael, Black, Rardin, & Shalkos, 1983; Mallinckrodt, Gelso, Royalty, 1990; Phillips & Russell, 1994; Royalty, Gelso, Mallinckrodt, & Garrett, 1986; Royalty & Magoon, 1985). Results from this body of literature can be summed up in two major findings: (1) the research training environment does exert an influence on students' research interests and productivity and (2) this influence largely takes place through relationships with faculty.

The latter finding has brought attention to the importance of the advisor-advisee relationship, given its position at the center of research training (Betz, 1997; Hill, 1997; Mallinckrodt, 1997). Specifically, in a recent special edition of *The Counseling Psychologist*, several authors concluded that the next logical step in examining the research training environment is to examine the advising relationship. Notably, theoretical discussion on researcher education has always placed heavy emphasis on the advisor-advisee relationship. In fact, the American Psychological Association Education and Training Board called the advising relationship "the most important part of education for research in psychology" (1959; p.179).

Despite the widespread agreement regarding its importance, the empirical study of the advisor-advisee relationship has been markedly limited. Specifically, an extensive literature review revealed two predominant problems. First, there is considerable confusion regarding the definition of the term advisor. Second, a comprehensive theoretical model of the advising relationship does not exist.

With regard to the definitional problems, various titles have been used interchangeably for the term advisor (i.e. mentor, major professor, research supervisor,

etc.) and each has its own definition. Of all the titles, the most problematic is the term mentor, which has been used both the most frequently and least consistently (Merriam, 1983; Schlosser & Gelso, 2001). The haphazard use of different titles and the variability in definitions associated with them, particularly with regard to the term mentor, has caused considerable confusion in the empirical literature, at times confounding developmental mentorship (i.e. a characteristically positive and voluntary relationship which fulfills a developmental need) with advisorship (i.e. a relationship which can be either positive or negative, may be assigned and is generally exclusive).

In addition to the definitional inconsistencies, the literature is also limited by the absence of a comprehensive theoretical model of the advising relationship. Although the apprenticeship, mentor and working alliance models have all been applied, none appear to describe the advising relationship in its entirety. Specifically, the apprenticeship model, which conceptualizes the advisor-advisee relationship as one of a master researcher upbringing a novice apprentice, ignores the emotional bond component of the relationship. The mentor model, on the other hand, incorporates a strong emotional bond component but systematically excludes negative relationships and experiences. Finally, the working alliance model, probably the most promising of the three, captures the emotional bond component and negative characteristics and experiences; but is still in the very early stages of research with only four articles published to date.

Given the gap in the literature, the present study sought to enrich the current understanding of the advisory relationship by completing an in-depth qualitative analysis of advisory relationships from the advisee perspective. This was accomplished via the completion of thorough interviews with 18 clinical psychology Ph.D. candidates whose

experiences were audio-taped, transcribed and analyzed for salient themes. These themes were then integrated into a proposed theoretical model. Finally, the findings of the study were contextualized within the prevailing literature.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Background

In August of 1949, the first national conference concerning the education of professional psychologists was held in Boulder Colorado. This conference produced a model of training in psychology which still significantly shapes graduate education in the field today, the scientist-practitioner or Boulder model. The Boulder model stressed that professional psychologists demonstrate commitment to both research and practice, and conceptualized the ideal professional psychologist as active and proficient in both areas. Despite this model's clear emphasis on the integration of *both* research and practice, the low research productivity of professional psychologists has been repeatedly documented (Brems, Johnson, & Gallucci, 1996; Garfield & Kurtz, 1976).

Researchers have commonly attributed low research productivity among professional psychologists to the increasing number of graduates working in clinical rather than research settings (Garfield & Kurtz, 1976; Kohout & Wicherski, 2003). Several plausible hypotheses exist explaining why more psychologists are pursuing clinical rather than research employment. One predominant theory is that new professional psychologists are driven to clinical work due to practical rather than preferential considerations (Perry, 1979; Schneider, 1981). Thus, new Ph.D. psychologists must compete for employment and given that there are only a small number of research positions available a larger number of professional psychologists become clinicians. Although this hypothesis is consistent with surveys of the job market for doctoral graduates (see Kohout & Wicherski, 2003), it fails to explain other research identifying a preference for clinical

work among Ph.D. graduate students who are hypothetically immune to the realities of the job market (Parker & Detterman, 1988).

Another explanation that has received some empirical support faults poor research training experiences for the low interest in research careers among professional psychologists. Specifically, some researchers argue that current research training models attend little to making the experience of research reinforcing for students and this results in poor motivation to complete research subsequent to graduation (Gelso, 1979, 1993, 1997, 2006).

The claim that deficiencies in research training are the source of low productivity in post-graduate psychologists has generated some empirical inquiry. The body of literature examining the research training environment is reviewed below.

The Research Training Environment

Theoretical Foundations

Charles Gelso (1979) developed the idea of the research training environment in his seminal work on the methodological and professional issues facing the field of counseling psychology. In this article Gelso made the observation that students enter graduate training with deep ambivalence about their place in the research community and their ability to work as scholars. Gelso then noted that student ambivalence about research is in marked contrast to their largely positive associations with regard to clinical activities. As Gelso put it in his 1995 Leona Tyler address:

Students generally have a pretty solid sense that they are good at being helpful, a therapeutic interaction. They have a lot of history of being good at it, and often have been helpers in their family from very early in their lives... They do not have this same confidence in themselves as scientists,

and have not had a lot of experience being researchers and succeeding as researchers or as scientists more generally (Gelso, 1997, p.307).

Thus, Gelso (1979, 1993, 1997, 2006) argues, the primary object of the research training in psychology should not be to increase technical expertise (as had been thought previously), but rather to positively influence students' attitudes and motivations toward research. Unfortunately, Gelso notes, psychology training programs have largely ignored the current state of affairs and in some instances instituted policy that negatively rather than positively impacts student attitudes toward research.

This led Gelso (1979, 1993, 1997, 2006) to develop a series of recommendations for the development of successful research training environments (RTE). These recommendations sought to maximize student's positive experiences with regard to research and thereby increase the likelihood of their involvement in research post-graduation. Initially conceptualized as ten interrelated recommendations (Gelso, 1979), the list was subsequently shorted to six central recommendations divided into two higher order factors: the instructional factor and the interpersonal factor (Gelso, 1997, 2006)².

Instructional Factor

The instructional factor of the RTE includes those ingredients which are more didactic in nature (Gelso, 1997). This includes recommendations such as: (a) demonstrating how science and clinical experience can be wedded, (b) emphasizing the inherent imperfections in all individual research studies while simultaneously pointing

² In the most recent theoretical publication, Gelso (2006) points out that 6 of the original 10 RTE ingredients have received moderate-to-strong empirical support and as such are considered the primary ingredients for further empirical inquiry (these are the ingredients covered by this literature review). Notably, only 1 of the remaining 4 ingredients has been completely discarded. Please note that I have chosen not to cover the other 3 ingredients here. This is due to their limited empirical support and/or irrelevance to this literature review. For a thorough review of the complete conceptualization of the RTE the reader is referred to Gelso, 2006.

out the importance of a cumulative body of research, and (c) highlighting the value of utilizing various types of research designs.

Interpersonal Factor

The interpersonal factor of the RTE, on the other hand, is characterized by recommendations predominantly associated with relational exchanges between faculty and students (Gelso, 1997). Three ingredients are associated with this factor.

First, Gelso (1979, 1993, 1997, 2006) suggests that successful RTE contain faculty who model “appropriate scientific behavior.” Gelso defines “appropriate scientific behavior” as going beyond merely engaging in quality research. In fact, in Gelso’s view:

It is crucial that faculty be excited by their research and share their excitement with their students. ... In serving as effective research models, it is important that faculty share not only their positive experiences. ... I believe that communicating failures as well as successes allows students to feel that they do not need to “succeed” in all or nearly all scholarly endeavors (Gelso, 2006, p. 7).

Second, Gelso (1979, 1993, 1997, 2006) states that strong RTE offer numerous and varied reinforcers for student research activity. This ingredient includes not only large formal acknowledgements (i.e., research awards), but also frequent informal interpersonal encouragement. In fact, Gelso (1997, 2006) suggests that informal encouragement from a respected faculty member may be the most potent reinforcer.

Finally, Gelso (1979, 1993, 1997, 2006) suggests that early and minimally threatening involvement in research is a key component of a positive RTE. This experience comes most often in the form of a first year interactive research seminar or early student integration into an active research lab. Regardless of its form, it is an experience characterized by both intellectual challenge and a great deal of supportive encouragement.

The Importance of Relationships

What emerges from the examination of specific RTE ingredients is the significant role student-faculty relationships play in Gelso's theory. In fact, Gelso (1979, 1983, 1997, 2006) points out that the RTE, including both the instructional and interpersonal factors, is primarily communicated within student-faculty relationships. For example, a program may indicate through policy that research accomplishments are valued. However, if this value is not communicated by tangible student-faculty interactions, the policy is of little value. Imagine a graduate student within a program where guidelines state that involvement in quality research is esteemed but the faculty grumble about their research obligations, expect excellence but deliver little praise, and are disparaging of all but a few methodological strategies. It is difficult to envision that this student would leave the institution with more positive feelings toward the research community regardless of the institution's policy.

Among the many faculty-student relationships (i.e., program director-student, professor-student, etc.), Gelso (1993, 1997, 2006) identified the advisor-advisee relationship as the pivotal vehicle through which the RTE is communicated. Gelso postulated that advisors impact student's perceptions of the RTE both directly (e.g., validating students research accomplishments, or providing early research experiences in their laboratory) and indirectly (e.g., modeling enthusiasm for research, or demonstrating acceptance of less than perfect research).

In sum, Gelso (1979, 1993, 1997, 2006) theorized that effective research training occurs in programs that acknowledge and directly address student ambivalence about research by deliberately creating an environment that is supportive of research

accomplishment, enthusiastic about the process of research, realistic in its expectations, and attentive to the developmental needs of students. In addition, Gelso theorized that these variables are most often communicated within the context of faculty-student relationships and within the advisor-advisee relationship in particular.

Empirical Examination

Extant empirical literature has examined Gelso's theory of the RTE and its relationship to various student outcomes. Taken together, the literature suggests that several RTE ingredients are positively correlated with student attitudes toward research (Galassi, Brooks, Stoltz, Trexler, 1986; Gelso, Raphael, Black, Rardin, & Shalkos, 1983; Mallinckrodt, Gelso, Royalty, 1990; Royalty, Gelso, Mallinckrodt, & Garrett, 1986) and student research productivity (Galassi, Brooks, Stoltz, & Trexler, 1986; Galassi, Stoltz, Brooks & Trexler, 1987; Hollingsworth & Fassinger, 2002; Krebs, Smither, & Hurley, 1991; O'Brien, 1995; Phillips & Russell, 1994; Royalty & Magoon, 1985).

Notably, the interpersonal ingredients of the RTE have repeatedly surfaced as the key elements of the RTE. For example, Shivy, Worthington, and Wallis (2003) conducted a survey of 35 counseling doctoral candidates in which participants were in a pair comparisons tasks for all of the RTE ingredients. The results from this survey indicated that the interpersonal ingredients (faculty modeling, positive reinforcement for research accomplishment and early involvement in research) were consistently ranked as the most important aspects of training. These findings are consistent with a qualitative study of psychology doctoral candidates completed by Gelso (1997). Specifically, Gelso (1997) asked 20 doctoral graduate students from two different counseling psychology departments to identify and describe one or more experiences that significantly enhanced

and one or more experiences that retarded their interest in research. Notably, the most frequently mentioned factor in both the enhancing and retarding responses was the advisor-advisee relationship.

In addition to impacting students' evaluations of research training, research suggests that the interpersonal ingredients of the RTE also impact students' overall attitudes toward research. For example, Royalty et al.'s (1986) found that aggregate ratings of a program's (a) modeling of appropriate scientific behavior, (b) reinforcement of research activity, and (c) provision of early involvement in research, were all significantly correlated with students' positive attitude change toward research. Other studies have identified consistent results (Gelso, et. al., 1983; Mallinckrodt, Gelso, Royalty, 1990).

Finally, the interpersonal component of the RTE has also been empirically associated with student research productivity. Specifically, Galassi and colleagues have repeatedly documented the differences in the RTE of high research productive versus low research productive programs (Galassi, Brooks, Stoltz, & Trexler, 1986; Galassi, Stoltz, Brooks & Trexler, 1987). Their results suggest that high research productive programs are distinguished by their requirement of early research involvement, encouragement and support of research activity, and provision of apprenticeship style relationships with faculty.

Taken together these studies underscore the importance of the RTE, especially the interpersonal component, in the research development of graduate students in the field of professional psychology. Notably, they also call to attention the importance of the advisor-advisee relationship, an element not initially included in Gelso's theory. In fact,

in a special edition of *The Counseling Psychologist* examining the RTE several researchers pointed out the importance of examining the advisor-advisee relationship:

I believe it is useful to consider the behavior of one faculty advisor as a “micro-environment” (Mallinckrodt, 1997 p. 69).

[The] concept of the research training environment...underemphasizes the importance of mentoring itself ... I agree with the authors herein that mentoring/faculty productivity must be added to future models to prove ultimately useful (Betz, 1997, p. 89).

I would add one component to the research training environment: the mentoring relationship (Hill, 1997, p. 74).

In the next section I will review the literature examining the advisor-advisee relationship and its role in the research training of graduate students.

The Advisor-Advisee Relationship

Defining the Advisor-Advisee Relationship

Discourse in the area of graduate student education, has long pointed to the advisor-advisee relationship as the key element of research training. For example, as early as 1959 the American Psychological Association Education and Training Board stated that:

Apprenticeship is, we believe, *the most important part of education for research in psychology*; the professor who hires a graduate student as research assistant takes on the primary teaching responsibility for that student (p.179; emphasis added).

Despite its frequency in theoretical discussion, the construct of the “advisor-advisee relationship” has, until recently, lacked a consistent name or definition. Specifically, names used interchangeably for this relationship include: master-apprentice, mentor-protégé, major professor-graduate assistant, research supervisor-supervisee and advisor-advisee. Complicating the issue is the variability in the definitions applied to the different

titles. For example, the term advisor has been defined as a specific individual, “the faculty member who has the greatest responsibility for helping guide the advisee through the graduate program,” (Schlosser & Gelso, 2001 pg. 158; see also Knox, Schlosser, Pruitt, & Hill, 2006; Schlosser & Gelso, 2005; Schlosser & Kahn, 2007; Schlosser, Knox, Moskovitz, & Hill, 2003), whereas the term research supervisor has been defined more broadly to include “any faculty who supervises student research” (Goodyear, Crego, & Johnston, 1992).

Of the various titles, the term mentor is used the most frequently; however, it has also proved the most problematic (Merriam, 1983; Schlosser & Gelso, 2001). This is due primarily to the wide variability in the definitions of mentoring found in the literature.

For example, mentor has been defined in all of the following ways:

- (1) the advisor or chair of a doctoral dissertation (Willis & Diebold, 1997, p.15)
- (2) the faculty member whom [you] consider the most important in [your] current doctoral research training (Hollingsworth & Fassinger, 2002, p.326)
- (3) experienced [psychologist] who guides, advises and supports inexperienced protégés for the purpose of furthering their careers (Cronan-Hillix, Grensheimer, Cronan-Hilix, & Davidson, 1986, p.123)
- (4) your mentor is not necessarily your advisor but the faculty member that you feel is most responsible for your growth as a psychologist (Kahn, 2001, p.348)

The marked differences among these definitions highlight the overall disorder of the literature in the area of mentoring in academe. Specifically, it seems that at least two different constructs are under investigation within this literature. First, there is an interest in mentoring as an outgrowth of the literature exploring career development in adults (see definitions 3 and 4 above). Within this area, mentors are defined by qualities (i.e., guide,

supporter, advocate, teacher, etc.) rather than specific institutional roles (i.e., dissertation chair, major professor, advisor, etc.). Given the differential emphasis, this body of literature describes a relationship that systematically differs from the advisor-advisee relationship we are hoping to explore here. Specifically, mentor relationships are defined as characteristically positive, voluntary and are not necessarily exclusive; whereas advisor-advisee relationships can be either positive or negative, may be assigned and are exclusive. Second, some of the “mentoring” literature uses a definition synonymous with the advisor-advisee literature (see definitions 1 and 2 above). This literature defines mentor as the person most responsible for the research development of the student.

Given the considerable variability in the definition of the term “mentor” and the systematic differences it at times suggests, the term advisor will be used throughout the remainder of this document. Advisor is defined here as: the faculty member who is organizationally recognized as bearing the greatest responsibility for the advisee’s research development.

Theoretical Models of the Advising Relationship

The Apprenticeship Model

As the above discourse implies, several theoretical models of the advisor-advisee relationship exist. Notably three broad theoretical models have been laid out in the literature including: (1) the apprenticeship model, (2) the mentor model and (3) the working alliance model.

Developed as an analogue to the practice carried out in the Middle Ages, the apprenticeship model characterizes the advisor-advisee relationship as one of a master researcher upbringing a novice apprentice. Historically the tradition of apprenticeship

involved a master craftsman employing a youth (generally between the ages of fourteen and twenty-one) for minimal wages in exchange for formal training of a craft (Jacoby, 2001). In the modern university setting, it takes a similar form:

A bright young student is given tuition and living expenses for five years. During that time she is assigned a faculty member, who teaches her everything she needs to know to become a professor. She develops teaching skills through a series of assignments - first grading papers and leading discussions, then giving the occasional lecture, then designing and teaching classes on her own. She learns research skills through a series of assistantships. By the time she finishes her dissertation and earns her Ph.D., she's a master of her profession, ready to be hired for a tenure-track position at another university. (Yeoman, 2006)

The APA's Education and Training Board (1959) endorsed this apprenticeship model in their report on the Estes Park, Colorado conference focused on researcher education. This document stressed that the apprenticeship model was appropriate for two reasons. First, the committee felt that didactic methods of teaching research skills are inadequate and work only when paired with a strong modeling relationship. Second, the committee believed that the apprenticeship model was flexible enough for the essential developmental processes to occur. Specifically, they felt that students need to be exposed to the full range of research activities in progressively more involved manner; starting with mere observation, moving on to active participation, and culminating in independent contribution. From this perspective, the apprenticeship model of advising is a method of tailoring training to fit each student individually while simultaneously providing the practical setting for research development.

At its core, the apprenticeship model outlined by the APA is a markedly selfless enterprise. Faculty are expected to give much (e.g., time, resources) and receive little (e.g., occasional menial task completion, but only when appropriate to the research

development of the apprentice). Perhaps that is why anecdotal accounts suggest that the idealized apprenticeship model happens infrequently (Yeoman, 2006).

Despite its position in the foundational literature on researcher education, no studies were identified examining either the prevalence or practical characteristics of the apprenticeship model in graduate education. Instead the apprenticeship model appears to have been subsumed by the most prevalently discussed model, the mentor model.

The Mentor Model

Though the apprenticeship and mentor models share similar features, they have markedly different historical roots that impact their current conceptualizations. Specifically, the apprenticeship model reflects a craftsmanship heritage, which involved relationships characterized by little, if any, overt emotional component (Jacoby, 2001). The mentor model, on the other hand, has its roots in the character of “Mentor” depicted in Homer’s *The Odyssey*. Mentor was a wise and compassionate friend of Ulysses who was entrusted to care for his son while Ulysses battled in the Trojan War (Johnson & Huwe, 2003). Because of Mentor’s depiction as a wise and paternal caregiver, the mentor model is imbued with mutual emotional investment and affection that is not necessarily a component of the apprenticeship model.

Serious study of the role of mentors began with the pivotal book *The Seasons of a Man’s Life*. Written by Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson and McKee (1978), *The Seasons of a Man’s Life* documented the findings of a qualitative study of the adult lives of 40 men and identified mentor relationships as the most influential relationship experienced by men in their young adulthood. Though Levinson did not provide a fixed definition, mentors were generally described as playing various roles including: teacher,

sponsor, guide, model, champion and counselor. In addition to the specific roles, Levison felt that mentors more importantly fulfilled a key developmental need of the protégé; and as a result mentored individuals experienced greater professional and personal success.

Since that time, the mentor model has received considerable attention, particularly in the adult development, business and academic training literatures (Merriam, 1983). Given the various fields studying mentoring and Levison's decision to forgo a formal definition at the outset, empirical definitions have been inconsistent. As discussed previously, this has resulted in considerable confusion of constructs in the mentoring literature, particularly in the literature examining mentoring in graduate education.

In an attempt to address the definitional inconsistencies, Clark, Harden and Johnson (2000; see also Dickinson & Johnson, 2000; Fallow & Johnson, 2000; Johnson & Huwe, 2003; Johnson, Koch, Fallow, & Huwe, 2000) set forth the following definition after reviewing the literature on mentoring in graduate training:

Mentoring is a personal relationship in which a more experienced (usually older) faculty member acts as a guide, role model, teacher and sponsor of a less experienced (usually younger) graduate student. A mentor provides the protégé with knowledge, advice, challenge, counsel, and support in the protégé's pursuit of becoming a full member of a particular profession (p.263)

Thus, mentors certainly advise their students, but they also do much more. For example, Levison et. al. (1978) stated that good mentors nourish their protégé's "dreams," and Johnson and Huwe (2003) noted that mentors "bless" their students. These statements highlight the complexity of the mentor relationship. For example, how does one nourish a dream or bless students? Kram (1985) suggested that mentors accomplish these tasks by serving two types of functions for their protégés: career functions and psychosocial functions.

Career functions are the aspects of the relationship that facilitate familiarity with the profession's atmosphere and/or prepare the protégé for advancement (Kram, 1985).

Johnson and Huwe (2003) provided a list of five career functions for mentors in academe: sponsorship, exposure and visibility, coaching, protection, and challenging assignments. First, mentors sponsor, or publicly endorse, their protégés; this includes acts such as: (a) nominating the protégé for a prestigious position or award, (b) promoting a protégé's work for publication or (c) recommending the protégé for an academic position after graduation. Second, mentors work to increase their protégés' exposure and visibility within the professional community. For example, a mentor may aid a student to ready a manuscript for publication, or assist in the creation of a conference presentation. Third, mentors coach their protégés by providing knowledge, guidance and encouragement; for instance, a mentor may offer advice about department politics, suggest a plan for resolving an interpersonal dispute, or point out strategies for avoiding common pitfalls. Fourth, mentors provide protection to their protégés. It is often the case that graduate students face hostility, disapproval and potential censure during their graduate training. Mentors serve as champions, fighting for their students' reputation and work. Finally, mentors provide challenging assignments for their protégés. This involves including protégés in incrementally harder tasks, steadily building their skills and proficiencies.

The psychosocial functions of the mentoring relationship are those aspects which develop the protégé's self-confidence, professional identity, and self-efficacy (Kram, 1985). Unlike career functions, Kram (1985) suggests that psychosocial functions are predicated on a developing trust between the mentor and protégé. For example, Kram suggested that role modeling is one psychosocial function of the mentor relationship;

different from coaching or sponsoring, role modeling occurs only within the context of a mutually trusting relationship. Explicitly, a mentor may routinely model professional behavior, but if the protégé does not desire to emulate the mentor, role modeling has not taken place.

Also relational in nature are Kram's (1985) other three psychosocial functions: acceptance and confirmation, counseling, and mutuality. First, mentors communicate acceptance and confirmation of their advisee. As Phillips-Jones (1982) put it:

The best mentors encouraged [protégés] to be all they could be, with prejudiced, unflinching confidence in them. This unflagging faith bolstered their self-esteem in a way that mere advice or pat the back never could (p. 35).

Second, counseling is a function that allows the protégé to openly discuss the personal and professional decisions and hardships encountered during graduate training. Graduate education is often practically complicated and emotionally taxing, the counseling function facilitates the researcher development by normalizing the growing pains and providing a supportive environment in which to confront difficult issues (Johnson & Huwe, 2003). Finally, the mentor relationship involves a sense of mutuality, or a reciprocally shared sense of respect, trust and affection (Kram, 1985). Although, mutuality is characterized by genuine warmth and affection, it distinguished from friendship by clear boundaries regarding personal affiliation, particularly with regard to sexual or "best friend" type relationships (Johnson & Huwe, 2003). Instead, mutuality facilitates a strong collegial relationship.

It is important to note that the mentor model does not assume that all mentors will fulfill all roles with equal aptitude (Johnson & Huwe, 2003). Instead, it thought that mentors will more frequently exhibit those functions which are consistent with their

personality and values. From this perspective, the ideal mentor-protégé relationship occurs when the protégé's needs line up with the mentor's natural abilities, in other words, when there is a good "fit."

Additionally, it is not thought that protégés need all mentoring functions fulfilled at all times; instead the mentor model asserts a developmental process where different functions are needed at different times. For instance, Kram (1985) outlined four distinct phases of the mentor-protégé relationship: initiation, cultivation, separation and redefinition. The initiation or opening phase occurs within the first year and is characterized by mutual exploration and the establishment of trust. The cultivation phase, frequently the longest phase of the mentoring relationship, involves deepening trust and the active implementation of the career and psychosocial functions; notably the bulk of protégé development occurs during this phase. Separation occurs when the protégé is nearing the end of their early development and needs increasing autonomy, also the interaction of the mentor and protégé decreases. Finally, there is redefinition phase, this stage includes the termination of the mentor relationship and the formation of a new relationship.

In sum, the mentor model proposes the ideal advisor-advisee as characterized by a positive relationship in which a senior faculty member, the mentor, facilitates the research development of a graduate student, the protégé, by fulfilling both protégé's career and psychosocial needs. Further, the mentor relationship is viewed as a developmental process that is driven by the measure of "fit" between the protégé's needs and the mentor's abilities.

Empirical Examination. Notably, the mentor model has enjoyed wide spread acceptance as the gold standard for research training in psychology (Betz, 1997; Ellis, 1992; Gearon, 2007; Hill, 1997). Despite the mentor models extensive endorsement, until recently it had received little empirical attention in the psychology graduate education literature. Specifically, between the years of 1969 and 1990 only three articles were published empirically investigating mentoring in psychology doctoral programs. Since that time an additional nine articles have been published. Findings from this literature shed light on the prevalence, characteristics, functions and impact of mentor relationships in psychologist education.

Extant literature consistently indicates that a little more than half (an average of 56%) of psychology graduate students are mentored (see Table 1 for the individual prevalence estimates by study). Notably, prevalence estimates vary somewhat by field of study and type of degree sought. Specifically, experimental students report higher rates of mentoring than clinical students (69% vs. 53%, Johnson, Koch, Fallow & Huwe, 2000, see also Cronan-Hillix, et al., 1986) and Ph.D. students report higher rates than Psy.D. students (71% vs. 56%, Clark, Harden & Johnson, 2000).

Table 1: Mentor prevalence rates by study

Study	N	% Mentored
Atkinson, Neville & Casas (1991)	101	51%
Clark, Harden & Johnson (2000)	787	66%
Cronan-Hillix, Grensheimer, Cronan-Hillix, & Davidson (1986)	90	53%
Fallow & Johnson (2000)	659	54%
Johnson, Koch, Fallow & Huwe (2000)	292	60%
Kirchner (1969)	104	50%
Mintz, Bartles & Rideout (1995)	268	56%

Regardless of type of degree or subfield of psychology, it seems that many students in graduate programs are not being mentored. Notably, non-mentored students most often cite unavailability of mentors and the inability to find a satisfactory match as the reasons for lack of mentoring (Cronan-Hillix, et al., 1986; Fallow & Johnson, 2000, Johnson, et al., 2000). However, these students are not going entirely without graduate student – faculty relationships because research results have consistently indicated that 100% of graduate students have assigned advisors/dissertation chairs (Cronan-Hillix, et al. 1986; Schlosser & Gelso, 2001). Thus, to be in an advisor-advisee relationship does not mean that one is being mentored. This begs the question: how many advisors are mentoring their students, or, stated another way, what is the prevalence of mentor-advisors?

Unfortunately the prevalence literature on mentoring does not provide an answer to this question. Specifically, the definitions of mentoring utilized in this body of literature do not distinguish research from clinical mentoring, nor do they examine whether or not research mentorship is provided by the advisor or some other faculty member. Thus, to date the relationship between mentoring and advising is unclear and the prevalence of mentor-advisors remains unknown.

Those students who are mentored characterize mentor-relationships as generally exclusive (most protégés report only 1 or 2 mentors), student or mutually initiated, long lasting (most mentor relationships lasting over 3 years) and largely positive. For example, Clark, Harden and Johnson (2000) in their survey of 787 clinical psychology doctoral graduates found that that: (a) 78% of protégés reported having either 1 or 2 mentors, (b) 79% described the relationship as self or mutually initiated, (c) 79% reported that the relationship had lasted more than 3 years, and (d) 91% indicated that the relationship was

at least moderately positive. Johnson, et al. (2000) found strikingly similar results in their survey of 292 APA registered Ph.D.s (60% clinical, 40% experimental).

Specifically, respondents averaged between 1 and 2 faculty mentors, and stated that the relationship was self or mutually initiated (78%), long-term (77% lasting over 3 years) and moderately to extremely positive.

Given that protégés appear to have considerable control in the formation of their mentor relationships, some research has sought to identify mentor characteristics that signal both “good” and “bad” mentors. In a foundational study in this area, Kirchner (1969) found that 93% of psychology graduates felt that the ideal mentor relationship was one characterized by a close working partnership. Expanding on this work, Cronan-Hillix, et al. (1986) surveyed 90 currently enrolled psychology graduate students at a large Western University about their impressions of mentor relationships. Specifically, respondents were asked identify the qualities of both “good” and “bad” mentors. Results indicated that “good” mentors are characteristically interested in and supportive of their protégés. They were also described as possessing several positive personality characteristics including honest, dedicated, empathic, compassionate, genuine, patient, nonsexist, flexible, and loyal. “Bad” mentors, on the other hand, were described as characteristically rigid, critical, egocentric, prejudice, mentally ill, rushed, overextended, disorganized, dishonest, and untrustworthy. Studies utilizing both similar (Clark, Harden & Johnson, 2000; Fallow & Johnson, 2000) and disparate (Lark & Croteau, 1998) methodologies have found comparable results. Strikingly, many qualities traditionally associated with the career or didactic functions of the mentor relationship are absent from these lists; for example, qualities such as good writing skills, eloquent, and intellectually

curious are all absent. Instead qualities consistent with the psychosocial functions of the mentor relationship are emphasized.

Consistent with the notion that the psychosocial functions are central are the results from research explicitly examining mentor functions. In the only qualitative study of mentor relationships in the field, Lark and Croteau (1998) interviewed 14 lesbian/gay/bisexual (LGB) counseling psychology doctoral candidates regarding their experiences with mentoring. Results from this study suggested that interpersonal (or psychosocial) functions are the trademark of a true mentor relationship, not the didactic or organizationally recognized functions. For example, one participant commented that in the mentor relationship there must be a “connection” and remarked that their mentor was “not just a chair” (p. 766, Lark & Croteau, 1998).

Despite Lark and Croteau’s (1998) specialized sample, survey research from the broader psychological community suggests that their findings are generalizable. For example, Fallow and Johnson (2000), in their survey of 659 students from clinical psychology doctoral programs, found that protégés rated acceptance, support, and role modeling as three of the four most important functions of their mentor relationship. In addition, respondents in Clark, Harden and Johnson’s (2000) survey identified acceptance and support as the second most important mentor function (just below providing training).

In addition to serving immediate functions, some research indicates that mentor model relationships can exert a lasting influence on both mentors and protégés. Specifically, students who were engaged in positive mentoring relationships have been repeatedly shown to have more positive perceptions regarding their research training

overall (Cronan-Hillix, et al., 1986; Fallow & Johnson, 2000; Johnson, et al., 2000), and students who were not mentored have reported regretting it (Swerlik & Bardon, 1988; Lark & Croteau, 1998). For example, protégés from Lark and Croteau's (1998) study stated that the mentor relationship was the central positive aspect of their research training. Some initial research also suggests that mentor model relationships may be correlated with increased research productivity (including higher rates of publication and conference presentation; Cronan-Hillix, et al., 1986). However, results in this research area have been mixed, with one study identifying that mentor style relationships did not predict future scholarly productivity (Kahn, 2001).

Mentors also appear to benefit from relationships with their protégés. Specifically, Atkinson, Casas and Neville (1994) found in their survey of 101 ethnic minority clinical, counseling and school psychologists that mentoring resulted in both intrinsic (increased personal satisfaction and enthusiasm for work) and, to a lesser extent, extrinsic (increased productivity) rewards.

To summarize, empirical examination of the mentor-protégé relationship in psychology graduate education is in the early stages. The research that does exist suggests that approximately half of psychology graduate students are mentored by someone; however the prevalence of mentoring in the advisor-advisee relationship remains unknown. For those students in mentor relationships, the relationship is fairly exclusive, student or mutually initiated, long lasting and generally positive. In addition, research suggests that mentor relationships are distinguished by the psychosocial, rather than career, functions they serve. Finally, mentoring relationships appear to have a positive impact on both protégés (correlating with increased positive attitudes toward

training, and increased research productivity) and mentors (correlating with perceived intrinsic and extrinsic benefits).

Criticisms. The mentor model, despite its wide spread acclaim, is not without critics. Criticisms predominately caution against the view of mentor relationships as entirely positive. For example, one of the earliest published criticisms (Fury, 1979) warned about “mentor mania” and urged young businessmen to consider the potential drawbacks of entering into a mentor relationship. More recently, a book chapter published as part of a series reflecting on the ethical issues in specialty areas of psychology addressed this issue as well, stating that:

While the positive outcomes of mentoring relationships are usually those mentioned, inherent in such relationships is also the possibility of harm and exploitation and the modeling of questionable or unethical professional values and behaviors. (Needels, 1998, p. 281).

Cautions regarding the fallibility of mentor relationships fall into five general categories: (1) mentor-protégé mismatch, (2) competence to mentor, (3) mentor neglect and abandonment, (4) boundary violations, and (5) exploitation. Mentor-protégé mismatch occurs when the partners are not compatible along salient dimensions (e.g., personality, communication style, research interests, and/or career paths; Johnson & Huwe, 2002). Mismatch can have a variety of undesirable consequences including miscommunication, frequent conflict, deception and, ultimately, the termination of the mentor relationship. Of particular concern in the area of mismatch is incompatibility with regard to approach to conflict. Given their power-down position, unresolved or poorly resolved conflict can be particularly damaging for the protégé. Thus it is important that mentors possess a healthy approach to resolving conflict.

As the above discourse points out, not all graduate faculty are competent to mentor (Johnson & Huwe, 2002; Johnson & Nelson, 1999; Needels, 1998). Incompetence to mentor can be divided into two types: (1) technical incompetence (i.e., ineptitude in the psychology field or inexperience with regard to mentoring) and (2) relational incompetence (i.e., deficiency in social or emotional skills or possessing malignant personality characteristics). Dangers caused by incompetent mentoring are many, including damage to protégé's skill set, advancement in the program, and self-worth.

The most frequently documented negative experience encountered as part of the mentor-protégé relationship is mentor neglect; for example Clark, Harden, and Johnson (2000) found that 1 in 4 protégés reported struggling with mentor unavailability. This finding is not surprising considering the large number of responsibilities placed on faculty (Johnson & Huwe, 2002) and shrinking faculty-student ratios found in graduate education (Belar, 1998). Though the consequences of neglect are unknown, it is likely that neglected students will suffer damages to both their competence and confidence (Johnson & Huwe, 2002). Mentor neglect is most upsetting, however, when it constitutes abandonment. The impact of mentor loss, regardless of cause, can be both practically thorny (e.g., identifying a new dissertation chair or letter writer) and emotionally taxing. However, these consequences are likely compounded in cases where termination of the relationship is unclear. As Johnson and Huwe aptly put it:

In many ways, this latter variety of abandonment may be the most insidious and destructive; the relationship lacks a clear termination, yet none of the mentor functions are available to the student. (2002, p. 49).

Another hazard of the mentor relationship, involves the risk for boundary violations (Johnson & Huwe, 2002; Johnson & Nelson, 1999; Needels, 1998). As suggested above,

the mentor relationship is by its very nature a multiple-role relationship. Notably, these roles are not always compatible (e.g., evaluator-friend, teacher-colleague). Boundary violations occur when there is a blurring between the mentor's professional and personal roles that has the potential to result in unfavorable outcomes for the relationship (Johnson & Huwe, 2002). For example, although it's perfectly acceptable for colleagues to socialize frequently; frequent socializing between supervisors and supervisees can result in a loss of objectivity. Thus, navigating the complexities of the dual roles inherent in mentoring is difficult.

Finally, boundary violations are the most egregious when they result in the professional or sexual exploitation of the protégé (Johnson & Huwe, 2002; Johnson & Nelson, 1999; Needels, 1998). Specifically, given the inherent power differential mentors are in a position to directly bully or subtly manipulate their protégés. Unfortunately, empirical evidence suggests that protégé exploitation does occur (Clark, Harden & Johnson, 2000; Fallow & Johnson, 2000). For example, Clark, Harden and Johnson (2000) found that 1% of protégés reported having the mentors take credit for their work, and 2% of protégés reported being sexually approached by their mentors.

In addition to stressing mentor relationships fallibility, some critics rebuke the mentor model more generally; specifically the mentor model has been criticized as both inherently impractical and ethically nebulous. With regard to impracticality, the mentor model is viewed as costing the mentor much (i.e., time, energy, and resources) and benefiting them little (i.e., mentoring is rarely rewarded by contemporary universities; Belar, 1998; Busch, 1985; Dickenson & Johnson, 2000; Wright & Wright, 1987). Thus,

some suggest dramatic changes in administrative structure are needed for mentor-protégé relationships to flourish (Belar, 1998).

In addition, mentor relationships have been criticized as posing a number of unique and difficult ethical dilemmas. For example, given the recent empirical support for their benefits, the unbiased availability of mentor relationships is now an ethical imperative (Johnson & Nelson, 2000); however, given the unique emotional and professional “fit” required (Johnson & Huwe, 2003), and the research indicating that mentor relationships cannot be assigned (Swerlik & Bardon, 1988) it seems unlikely that equitability can be assured. Also, some researchers suggest that standard ethical models addressing multiple role relationships for psychologist are not well suited to the complexity of the mentor model (Johnson & Nelson, 2000); thus, if mentoring is to be the ideal standard for graduate education ethical guidelines aimed directly at the mentor-protégé relationship are in order.

Taken together, the criticisms of the mentor model suggest that mentor relationships, despite their multiple benefits, are not without perils. Some of the dangers (e.g., mentor-protégé mismatch, mentor neglect, and boundary violations) are likely to be encountered by most protégés at some point; while other risks (e.g., sexual and professional exploitation) occur infrequently. Despite the risks, the predominant ethical models, particularly those aimed at coping with multiple relationships, are not designed to address the unique issues faced by mentors.

Limitations. Overall the literature on mentoring suggests that the mentor model is a lauded form of advisory relationship that offers considerable benefits to advisees; however, as an inclusive model of advisor-advisee relationships it has several limitations.

First, the mentor model systematically identifies and examines only predominately positive relationships. Specifically, to *be* mentored is to *be* in a professionally, socially and emotionally fulfilling relationship. As a result of its angelic definition, the mentor model discourages a view of the advisory relationship as multifaceted, incorporating some positive and some negative components and systematically eliminates exploration of negative relationships altogether.

Second, the mentor model describes an incredibly lopsided relationship. Explicitly, the theoretical literature on mentoring is fraught with the various functions to be served by mentors (i.e., mentors should be teachers, role models, colleagues, champions, etc.), but discussion of salient protégé functions are markedly limited. The imbalance of this theoretical conceptualization discourages a comprehensive view of the advisory relationship as well, focusing nearly exclusively on the adequacy of the advisor.

Thus, if a comprehensive understanding of the advisory relationship's nature and influence is to be gained, research will need to take a less idealistic more balanced theoretical perspective. Schlosser and colleagues (Schlosser, 2003; Schlosser & Kahn 2007, Schlosser & Gelso, 2001, 2005) have attempted to do just that by applying working alliance theory to the advisory relationship.

The Working Alliance Model

The most recent theoretical model of the advisor-advisee relationship applies Bordin's tripartite working alliance theory to the relationship (Schlosser, 2003; Schlosser & Kahn 2007, Schlosser & Gelso, 2001, 2005). Popularized as a pantheoretical model of the change process in psychotherapy, Bordin's (1983) *working alliance* is defined as a collaboration for change encompassing three components: (1) agreement on goals (an

implicit or explicit agreement between therapist and client regarding the goals of therapy), (2) agreement on tasks (an agreement on the in-session and out-of-session tasks that will enable the team to attain the goals) and (3) emotional bond. According to Bordin (1983), the extent to which these three ingredients are present in the relationship determines the success of the therapeutic enterprise.

Though most frequently applied to the therapeutic relationship (Horvath & Symonds, 1991; Martin, Garske, & Davis, 2000), Bordin (1979) intended the working alliance construct to be broad enough to include all change inducing relationships (e.g., teacher-student, supervisor-supervisee, etc.). It was not until 2001; however, that the working alliance construct was applied to the advisor-advisee relationship specifically (Schlosser & Gelso, 2001).

In the foundational work in the area, Schlosser and Gelso (2001) proposed that the advisory working alliance is:

that portion of the [advisory] relationship that reflects the connection between advisor and advisee that is made during work toward common goals (p. 158).

Similar to the therapeutic working alliance, the advisory working alliance is a connection, developed through the course of shared work, that provides the backdrop on which all teamwork occurs (Schlosser and Gelso, 2001). According to Schlosser and colleagues (2003; Schlosser & Kahn 2007, Schlosser & Gelso, 2001, 2005), Bordin's concepts of agreement on goals, agreement on tasks, and emotional bond translate to the advisor-advisee relationship as the constructs of rapport, identification/apprenticeship and task focus.

Specifically, Schlosser and Gelso (2001) suggest that the emotional bond component of the advisory working alliance consists of two factors: (a) rapport and (b) identification/apprenticeship. Rapport refers to the level of encouragement, respect and interpersonal warmth between advisor and advisee. Identification/apprenticeship, on the other hand, refers to the part of the emotional bond that reflects the advisee's admiration of the advisor. From the advisee's perspective this is captured by considering the advisee's desire to emulate the advisor (identification). From the advisor's perspective, it refers to the extent to which the advisor perceives that he/she serves as a role model and guide for the advisee (apprenticeship). Positive advisory relationships, from this perspective, are characterized by a high degree of rapport and identification/apprenticeship.

Bordin's concepts of agreement on goals and tasks can be seen as encompassing the career-related functions of the advisory working alliance (Schlosser, 2003). This refers to the dyads ability to adequately identify and stay focused on the task at hand and the extent to which they agree on the various roles each will play in achieving their goals (task focus; Schlosser & Gelso, 2005). From this perspective, a positive advisory relationship is characterized by high levels of task focus.

Empirical Examination. Three studies have been published examining the working alliance model of advisor-advisee relationships. Two of these studies involved the development and empirical validation of measures of the advisory alliance from the advisee perspective (Schlosser & Gelso, 2001) and advisor perspective (Schlosser & Gelso, 2005). The third study examined the extent to which advisors and advisees agree on the quality of their advisory working alliance (Schlosser & Kahn, 2007). Findings

from these articles help characterize the advisory alliance and shed light on the potential impact the alliance has on graduate student research interest, competence and self-efficacy.

First, early research seems to indicate that advisors and advisees agree on the underlying dimensions of the advisory alliance; explicitly, the two initial studies in this area both identified rapport, identification/apprenticeship and task focus³ as the three principle components which make up the advisory alliance (Schlosser & Gelso, 2001, 2005). Specifically, the first study sought to examine the advisory alliance from the advisee's perspective by surveying a national sample of 281 graduate students from counseling psychology doctoral programs about their current advisory relationship (Schlosser & Gelso, 2001). Participants in this study were asked to rank 46 statements regarding their advisory alliance on a Likert scale of agreement from 1 to 5. Factor analyses of these rankings revealed a three factor structure including: 11 items reflecting rapport (e.g., my advisor offers me encouragement on my accomplishments, my advisor takes my ideas seriously, I get the feeling that my advisor does *not* like me very much [reverse scored]); 14 items addressing the extent to which the dyad achieves specific tasks and goals of the advisory alliance (e.g., my advisor helps me conduct my work within a plan, my advisor helps me recognize areas where I can improve, meetings with my advisor are unproductive[reverse scored]) and 5 items addressing how much the

³ Notably, the term "apprenticeship" was used in the original article instead of "task focus". Specifically, apprenticeship in the first article referred to the degree to which the advisor facilitates the student's professional development and the presence of relevant developmental tasks in the advising relationship (Schlosser & Gelso, 2001). However, later work re-defined "apprenticeship" to refer to the extent which the advisor serves as an emulated role model to the advisee (Schlosser & Gelso, 2005). Simultaneously, Schlosser and Gelso introduced the term "task focus" to reflect the degree to which the advisor helps the advisee navigate graduate school and develop as a professional. In order to avoid confusion the most recent definitions of the terms are used throughout.

advisee wants to be like the advisor (e.g., I do *not* want to be like my advisor and my advisor and I have different interests [both reversed scored]).

The second study, utilizing similar methodology with advisors, found comparable results. Specifically, Schlosser and Gelso (2005) surveyed a national sample of 236 faculty members in counseling psychology doctoral programs. Participants in this study were asked to rank 50 statements regarding their working alliance with one randomly selected advisee. Factor analyses of these statements also indicated a three factor structure consisting of rapport (i.e., 15 items pertaining to the perceived amount of encouragement, respect and interpersonal warmth between the advisor and advisee), apprenticeship (i.e., 8 items reflecting the degree to which the advisor perceived the advisee as an apprentice), and task focus (i.e., 8 items which reflect the degree to which the dyad successfully maintains focus and navigates the graduate program).

In addition to agreeing on its underlying structure, advisors and advisees also seem to agree that a positive advisory alliance is related to positive research attitudes and increased research self-efficacy. Specifically, in both of the survey studies outlined above, participants were asked to provide rankings of the advisee's research attitudes and self-efficacy, and significant positive correlations were found between those rankings and rankings of the advisory alliance (Schlosser & Gelso, 2001, 2005). Additionally, advisors indicated a positive relationship between perceived advisee research competence and the quality of the alliance (Schlosser & Gelso, 2005).

Despite the similarity of advisor-advisee perceptions about what defines the alliance and its impact, advisors and advisees differ in their perceptions of the quality of "real" relationships. Specifically in their most recent study examining advisor-advisee dyads,

Schlosser and Kahn (2007) found that advisor and advisee rankings of alliance correlated only moderately ($r = .31$) and their characterizations of the positivity (i.e., feelings of confidence, clarity and happiness) of their most recent interaction did not correlate significantly. Thus, it seems that although advisors and advisees agree to a certain extent about their relationship, there also are significant points of departure. Notably, advisee's perceptions of the relationship appeared to be a better predictor of relevant outcomes than advisor perceptions. Specifically, advisee ratings of the working alliance were significantly positively correlated with: (a) advisee ratings of research self-efficacy ($r = .33$), (b) advisor ratings of advisee research competence ($r = .35$), and (c) advisor ratings of the benefits of advising the student ($r = .47$).

In addition to advisors and advisees differing in their perceptions of the alliance, advisees appear to be influenced differently by the alliance depending on their point in their graduate training program. Specifically, Schlosser and Gelso (2001) found that the correlation between alliance ratings and research self-efficacy was the highest for students who had worked with their advisor between 13-24 months (or during the second and third years of graduate training). Advisee attitudes toward research varied as well, such that the highest correlations between alliance ratings and attitudes occurred in students who had worked with their advisors between 7 and 12 months and 36 to 48 months. Based on these results Schlosser and Gelso (2001) concluded:

The above results on research self-efficacy and attitudes toward research seem to indicate an observable pattern pointing to the importance of developmental phases of research training in graduate school. Perhaps students' research attitudes and research self-efficacy have the best opportunity to be positively enhanced during the first few years of graduate school (p.165).

Taken together, Schlosser and colleagues work seems to indicate that working alliance theory may provide a viable model for examining advisor-advisee relationships. Specifically, the tripartite model applied in this research seems to bear out in factor analyses and is somewhat correlated with relevant outcomes (i.e., increased advisee research self-efficacy, competence and interest in research and advisor benefits and costs of advising). In addition the working alliance model, unlike the mentor model, is not limited by an exclusive focus on positive relationships or advisor qualities.

Despite its promise, the working alliance model is not without limitations. The central issue is that application of working alliance theory to the advisory relationship seems premature. Specifically, without a thorough knowledge of the objective dimensions of the advisory relationship it is impossible to know whether or not working alliance theory adequately surveys them. For example, do the dimensions of rapport, identification/apprenticeship, and task focus capture all of the salient advisor-advisee dynamics? Could other relational characteristics such as advisor-advisee professional and emotional “fit” play a significant role? Is a developmental process at play? What factors facilitate or interfere with an advisory dyads rapport?

Thus, if an accurate picture of the advisory relationship’s nature and influence is to be gained, in-depth exploratory research of the relationship as it exists is in order. To date two studies exist with specific aim of exploring the advisor-advisee relationship; they are detailed below.

Empirical Examination of the Advisor-Advisee Relationship

Two studies have sought to empirically investigate advisor-advisee relationships free from a theoretical framework. The first study, completed by Schlosser, Knox,

Moskovitz, and Hill (2003), aimed to explore advising relationships from the advisee perspective. This was accomplished via a qualitative research design including the semi-structured telephone interview of 16 third year counseling psychology doctoral students solicited from 12 randomly selected counseling psychology doctoral programs. Semi-structure interview topics included: (1) the description and focus of the advising relationship, (2) the level of personal and professional comfort in the relationship, (3) the expectations of the relationship, (4) the perceived costs and benefits of the relationship and (5) the strongest memory of the relationship. Researchers reported that early analyses of the interviews suggested that two qualitatively different types of relationships were being reported; specifically it appeared that there were two groups included in the sample: participants who were “satisfied” with their advising relationship and those who were “unsatisfied.” Due to this notion, researchers analyzed the data for these two groups independently and then compared the findings. Analyses from this study yielded six relevant themes.

The first theme involved advisee conceptions of the timbre of the advising relationship. Specifically, satisfied advisees described their relationships as supportive, friendly, and collegial; and felt encouraged by their advisors to pursue professional advancement either by co-authoring publication, attending professional conferences or introducing the advisee to important people. In addition, satisfied advisees described their relationships as increasing in closeness over time. In contrast, unsatisfied advisee described their relationship as cold, shallow or businesslike and decreasing in intimacy across time. Unsatisfied students also reported that their advisors seemed disinterested in

their professional development and did not encourage them to participate in professional conferences or introduce them to important people.

The second relevant theme involved the advisees' descriptions of the foci of the advising relationship. Specifically, both satisfied and unsatisfied advisees described their relationships as having multiple foci including discussion of research and negotiating program requirements. Notably, only satisfied students reported that they received career guidance as part of their advising relationship.

The third theme involved the advisee's emotional comfort in the advising relationship. Specifically, satisfied advisees reported being very comfortable in disclosing the professional, and when appropriate the personal, aspects of their lives. Satisfied advisees also noted that conflict was managed in an open and direct way. Unsatisfied advisees, on the other hand, reported being cautious in their interpersonal interactions with their advisors; expressing concerns that discussion of negative feelings or experiences could result damage to their already tenuous relationship. Perhaps, because of their discomfort in discussing anything, unsatisfied advisee also stated that their approach to conflict was avoidance.

The fourth theme involved advisees' expectations of the advising relationship. Specifically, both satisfied and unsatisfied advisees reported expecting a collegial and supportive advising relationship when entering graduate school. However, satisfied advisees reported increasing their expectations for the relationship over time, where unsatisfied advisees reported diminishing expectations.

The fifth theme involved the apparent costs and benefits of the advising relationship. Notably, both satisfied and unsatisfied advisees predominately reported nonspecific

benefits of their relationship including modeling teaching or research skills, or providing networking opportunities for the student. With regard to costs, both satisfied and unsatisfied advisees reported needing to seek outside assistance in getting some of their needs met; this was particularly true for the unsatisfied students who all reported getting their needs met outside of the advisory relationship.

The final theme involved the advisees' strongest memory of the advising relationship. Notably, among both satisfied and unsatisfied advisee groups the strongest memories were predominately positive.

In sum, this study's relevant findings suggest that both interpersonal and instructional factors influence the advising relationship. The influential interpersonal factor appears to be made of two dimensions, warmth and trust. Specifically, it seems that satisfied students describe an interpersonally warm, trusting relationship with their advisors; whereas unsatisfied students describe cold and mistrusting relationships. The instructional component factor, on other hand, is predominately related to the foci of the relationship. Specifically, advisors can potentially fulfill several professional roles in the lives of their advisee (i.e., teacher, role model, advocate, etc.) and larger the number of roles fulfilled the more indicative of a positive relationship.

The second study of advisory relationships, this time from the advisor's perspective, found similar results. Explicitly, Knox, Schlosser, Pruitt and Hill (2006), in their qualitative study of 19 advisors, found that the themes of relationship timbre, foci emotional comfort and costs and benefits translated to advisors as well. Specifically, advisors described the timbre of positive relationships as mutually respectful and reflected their positive feelings by describing the advisee in glowing terms; for example:

One advisor ... found his advisee to be dedicated, reliable, able to produce high quality work, possessing a great sense of humor and willing to go the extra mile. (p.503).

In contrast, negative relationships were characterized as disrespectful and resultant of negative advisee personal and professional qualities. For example:

As illustration, one advisor described her advisee as one of the weakest students she had seen graduate from her program and felt that the advisee's incompetence was quite time consuming (p.504).

Like advisee's, advisors uniformly described advising relationships as having multiple foci; including navigating progress through the program, advocating for advisee advancement, role modeling and discussing professional goals or career plans. Advisors also mentioned, with relationship to development of research skills, that it was their role to tailor the relationship to meet the advisee's individual needs.

Like advisees, advisors also described that emotional comfort in the relationship was important. Specifically, good relationships were characterized by open communication and a direct approach to conflict; whereas negative relationships were marked with communication problems and potential conflict avoidance. For instance,

[An] advisor reported a series of troublesome communications, including her advisee's angry response when he was told that he had been correctly paid for summer work and was not owed any more money. The advisor, in fact, stated that she felt that at some point in their relationship, she "gave the wrong answer" to her advisee, which made the advisee no longer see her as an ally (p.505).

A second advisor admitted that he dealt with advisee conflict by "patient resentment" on the part of the advisor and "passive resistance" on the part of the advisee (p.508).

Finally advisors reported considering their advising responsibilities in terms of costs and benefits. Common benefits included personal satisfaction from participating with eager students and modest external incentives (e.g., advising load considered in pay

increases). The most frequently mentioned cost was time, but advisors also mentioned their struggles to maintain adequate research productivity, juggle multiple roles and deal with the emotional side effects of bad relationships.

Like the previous study of advisee perceptions, Knox et al.'s (2006) findings suggest that the interpersonal dimensions of warmth and trust are important from the advisors perspective as well. In addition, advisors identified respect as a relevant interpersonal dimension of the relationship. Thus, it seems that good advising relationships are characteristically warm, trusting, and respectful; whereas negative relationships are distant, cautious and indifferent.

Taken together these studies provide the first steps toward developing an in-depth understanding of the advising relationship. But despite their promise, they are significantly limited by the authors' decision to categorize relationships as either "satisfied/positive" or "unsatisfied/negative." Specifically, results indicated that both satisfied/positive and unsatisfied/negative relationships were characterized along the same dimensions (i.e., interpersonal warmth, trust, and foci); thus, combining the groups did not serve to illustrate qualitatively different relationships and instead may have obscured individual variability across the dimensions and masked the relationships between the dimensions themselves. For example, it is plausible that an advisee could be "satisfied" with an interpersonally lukewarm relationship, that is only moderately trusting, but provides many professional opportunities (i.e., high numbers of foci). Thus, these studies do not allow for such a fine grained understanding of the advisory relationship.

As a result, these studies do shed some light on the dimensions which comprise advising relationships (e.g., warmth, trust, focus) but stop short of providing an integrated understanding of them. Therefore a significant gap in the literature remains, as a theoretical model deduced directly from advising relationships has yet to be developed.

The Present Study

Much remains unknown about the advisory relationship. Specifically, though the data indicate that the advising relationship is regarded as central to research training, and that the quality of that relationship appears to influence advisee attitudes toward research, competence and self-efficacy; we know very little about the dimensions that constitute the relationship. What the theoretical and empirical literature do indicate is that the relationship is composed of at least two factors: interpersonal connection (a.k.a. rapport) and instructional compatibility. What remains to be determined is: (a) whether or not these factors and dimensions represent an exhaustive list of the important components of the advising relationship and (b) how the dimensions relate to one another and combine to create unique advisory relationships.

The present study sought to fill this gap in the literature by focusing directly on the questions at hand, “What is the advising relationship?” and “How can we best characterize it?” Toward this aim, a qualitative approach was used including the collection and intensive analysis of in-depth interviews with 18 clinical psychology doctoral candidates in their fourth year of study. From these data, the dimensions of highest salience across participants have been extracted (see Chapter 3), described (see Chapter 4) and integrated into a proposed theoretical model (Chapter 5). Finally, the

primary results of the study are considered in light of previous research and the study's limitations and research and practical implications are explored at the conclusion of the document (Chapter 6).

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

Participants

Participant Recruitment

We recruited participants actively enrolled in American Psychological Association (APA) accredited clinical psychology doctoral program. Because extant literature suggested that (a) the ideal dynamics of the advisor-advisee relationship may change over time and (b) we wanted to ensure that adequate time had passed for an advisor-advisee relationship to have formed, participants were screened to include only those students who were in their fourth year or beyond and had been working with only one advisor for the duration of their training.

Given that no sampling frame existed reflecting our study criteria, the first step was to compile a list of possible participants. This was achieved by first securing a list of all APA accredited clinical psychology doctoral programs from the APA website. Next, a team of research assistants visited each program's website to determine: (a) whether it was a Ph.D. program and (b) if there was a publicly available list of current graduate students with e-mail addresses. Of the 171 clinical Ph.D. programs, 63 had available lists of graduate students. From these websites a sampling frame of 2,448 psychology graduate students was compiled.

Once the sampling frame was completed, the names and e-mail addresses of the graduate students were randomly ordered for recruitment and the recruitment team was formed. Four advanced undergraduate assistants (UA) were responsible for the solicitation of research participants as well as screening for eligibility, answering simple

questions and scheduling interview appointments. Specifically, each UA was initially assigned a caseload of 10 potential participants to contact via a recruitment email. This e-mail contained: (1) an explanation of the study, (2) a copy of the informed consent form, (3) a demographic questionnaire, and (4) a contact information sheet (see Appendices A, B, C, D). In the email, potential participants were instructed to complete the demographic questionnaire and contact information sheet to indicate willingness to participate. They were also encouraged to email their recruiter (the UA) directly with any questions or concerns. In order to increase participation rates, UA also sent two reminder e-mails at one and two weeks later. Individuals who did not respond within two weeks of the final mailing were considered recruitment failures and a new potential participant was added to the UA's caseload.

This procedure resulted in the initial solicitation of 538 graduate students. Of the graduate students contacted, 212 (39%) were not eligible to participate, most often because they were not clinical psychology students or were not in their 4th year of graduate study (for a more detailed breakdown see Table 2).

Table 2: Frequency breakdown of ineligibility

Reason for ineligibility	Number of Respondents
Not in 4 th Year	88
Not a Clinical Student	73
Recruitment e-mail returned	37
Identified self as ineligible	10
Not with advisor long enough	3
Had more than 1 advisor	1
TOTAL	212

Thus, 61% (n = 326) were potentially eligible for participation and were actively recruited for the study. Of these potential participants, 18 agreed to participate and completed all study materials. Thus, 308 advisees refused participation in the study by directly declining participation (n = 7, 2%), ignoring recruitment efforts (n = 298, 97%) or by ceasing contact after completing only the initial study materials (n = 3, 1%).

Sample Characteristics

The final sample consisted of 18 clinical psychology doctoral students from various clinical Ph.D. programs located throughout the United States. With regard to demographic composition, participants were primarily European-American (72%) and female (77%) between the ages of 25 and 33. Advisees also provided demographic information on their advisors who were equally split with regard to gender, primarily European-American (89%), with estimated ages ranging from 30-70 (modal age bracket equal to 40-50 years) and who had a wide range of advising experience (5-30 years of advising).

Participants were paid \$6.25/hour for their participation (\$25.00 for an approximate total of 4 hours). In addition, once participants completed all study materials they were given an additional \$15.00 Starbucks gift card.

Procedure

Semi-Structured Interview

In order to assess participants' global perceptions of their current advisor-advisee relationship, a semi-structured interview was composed and pilot-tested (see copy in Appendix E). The questions were predominantly open-ended and the interview was

gradually modified throughout the course of data collection/analysis to ensure adequate sampling of emergent themes (see Appendix F for the final version of the interview including the dates that new questions were added). The overarching aim of the interview was to encourage participants to provide a comprehensive description of their advising relationship. Specifically, participants were queried regarding: (a) their broad perspectives on the relationship, (b) their understanding and lived experience of the tasks and goals of the relationship, (c) their interpersonal and emotional experience of the relationship, and (d) their observations of changes in the relationship over time. Notably, the semi-structured interview was initially pilot-tested on a convenience sample of three local graduate students in order to get an accurate approximate length and ensure that the constructs were adequately sampled. Feedback from the convenience sample was generally positive and few changes were made to the original interview.

Data Collection

Once recruited, potential participants scheduled an appointment to review the informed consent and complete the semi-structured interview via an audio-taped telephone conversation with the primary investigator. The initial interview took approximately one-and-a-half hours. After the initial interview was transcribed, checked and coded by the primary investigator, participants were scheduled for a “follow-up” telephone appointment. The follow-up appointment was included to provide an opportunity for the primary investigator to ask any new questions that may have arisen and for the participants to clarify any of their earlier responses. At this time, participants were provided a summary of their responses and were asked to (1) consider the accuracy of the summary and (2) report any important information that was not included in the

original summary. Follow-up appointments were scheduled an average of 8 weeks post interview and lasted approximately 15-20 minutes. After the follow-up interviews were transcribed, checked and reviewed by the primary investigator, any new, significant or contrary information gleaned from the follow-up interview was coded.

Data Analysis

Preparing and Refining the Data

Participants' data were prepared in the following way. First, two senior UA were responsible for data transcription on the project. Specifically, each UA transcribed half of the interviews (9 initial interviews and 9 follow-up interviews) into text formatted documents and double-checked the other half of the interviews by listening to the interview tape recording of the interview and reading the transcript simultaneously.

Second, the transcript was read and summarized by the primary investigator. During this process, each transcript was examined and segmented into themes which were compared and at times combined into small homogenous categories. In an attempt to convey participant meaning fully, transcripts were coded by homogeneity of content rather than a predetermined criterion at this stage. This resulted in a wide range of segment sizes (i.e., segments from 3 words to 495 words). Once created, the units were labeled, utilizing the participants' actual words as closely as possible. Next, the labeled units were compared and slowly consolidated into homogeneous categories. Notably, this stage of coding occurred in a recursive fashion and allowed some themes to be incorporated into subsequent interviews, thereby culminating in additional questions at the end of the interview. The data collection and coding process continued past

saturation, or the point at which no new themes were being generated; specifically, saturation was reached after the 9th participant. At the end of first-order coding 47 homogeneous themes were identified.

After the point of saturation, each theme was then refined, compared and organized into larger, second-order categories. The *Xsight* software package for qualitative data analyses was used to aid in this process (Richards, 2006). *Xsight* allows participant transcripts to be imported into the software program, segmented and sorted into “bins.” During this round of coding, “bins” were originally created and named after the first-order themes that were identified during the initial phase of coding; from this point these themes will be referred to as first-order bins. This process allowed for these concepts to be grouped together and easily compared across participants. Next, the first-order bins were reviewed by both looking at the segments within bins for homogeneity and examining across bins for thematic similarities. First-order bins were then either: (1) collapsed with other similar bins (e.g., “advisee likes advisor” and “advisee feels warmly toward advisor” were collapsed into “warmth”) or (2) subsumed within a second-order category (e.g., the “warmth” bin was categorized under the second order category of “warmth-hostility”). The secondary stage of coding resulted in the review and consolidation of the 47 first-order bins into 14 second-order categories. Next, the 15 second-order categories were further consolidated into 4 emergent themes. This was completed through a series of meetings between the research supervisor and the primary investigator in which ideas were shared, developed and evaluated. Finally, the 4 emergent themes were compared and organized into a proposed integrative theoretical model.

Addressing Trustworthiness

In an attempt to increase the *trustworthiness* of this study, Henwood and Pidgeon's (1992) recommendations for maximizing objectivity in qualitative research were employed including: (1) reflexivity, (2) documentation, (3) keeping close to the data, (4) sensitivity to negotiated realities, and (7) examining for transferability.

Reflexivity refers to the extent to which the researcher's logical processes and predispositions are made explicit. This study attempted to maximize reflexivity by: (a) systematically documenting analytic decisions and emergent theoretical ideas via *Xsight* and (b) publicly disclosing the primary investigator's predispositions at the outset of the study, a procedure commonly known as *bracketing*. The primary investigator's bracketing document can be found in Appendix G.

Another way of appraising a study's trustworthiness is by examining the extent to which the investigators are transparent about and *document the research process* (Henwood & Pidgeon, 1992). Documentation provides a valuable evaluative tool or "paper-trail" available for external audit (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Toward this aim, a table listing of the four emergent themes, and the second-order categories and first-order bins they subsume can be found in Appendix H. In this fashion, the process of theory building will be open to evaluation.

Keeping close to the data refers to the notion that good qualitative research is characterized by a close fit between the researcher derived categories, themes and theories and the actual data (Henwood & Pidgeon, 1992). This study attempted to keep close to the data by having a second researcher (the research supervisor) oversee the coding of data at all stages. Specifically, to ensure that the coded data remained reflective

of the material in the transcripts, the research supervisor examined 22% of transcripts as they had been originally coded; over-seeing the 1st, 3rd, 5th and 7th coded transcripts.

During the secondary stage of coding, the research supervisor and the primary investigator met weekly to discuss and track the collapsing of bins into the second-order categories and to begin elucidating the relationships between categories creating the four emergent themes.

At the completion of this stage, the research supervisor worked to ensure the reliability of the participant data via the following method. First, the research supervisor was provided a list of the 4 emergent themes, 14 second-order categories and 47 subsumed first-order themes. He was also provided with a list of 50 randomly selected segments of transcript. Then the research supervisor coded each segment at each level (emergent theme, second-order category and bin). From this process three inter-rater reliability coefficients were calculated, one at the emergent theme level, one at the second-order level and one at the bin level. Specifically, if the research supervisor chose the emergent theme in which the segment was coded, then this was considered a “hit” at the emergent theme level; if the research supervisor additionally chose the second-order category in which the segment was coded then this was considered a “hit” at the second-order level; and, finally if the research supervisor chose the bin in which the segment was coded, the segment was considered a “hit” at the bin level. The percent agreement between raters calculated via this process was .92, .84 and .82 at the theme, category and bin levels, respectively. In addition, inter-rater reliability was also examined via the calculation of a kappa statistic at the emergent and second-order levels; .88 and .80,

respectively. Taken together, the percent agreement and kappa statistics indicate very strong inter-rater reliability.

Given that much qualitative inquiry seeks to elicit and represent participants' experience, Henwood and Pidgeon (1992) suggest that it is valid to explore the extent to which participants agree with the representation captured by the emerging theory; which they refer to as *sensitive to negotiated realities*. Therefore, they suggest getting feedback from participants (whenever reasonable). In keeping with this idea, all participants were offered and accepted an opportunity to comment on the initial coding of their data and provide feedback via follow-up appointments. In all cases, participants' overall feedback was in agreement with summaries provided and assurances that their experience was captured with accuracy. In two cases significant new material was discovered. In these cases, this material was integrated into the coding.

Finally, Henwood and Pidgeon (1992) suggest contextualizing the theory within prevailing literature. This provides a preliminary examination of the transferability of the theory to other persons/settings. The findings in this study will be contextualized in a comprehensive discussion section at the conclusion of the document.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS: EMERGENT THEMES

To better understand the nature of the relationship between clinical psychology doctoral students and their advisors I began by identifying themes that emerged from the qualitative interviews of the doctoral candidates. Four core themes describing the advising relationship emerged; specifically that advising relationships are: (1) interpersonal relationships, (2) goal-oriented relationships, (3) contextual relationships, and (4) dynamic relationships. Each of these themes will be discussed in depth below.

An Interpersonal Relationship

Participants' descriptions overwhelmingly indicated that a central component of the advising relationship is its interpersonal nature; accordingly, the bulk of their comments included some reference to interpersonal dynamics or emotions (e.g., friendly or cold, distant or close, comfortable or distressing). Though advisees used a variety of terms to describe their relationships, four overarching dimensions were derived: (a) temperature (warm vs. cold), (b) control (freeing vs. controlling), (c) investment (invested vs. disinterested) and (d) security (secure vs. insecure).

Temperature

The first interpersonal component of the advising relationship that emerged from the interviews was the dimension of temperature. Temperature is used here to refer to the degree of interpersonal affiliation in the relationship ranging from warm to hostile. On one end of the dimension is warmth; characterized by mutual respect, compassion, support, affirmation, approval, caring and liking. For example, participants in this study

used terms such as “supportive,” “friendly,” “warm,” “mutually respectful” and “accepting” to describe their relationships. On the other end of the dimension is hostility; characterized by mutual animosity, disrespect, criticism, conflict, and resentment; for instance participants used terms such as “angry,” “frustrating,” and “bitter” to describe relationships that were characterized by hostility. Notably, temperature was occasionally discussed using global terms; for example:

*It’s a warm relationship that I have with my advisor.*⁴

However, temperature was also conveyed via specific comments advisees made about their advisors. For example, advisees frequently commented about the emotions they felt for their advisors.

I really like her.

They also frequently mentioned the emotions they perceived from the advisors towards them.

I really always feel appreciated.

I think that he’s pleased and proud of me.

However, regardless of the comments direction (e.g., from advisee toward advisor, or from advisor toward advisee) or specificity (e.g., I really like my advisor or It’s a warm relationship I have with my advisor), all were viewed as a reflection of the global temperature of the relationship.

In addition, participants conveyed feelings of warmth or hostility through their tone. For instance, participants who felt warmly about their advisors frequently minimized

⁴ Quotes have been edited throughout for confidentiality purposes (e.g., changing names, locations, etc.) and for readability (e.g., deleting repeated words and filler phrases (e.g., like, you know, uhm)

short-comings in their advisors. For example, one advisee when asked what his frank, critical feedback was for his advisor replied:

Wow... I think (laughter)... give students a little input about their projects and help them shape them a little bit, but don't kind of take over and make them these enormous things. I think that's really it, everything else is really positive. So I don't want to exaggerate that either. It makes things longer and more difficult especially the analysis, but you know that's really only the negative feedback I'd give. Everything else [is great]; I mean I speak very highly of him when I speak with colleagues. So everything else is really strong.

Another tonal indication of warmth was the sharing of positive stories, particularly stories that indicated comfortable familiarity, approval and/or respect. For example, one advisee shared stories about her advisor's commitment to biking and her respect for this:

This woman bikes to and from work every chance she can and is seventy! And we want to sign her up for the Amazing Race because we think she'd kick everyone's ass.

Similarly, hostility was frequently conveyed through tone. In this circumstance, participants frequently maximized short-comings. For example, one disgruntled advisee responded curtly when asked how her advisor felt about her:

[Interviewer] How do you think your advisor feels about you?

[Participant] I don't think my advisor feels.

Another tonal indication of hostility was the sharing of negative stories; particularly stories that demonstrated disapproval or criticism. For example, one advisee told a story about her advisor's "strange" behavior at a conference which reflected her overall disapproval of him.

We, as a lab, took a trip to Jacksonville with him to collect some data at an agency that partners with our lab. Then after a day of on-site data collection some of the agency officials involved with our project wanted to take the students out for a beer at their favorite bar and my advisor came along. So in the middle of a conversation at the bar, he just announces

that he has to leave. And all of his students thought “Whoa that’s really weird!” because the agency head administrator was with us and it’s unlike my advisor to leave when there are very important people around. So he left and showed up several hours later back at the hotel and he looked disheveled. We all figured that he was having an affair with some woman. And the next day he has the audacity to have a big fight over the phone with his wife in front of all of his students at the agency where we were collecting data!

Taken together, these results suggest that from the advisee’s perspective, advising relationships are not just, or even predominantly, working relationships; instead, the core of the advising relationship appears to be a human-human interaction that elicits affective responses (e.g., happiness, anger, gratitude, or bitterness) from advisees. Further, these affective responses are demonstrated by both direct commentaries about the relationship and also in the tone with which the details of the relationship are relayed.

Notably, the temperature of the advising relationship was not a simple dichotomy (e.g., participants could not always be easily categorized into globally warm or hostile relationships). Instead closer examination of this dimension revealed that temperature is a truly multifaceted, dynamic and dimensional construct. First, temperature appears to vary in intensity (i.e., some participants experience more intense feelings of warmth or hostility than others). For example, one participant appeared to have very strong, positive affect towards his advisor.

It’s a really positive interpersonal relationship... I think very highly of him in many areas of his life. And I feel like he thinks very highly of me... I respect him very much.

Yet, another advisee, who also felt warmly toward her advisor, described a much less intense experience.

I think she’s great...I think she feels fine about me, like I don’t think she has any ill will towards me. I don’t think she has any negative feelings about me at all.

Consistently, hostility was also experienced as varying in intensity. For example, one participant expressed very intense negative affect towards her advisor.

And now I'm more angry... he's basically being an asshole... He's the one being inappropriate and not helpful.

In contrast, another advisee described an overall cold relationship but with less intense negative affect.

I would say, like cool. It's not completely cold because there are times when I'm around him, like where we get along well. And I feel happy in the moment or whatever. But it's not really warm at all, but it's not totally cold.

Second, several participants had mixed conceptions of the temperature of the relationship that included elements of both warmth and hostility. For example, this participant conveyed feelings of appreciation and gratitude during parts of the interview:

I would say that I have a very good relationship with my research advisor... She makes me feel good... I do feel that I'm appreciated

At other times she expressed more hostile sentiments:

I would say she is as much a stumbling block to getting through as she is a benefit for propelling me forward. And that's sometimes difficult because some days I can be angry about it and some days I'm very satisfied with it.

Finally, others directly expressed feelings of ambivalence towards their advisor. For example, one participant put it this way:

It's very much a love-hate relationship, I guess. Not hate, hate's a strong word. It's an up and down rollercoaster relationship. Some weeks I love her and I'm so grateful to be in her lab. There's so many wonderful opportunities that I get... Those are [the] times that I realize that I'm really fortunate to be working with her. Because she is very motivated and very good at what she does. And then there's other times, when basically, she makes me feel like an idiot or inferior and then I think "Oh, my God, why?!" It almost feels like a psychologically abusive relationship at times.

Another participant stated it this way:

[Interviewer] Describe for me how you feel about your advisor.

[Participant] Um...(long pause) Kind of ambivalent, I guess...

[Interviewer] Can you tell me about the sides of that ambivalence?

[Participant] Yeah, I'm very appreciative of her strengths...

[Interviewer] So there's a lot of gratitude?

[Participant] There's a lot of gratitude, but also anger at having to do so much to stay in her good graces...But again, I'm very appreciative and again, I appreciate her strengths, and I'm just also very aware of her weaknesses and sort of, yeah disappointed by that. And I'm angry about it.

Thus, although dimensional, temperature is neither static nor simple; instead it is rich, multifaceted and varies in intensity.

In addition to providing an indication of the relationship's current temperature, participants also noted the ways that temperature is communicated in the relationship. Specifically, advisees discussed temperature as being communicated both directly and indirectly. Direct warmth was experienced via concrete, observable behaviors. For example, one direct form of warmth was compliments or praise.

She says she's very happy with me; that when she interviewed me she had a really good vibe about me...she just says that she's always really proud of me and that she's very happy with me as a student.

She is constantly giving praise: "You did a good job on this project" or "Thanks for getting these letters out" or "Thanks for turning this around for me." And that makes me feel very good; it makes me feel appreciated.

Another example of direct warmth was gestures of encouragement.

I think because when you go into a defense or something, she'll even say, "Like, look, you're the expert on this to be quite honest. You know more than anyone else in the room on this subject." And that's a good feeling, really enabling. [It gives me] a feeling of confidence and competence too, which is really nice.

Participants also noted that warm feelings were conveyed in an indirect manner. Whereas direct warmth was often communicated via verbal modes of communication, indirect warmth seemed to be communicated “under the surface” or via nonverbal and behavioral modes of communication. For example, one participant described how her advisor is “interpersonally awkward at first” but that over time the participant saw that “through her actions” that she is warm and caring:

I would say that at the beginning I felt that she was an authoritarian, like a parent that was mad at you or something. But it's not like what you might see or think at first. Then you start to see the warmer side that's indirect, not as apparent. And you start to feel like, “Oh okay, she really does like me, okay.” Well, then I can like her back. And I really do like her as a person.

Similarly hostility could be communicated directly or indirectly. Direct hostility was experienced via criticism or open mutual dislike. For example, one participant described that her advisor had repeatedly told her that she was “unreliable,” “not serious about research,” and “should find another advisor.” When asked about what her advisor’s frank feedback would be she said:

I think he'd probably have to tell me he doesn't think I'm made for research, but that's okay. I mean it wouldn't be the first time he's said that...It's harsh. I mean to hear that when you're in a research based program is pretty harsh

Another participant described a moment where she relayed her feelings of resentment and frustration to her advisor directly. Specifically, one advisee was angry with her advisor because she felt that her advisor had accepted her into the program based solely on her ethnic background.

I mean I've told my advisor that [I think] the only reason why she took me into the program was because I'm black. She got frustrated by it, but I repeated it and I think she understood.

Participants also noted that hostility could be conveyed in an indirect manner. For example, a participant described a story in which her advisor publicly corrected her grammar.

I was in a lab meeting and it was early in the morning and I was tired. And I was giving her like a really detailed update of our semester progress of everything we've done because I ran two studies in the lab and um, I said the data is ready to go. And she stopped me in front of the entire lab, all the undergraduate RAs and everything and she said "Ahaha, you mean the data are ready to go." And it was just sort of very condescending and how she said it was very embarrassing.

Another participant described how her advisor communicated hostility by ignoring her in professional gatherings outside of school.

Sometimes it's kind of awkward. [For example] at conferences he rarely acknowledges me. I can go up and say hi to him and he'll kind of say hi and walk away as if he didn't know who I am.

Thus, in addition to having a global experience of the temperature of the relationship, participants also recollected and reported their lived experience of temperature. Specifically, participants reported that temperature was directly communicated via compliments and criticism; yet was also experienced indirectly via nonverbal and behavioral inference.

In sum, advising relationships are experienced as including elements of warmth and hostility. Participants expressed their experience of these emotions both in the specific content of their interviews, but also in the tone with which they shared their stories. Participants also provided insight into the ways in which these feelings are communicated in the relationship; specifically, both warmth and hostility were described as being

communicated directly and indirectly. Finally, participants were neither uniform nor static in their experience of warmth and hostility, some feeling it more intensely than others and some experiencing more complex emotions toward their advisors (e.g., ambivalence).

Control

The second interpersonal component of the advising relationship that emerged from the interviews was the advisee's perceptions of the amount of control present in their advising relationship. Control here broadly refers to an interpersonal dimension ranging from freeing to controlling and reflects the degree to which advisees felt regulated, dominated or under the command of their advisors on one hand (controlled) or liberated or affirmed on the other hand (freed). Specifically, advisees' used terms such as "independent," "freeing," "hands off," and "collegial" to describe relationships characterized by lower levels of control; and terms such as "hands on," "pressured," and "controlling" to describe relationships characterized by higher levels of control. Similar to temperature, control was sometimes discussed in global terms:

He's very hands off and allows his lab members to do their work independently.

But was predominantly shared via specific ways their advisor treats them or makes them feel.

He didn't want to study kids but I'm really interested in kids so he let me, he lets me chose what I want to do. I have a lot of freedom in that regard.

It's a collaborative process between us; sharing ideas versus, "here's the idea with this research, go look up this material and come back to me, and then we'll talk about it."

Notably, the level of control was quite often described by participants in a manner that reflected their opinion (positive or negative) about the amount control present. Positive opinion, however, was not universally tied to either end of the dimension. For example, participants who appreciated the amount of freedom in their relationships described it as “collegial,” “respectful,” “collaborative” and “trusting;” while unsatisfied participants perceived their freedom as “neglectful” or “dismissive.” Similarly, those who appreciated the control in their relationships described it as “supportive” or “nurturing” whereas those who disliked the amount of control described it as “micromanaging” or “taking advantage.” Thus, the data suggested that advisees’ preference for and comfort with control plays a key role in how advisees experience and describe their advising relationships.

Like temperature, level of control is not a simple dichotomy, in that it is experienced in degrees (e.g., some “controlling” relationships are more controlling than others) and is multifaceted (e.g., advisors can be controlling in some areas and not others). For example, some “free” participants were free to set the agenda for their meetings, but still had to meet weekly; whereas other participants were free to set the agenda and meet as needed. Also some participants noted freedom in some, but not all, aspects of their relationship. For example, one participant noted a large degree of latitude in her advisory relationship with regard to career choice:

[Interviewer] So she wants to help you figure out what career you want?

[Participant] Yeah, exactly! ... I mean she does work with program evaluation and it seems like she’s applying that to life. [For example], [encouraging me to evaluate] what am I doing and do I enjoy this? And if not, what should I do? What else could I try? Within psychology obviously, not “You should drop this and become marine biologist.”

Yet the same participant experienced her advisor as quite critical and controlling regarding research manuscripts.

Basically I said to her, “Look, you know, um, the way I’ve been getting feedback from you really, really makes me want to give up and makes me feel like I’ll never be a successful clinical psychology student.”

Thus, control is a dynamic dimension which varies intensity between participants and sometimes by context within participants.

In addition to providing information about the level of control present in the relationship, participants also described the ways in which control is communicated within their relationship. Like temperature, control was communicated both directly and indirectly. Direct control was experienced via concrete, observable behaviors. For example, sometimes advisors exerted direct control by making demands.

She certainly tells me when she wants things from me

Because that’s really it. It’s like “oh, you’ve defended your masters, oh, you’ve passed Prelims. Congratulations, now we can start working on blah, blah, blah.”

Advisors also exhibited control by monitoring advisee behavior.

[We’ll be] working on a project, like a research proposal, she’ll have a great idea and try to connect me with someone else, another researcher who might be able to give me feedback on something. And she’ll want to preview the email before I send it.

Participants also reported experiencing direct control through their advisor’s implementation and enforcement of standards of practice.

I would say more at that she’s not gonna let me get away with something that’s not good quality, which I appreciate. ... because she holds me to a higher standard. I don’t need to speculate about that. She said so.

Finally, participants reported experiencing control when their advisor’s rebuked their choices or behavior.

Let me give you an example. If we do something in the department without telling him about it first, and then when I do tell him about it, he's like, "You really should have talked to me about that before you agreed. Here's all the reasons why you shouldn't, and you shouldn't have agreed to do that without talking to me."

If I say something in a meeting that he doesn't like then he might react really strongly to me about it [later].

Control was also described as occurring indirectly, or below the surface. Specifically, advisees described hearing their advisors say one thing, but more largely communicating another:

I think if I were to ask him, he would say, "Oh no, there are many different ways in which one can do this". But, but I think ultimately the message that he sends in his behaviors and in the advice that he gives, is that his way is the only way.

Participants also described experiencing direct control through demands disguised as suggestions.

"Here's this, here's that, you should go to this; I think this would helpful to you". But it's not just here's this opportunity. A lot of times, it feels like, you have to do it, or that you should.

Although, control was experienced both directly and indirectly, participants exclusively described freedom as being communicated indirectly. For example, advisees perceived advisors as offering freedom, when their dialogues "felt" collaborative (rather than directive).

I feel like an equal to her in some ways. Well, I don't have the three letters at the end of my name [yet]. She never treats me like a grad student, like indentured servant. She never treats me like free labor.

Indirect freedom was also communicated via allowing the advisee to ask for meetings rather than setting scheduled meetings.

He's not the type of advisor where he has regular lab meetings. So even though I would do some work within his lab we never have regular meetings, so I didn't interact with him that way.

Participants also reported experiencing freedom when they were allowed to make important decisions or generate and shape research ideas independently.

As I have gotten further in the program, he's trusted me more with important decisions, with regard to the lab and [other] graduate students.

She's generally respectful [of] my opinion and I mean she will have comments here and there to improve my research but generally she lets me take the lead.

Finally, freedom was also communicated by the absence of controlling behaviors.

I've been in many labs as an undergrad and seeing many of my peers go through this program, and they're advisors are really work, work, work, work, work all the time. No exceptions. You're in the hospital, "why isn't your lab with you?" (Laughing) And my advisor is quite the opposite.

Therefore, in addition to having a global experience of the degree of control, participants also reported their lived experience of the dimension. Specifically, participants reported that control was directly communicated via demands, monitoring behavior, standards and direct rebuke. Control was communicated indirectly via nonverbal behaviors and the perception that some "suggestions" were actually demands. Freedom, on the other hand, was described as communicated only indirectly; predominantly through the absence of controlling behaviors and the permission/encouragement to work independently.

In sum, results suggest that control is a dimension of the advising relationship ranging from freeing to controlling with advisees varying with regard to their preference for either control or freedom in the relationship. Control as a construct was also described as

truly dimensional (varies by degree) and multifaceted (varies by context). Finally, control is communicated to and experienced by advisees via direct and indirect mechanisms.

Investment

The third interpersonal component of the advising relationship that emerged from the interviews was the level of investment. Investment refers to each individual's practical and/or emotional stake in the relationship; specifically, how much each individual cares about, or will be impacted by, the success or failure of the relationship.

Unlike the previous dimensions, investment was never described holistically (e.g., including elements of both advisors and advisees investment) but rather was discussed exclusively by describing each individual's stake independently. Most explicit in the advisee's interviews were their assessments of their advisor's stake in the relationship. For example, participants who found their advisors to be invested described them as "invested," "accessible," "connected," and/or "engaged;" whereas disinterested advisors were described as "disconnected," "inaccessible" or "distant." Like temperature and control, investment was dimensional (e.g., some advisors were described as more invested than others) and was communicated via global assessments and specific experiences.

I find my advisor to be incredibly engaged.

She responds to my emails quickly and very thoroughly...you can tell she put some time into them.

Though many participants utilized the terms "engaged" or "invested," they often did not mean exactly the same thing. Specifically, when probed about what they meant by engagement or investment participants typically responded in one of two ways, resulting in two sub-types of investment: *professional investment* and *emotional investment*.

Professional Investment

Professional investment refers to the advisor's stake in the advisee's development as a researcher or more broadly as a psychological professional and can be considered a dimension ranging from *professionally invested* to *professionally disinterested*.

Intimately tied to participants' assessments of professional investment were assessments of their advisors accessibility, attention and overall commitment to advising.

Specifically, the advisor's level of accessibility was closely tied to the advisee's perceptions of professional investment such that advisors who were viewed as *professionally invested* were also seen as readily available to their advisee.

I mean it's not like we meet every single day or even every single week, but even then we always joke you can email her at one in the morning and she'll get back to you at three in the morning. So, even when she's not physically here she is available to us

Concordantly, advisors who were described as *professionally disinterested* were viewed as inaccessible.

And it's harder to have meetings with him and whatnot.

Participants also viewed their advisors as *professionally invested* if they provided undivided attention.

Whenever she reads a manuscript or your paper or a dissertation proposal, you know you're getting her undivided attention. And that she's really reading it carefully.

Professional disinterest, on the other hand, was communicated by being inattentive or not fully present.

So even when he's in the room with me; he's not really present... he's mentally elsewhere, checking his e-mail, taking phone calls during the middle of meetings... those sorts of things.

Finally, advisors were viewed as *professionally invested* if they were perceived as committed to advising as a whole.

She prioritizes her grad students and responds very quickly. And just, puts a lot of work into what we do.

However, *professionally disinterested* advisors were viewed as lacking commitment to advising as a whole.

I think that if he had it his way, he would just not have to advise at all.

In sum, advisees who described their advisors as professionally invested also saw them as accessible, attentive and committed; whereas, advisees who described their advisors as professional disinterested described them as inaccessible, inattentive and uncommitted.

Emotional Investment

In addition to professional investment, some advisors were described being *emotionally invested*. Emotional investment refers to the advisor's stake in the emotional well-being of the relationship or in the advisee as a whole person; it can be considered a dimension ranging from *emotionally invested* to *emotionally disinterested*. Participants typically discussed their advisor's emotional investment by describing them as "connected" or "close," "distant" or "disengaged." Advisors who were viewed as having high levels of emotional investment were characterized as having holistic concern for the advisee or concern about the advisee's endeavors outside of graduate school.

She's really supportive of both [my] research endeavors but also any personal decisions I may make.

Advisors with high levels of emotional investment were also described as "believing" "having faith" in the advisee.

He has faith in my abilities that are sometimes stronger than my own. [He encourages me] to take more risks and put myself out there in ways that I

don't think I would've been able to do on my own. So, even when I don't believe I can say something on this topic or write this or that paper, when I may have doubted whether or not I had anything worthwhile to say, he encourages me to have confidence in myself...I've succeeded much more than I ever would have had he not encouraged me and had faith in me.

Emotionally invested advisors were further described as welcoming dialogue with their advisees about a wide variety of topics.

I'd say that he's always willing to take time out to discuss whatever I want. If I have questions about clinical work, if I ask questions about research, if I ask questions about my future career and job opportunities he'll take as much time as I need, per day to do it...You can come talk to him about any other aspect of your training or even juggling your life with your training. He's happy to discuss it with you and troubleshoot with you.

Emotionally invested advisors were also described as providing a comfortable amount of self disclosure.

We can joke about things, and I know that there're different boundaries that [we have as] advisor-advisee... but that is not to say that he would be completely closed off. And we still talk about little things, places he has been to recently. Even in lab meetings, we've talked about some really irrelevant or just interesting things that might be happening.

Emotional disinterest, on the other hand, was communicated by focused (rather than open) dialogue.

So, definitely getting me ready for my career is how I would describe our relationship and nothing more than that... It's all business. There's nothing else at all. We don't ever talk about personal things or anything like that.

I don't tend to talk to him about anything unrelated to my research unless it pertains to whether or not my TAs or RAs take up too much time. So in terms of my clinical work especially, I don't tend to go to him about that kind of stuff.

Emotional disinterest was also characterized by feelings of uncertainty about advisors' perceptions or opinions.

I often wonder that actually. What does she think about me? Does she respect me? I know that she really values my work and my work ethic, but outside of that I'm not really sure.

I guess I can't say much more about what I think he thinks about me just because he doesn't share that much.

Taken together these results suggest that advisees experience a large degree of variability with regard to their advisors' investment in the advising relationship. Specifically, some advisors were perceived to be neither professionally nor emotionally invested, some only professionally but not emotionally invested and still others both professionally and emotionally invested.

Notably, both professional and emotional advisor investment were considered very valuable to advisees; topping the list as the most valuable aspect of the advising relationship for those who had it (e.g., named as their favorite aspect of their relationships) and for many of those who did not (e.g., named as their least favorite aspect of the relationship). For example, one participant who felt satisfied with her advisor's overall level of professional investment (e.g., successful at producing research), still felt a large degree of dissatisfaction with the relationship that was related to her advisor's level of emotional investment:

[Interviewer] So, um, it sounds like you had an expectation that she would be interested in you more as a whole person.

[Participant] Yeah... Yes, exactly! Wow, thank you. You just articulated how I've been feeling for the last 5 years... I'm a whole person, and I have a life, and I have other things to offer than just writing papers and doing your research. Like, like there's a certain level of respect that you expect from someone, and I feel sort of like a machine. Like, I'm there to pump out publications and do my work... I expected her to treat me like whole person and I don't feel like I get that.

In addition to describing their perceptions of their advisors' stake in the relationship, several initial advisee interviews also included indirect/subtle statements regarding their own investment in the relationship. Thus, while advisees very rarely described themselves as "invested," "engaged," or "disinterested;" they frequently referred to the professional or emotional significance of the advising relationship. For example, one advisee indicated that her relationship with her advisor had "changed [her] as a person;" and another advisee repeatedly stated how his advisor has "played a huge role in [his] success." Also, although not all advisees directly discussed the emotional significance of the advising relationship, it was observed (e.g., through tone and level of emotional expressivity) that nearly all participants in this study cared a great deal about the relationship.

This was such a predominant theme that it was incorporated as a direct question into later interviews. The addition of this question made this implicit theme explicit. Specifically, all participants who were directly asked about the significance of their relationship with their advisor indicated that the relationship was a highly significant relationship to them.

[Interviewer] How significant is this relationship to you?

[P10] It's been a pretty important relationship in my life... It's one I won't be upset to get away from once it's [over] ... I'm looking forward to being done and getting out of here.

[P011] I would say it's super influential.

[P012] I mean I think in terms of my career it's probably um, going to be the most important relationship I'll ever have.

[P013] I think I try to make it not too important to me because I'm disappointed with it. I think it would be really important to me if I satisfied. But I guess it's important [enough] to cause me a lot of anxiety

and distress sometimes, so I guess it is important. But, I don't know if that's a good thing.

[P014] It's quite important. I respect her, compared to anyone else I've interacted with academically I respect her the most.

[P015] It's really important to my graduate training.

[P016] I mean, it's really significant.

[P017] Very significant... It's significant enough that if my advisor were to have ever up and left the university, I would have gone with her.

[P018] It's an important relationship; let's put it this way...I don't think that I would have wanted anyone else in our department as my advisor... for all the faults that we've discussed and all the difficulties, I don't think I would have [it any differently].

Overall, participants universally indicated that the advising relationship has a high significance. Stated another way, the “stakes” for the advisees in this study were universally high. This suggests that advisees are all invested (at least to some degree) in the experience and outcome of the advising relationship.

Like advisors, however, advisees did show variability in the types (professional vs. emotional) of investment they put into the relationship. This theme was apparent in two ways: via the discussion of relationship ruptures and the presence of boundaries. Specifically, participants were asked how a significant rupture might influence their relationship with their advisor. Rupture here is defined as a significant break, breach or conflict in the relationship. In response to this question, the salience of the professional or emotional investment of the advisee became apparent. Specifically, advisees who identified as predominantly professionally invested tended to focus on the practical impact of the rupture.

I don't want to let her down, primarily because I am afraid it's going to hurt my career.

If [a rupture] happened now, I feel like I'm well developed enough that it would be okay. I guess it wouldn't be okay but... it would be a big disadvantage in the sense that the collaborations that we [are] both [working on] right now are still mostly her. I mean she's PI on the projects so if I had a rupture within my relationship with my advisor I couldn't continue to work with her at all on the projects and that would basically be a huge detriment to my research work.

In contrast, advisees who identified as predominantly emotionally invested tended to focus on the emotional impact of the rupture.

[I would] probably [feel] quite lost. Mostly because I do see it as such an important relationship to me, but if anything were to happen to the relationship in the sense that I didn't feel that he was supporting me or things like that I really don't know what I would do.

*Man! I, *sigh* I think that it would probably impact me more emotionally than it would affect my progress in the program. And so, I'm not concerned about my progress in the program. But because we've had a positive working relationship if something were to happen where *sigh* whether it was a rupture or whether it was you know, a complete break for whatever reason, I think that it would be pretty difficult for me to get through and to process. I would probably question, where it is that I went wrong. It was such a positive relationship why did this happen? or how could this have happened?*

In addition, advisees articulated the difference between professional and emotional investment by discussing "boundaries." Specifically, a few participants mentioned that they made deliberate decisions about limiting their emotional investment in the relationship.

I think we have a professional relationship that's probably not as boundary oriented as I usually am with people. It's probably a little bit more blurred, but I do think it's very professional. This is my work, and I'm very much my work and my home. And, I don't like them mixed too much.

I do not have a relationship with her where I share very much at all about my personal life. I don't tell her most of the time what I'm thinking about her; while working in the lab, I generally do my own thing and rely on her

when I need support, on a professional level, but never on a personal level.

I've told him about specific things that were going on in my personal life, [but generally] he really doesn't know what's going on. And I actually like it that way. I really try to keep those separate to some extent.

In sum, results suggested that investment, or each individual's practical and/or emotional stake in the relationship, is an interpersonal dimension of the advising relationship that ranges from invested to disinterested. In addition, there are two types of investment, professional investment and emotional investment. Advisors were perceived as having a large degree of latitude with regard to investment (e.g., some advisors neither professionally nor emotionally invested; others only professionally invested; still others invested professionally and emotionally. Advisees, however, reported being universally invested in the relationship; varying only in the type of investment (professional or emotional) they made in the relationship.

Security

Finally, the fourth interpersonal component of the advising relationship that emerged from the interviews was the level of security. Security refers to the degree of fear, anxiety or doubt experienced by the advisee; and ranges from feelings of insecurity (anxious, nervous, doubtful, etc.) to feelings of security (safety, comfort, etc.). When describing feelings of insecurity participants used terms such as "insecure," "fearful," "nervous," and "anxious." Quite often, advisees' feelings of insecurity were tied to specific fears. For example, one prevalent fear was of negative evaluation.

More often than I would like [I was] very, very anxious. Very, you know, just feeling like I need to get more done. Should be doing more...

I always feel extremely self-conscious around him and afraid to, okay this part's definitely me, but afraid to make a mistake or be caught being not perfect.

No matter how hard I work or prepare for a meeting, she always kind of catches me off guard with something. And then, I feel, and this is probably my own insecurity about something, but I still walk away saying something to myself like, "Man, she caught me again. I wasn't prepared for it. I feel dumb. She caught me off guard" or feeling silly or something like that.

Advisees also reported fears of conflict.

I'm afraid he's gonna disagree with something I say. It's not like he would yell at me. He would just be like, "Well, I totally disagree with that and here's why" and then, I don't know. That makes me nervous I guess.

Finally, advisees also reported uncertainty about what to expect as underlying their feelings of insecurity.

And the other thing is that it's sporadic, like I don't know what kind of mood she's gonna be in. So some days she's more on the friendly side, and she asks how I've been and how things are going, and if I've been taking time off to relax. And like she's pretty friendly and then next time I see her, she'll have that coldness again. So it's kinda scary because every time I walk into a meeting with her I'm a little anxious because I'm not quite sure what to expect.

When describing feelings of security participants typically used terms such as "comfortable" and "safe" which reflected openness to discussion and willingness to address areas of conflict. Specifically, participants who felt predominantly secure felt comfortable bringing questions or concerns directly to their advisors.

I feel safe, secure...[I feel] really comfortable talking to him... like whenever I have questions, I won't hesitate, and I will just go ahead and try to email him or talk to him in person.

This even applied to areas of potential disagreement or conflict.

Yes! Yes, exactly! Exactly! [It's ok to disagree] Like, I can still be myself and not um, be worried about repercussions.

I'm able to express my opinion and kind of say, "I think this idea's bullshit" and she's fine with that. It's that give and take.

Possibly underlying feelings of security were deeper feelings of competence.

Specifically, participants who felt secure also tended to feel respected.

She nearly treats me like a colleague. And so I feel quite respected in that situation, and valued, like she knows that I will get done what I say I will. She makes me feel competent.

Unlike the previous dimensions of the relationship, which involved both advisee and advisor contributions to the relationship, security was discussed almost exclusively from the advisee's perspective (e.g., is the advisee feeling secure or insecure). In fact, very few participants offered opinions about their advisor's feelings of comfort or discomfort in the relationship and all were tentative.

I think he feels comfortable with me.

I think probably at times I make her feel anxious as well.

Consistent with previous dimensions, advisees could not easily be categorized into insecure vs. secure relationships. Specifically, the security dimension was complex, with some advisees feeling predominantly insecure, some feeling predominantly secure and others experiencing some degree of both insecurity and security.

In sum, the data suggest that advising relationships are interpersonal in nature, and characterized by dimensions common to all human-human relationships. The dimensions of highest salience were temperature (warm-hostile), control (freeing – controlling), investment (invested – disinterested), and security (secure-insecure). The dimensions of temperature and control are complex; transmitted to advisees via indirect and direct modes of communication and at times present in mixed or complex forms (e.g., ambivalence). The dimension of investment refers to each individual's stake in the

relationship including two types: practical investment (investment in the professional or working element of the relationship) and emotional investment (investment in the emotional health of the relationship). Finally, the dimension of security refers to advisee's feelings of safety or anxiety in the relationship.

A Goal-Oriented Relationship

In addition to discussing the interpersonal aspects of their relationships, advisees also described advising relationships as purposeful. Advising relationships were not typically described as casual or merely supportive relationships; instead they were characterized as relationships with identifiable goals and functions. Though there was significant variability among participants with regard to the specific tasks and number of foci for the relationship, four specific advising roles occurred across most participants: (1) facilitator/overseer, (2) research supervisor, (3) professional advisor and (4) role model.

Facilitator/Overseer

The first goal-oriented component of the advising relationship that emerged from the interviews was the advisor's role as facilitator or overseer of graduate school progress. Specifically, participants described their advisors as being involved in a number of facilitative duties including attending to graduate program timelines, ensuring advisee grades are adequate, completing required paperwork and overseeing (or chairing) major graduate requirements (e.g., theses, dissertations, comprehensive exams).

There are times [in our relationship] where we focus more on programmatic types of things, like my training and what classes I need to take and how I should navigate getting supervision, so just ensuring that I'm progressing in the program in a timely fashion. She's [also] the primary reader, the chair, of my thesis, my comps and my dissertation

committees. She's basically supposed to make sure I get through the program.

Three general approaches to the role of facilitator/overseer emerged from the data.

Specifically, though all advisees described their advisors engaging in these common tasks to some degree, they often described disparate motivations. One participant put it this way:

He's probably more or less asking. It feels like less of checking up on you and more, checking in with you. Are there particular areas that you need me to do something?

Thus, some advisors take a “check with” style of facilitating in which they proactively approach the demands and pressures of graduate school and then help with advisee progress toward them. These advisors were described as taking a more active role in shaping the graduate school experience as a whole. For example, one participant with a “check with” style mentor described her advisor’s purpose this way:

I would say he is responsible for guiding me through grad school, helping me negotiate the different goals and responsibilities that I'm gonna have whether it's research or classes or clinical experiences. He's responsible for keeping tabs on that and coordinating that in some way.

While some advisors “check with” their advisees, other’s “check on” their advisees.

These advisors are described as taking a more evaluative role and were typically described as acting as an “overseer” of timely/adequate progression through the program.

[Participant] I think [advisors' role] is to make sure I'm making adequate progress throughout the program. That I'm meeting my major milestones; that I'm performing at an acceptable level, that I am gaining the training and not just gaining it, but meeting the standards.

[Interviewer] So you see her role as being quite evaluative? That her purpose is to monitor your progress in the program and make sure you're coming up to snuff?

[Participant] Monitor and facilitate that. Yeah, like she should be the source to be like “You’re not performing adequately, maybe something should change.”

Finally, some advisors “check out” of their role as facilitator, acting disinterested, unconcerned or dismissive of facilitative duties. For example, one advisee discussed his frustration that his advisor showed little concern about programmatic timelines:

The other topic that I would probably bring up with her [if giving critical feedback] would be getting students out on time. Meaning getting them out of the program in a relatively appropriate time frame.

Also, a handful of participants described their advisors caring little about and paying little attention to evaluative paper work.

*Our department requires faculty advisors to write an evaluation about each student every year, so they have an idea about what’s going on with everybody. But in our lab, all we get on our evaluation is he writes, “v period good” and that’s it. Well, he doesn’t write v period good for everyone. So the people that aren’t doing well, he just writes “good.”
*laughs**

In sum, it seems advisors universally engage in facilitative duties; most likely because this is a professional requirement. The specific method for approaching these duties varied with some advisors taking a proactive “check with” style of facilitating; others taking an overseeing “check on” style of facilitating and still others taking a passive or dismissive “check out” style of facilitating.

Research Supervisor

The second goal-oriented component of the advising relationship that emerged from the interviews was the advisor’s role as research supervisor. In its simplest form, the role of research supervisor involves providing opportunities for and then directly overseeing advisee participation in research, with the ultimate goal of developing the advisee into a proficient researcher. Though the specific goals and tasks of this process varied based on

a number of factors including shared research area of interests and degree of alignment of research goals, some general themes emerged; specifically, participants identified seven common tasks and two common methods for approaching the role of the research supervisor.

Seven Tasks

Across the participants, seven different tasks related to the role of advisor as research supervisor could be identified: (1) facilitating involvement in research, (2) developing the advisee's research identity, (3) building the advisee's skill as a scientific writer, (4) growing the advisee's skill as a critical thinker, (5) teaching time management, (6) developing expertise, and (7) networking the advisee in the field.

The first task to emerge from the data was to facilitate the advisee's practical involvement in research. This specifically meant providing practical opportunities to engage in or critically think about research.

[Interviewer] What is the purpose of your relationship with your advisor?

[Participant] I think it's for me to get [involved in] research ideas and proposals.

The second task was to help the advisee form a research identity. Developing a research identity referred to the process of identifying and then completing research in an area tailored to the unique interests of the advisee. Participants used various terms to describe this process (e.g., "building a program of research," "identifying an area of interest" or "building your vita"), but it typically involved not only exposure to research but the discussion about determining an individualized area of interest.

What would be the most valuable? Probably, [learning the] organization of research, developing [a] program of research. And it's an independent

[choice], even though she's helping us, it's helping us figure out what kind of research we like doing.

For example, one participant described the process he undertook with his advisor, first identifying a shared research area of interest (intermittent explosive disorder) and then making it his own by changing the population of interest (adults vs. children).

A good example [is] my dissertation. My dissertation is based on a theory that folks with intermittent explosive disorder don't experience fear in the same way as other people. And so I wanted to look for precursors of this in children. And he doesn't really study kids, but I am interested in kids – so he lets me choose.

The third, and most prevalently discussed, task was to develop the advisee's skills as a scientific writer.

He's been really involved in my development as a writer.

Notably, scientific writing was described as a multifaceted skill, in that many participants referred to being taught various forms of writing (e.g., thesis, dissertation, publication, or grant) by their advisors.

In terms of writing and helping to like, organize a manuscript so that it flows nicely; that's another big skill I've learned from her.

I've learned a lot of skills in writing for publication, learning from her or using her as a model or a template for that.

I think that he's taught me quite a bit about writing grants.

One participant put it this way:

There's a different tone [to] every document, whether it be for an article, a grant, a paper, [or] something like a thesis or dissertation. Everything has a different sound or different tone to it. She's taught me a lot about the different kind caps you need to wear when you're writing.

The fourth task of the research supervisor is to develop the advisee's scientific or critical thinking skills. Specifically, many advisees described themselves as initially naïve

to the potential limitations or implications of research and looked to their advisors to help them develop in this area. Components of this ability involved the critical review of extant research, as well as the ability to independently generate and test research questions.

on a more micro level, he has taught me how to critically review some of the articles and research out there... how to analyze things out there...you know, how to be a good consumer [of research].

I think the way that I do research and think about research and think about my stats [has been shaped by my advisor]. She's very meticulous, she wants to you be very clear in how you do [research] so the data's not messy and stuff like that. She's actually really helpful in making me think through the stuff that I just wouldn't have thought through.

The fifth common research supervision task was to develop advisees' ability to appropriately manage their time related to research. Specifically, many participants described themselves as initially overwhelmed by the large and ambiguous tasks of research (e.g., completing a thesis proposal or initiating a research study) and, as result, looked to their advisors to learn to manage these new demands. Commonly described advisor methods toward this aim included creating and/or co-creating timelines for projects, directly teaching or modeling the breaking down of large goals into attainable objectives, modeling efficiency and demonstrating a realistic approach to research.

And then he makes a time-line with me. [For example], what steps we're going to get a grant application done.

She'll say "here's how you get there," [by] breaking seemingly impossible tasks down into really adjustable parts that can get done.

I guess I've learned how to be really productive and to not get overly caught up in details.

I've never actually put this together until right now. I mentioned she's manic. She can do a million things in a day. We've talked about [it] before, she has a to-do list every day, and she will break her day down

into fifteen minute increments. And her goal is, not that she has to get everything done every fifteen minutes, but that if she's got a fifteen minute block there's something that she can start as compared to looking on CNN for a half hour wasting time before a meeting or something. So she's quite efficient.

That's the one thing I have learned because I used to be um, a lot more anxious about things. But um, now I can see that we can set up um, a very realistic timeline. We can try to stick to it um, and if things do not work out the way we want it to be, then we can still um, work on something else and try to make it, try to make compromises and so on.

The sixth task was to develop advisee expertise in the shared area of interest. Specifically, most participants talked about their advisors' role in exposing or training them in the specific literature, methodological approach or statistical techniques used in their area of interest. Thus, advisors were tasked with exposing and teaching their advisees about this material to prepare them for future contributions to the field.

I think the most important thing is that she has a lot of training in [advanced statistics]. And since, the type of research I do, that's critical to get published, and so, that is one of the most valuable things I've learned from her.

The seventh and final task was to facilitate the advisee's transition into the research field; commonly referred to as "networking." Specifically, most participants referred to their advisors' role in introducing them to important people within the field. This was considered a vital component of research development, particularly in the case of those participants who were seeking a career in academe, given the competitiveness of the academic job market.

One of her jobs is to make sure I'm well networked in the field.

And networking! She's really good about like introducing me to the big names in the field and things like that.

In comparison in others that I know, what highlights, is that she's helped me out by introducing me to a lot of individuals that she has done

research with that would also benefit me to know, you know, networking for jobs, internships, things like that.

Two Methods

In addition to the six tasks of research training, participants also described two common methods advisors implement to achieve these tasks. Specifically, advisors were described as meeting/attempting to meet their research supervision tasks by using either a *research lab* or *apprenticeship* approach to supervision. The research lab approach involves the integration of the advisee into an ongoing research lab where they take part in their advisors' and peers' research and eventually develop and begin running their own research studies. The apprenticeship approach, on the other hand, was characterized by a more one-on-one style of interaction, where advisors act as models and provide tailored experiences and feedback to their advisees.

Going through research [training], it's like a craft. You have to teach someone within your [area of] interest how to go about things, because we don't really have defined lines about how to go about [research]. For example, like how many Ns are considered effective? Or what methods to [use]? ...It's almost as though he's passing his training along. And then also helping you figure out how to develop your own ideas and thoughts...Overall it's like any kind of apprenticeship. You learn a craft from learning and then following along and then being guided by someone else. I think it's the same idea as apprenticeship.

Notably, most participants described their advisors as taking a research lab approach to research supervision. Specifically, 83% of participants (15/18) indicated being a part of research lab; either by volunteering their time to the lab or by being given paid assistantships to work in the lab. Advisees who identified with a "research lab" approach to research supervision noted various benefits associated with this method including: hands-on training in the practicalities of research, exposure to a variety of research projects and increased publication rates. Specifically, participants who were integrated

into a research lab felt as though they “hit the ground running” or were seamlessly and easily integrated into a variety of ongoing research at various stages.

I feel like a lot of my research skills for running studies, I've learned just from working and from experience in the lab

When we have extra studies going on, she wants me to be involved so that I'm a part of all aspects of the study. That way when it comes time to start working with the data, I have a better understanding because I had been there for the brainstorming and data collection part of it all.

Also, given the increased opportunity to participate actively in multiple projects, participants in research labs also appreciated the opportunity to publish more frequently.

Pros [of the research lab are] that I've had a lot of really wonderful opportunities because she is so motivated. I mean I have numerous publications and we have all this data to use.

Of note was the high prevalence of the research lab approach and its acceptance as a component of the graduate training process. Specifically, most participants discussed the research lab as if it was a standard element of graduate training, but its significance often went well beyond simply being an organizational structure. In other words, while the research lab is one aspect of a method of training, it often has an impact outside of this direct facilitative purpose. I will discuss the impact and influence of the research lab later in this document.

Despite the fact that the research lab was the predominant research training method, it was not the only method. Specifically, a small number of participants (3) described their advisor as a taking a predominantly apprenticeship approach to research training. The apprenticeship method seemed to be associated with advisors who had a smaller number of advisees and/or had wider research interests. For example, one participant in an

apprenticeship style relationship relayed that her advisor only had one or two other students at any given time with whom she (the advisee) rarely interacted.

But the other students that she had at one point, she had an older student, when I came in my first year; I think she was like a fifth year. And she had just gotten married and just gotten pregnant, too. So, she definitely wasn't someone I could talk to because she would do a lot of her work at home. So I never really got to talk to her very much and then she left on internship the next year. And this other person, she eventually went on to find another advisor. And so, we never really talked or anything like that.

Notably, although the apprenticeship approach was not as common as the predominant form of research training, it was frequently described as a method for augmenting the research lab approach for particular research supervision tasks. For example, most participants referred to the use of one-on-one, tailored experiences around developing their writing skills.

He makes suggestions in terms of papers and manuscripts that we write, he makes suggestions for ideas that he has and then he'll kind of just let me take it and do go and do it and then he will edit through what I have written and he'll add his piece in.

If I have any questions about the first draft of something, I usually meet with her, and we'll go relatively methodically through. Not like, "Well, you need to change your punctuation" but more construct problems or things like that. She's open to going through anything like that.

In sum, advisors are also universally research supervisors set with the goal of training advisees to become competent psychological researchers. Most advisors employ a "research lab" methodology for achieving this goal; so many, in fact, that it was viewed as a given component of graduate training for most participants. A small number of research supervisors, however, employ a predominantly apprenticeship model of training and many augment the research lab approach by using the apprenticeship model for some research supervision tasks.

Professional Advisor

The second goal-oriented component of the advising relationship that emerged from the interviews was the advisors' role as professional advisor. Specifically, participants noted that one of the purposes for their relationship with their advisor was to seek advice about important professional (and in some cases personal) decisions.

I would say [advisor's purpose is] to seek opinions and advice.

She provides guidance and advice.

He'd be someone who I would continue to seek advice from long beyond my time in graduate school.

Participants reported consulting with their advisors regarding a variety of issues, some professional (e.g., training decisions, teaching, clinical choices) and some personal (e.g., finding a place to live, managing work-life balance). Thus, many participants look to their advisors as sources of professional and personal wisdom.

She's been a reference for just about everything. I mean a good person to go to for references, I should say... point me in the right direction, whether it be clinically or research wise.

[I turn to advisor] when I need to choose classes that will serve [me] when [I'm] out of school.

Lately we've been talking a little bit more about my future and deadlines, internships, career prospects and so on.

I also think I turn to her a lot for, [if] I run into political issues in the department or within positions that I've held and I really value her opinion about those sorts of things.

[I got to advisor about] personal development: how to take care of myself while I'm going all of these different things, how to take care of my family. I mean I've talked to him about staying at school 'till two o'clock in the morning three days a week and how that's not really working for me and he'll give me advice about how to balance my personal and professional life a little better.

One prevalent subtype of professional advisement was repeatedly referred to as quite valuable: “professional development.” When asked to elaborate on its meaning, it became apparent that professional development referred to a proactive stance toward professional advisement. Specifically, this is when advisors do not wait for advisees to approach them with concerns but offer feedback and advice regularly.

So he’s very big on constantly talking about professional development issues and using every opportunity to have “coaching minutes” as he calls them.

Furthermore, there were two sub-types of professional development: (1) providing advice and feedback regarding advisee professional identity generally or (2) providing advice and feedback specifically focused on a career in academe. For some participants “professional development” referred to their advisors’ help identifying and considering the various professions available to them.

[Advisor’s purpose it to] help students as they develop professional identities whether they intend to be clinicians or whether they intend to be researchers, academicians, whatever.

[He’s] showing you ways in which the professional world works, the different avenues out there. And I think that’s gonna be really, really helpful throughout my career.

It’s actually the most recent conversation I had with him when we were talking about the life of a researcher and what that’s about. And that was something [which career suits him] that came up and so I’ve been thinking about it a lot more over the last couple months.

Participants described this type of professional development as occurring in a dialogue in which advisees discuss interests and advisors provide direction, advice or encouragement about pursuing those interests.

She provides advice, whether it’s just a study or if it’s like, “Hi, I want to be a sixty percent researcher and a forty percent neuropsych tester” or something like that. Like, how do I do that?

As I've progressed through grad school, my objectives have changed and he's done a really good job being flexible with me, finding me opportunities to do different research activities and clinical activities that have to do with what I wanted to do at that time.

For other participants, “professional development” referred to advisors’ providing direction and advice about pursuing a career in academe. Often this form of professional development involved training activities, such as meetings focused on creating an attractive curriculum vita or creating a job talk.

I mean she'll have lab meetings where it's like, “Here's how you write a good CV.”

When it comes time to actually get ready to apply for a post-doc or something even more, like straight to existent faculty positions, it's how do you get a job talk and how to do your job talk... he's helping us develop our CV's so that we're more attractive to other universities.

Professional development in this regard also referred to direct and specific advice about making choices that increase marketability as an academician.

I am very frank about my career goals [to be an academician] and every conversation that we have is about how this is going to build in to my career and what choices do I need to make in order to set me on a career path that I want... should I take this service opportunity? Is that gonna be a good addition to make to make CV? How many conference presentations should I be doing? Is this too much for me or is it okay to do two or three presentations? And she is really good about giving feedback about that. And helping us make good decisions that will have the most impact on our career.

Another part of this type of professional development was often referred to as advising about the “realities” or “politics” of academe.

I mean, these are things that if I want to pursue career in academia I think it will be pretty important along with publishing and getting grants because you get promoted by your peers and so if your colleagues don't support you, then you are not going to get tenure. I think if I choose to go that route in my career in terms of academia or and a tenure-track position, I think these are things that are going to be very helpful.

He very clear about that [politics] and how that gets uncomfortable in academia and to the best of his ability he tries to be really frank about his opinions without playing games. And he also talks about how sometimes that can get you into a little bit of trouble or make things harder for you.

Thus, when engaging in this form of professional development advisors are not only providing advice about course decisions and training opportunities, but also about a culture which the advisee is hoping to become a part of.

To summarize, when an advisor is acting as professional advisor they are sought out as a source of wisdom for making important decisions. Advisors acting in this capacity might also take a proactive approach to professional advisement, often called “professional development.” Professional development has two forms; helping advisees identify and pursue their professional interests and/or facilitating advisee transition into an academic career.

Role Model

Finally, the fourth goal-oriented component of the advising relationship that emerged from the interviews was the advisors’ role as model. Specifically, a significant majority of participants (83%) reported learning something important by attending to their advisors professional and/or personal behavior. Thus, advisors were not just teaching their advisees through deliberate activities or conversations, they taught by being visible to the advisee.

Two types of modeling emerged from the data: positive modeling and negative modeling. Positive modeling refers to advisees observing behaviors in their advisors that they hope to emulate. For example, one advisee reported that the most influential material

she had taken from her advising relationship was learning to be patient by observing her advisors approach to the undergraduate research assistants in the lab.

I like the way she interacts with her grad-students because basically the way it's set up is that I work on an undergrad's senior thesis and then I go to her if I have problems. So, I see what it must be like for her to read my papers because I get so annoyed by their papers sometimes. But, they're still learning, and I have to understand that.

Another participant noted the value of her advisor's modeling sustained intellectual curiosity.

[Participant] I've learned never to let that curiosity inside us about research and ideas to die out just because we wrapped up in our day-to-day obligations.

[Interviewer] How has he taught you that?

[Participant] Well, it's very interesting because he has very focused research ideas and yet I see that he's also very interested in a lot of other topics and he will try to collaborate with other people or he would just tell us, "Oh, I've been reading about stuff on this thing." And even if it's not his major area of research, he makes us realize that there may be a lot of things out there that we should try to pay attention to.

Still another participant learned by observing her advisor's ability to work effectively with professionals from a variety of fields.

[Interviewer] What have you learned from your advisor?

[Participant] I guess resourcefulness, dealing with a broad range of researchers from multi-disciplinary [backgrounds] across a few fields, like neurology, psychology, public health all in one room. It can sometimes get hairy but watching her communicate effectively to people of different areas of expertise is really valuable.

Though most positive modeling was participant specific, three types occurred across participants: (1) modeling how to be an advisor, (2) modeling psychological health and/or a healthy work-life balance and (3) disconfirming academician stereotypes. One type of positive modeling mentioned was learning how to be an advisor.

I've learned how to be an advisor.

Ultimately he's taught me what it means to be a good mentor, I think.

What I have learned is more of his style of advising, like how I would like to advise my graduate students one day.

A second type of positive modeling was modeling psychological health or healthy work-life balance. Specifically, advisees noted that they appreciated watching their advisors manage family and professional obligations in successful way.

She has a very nice balance of professional and personal life. And before I came to grad school, I worked in some research labs as well, and she's actually the first individual who I would like to emulate her personal life. She's modeling that it's possible to not live in a lab and have a Ph.D. in psychology.

Participants also noted when their advisors modeled healthy relational skills.

[Interviewer] Is there anything else you want to add? Any other events you would like to tell me about?

[Participant] Well I guess the other thing; it's not one event per se, but just overall, day-to-day interactions. He always has a very good sense of humor and we don't feel too pressured. And, we can joke about things.

[Interviewer] What is the significance of that for you?

[Participant] I think it reminds us that he is a normal, healthy, well-adjusted individual who is not only thinking about research and nothing else in the world.

Finally, positive modeling also occurred when the advisor disconfirmed (and subsequently changed) advisee perceptions of what it means to be an academician.

I've worked in many labs [before] ...And I've seen how, I've seen some things that I really don't like. Like people that have students do a lot of work and then take credit for it or give talks about it and take first author on their paper even though the student did most of the work and you know they say "well it's my lab and my equipment" And at first, I used to think that's how things worked. And so then I came and I saw [ADVISOR], no, wow it's not the way things are! You can be kind, fair person in academia. You don't have to try to hog everything to be successful.

And [he's taught me that] to be a good researcher does not mean you have to be socially awkward. Because that is what we get from some other individuals, it's almost like a stereotype.

Not all behaviors learned via modeling were positive; in fact, many participants reported the most important material they had learned from their advisor was via negative modeling (e.g., how *not* to handle a situation). For example, one advisee who felt generally positive about his relationship with his advisor, found him to be a poor lab manager.

Well, I mean this might be seen as a negative but I've learned how I would not want to run a lab. I've learned a bit about the types of things that I think don't work and that frustrate people who are having to work in that setting.

As in the case of positive modeling, most negative modeling was participant specific. Two types of modeling, however, occurred across participants: (1) poorly managing professional relationships and (2) poorly managing the advising relationship.

One common negative modeling experience was around poorly managing professional relationships. For example, one advisee commented that she had learned about the politics of her field by watching how her advisor was failing.

I've learned to understand sort of more of the politics of the system and how to manage in crazy little clinical research world. I think I've learned a lot about that, but it maybe more so sometimes, I think, through not wanting to mimic some of the things she may do.

Another advisee discussed watching his advisor undergo the tenure process. He was particularly upset by the way his advisor was treated by other faculty members during this time and felt she should have been more cautious.

[Participant] I've also learned a lot of things not to do with people. Things not to say. Because of mistakes I've witnessed from her. That's probably just as important.

[Interviewer] And what have you learned not to do?

[Participant] God, this is gonna sound awful. [long pause] ...Be careful of who you trust... which I feel awful saying because I really enjoy being here and what I've learned. But I don't like a lot of the cattiness that goes on with some people. And I really feel like my advisor has been stabbed in the back at different times. And it's sad, but it also makes me feel like I need to be more cautious with people. A lot of people are just looking out for themselves...So one thing I would say I've learned is to be careful of who you trust and how much you've divulged to individuals.

The second common form of negative modeling involved poorly managing the advising relationship. For example, one participant reported learning how *not* to advise students.

If I ever do have some sort of advisee-advisor relationship, where I am the advisor, I sincerely hope that I will not come across to my advisees the way he comes across to his. So, I hope it's shown me how not to do it... Shown me things like the importance of being present and being constructive and being appreciative.

Thus, advisors are role models, teaching just by being visible to their advisees. At times this modeling is positive, providing advisees examples of good advising practices, healthy work-life balance and challenging advisee stereotypes about academicians. At other times, the modeling is negative, teaching advisees how not to manage professional and/or advising relationships.

In sum, the data suggest that advising relationships are goal-oriented or purposeful in nature, with participants discussing a variety of specific goals and tasks for the relationship. The components of highest salience were best characterized by four advising roles: (1) facilitator/overseer, (2) research supervisor, (3) professional advisor, and (4) role model. The role of facilitator/overseer captures the advisor's responsibility to oversee programmatic progression and was typically approached with one of three

different styles: checking with, checking on and checking out. The role of research supervisor includes the advisor's responsibility to stimulate the research development of the advisee and addresses six common tasks via two potential approaches (the research lab approach or the apprenticeship approach). The role of professional advisor involves being sought out as a source of professional wisdom or providing this wisdom proactively through professional development. Finally, advisors in the role of model are observed by their advisees and teach through their strengths, weaknesses, successes and failures.

A Contextual Relationship

The third emergent theme indicated that the advising relationship occurs within several important contexts. Specifically, the essence of this theme is that advising relationships are shaped by factors that exist outside of the relationship itself. For example, the way in which an advisee perceives the interpersonal cues within the advising relationship is intertwined with the advisee's previous advising experience, advisee perceptions of how the advisor publicly treat his/her other students, the way other faculty treat their students within the department, the way advisors are thought to treat advisees within the field and what is currently occurring in the advisee's personal life. Though the specific material varied, four common contexts emerged across participants: (1) the research lab context, (2) the department context, (3) the historical context and (4) the personal life context.

The Research Lab Context

The research lab emerged as the context that had the most impact on the advising relationship. This was evidenced in several respects. First, discussion of the research lab was highly prevalent in the data, with participants almost universally identifying and discussing their research labs (15/18, 83%). Second, participants very frequently used the term “we” instead of “I” to discuss their own individual perceptions of their advisors. When queried, “we” was reference to the shared perceptions and experiences of the members of the research lab. Finally, of those participants who identified belonging to a research lab, nearly all of them explicitly stated that it was a significant force impacting their advising relationship.

I didn't really know that the lab was such an important unit in graduate school.

Yeah, my position in the research lab influences relationship with advisor.

Given the shaping influence of the research lab, several themes were derived from the data characterizing the research lab context. Through the comparison and integration of these themes, it became apparent that the research lab influences advising relationships via two routes: (1) by creating two additional advisory roles (team leader and employer) and (2) by introducing peer relationships. Each of these will be discussed in detail below.

Additional Advisor Roles

Advisors utilizing a research lab training approach frequently took on two additional roles; the role of team leader and the role of employer. As team leaders, advisors act as central figures in groups of students (of which the advisee is one member) and are typically responsible for designing, overseeing and delegating work on a large number of shared research projects. Common themes across transcripts suggest that the role of team

leader places the advisor as the center of the research lab network, imbued with a large number of rights and responsibilities. Participants commonly attributed several team leader rights and responsibilities to their research team leader (i.e., their advisor) including majority ownership of the team's product (e.g., publication rights), authority to determine team membership (e.g., choosing new lab members), and the ability to assign the benefits (e.g., authorship order) and costs (e.g., delegation of tasks) to team members. Participants also frequently ascribed responsibility for the overall tone of the lab (e.g., productive or laid back; competitive or cooperative) to their advisor.

In participant interviews, the advisor's role of team leader was very salient as it was often the grounds for both positive and critical feedback. In terms of positive feedback, participants relayed feelings of gratitude and admiration for advisors who were viewed as effective team leaders. Effective team leaders were described as invested in the lab (or in all of the team members a whole).

I actually consider myself very lucky. Um, she is incredibly supportive of everyone's research in the lab.

She's pretty involved you know. She works way harder for her students than any other mentor I know of, we are her life. Her lab is her life.

Effective team leaders were also viewed as taking an interest in developing supportive, warm and collaborative (rather than competitive) teams. For example, one participant found great camaraderie with her fellow team members and, as a result, felt gratitude toward her advisor for her role in creating the positive environment.

We really have a great lab! We really do! I think she's really good at picking students that are gonna be supportive of one another.

Another participant appreciated his advisors role in deliberately choosing easy-going students.

He seems to choose students that are kind of relaxed and have a decent sense of humor. And he will not, if he sees someone come in and they seem really uptight and they, and even if their resumes are really impressive, he won't take them. And so when new students do come in; it's kind of fun. Also, it doesn't affect the mentoring part because he'll find, I don't know how he finds it, but he'll find just as much time for [all of] us individually.

Although the team leader role sometimes had a positive effect on the advising relationship, it unfortunately more often had a negative impact on the advising relationship. For example, when asked what feedback they would give their advisor without fear of consequence, participants often mentioned their advisors' failure as a team leader as the most problematic element in their relationship. Though specific complaints (often in the form of stories) were idiosyncratic, three types of general complaints emerged; (a) distribution of labor, (b) unfair distribution of benefits and (c) disengagement from the lab.

With regard to complaints about distribution of labor, participants noted that their primary feedback for their advisor would be the need to "clarify expectations." In every case, participants revealed that this feedback would be intended to illustrate perceptions of the unfair distribution of labor with regard to research lab tasks. For example, in some cases there was a general sense of feeling overworked and disappointed that their advisors seemed unaware of the practical costs of the work requested.

I would say in that second year there were just tons of tasks. There was so much work! And I was putting in a lot of overtime. And there was still some sort of miscommunication in terms of she wasn't happy with my productivity. I'm [thinking], "How the hell can't you be happy with this?"

In other cases, participants felt taken advantage of in comparison to their peers.

[Participant] Maybe I'd say something like, "[ADVISOR], I'd really appreciate it if you could incorporate a way for us to have more clear expectations, or have a better idea of what your expectations are of each of us." To be able to actually sit down and have her verbalize how many

hours we should be working on each thing in such a way that it would feel like things are maybe more balanced in the lab.

[Interviewer] Yeah, it sounds to me like you feel a bit taken advantage of, maybe in comparison to your peers.

[Participant] Yeah, I think that captures it. Because I do tend to move through things a little bit more quickly. So sometimes she'll ask me to do things and there's a little bit of resentment about, okay why me? There's other graduate students in the lab, why wouldn't she ask them to do it?

Participants also criticized advisors for unfairly distributing benefits; which most frequently meant inequitable distribution of authorship order. For example, one participant shared her frustration with her advisor's authorship policy.

There are certain people in the lab who don't really pull their weight as much...[For example] they might be co-authors on a publication with me, and if I feel like they're not doing enough work, it's not up to me if I can take them off [the publication]. And I've discussed this with [ADVISOR] before, so I know that in his view, it's to his benefit to have everyone in the lab "look" like they have lots of publications, even though really only a few people are doing the bulk of the work. So that makes me feel bitter.

Finally, participants also criticized their advisors for being disengaged from the lab.

Stated another way, advisees were upset if their advisors were not participating as a team leader. For example, one participant was talking about feeling that something was "missing" from her advising relationship; when asked to consider what might be missing she identified a desire for her advisor to act more as a team leader.

[Interviewer] Mhmm... So his approach is very outcome oriented and you're missing something in the process?

[Participant] I fee like I am.

[Interviewer] Can you articulate what you're missing? What you want that isn't there?

[Participant] I want to feel like part of a lab community. Since we don't have that face to face contact with him a lot, then we don't really have a

leader in the lab, so the other graduate students are all kind of scattered. I don't really know what a lot of them are working on a lot of the time.

Another participant was very frustrated with his advisor due to the large team member turn-over rate in the research lab. He viewed the lab's retention difficulties as the result of the advisor's limited investment in the lab. Specifically, he felt that his advisor's only contribution to team members was in the form of financial support or letters of recommendation, rather than truly taking interest in team member development.

I would probably tell him that whenever he brings someone new onto his team, I think that he needs to recognize that people are motivated by more than money. So, he may pay people well but have some unrealistic expectations, he may not do the types of things that make it a comfortable work environment. What he assumes is that, a letter of recommendation is enough. So, that someone can come into a lab, and they'll just do data entry day in and day out. And they're doing it because, he'll write them a letter of recommendation for grad school or med school or whatever down the road. So I think that there's so much more that can be done. I would tell him all those things that are important too. Not just that have you scratch my back-I'll scratch yours mentality. I'll give you a good salary, or I'll give you a letter of recommendation, but there's more to be offered to those you are working with and for him to keep them there. Retention! Because he has had some issues with retention lately.

These combined results indicate that most of the advisees in this sample were integrated into research labs and that their advisors, as result, took on the additional role of team leader. The role of team leader was salient in both positive and negative ways. Finally, the data further suggest that the team leader role is quite complex and difficult to manage without error.

In addition to the team leader role, many participants also described being employed by their advisor in research assistantship (RA) positions, adding an additional role of employer. Though quite prevalent among participants, the employer role was typically only mentioned in a matter-of-fact, passing way:

Yeah, I'm a research assistant, too for her... that's my job.

[In our meetings] We typically have to talk about issues related to two different grants that I'm working [for him] on, and consulting work that I do with him on the side, so that's usually two or three projects.

Whereas this role often seemed insignificant, advisor-as-employer became very salient in discussions when it negatively impacted the advising relationship. The employer role led to negative implications for the advising relationships in two ways.

First, there were advisees who described a conflict during the course of employment. Specifically, three participants noted that a significant conflict (or series of conflicts) occurred during the course of their employment which damaged their advising relationship. For example, one participant felt that her role as project coordinator made her the target for her advisor's frustrations with delays in the research process. Specifically, she described a once-per-year recurrence in which the advisor would become frustrated and "blow up" at her about research delays.

One [event] was [with] one of our projects that we have going on. [It] is [a] very involved, four day project where we're treating clinical and non-clinical populations and involves staying up overnight and doing a lot of coordination in our lab. And so the study has taken much longer to get going than any of us expected. And about a year ago things were plugging along, and we were doing things as rapidly as we could to get the equipment and everything ready to go for the study. And then I think there was an email or maybe a meeting and it sort of came out of the blue where I and another grad student were told that you know, "This should have been done! This project should have been finished!" or "We should have a significant amount of data collected already!" Basically, it was clear that we were really disappointing her and at the time, I think I was working, I don't know, fourteen hour days, something like that.

This pattern caused significant strain to the relationship, as the participant found her advisor's "blow ups" both unpredictable and unreasonable. As a result, she sought employment outside of the research lab in order to sustain a relationship with her advisor.

Similarly, another advisee described a struggle related to her advisor's perfectionism and tendency to vacillate about research decisions. Specifically, frequent protocol changes, as well as highly detailed protocols for carrying out study procedures, made meeting the requirements of the position nearly unbearable for the participant.

So she had an NIH funded grant, and I was her study coordinator during my second year. And that's when [our relationship] was the hardest and I actually thought about leaving her lab. Because it was her project, it needed to be done her way. But with her, it's just like minute details over and over again. They would change one day, go back the next day. I mean down to needing to cut paper on the paper cutter a specific set way... We'd hear her footsteps come down the hall and it's like I'd shudder and cry, "Oh no, it's coming"

Similarly to the previous participant, she sought employment outside of the research lab in order to sustain the advising relationship.

Finally, a third participant reported a blow to the advising relationship as the result of her poor performance as an employee. Specifically, the advisee's failures in her role as RA resulted both in her dismissal from her position as employee and in long-term damage to her advisor's investment in her as a professional. For example, she described her advisor as trying to force her out of the advising relationship and the program.

And I don't he thought I should stick around. He didn't think I was serious enough about research.

He's told me, [that] on several occasions he's tried to make it so that I would have to find another advisor.

In this case, the relationship never fully recovered.

[Interviewer] So he essentially said, "By the way, your work quality, I don't trust it. So I'm not gonna be paying for you next year."

[Participant] Right.

[Interviewer] How long did that sort of mistrust last in your relationship?

[Participant] I don't know if it's gone.

The advisee also became altogether alienated from the research lab.

[Interviewer] Do your relationships with fellow lab members influence your relationship with your research advisor?

[Participant] No, it goes the other way around. Because I have had problems with my advisor, I do not have a relationship with the other people in my research lab.

Second, there were advisors who were perceived as emphasizing their role as employer over their role as advisor. For example, one participant reported that his advisor had a reputation of being demanding and controlling, which had resulted in the loss of several graduate student advisees and a post-doctoral fellow employed in the lab. However, his experience was so inconsistent from his peers that he was left confused about the relationship. It was not until his advisor asked him to work for him on a grant that his peers' experiences became clear.

But my experience to that point told me the exact opposite of everything that they were saying. Like the entire experience they had was nothing like the experience that I had had...And you know, after all these people had left the program or the lab, that was when I was offered the project coordinator position, because it needed to be filled now that these other people were gone. And that's when, our relationship started to move in the direction of being a more employer-employee based relationship. And when I started to kind of get that sense or that feeling it was taking a turn for the worse...and I think the reason that he and I had worked so well together [before] is because we always had a research relationship. It was never an employee-employer relationship because when [he's] in an employee-employer relationship, he forgets about the mentor-mentee relationship.

These results indicate that, although many participants were employed by their advisors (e.g., in an employee-employer relationship), the salience of this relationship was typically minimal. Only in those circumstances in which there was conflict or the role of employer dominated negative perception did this role become noticeable.

Peer Relationships

In addition to increasing the number of advisory roles, integration into a research lab also initiated a series of peer relationships. In this sample, relationships with research lab peers or “lab-mates” were discussed with such frequency that it resulted in the first additional question to the interviews: “Do your relationships with fellow lab members influence your relationship with your advisor?” The majority answer was “yes” among students integrated into research labs.

[P006] Yeah I think that the other RA's in the lab influence the [advising] relationship quite a bit.

[P008] Absolutely!

[P009] Yes, this is something that maybe has changed [over the course of training] with me being more influenced by them.

[P010] Yes.

[P012] Yes, it has to.

[P013] Yeah, I think so.

[P014] Yeah, I try hard not to let that affect things too much.

[P015] Yeah.

[P016] Yes. They definitely affected it, [both] positively and negatively I think.

Additionally, several themes were derived from the data characterizing the mechanisms by which peer relationships influence the advising relationship. Specifically, the data suggest that peer relationships exert their influence via four mechanisms: (1) by generating competition, (2) by creating a group of comparison, (3) by providing support or friendship, and (4) by offering an opportunity for gossip.

The first peer group influence on the advising relationship was the advisee's experience of competition (or lack thereof) with their lab-mates. Specifically, several participants noted either the presence or absence of competition among the lab-mates.

It's unfortunate, but you know when we have group meetings, you can tell that there's competitiveness.

One of the reasons why I chose to go where I went is that it's not particularly competitive. I'd seen that before and that's where your lab-mates are seen as kind of competition for your advisor's time or their accolades or publication or that's not really here.

The most frequently mentioned source of competition was advisory approval; or jockeying for the "favorite" position.

There is this sibling relationship that's developed between the lab-mates. So we are friends but then there's this sibling dynamic or family dynamic that happens too... They think I'm the "favorite." It's me and one other student in that [favored] position and two other students who feel sort of marginalized.

We have two men in our lab, and one of them is a 5th year. He's actually going to stay around for a 6th year. And our advisor really, really, really likes him, and would go to him with special favors and requests and also sort of give him first dibs on projects. And that was really annoying.

That's another concern, like, "Oh, she probably likes that other RA more than me. What does that mean? And what have I done?"

Other, less frequently mentioned, sources of potential competition included struggling for resources (e.g., money or data) and/or time; however, these were exclusively mentioned in the context of being absent from the present relationships.

We all have our own projects going on, so we're not really competing for data because we all have our own. And we're not competing for funding or anything like that, which is really nice.

Together, the data suggest that competition among lab-mates is generally viewed as detrimental to the advising relationship. Specifically, participants who did not report

competing with peers felt a sense of relief and gratitude, while participants who reported competing with peers found it to be an additional source of pressure and strain.

The second peer group influence on the advising relationship was advisees' tendency to use their lab-mates as a comparison group. Specifically, participants tended to look to their peers to ascertain whether or not they were performing adequately (e.g., Am I doing as well as him/her?), whether or not they were being treated fairly (e.g., Are they doing as much as I am?), and whether or not their experiences with their advisor were unusual (e.g. Does she treat them the same way?). Great distress and/or comfort came from the answers to these questions. For example, one student had repeated difficulties with receiving overly critical feedback from her advisor during the manuscript writing process. However, she found comfort in the idea that others had a similar experience.

And, I mean other people have had that experience with her too. And it's just a fluke or whatever; it's not just me.

Another advisee, who found her advisor to be generally disinterested in her, found comfort in seeing that he treated other female students similarly.

Yeah, and we all have a much more difficult time interacting with our advisor on a professional and a friendly level than the two men in our lab...But I know I'm not alone. His other students in my lab feel very similarly. So, that helps.

However, comparing experiences did not always lead to comfort. In some cases, comparison led to distress and anger. For example, one advisee experienced great distress over noting that her advisor treats her differently than her peers.

[Participant] We do sort of a workshop on a weekly basis with her. And one day I asked her to stop for second because I was confused and I wanted to clarify something, and she snapped at me, like "You should know this!" and got upset with me. And I notice that she only really does it with me, not with other grad students.

[Interviewer] Mhmm.

[Participant] And another example, is that we were at a conference and in the morning I saw her and I was going to do sit down by her for the class and she actually asked me to move down a couple of seats... And then I think the frustrating part is that she asked me to move and then the next day she sat by two other graduate students from our lab. So that was really a slap in my face... like to see her behave so differently towards my fellow grad students in our lab is just hurtful.

As afore-mentioned, another point of comparison that resulted in distress was advisees' assessment of unequal distribution of labor or benefits. In addition to resulting in criticism of the advisor's team leader qualities, it also left advisees experiencing anger over its relational impact. For example, one advisee who was dissatisfied with his advisor's authorship policy (detailed above) described experiencing bitterness and resentment due his advisor's more positive relationships with the students who were purportedly unfairly benefiting from his choices.

[Advisor's unfair distribution of authorship] makes me feel bitter because those people [who benefit] also tend to like him more. And their relationships with him are better because they're seeing, like, benefits from it. But I don't feel like I'm getting those kinds [of benefits]. I don't really want those kinds of benefits! So that makes me get frustrated with them. And I get frustrated with him, too.

Thus, advisees engaged in comparison to determine the "normalcy" of their relationship with their advisors. Advisees who had a similar experience to their peers gained increased feelings of security, even in difficult relationships. In contrast, advisees who had dissimilar experiences from their peers experienced a decrease in their feelings of security in the relationship.

The third peer group influence on the advising relationship that emerged from the data was that lab-mates frequently acted as a source of support or friendship to advisees. Specifically, participants reported looking to their peers to support them through

difficulties in the advisory relationship or, in the most dramatic cases, fulfill advisory duties. For example, the majority of participants reported having supportive relationships with at least some of the peers within their lab.

We support each other through it all, and we try to help each other.

If there's something going on and he's not available for whatever reason I'll talk it over with them [lab-mates].

We just try to help each other out and if we noticed somebody needs help, we'll offer to help them.

We're all really close.

In some cases, peer support was described as casual and seemed to only make the labor of lab-work more enjoyable.

You work long hours in grad school at times. So, when we are working a lot it's fun to have someone to goof around with a little bit to help the time pass and help get through things without getting too uptight about it.

In other cases, participants reported consulting with their peers with regard to understanding or reacting to difficulties within the advising relationship. In these circumstances, lab-mates were viewed as objective experts on their advisors.

I'll ask "Am I being obstinate here? Am I being too whatever?" We'll also consult about how she might react to feedback. Like, "How might she interpret this?" And the graduate students will point that out to each other because we know how she may interpret it.

So I was having some real difficulty with the way she was delivering feedback and I was basically encouraged by two of the more senior students in my lab at the time. "Talk to her! Just seriously you can do it! We have talked to her about similar things, very personal regarding us. You can do it! Do it!"

In still other cases, participants looked to their peers to provide aspects of the advising relationship that their advisor was not fulfilling. For example, one advisee talked at

length about her lab-mates' role in providing the encouragement she needed but was not receiving from her advisor.

We have this really great diverse and very warm set of lab members. We might not always get that direct warmth from our advisor so we get our touchy-feeliness, or warm fuzzies or whatever from each other.

In the most dramatic circumstances, peers stepped in to accomplish almost all of the advising duties. In this case lab-mates frequently stepped in to become “surrogate advisors” by co-generating research, editing manuscripts, providing encouragement, and giving professional advice. For example, one participant, who described her advisor as essentially completely disinterested in advising, described her relationships with her lab-mates this way:

We're all pretty close. I guess right now we all have our own research area and so there's not a whole lot of overlap. But a few of us have gotten together to deliberately come up with a research project that will bring some more unity to the lab. Something that will have a lot of different facets to it... So we try very hard to support each other and be there for each other because our advisor sure isn't going to that. So we're surrogate advising each other.

Another participant, who also felt her advisor was not a diligent research supervisor, reported similar relationships with a set of peers from her lab.

[Participant] We call ourselves “The Confidants,” and there are five of us. ...So we communicate a lot about our frustrations with our professor and with the other members of the lab, but it's mainly a really positive relationship with all of them because we all work together really well. We all contribute a lot, and so I feel like that core group of other students, we get mentorship from each other.

[Interviewer] How do you get mentorship from “The Confidants”?

[Participant] So if I'm working on my internship application stuff or a manuscript or something, I send it to them to read over because they'll give me actual feedback. And I have done that for the girl that's younger than me that is probably the job of the advisor, but we kind of do those things for each other.

In sum, results seem to suggest that lab-mate relationships typically bolster advising relationships by helping to alleviate the pressures of graduate school and provide a support network of professional friends and/or colleagues. Supportive peer relationships also impacted the advising relationship when lab-mates stepped in to compensate for the advisor. In many cases, this was as simple as providing encouragement or feedback; in other cases it was as extensive as fulfilling most advisory duties.

Finally, the fourth peer group influence that emerged from the data was that the systemic nature of the lab introduced a set of complex routes of communication. Stated another way, research lab relationships are frequently associated with gossip and hearsay. For example, gossiping between lab-mates about the advisor was quite common.

There was period of time when we would do a lot of bad-mouthing [my advisor].

If she needs to have an “I Hate My Advisor Day,” I’m like, okay let’s go hate her. That’s fine. It’s not a big [deal], it doesn’t make me [actually] hate her. I think we need to do that every now and then.

I guess kind of talking behind his back more and negative things, more and in that sense being influenced by lab-mates.

Most participants referred to this as a casual, fact of graduate school and did not indicate that it was problematic. Instead, it was often considered a vital opportunity to “vent” frustrations to an understanding peer.

Notably, the gossip was not confined to lab-mate relationships; in fact, several participants mentioned that they engage in dialogue with their advisors about their peers.

My advisor will tell me things that I probably shouldn’t hear about my fellow lab mates, not inappropriate personal things, but just how she feels about them as researchers, as, as professionals. And I think she shares too much with me about that because it makes it hard for me to maintain relationships with my peers that are... I’m biased by that.

My relationships with my lab-mates and my lab-mates relationships with each other have definitely come up in conversations with my advisor. [For example,] There has been conflict in the past, not between me and my lab-mates but between different sets of the lab-mates, and my advisor and I have talked somewhat extensively about those relationships and kind of trying to understand why certain people in our lab get along and other people don't get along and things like that.

I think that there are times where she doesn't use the most discretion when discussing things. Not that I've had any major experiences that I don't want anyone else to find out about, but I've heard other things at times ..., about student's statuses and things like that, that I was somewhat surprised about. And, while I don't think that's impacted my experience at all, that's always one of the jokes that we students have about this particular advisor.

In contrast, this form of gossip was predominantly relayed as uncomfortable or “crossing a boundary.” And though most participants referred to it as simply uncomfortable, others saw it as biasing their perceptions toward their peers and/decreasing their feelings of security in their relationship with their advisor overall.

Finally, another common occurrence among participants was discovering (or believing to have discovered) that their advisor and peers had been discussing them. For example, one participant discussed being confronted by her advisor about a conflict with her peer that she had not informed her advisor about.

There was this falling out I had with a fellow lab-mate and initially I felt like “Well, we'll just proceed in a professional relationship. It's unfortunate that that happened, and there's obviously hurt feelings about it.” But, I expected us both to be able to continue... But apparently, the other grad student wasn't being professional like I was and seemed to be saying things to [ADVISOR] about me... Which puts me on edge like when I am with [ADVISOR] I sometimes wonder well what has [PEER] said to her? And you know, has she viewed me negatively based on what [PEER] has said? And so that's a concern.

Another participant discussed how she suspected her advisor to have disparaged her to her lab-mates after a series of conflicts between them.

[Interviewer] Do you relationships with fellow lab-mates influence your relationship with your advisor?

[Participant] No, it goes the other way around. Because I have had problems with my advisor, I do not have a relationship with the other people in my lab.

[Interviewer] Do you suspect that they know what went on between the two of you? Or is that in the past?

[Participant] Yes. They all do.

[Interviewer] I'm getting the impression that you think they have taken his side.

[Participant] Actually yeah, I think so.

This form of gossip was described to be the most damaging of all, shaking the security of the advisee within the advising relationship and in their relationship with peers.

Altogether, the gossiping that is so frequent within the research lab context seemed to have a largely negative impact. Specifically, although participants who were engaged in gossiping with their peers were gaining the opportunity to “vent” hostility, it also potentially biased their peers and enabled areas of conflict to remain unaddressed. More universally viewed as troubling were those advisors who gossiped to their advisees. Participants with whom the gossip was shared generally felt uncomfortable and aware of the inappropriateness of their advisors’ behavior. However, it was those participants who were gossiped about that suffered the most significant damage to their feelings of security within the advising relationship.

Taken together, participants interviews appear to indicate that the research lab context influences the advising relationship by adding facets to the relationship (e.g., the new roles of team leader and employer) and by providing an accessible peer group with whom to compare or compete and from whom to receive support. Finally, the research lab

context provides the opportunity for gossip both between lab-mates and the advisors which was potentially damaging to the advising relationship.

The Department Context

The second emergent context shaping the advising relationship was the department. Specifically, every advising relationship is situated within a training program housed within a psychology department made up of specific individuals (e.g. faculty, staff and students) who are working toward specific aims (e.g., training and producing academicians, clinicians, etc.). Therefore, “the department” or “the program,” as it was frequently referred to by participants, is a larger entity to which both the advisor and advisee belong. Both individuals have additional roles associated with this entity; for example, advisors are “employees” of the department and advisees are “trainees” of the department. There are also other advising dyads (e.g., faculty-student pairing) within the department that seem to serve as a point of comparison for advisees. Participants also noted the presence of others from whom they could receive support. Finally, both advisees and advisors are evaluated by the department. Concordant with these four facts are the four themes related to the department context: (1) department roles, (2) department comparisons, (3) department supports, and (4) department evaluation.

Department Roles

One contextual influence that the department had over the advising relationship was that it created additional roles for both advisor and advisee that shaped the relationship. Within the interviews, participants described various roles that they and their advisors have within the department (e.g., student, therapist, teacher, clinical supervisor, committee member, director of clinical training, etc.).

I was looking for different clinical opportunities for practicum.

He teaches some of the classes in the department, as well.

She does clinical supervision for the department.

We served on a committee together.

She's DCT or at least she was for two years.

Most often, these various roles were mentioned casually; for example to provide the setting for a story or to illustrate a point (e.g., my advisor juggles a variety of roles). However, department roles occasionally played a significant role in a participant's experience of their advising relationship. In all instances in which department roles shaped the advising relationship, a significant event (most often a conflict) occurred within the context of a department role. In this sample, that role was exclusively that of clinical supervisor-supervisee.

Several participants mentioned that their advisor had, at some point, been their clinical supervisor.

She's been the supervisor for one of my internships.

She also happens to be an important clinical supervisor that I've had.

He was my clinical supervisor this spring semester.

In a small number of cases (2), the dual role the advisor played (e.g., clinical supervisor and advisor) was highly salient for the participant. Specifically, in both cases the advisor was seen as a very harsh clinical supervisor who, via their critical feedback, significantly damaged his/her advisee's feelings of efficacy.

The supervision she gave was, sort of "Oh my god, you're really bad with giving constructive clinical supervision." ...She's lacking in social skills [generally], so you can only imagine, you're sitting there [watching tape of a session] and maybe [you are] saying too much. And she'll just [say

bluntly], “Why didn’t you just shut up?” And I was like, “Oh my God! Excuse me while I go bawling in the bathroom.”

In one case the damage to the relationship was quite severe.

I didn’t have any problems with him until this past year. [Our relationship] started off, really well...But this past semester he was my clinical supervisor and I found it really difficult to work with him because he’s a very strict behaviorist and I’m a very emotional person and I like to integrate different styles into my clinical work. And he is not open to that, so it was hard for me to contribute to our supervision group. I felt he was not very responsive to my ideas and I ended up being a lot quieter than I usually am. And at the very end of the semester, he gave me some really, really negative feedback. He said I had been an extremely difficult supervisee; and we had several meetings about it where he elaborated on it and I ended up crying. And it was really terrible. And so right now, I have proposed my dissertation but I’m currently avoiding working on it because I don’t want to interact with him.

In fact, of all participants, this advisee possibly expressed the most disdain towards her advisor; referring to him as “inappropriate,” “an asshole,” “incompetent” and “narcissistic.” The conflict also caused significant damage to their ability to work effectively together, as the participant reported completely avoiding the advisor (e.g., skipping lab meetings and not scheduling individual meetings).

These results suggest that while department level roles undoubtedly exist for all advising dyads, they are typically of limited salience. However, when there is damaged sustained to the relationship in one context (e.g., clinical supervisor – supervisee) it translates to other contexts (e.g., advisor-advisee).

Department Comparisons

The department also influences the advising relationship by providing students or advisees with other advising dyads that seem to serve as a reference point. Specifically, participants commonly referenced comparing their advising relationship to other advising relationships within the department. In this way, advising relationships were typically

evaluated by comparison rather than by merit alone. In other words, compliments or criticisms were frequently couched in comparison language.

And I really appreciate her, and I'm really thankful that she's my advisor given the other faculty members that are around here.

I mean if I compared myself to some of my cohorts, she probably makes me feel a lot more confident than some of them do with their advisors.

I mean it's not that I would really expect a lot more, but in comparison to other graduate students in my program who have relationships with their mentors that are just a little bit more friendly and warm.

Notably, the vast majority of comparisons were complimentary and reflected a way for participants to highlight their advisors' strengths in comparison to their department peers.

I really appreciate that I've gotten opportunities to do things that I think a lot of students do not get opportunities to do. [For example], the department offers a course in grant writing and they go through all that stuff, but I didn't take that course. I just learned it from working with him. And I know that my peers who have other advisors have said that the only way they would learn about [grant writing] is by taking the course and they just didn't get that from their advisors.

In fact, this pattern was sustained even for participants who could be characterized as being generally dissatisfied with their advising relationship. For example, one participant described her advisor as “micromanaging,” “controlling” and in need of “psychological help” but still reported that she found her advisor to be more invested than the other faculty.

I mean relative to my peers, it's almost like we laugh about it because there are those mentors who are not involved at all and there's those ones that are too much. It's hard to find a happy middle...and she works harder for her students than any other mentor in this department.

Another participant (discussed at length above), who talked throughout her interview about her advisor's attempts to push her out of the program also described her advisor favorably compared to the other faculty in the department.

He's very good about keeping up with me in terms of making sure we reach important deadlines. I've noticed that he really does make an effort to get a lot done quicker. Whereas other advisors in the department might actually leave me to my own to try to make that deadline. He's good about getting back to me and all that stuff.

Overall, the data suggested that most participants evaluated their advisors (even those with whom they had considerable difficulty) within the department context. This context served to reveal advisor strengths and weaknesses relative to the other faculty in the department and to influence advisee expectations for their own advising relationship. Therefore, advisees' perspectives about their advising relationship cannot be divorced from their perceptions of other faculty in the department.

Department Supports

The department context also provides advisees with a host of individuals (e.g., other faculty members) who could potentially provide support outside of the advising relationship. Along these lines, participants commonly reported turning to various individuals within the department for help and guidance. For example, the majority of participants described supportive relationships or friendships with members of their cohort and/or faculty members.

Similar to other department level contextual influences, the salience of these relationships was typically minimal, with the majority of participants mentioning them in a very casual manner (e.g., "a friend of mine in the program had something similar happen to them" or "I talked it over with my cohort."). However, departmental supports occasionally played a significant role in shaping the advising relationship. In these cases, participants almost exclusively sought departmental supports to compensate for something they identified as "missing" from the advising relationship. For instance, one

supervisee described receiving support from a clinical supervisor within the department to compensate for her advisor's limited ability to relate to her personal trials in graduate school.

I'm used to it, I'm black and I'm used to things not being able to be fixed. I'm used to things being the way they are. But it's doesn't mean that I'm happy about it all the time and sometimes I just need to talk to somebody about it. And she's not a [good] listener. So, I have my supervisor for that. ... She knows that there's another faculty member who's my clinical supervisor, who I go to when I need help, like with personal stuff, I go to her. And [ADVISOR] is fine with it, and she respects it. She knows why.

Another participant also found support from the faculty in her department. In this case, the participant found her advisor to be highly disengaged from both the research lab and advising generally. As a result, she turned to departmental relationships to fulfill nearly all of her advisor's duties.

[Interviewer] So you've mentioned that you have gotten some of your needs met elsewhere. Can you tell me a bit about that? How do you do that?

[Participant] Yeah, I guess. Let's see I've worked with several people who started out as doctoral interns here and, one of them has just finished up and is actually starting her career as a psychologist, and I guess the group of us just really hit it off... So, I go to them for professional advice and research advice and clinical advice... That's actually more the relationship I thought I would with my advisor, that I have with these people who aren't my advisor... In addition to them, I've gotten to know several other professors in the department who have been really helpful... So I feel like I have a really great network of people from whom I can get advice when I need it, and people who can help me with research ideas and just be a good founding force. I feel very supported in my program. It's just not from the person who I initially thought would be doing the supporting.

These results indicate that advisees frequently receive support from members of the department, either peers or other faculty members. Most often, these relationships appear to have limited salience with regard to the advising relationship. However, departmental

supports gain importance when the advisee is looking to compensate for elements missing from their advising relationship.

Department Evaluation

Finally, the department influenced advising relationships via its role as an evaluative body. Specifically, one role of the faculty of the training program, or “the department” cumulatively, is to evaluate both participants and their advisors. The evaluative role was highly salient to participants in the sample, with 15/18 participants making some reference to departmental evaluation.

Grad school is an evaluation, you're being evaluated. They [the department] have meetings to talk about you. That's what they do. And I'm very much aware of that and that's in my mind a lot.

Maybe it's just the climate at [UNIVERSITY], but there's just lots of faculty meetings where they talk about the students and scrutinize them and give you written evaluations all the time.

And, it doesn't help that she's going up for tenure. She submits everything in August. So, I know she's feeling the pressure this year to get stuff out because, clearly that's going to be a really big factor in their decision.

I'm one of his first students and he's working towards tenure, so he needs to show that he can develop his students.

The impact of the department's evaluative role on the advising relationship was three-fold.

First, participants reported looking to their advisors to protect them from negative evaluation. Specifically, a large number of participants stated that a valuable function of their advising relationship was that their advisor would act as defender or champion for them to “the department.”

And I want to add too, that another thing that I think has been a major part of his relationship with [me], has been his role as a protector, to sort of defend me, if necessary, in the department, to sort of speak on my

behalf. I think that a lot of times he has sort of gone to bat for me with things, for example, in terms of evaluation there's someone there that's got my back.

So like his role is to advocate for me if there's like a problem in the department. Which I haven't really had any problems in the department, but I know that he would have my back if that were the case.

He [also] will stand up for me to the program, if certain things aren't going well.

Second, some participants also acknowledged the departmental pressure of “going up for tenure” on their advisors. This form of evaluative pressure seemed to impact the advising relationship by placing pressure on the advisor to publish.

My research advisor, she's a newer faculty member. She has been at the university for about... I think she was here about 3 or 4 years prior to me coming. So, she's not tenured, on a tenure-track though. She's actually up for tenure this coming year. And the thing about that is that she's very, very driven right now to get publications, and do a lot of research, because she is up for tenure.

Sometimes the additional pressure of the “tenure clock” was viewed as a positive impact, allowing the advisee to publish more frequently themselves.

And the thing about that is that she's very, very driven right now to get publications, and do a lot of research, because she is up for tenure...And I get so many wonderful opportunities. And I realize that, by talking to other graduate students, or when I'm updating my CV and I see all of the great opportunities that I've had... Because she is very motivated and very good at what she does.

In contrast, sometimes the pressure of tenure had a negative impact on the relationship. For example, one advisee described an incident in which her advisor, after being prompted by her tenure committee, announced that she would be taking the first authorship position on all of the upcoming publications despite previous promises to the contrary.

She was getting some pressure from her tenure committee that she needed more first author publications; that she just needs to take them, even if it

was primarily her students' work she needed to claim first authorship instead of us. So she came in and told us that ... So, understandably, we were annoyed at that. But then, of course, afterwards she relented and said "No, this is just not right. I can't do this." And she apologized to all of us.

Third, the department's role as evaluator was also evident in participant reports of feeling like a "representative" of their advisor to the department. Specifically, a handful of participants discussed feeling pressured to monitor their public behavior and performance within the department due to fears (either their own or their advisors') that it would reflect negatively on the advisor. For example, one participant noted that one of the most difficult moments in her graduate career was the night before she submitted her comprehensive exam. She was among a small number of students sitting for the exams that year and was certain her exam would be easily identified as hers and evaluated as terrible. Most unsettling about this experience for her was the potential shame she would bring to her advisor if she performed poorly.

I would probably say [one of the most memorable moments] was just recently with comps... I was really panicking, thinking "There's no way I'm gonna pass. I don't think I can do this. I don't know enough. I've not read enough." Irrational thoughts like that. And I kept having this image in my head of faculty members reading my paper and laughing because it was the stupidest thing they'd ever read. I mean, I had that insecurity, definitely thinking mine's just gonna shout out "This is [PARTICIPANT]!" This is not one of the other three people; this is obviously her because it sucks. And so, then in turn, it was also gonna be shameful for my advisor because she was going to have to look at those people, who would say "This is the biggest piece of crap paper I've ever read. I can't believe this is your student." And she would have to own up to me. And I just had this really big fear, not only of making a ridiculous spectacle of myself but also making my advisor ashamed of me too.

Another instance of the impact of departmental evaluation was described by a participant who felt her advisor was very concerned about her public behavior within the department.

In this case, the pressure was perceived as coming directly from the advisor who viewed the advisee as an “extension of himself.”

[The biggest challenge is that] I'm seen as an extension of him in the department in that my behavior reflects so much on him. [For example,] if I say something in a meeting that he doesn't like, then he might react really strongly to me about it because it is interpreted by him as so much on him, that I can't necessarily have my own voice...And then, if I make a mistake then, it might be something where I feel like I'm not just disappointing him because of my own training, it's more about him and maybe he feels embarrassed or that it's a failure on his part and will be seen that way by others...so everything I do reflects on him and it just really puts a lot of pressure on me as a his student, and as somebody whose naturally going to make mistakes.

Each participant who identified as a “representative” of their advisor reported that it had a significant negative emotional impact; most likely because potential failure had much higher stakes (e.g., negative evaluation for self and advisor).

Altogether, participants' interviews suggest that the department context had a multifaceted influence on the advising relationship. First, departmental roles offer new relational contexts in which conflict and damage can occur, which can bleed over into the advising relationship itself. Second, exposure to other advising dyads provides an opportunity for comparison, helping advisees understand their advisor's strengths and limitations in comparison with their peers and providing a set of expectations for what advising relationships generally look like. Third, the department provided participants with potential supports to compensate for elements that might be missing from the advising relationship. Finally, the department's role in evaluation provides external pressure on both members of the advising dyad; causing each individual to occasionally look to the other for representation or protection.

The Historical Context

The fourth emergent context shaping the advising relationship was the advisee's history. Specifically, participants often referenced historical professional and personal relationships as a foil for their current advising relationship. Thus, participants' expectations and even current satisfaction/dissatisfaction were partially created by experiences that preceded the relationship itself. Two types of professional and personal experiences emerged as having a larger impact than others: (1) previous advising relationships and (2) cultural background.

With regard to previous advising relationships, many participants mentioned working closely with a professor or faculty prior to starting graduate school. This relationship shaped their expectations and frequently served as a basis for comparison for the current relationship. For example, some participants reported having been being in authoritarian style relationships with their undergraduate advisors and expected a similar relationship with their current advisor.

I thought it was going to be all business, hardcore, really intense because that's how all my other advising relationships have been.

Where I had worked just prior to [graduate school], I had a lot of respect for the other person [undergraduate advisor] in terms of their ability to get research out and do a lot of work and do really good work, but they were a slave driver to their grad students. And there was sometimes belittlement, like if you weren't willing to put in fourteen hours days all of the time then there's something wrong with you. So I came in with the expectation that grad school was going to be like that.

On the other hand, other participants reported having warm, caring relationships with their previous advisors and expecting a similar experience in their graduate advising relationship.

I had a really great relationship with my undergraduate advisor so I guess I was expecting more of the same. He was very interested in our lives and very excited for us and very supportive of applying to grad schools and that whole process.

My undergraduate advisor was fantastic. She was such a nice, warm person, who really believed in me and pushed me to apply [to graduate school], and helped me through that process. I wouldn't be here without her. So, I felt like we'd [current advisor and advisee] have more than just a business relationship. And, so I guess I had that expectation going into grad school; that I would have a warm person to work with.

In addition, these expectations had an impact on advisees' current experience of and satisfaction with their advising relationship. For example, one common theme was for the participant to come from a warm relationship and transition into a more businesslike relationship. This was perceived as both a difficult transition and in many cases experienced as a disappointment or loss.

And, so I guess I had that expectation going into grad school; that I would have a warm person to work with. ... It was just a very different [experience]... It was definitely a violation of my expectations. It was hard to get used to.

I think the biggest challenges were that I came in expecting my relationship with my advisor to be similar to relationships that I've had with other advisors in the past, which is more collegial, more open... not so guarded and more the advisor looking out for the advisee's interests. And so, I think I was more open [initially] because that's what I expected. And after successive disappointments, I've become more and more distant and independent in my work with her.

I was expecting someone who would be very supportive and very much an advocate. Someone I could really look up to. And I think that just made things tougher when it didn't happen.

In contrast, one participant came from and remained in a businesslike relationship and was apparently much less affected by the emotional distance.

I guess I based what I expected from her off of what I had before. And I had worked with people who were incredibly research oriented. And, that's a certain type of mentality compared to a smaller research institute rather than a research institute that's very top heavy. And I was expecting

her to be that type of individual that I had come from working with, and indeed, she has been that. I expected to have a very demanding relationship.

Another common theme was to transition from a businesslike relationship into a warm relationship. This type of transition often resulted in feelings of relief and gratitude.

Obviously I went in, and I'd worked with a research coordinator for this person [previous mentor], I worked [a lot], I remember working a lot of weekends, working way over what I was getting paid to work for. So I came in with the expectation that grad school was going to be like that the whole way through. Yeah, that's another thing that [I] was pleasantly surprised to find out, that it wasn't going to be like that.

Prior to grad school, the lab I worked in was with a lot of researching MDs and they had the medical model of a "closed-door policy". You learn by being taught by what you're doing is wrong. It was a very "tough love" [mentality], well it was much like residency. So even though the head of my lab was an extremely nice individual, he would just rake you through the coals for not following every procedure down to a T. And so, while I knew that that wasn't always the case, that was what I was used to. And so, I was kind of expecting more of the same. I was pleasantly surprised to find out that wasn't the case with her.

Thus, participants' experiences with their previous advisors provided a backdrop for understanding their current experiences and ultimately played a role in their satisfaction with the relationship.

In addition to prior advising relationships, participants (particularly those who were from minority ethnic groups) referenced their cultural background as shaping the advising relationship. Though the specific impact varied by participant, what seemed clear was that cultural differences added a layer of complexity and, frequently, conflict to the relationship. For example, one participant, who identified as a woman of color, found that her relationship with her advisor was strained due to her advisors attempts to "fix" problems that she had grown to accept as part of being a minority.

I didn't like living here because it's a predominantly white area. It's not like I'm not used to it, I'm very used to living in predominantly white areas. But [I am] also used to having my support network and it's not here because I'm four hours away from home... I mean the biggest thing was that she would always try to fix it. She'd [say], "Okay, so what can we do? What can I do? Let's fix this. Let's do this, let's do that." And I'm like you can't fix anything and I think she just got frustrated with that.

Another example involved a participant with an Asian-American background.

Specifically, she struggled early on in her advising relationship because her more passive communication style was misinterpreted by her advisor as arrogance.

I think, one being an Asian woman and coming from more of a community-oriented type of background, we don't [tend] to necessarily be as individualistic and assertive in what we want or need. And so I think he comes from the other side [Western American way] of looking at things and so for example, if I don't ask for help, and he picks [it] up and thinks I'm being arrogant, that I think I don't need any help. [Then] I have to explain to him that it's not that I think I know everything, it's the fact that I, in fact, don't want to be burdensome. And I had to tell him that straight out. But it took us awhile to even get that point.

Whereas cultural differences seemed to make the relationship more complex, cultural similarities seemed to facilitate closer relationships. For example, one participant shared a cultural heritage (Latin-American) with her advisor. In this case, the advisee noted that their shared heritage provided the initial foundation for the high degree of safety and intimacy that was established in their relationship.

Funny enough, when she was looking at my application more [thoroughly] after she had offered me a position, she found out that my ethnic background is Hispanic. And her mother is from Bolivia and so she speaks Spanish. And it was really, really neat that the first time, [I] came into her lab, she just immediately started talking to me in Spanish. And it was like, "Oh my god, its sounds so good" ...it just sounded like a bit of home...And so, I always felt a bit of safety and security in that.

Therefore, cultural background provided an additional layer of context for the relationship. Differences in cultural background seemed to add additional pressures and

increase the potential for conflict. A shared cultural background seemed to ease understanding and connection in the advising relationship.

In sum, advising relationships do not begin in a vacuum. Rather, there is a history of both professional (e.g., prior mentors) and personal (e.g., cultural background) life experiences that provide the initial context for the advising relationship. Furthermore, historical contextual factors shape current experience by providing a basis for comparison (in the case of prior mentoring relationship) and means for understanding one another (in the case of cultural background).

The Personal Life Context

The final emergent context shaping the advising relationship was the advisee's and/or the advisor's personal life. Specifically, participants commonly referenced significant personal life events (e.g., illness, death, marriage) or relationships (e.g., spouses, children) as impacting the advising relationship. Most frequently the personal life context was referenced as impacting the relationship by either (1) influencing the time and energy each member could devote to the relationship or (2) by shifting either party's goals or aims for the relationship.

Specifically, participants referenced a variety of significant personal life events that impacted their advising relationship, including major moves, weddings, divorces, and funerals. Though the events themselves were predominantly idiosyncratic, significant life events were similarly related in that they were all described as siphoning resources from the advising relationship.

I think that there are some times, like now, I'm planning a wedding. And, I'm not nearly as invested and working hard and putting in as many hours as I typically do.

I had never had any problems [with him]. And then there was this incident...[where] he basically screamed in [a] hostesses' face because they wouldn't seat us until our entire party was there. And we were all mortified and just like "Wow, we've never seen this side of [ADVISOR] before". He's always so nice, and it was just weird and eye-opening. Later we found out he was having some problems with his wife and possibly getting a divorce.

And she was having problems, you know, her mom was really ill... so I knew she was under a lot of stress. So, like there's some understanding behind why you might be a little short in interpersonal interactions.

This was most dramatically evident in the case of one type of personal life event: serious illness. For example, one participant discovered a latent illness during the course of her graduate training that significantly impacted her performance within the research lab. Her advisor noted her sub-standard performance and interpreted it as the laziness or carelessness of a poor student. This resulted in feelings of resentment and mistrust in the case of both parties.

I found out that I had a thyroid issue, but I didn't realize it until the symptoms were pretty strong. At the time, I had a lot of fatigue, a lot of cognitive difficulties just remembering things and being able to walk down the block without being exhausted and so it affected my work. And so it took a while to prove to my advisor that I wasn't just slacking off... yeah it appeared [to him] as if I was just maybe slacking off from doing my work in grad school when in fact it was a health issue. Just because of that there was a lot of disagreement and argument.

It was not exclusively advisees whose serious illness had negative implications for the advising relationship; advisor illness was also mentioned as taking a toll. For example, a participant noted that her advisor was very ill during a portion of her training and that it created a significant conflict in their relationship. Specifically, the advisor was not forthright about significant medical symptoms, yet likely because of them made a series of costly mistakes to the advisee's thesis proposal.

I wrote up this whole proposal and [for] about six months, she looked draft after draft, week after week, and about a week before it went to

committee, she realized that the questions that I was asking the data wasn't in SPSS. She realized that they had collected [the data] but never entered it. And it was a multi-site study, and so all that information was at a different site. And when we contacted those people, they were like, "Oh, we actually just incinerated all those questionnaires because we didn't really need them anymore". So my whole proposal was worthless, and I had to start all over again. ... And, I was really, really upset at her for a while... But then, like a year or two later she disclosed to me that she was actually going through some pretty bad medical problems at that point and that I had no idea.

Thus, the data suggest that significant life events are common to advising dyads and exert an influence by tapping into each individual's finite energy and time. Often this is minimal (e.g., temporarily siphoning resources or causing out of character behavior), but occasionally, particularly in the case of serious illness, the impact can be quite significant (e.g., loss of months of work, significant damage to the relationship).

Significant life events and relationships also exerted an influence by changing the goals or aims of the relationship. Specifically, some participants mentioned how a recent engagement, marriage or family illness made them reconsider their career plans. For example, one participant began to reconsider her professional goals when she became engaged. Specifically, she realized that her advisor's characterization of a demanding professional life as an academic did not fit with her hopes for a connected family life.

He often says things like, "To succeed in this field you know you've gotta work 16 hours a day; at least 12 hours a day" and that's not the kind of life I want to have. I don't want to not be there and not be present with my family and I don't want to come home and carry that stress and that anxiety home with me to my family.

Similarly, another participant realized that his family priorities were inconsistent with his career aims. Specifically, he stated that his initial reason for pursuing a career in academe was hopes for long family summers where they could visit his wife's family's ranch.

Part of the draw of academia for my wife and I is having some time off in the summer months. She grew up on a wheat and cattle ranch and so being able to allow our children to have exposure to that way of life is important to us. So the draw of academia is that it would allow us to have these summers to be able to go and do things like that, go spend an entire summer on the ranch or somewhere else, and getting that exposure and connection to land.

However, when he discovered that academicians most often spend their summers carrying out research obligations; his goals for graduate training came into question.

The most recent conversation I had with him when we were talking about the life of a researcher and what that's about...Then this whole idyllic vision of ours of being able to be professors and have summers off is no longer a reality because you're having to work to manage grants that are required for advancement in these academic careers that we chose [so that we could] have summers off in the first place.

Together these results indicate that advisory relationships are shaped by the personal lives of the advisor and advisee, such that major events play a role in the energy and time devoted to the relationship, and the goals for the relationship.

In sum, the data on the contextual elements suggests that advising relationships are shaped by a variety of forces outside of the relationship itself. The most salient contexts were the research lab, department, personal history and personal life. On the whole, these contexts shaped advising relationships via a variety of mechanisms; including influencing the way interpersonal cues were sent and received (e.g., cultural background), setting up expectations for the relationship (e.g., prior mentoring relationships), providing peer groups for comparison and competition (e.g., lab and departmental level peers), adding pressures and responsibilities (e.g., advisors role as team leader, employer, and defender, advisee and representative) and either increasing resources or siphoning them from the individual parties (e.g., lab and department supports and significant life events). Also, results suggest that although most advisees were involved in all contexts, their individual

influence was of limited salience until either conflict or a significant life event generated awareness. Thus, advising relationships are not insulated from these significant forces and, in order to fully understand the relationship, its situation within these contexts must be considered.

A Dynamic Relationship

The fourth, and final, emergent theme indicated that the advising relationships changed over time. The core of this theme is that advising relationships are not static but rather constantly changing. Sometimes these changes are gradual and apparently the result of the accumulation of history with one another. Sometimes the changes are dramatic, the result of a critical moment or turning point that shifts the relationship immediately. Concordantly, the advising relationship was characterized as having two types of changes: (1) gradual changes and (2) critical shifts.

Gradual Changes

The first type of advising relationship change that emerged from the data was gradual changes. The hallmark of this type of change is that it moves slowly, making it difficult to pinpoint a moment or time frame in which the relationship shifted. In fact, some participants who experienced this as the predominant form of change initially stated that their advising relationship had remained unchanged.

Not really much has changed.

You know it's really not that different.

It's kind of been consistent.

However, upon further discussion it always became apparent that changes had occurred, but they had transpired in such small increments as to be nearly indiscernible.

Furthermore, two types of gradual changes emerged from the data: (1) gradual practical changes and (2) gradual interpersonal changes.

With regard to practical changes, participants noted a variety of ways in which their advising relationship had gradually shifted to address different tasks across the course of training. One common trend in this area was to begin by focusing on facilitative duties (e.g., monitoring coursework, discussing programmatic timelines) but to gradually shift away from that as time passed.

He checked up on things a lot in the beginning. So, for example, I don't know if you remember starting clinical work, but that is a little stressful when you first start doing it. So, at first he often asks you how clinical work was [going] and asked me about more information about my clients, maybe. Just to make sure I was kind of handling things okay... so in the first year of doing that he was very hands-on. Always asked me questions... And then you know as time went on he, he stopped asking that much about that. And it was the same with classes as well. Yeah, the first two years are really class heavy. There's a particular kind of class load we have to take and in the first year he was really concerned about the classes. He'd ask me a lot about each instructor and what tests were going and then after, the first year went by and everything was okay he stopped asking about classes.

I know that definitely during my first year, he did a lot more checking in with me. "How are classes going? How's adjusting going" you know, "How are things like that? How are you integrating yourself into graduate school?"

It was it was just a lot more structure [in the beginning] as far as identifying goals, meeting goals reviewing goals, setting new goals, and so on.

Another trend was for advising dyads to meet on a more structured schedule, with a more structured agenda earlier in the relationship.

My first and second year, I pretty much met with her once a week, every week. And then, when my thesis was proposed, we still met probably, once a month at that point to just kind of check in because we were in data collection mode. So, like we would meet to check in, maybe once every other week or once a month to just to make sure that things were still

going smoothly with the study because it was just her and I. And then, when that wrapped up, and I started into comps really heavily my fourth year, like, I honestly, I didn't really ever meet with her. If we would meet, we'd honestly, maybe meet at her house for dinner or something like that.

Probably we were not meeting quite as frequently. We probably meet more now, but much less formally. It is not like "Oh we are meeting from 12 till 1 on Friday." It is much more like: "Hey can I run something by you? Can you come over?" And will sit and then 45 minutes, you know, later we will have decided, what measure were gonna pick our extreme groups on. It is just different. Like the meeting we used to have, I would spend the night before preparing for and doing formal research in order to go into the meeting with her... So I think we do meet a little more not, but is' really more the nature of the meetings that different that it used to be.

A final trend was for advisors to shift the focus to professional advisement duties (e.g., developing professional identity, acculturation to the politics of academe) around the fourth year.

Now we're focused on defining a career path.

Only in the sense that, he knows what to focus on at different times in terms of your professional development. His questions change. For example, right now he asks about internship choices a lot. And so he'll ask more important questions about that, and what kind of job I want to pursue.

These trends combine to create a picture of the advising relationship's content and focus gradually changing to reflect the most proximal goals for the advisee (e.g., shifting from managing the course work of graduate school, to the research and clinical requirements and finally to exiting the program). Further, results suggest that advisors adjust not just the content but the structure of advisement to reflect a developmental pattern (e.g., meeting in a more structured way when the advisee is less academically mature, and meeting in a less structured way then are ready to enter the work force).

With regard to interpersonal changes, three trends emerged in the way that advisors and advisees related differently across the course of training. First, the most common

interpersonal trend was for the relationship to shift toward an increase in freedom across the years. For example, several participants noted feeling as though the relationship was more “collegial” or “independent” than it had been initially.

It's definitely more independent.

Over time, it seems that he has treated me more and more like a colleague.

I think he relates to me more as an equal than he used.

Participants noted that this was typically communicated via an increasingly “hands off” approach to advising. This typically meant that the advisor engaged in less monitoring of advisee performance and behaviors.

I have noticed that during the dissertation process compared to the thesis process, my advisor has been more hands off with draft writing or suggestions or things like that.

She lets me be more independent now ... she doesn't monitor me as closely, I guess. She knows that if I say I'm gonna write a paper by the end of the semester that I'm gonna do that and she doesn't have to meet with me every Friday from 12-1 to see where I am and what's holding me up.

I definitely think that she respects my independence more. She is more confident in my abilities and she doesn't check in on me as much. She'll let me take a project and run with it and she's confident that I'll be able to handle it. So, my independence has grown a lot more.

In some cases, it also meant that advisees increasingly considered professional colleagues rather than trainees.

Initially it was more like her training me, it was like a really good student-teacher relationship. Where now, it feels much more like a junior-senior faculty or junior-senior colleague relationship. You know, I cannot imagine her writing a grant without a lot of help from me at this point. Any major lab decisions won't get made wade without my input... In the past it was much more like trainer-trainee.

With research projects or awards, he'll ask me what I think about an idea and then if I don't like his idea or if I have a problem with the idea I voice that and he seems to really listen and take it seriously.

Second, another interpersonal trend was for the advisee to develop an increasing sense of security across the course of the relationship. For example, a handful of participants noted initially feeling intimidated and later feeling confident.

I think I was a little intimidated by him at first. I remember my first year, in the very beginning, it took me time to get past how bright he was, and how knowledgeable he was... I was concerned that he would think I wasn't what he looked for in a student, that I was more average than he initially thought. Then over time, he validated [me]. He say he brought me in because he thought I was what I am, that was nice. I wasn't sure what expectations he would have [for me]. I was worried that his expectation would be very high from the get-go. Now, I think they were but I was a little shocked to find out I could meet them.

One participant relayed her developing security by describing a decreasing need to check in with her advisor.

It used to be the case that every time I took a breath, I'm exaggerating, I'd email him and let him know, every little thing that I did, I'd let him know what was going on. And as I have gained more independence and more confidence, I have figured out what he does and doesn't need to be told about...I actually check in with him a lot less, I think because I have figured out more when he doesn't really care to know what I'm doing because you know, he trusts that I'm doing it fine and I'll just give him the final product versus you know, checking in and giving him more frequent updates.

Finally, some demonstrated increasing security by growing increasingly able to speak freely, even to disagree.

I would say at the start of last year, I really just started to say I whatever I had to say. We reached that point in our relationship where she knows that I don't ever really approach things as any type of disrespect to her. So I kind of feel like I'm basically, completely open about stuff with her and just speak my mind.

I think I've gained a lot more ability to speak more frankly and to disagree with him, to say no.

The final interpersonal trend was for the advisee and/or advisor to become increasingly emotionally invested over the course of training. Specifically, several participants noted that their relationships became “closer” over the course of training.

I think we've just become closer than in the beginning.

I mean interpersonally you just get closer.

This universally represented a pattern of increasing emotional investment in one another, where both came to know and care about a widening portion of each other's lives. One participant put it this way:

In the beginning, we were just kind of getting used to each other and it was very much straight laced, by the book kind, just business. It was still warm, yet she would ask me “How's your family?” and I'd be like “Oh, they're good. How are you?” and she'd say “Oh good.” But we would never go into detail about certain things and now it's different. It's progressed... She's definitely more open with me about her life than she used to be... I know a lot more about her life and vice versa.

Another participant stated:

I didn't know him very well at first, so there was a lot of small talk. Then [our] relationship got a little deeper [laughter]. Now I know more about his life and his friends and kind of personal stories about him and he similarly knows about me personally as we've gotten to know each other over the years... That's the change [I've seen] and the sense that we've become closer so that our conversations are a little more personal I'd say and that's kind of established, we don't have to do small talk all the time.

This trend even applied to an advisee who described herself as typically “boundary oriented.” Specifically, this advisee had described how she generally preferred to limit her emotional investment in professional relationships, but also found that she became increasingly emotionally invested in the advising relationship over the years.

I probably open up to her a little bit more... just that it takes me a while because I just don't trust people very easily. I mean I open up to her a little bit more than I used to. Like, I'll tell her I couldn't write the race identity section of my dissertation because it was like a big ole roadblock

for me mainly because it was too personal. So, I'll tell her that, and she'll help me talk through it, but I probably wouldn't have told her that before.

Altogether, these trends combined to create a picture of the advising relationship as gradually progressing from a more hierarchical relationship, characterized by larger degree of control, insecurity and interpersonal distance, to one of mutuality, security and emotional investment.

Of significant note here is that not all participants described their relationships following these general trends. In fact, this pattern was not even the norm for the sample, with only 38% (7/18) of participants describing a similar course of relational development. However, 100% of participants who described their advising relationship as predominantly shifting via gradual changes fit these trends. Thus, these results do appear to suggest that in the absence of a critical shift or turning point, a trend toward increasing mutuality, security and emotional investment is the norm.

Critical Shifts

The second type of advising relationship change that emerged from the data was critical shifts. The defining characteristic of this type of change is that it is obvious and typically tied to a specific memory or series of memories relayed by the participant. For example, one cue that a participant experienced critical shifts as the predominant form of change was a tendency to refer to an important moment or moments throughout the interview.

I mean, I think both of us have come quite a long way...The relationship started off a little rocky but it has gotten much better over the course of time... yeah, it started off a little lacking, but she's very supportive and we were able to work through it, so.

It's interesting because there are certainly times that I've been very frustrated with her... I've had some odd interpersonal exchanges with her from time to time

When queried about these moments, participants would typically share the story of an event or series of events that shifted the dynamics of their advising relationship. Notably, the driving force behind these critical shifts was almost always a conflict of some sort. Conflict is used here to refer to an incompatibility (either internal or external) that pressed upon the participant to be resolved. Two types of conflicts were at the core of the critical shifts: (1) intrapersonal conflicts and (2) interpersonal conflicts.

Intrapersonal Shifts

Critical shifts brought on by intrapersonal conflict were the result of an incongruity between a participant's expectations of their advisor and the actual behavior they observed. Specifically, many participants relayed a story where their advisor did or said something that was so different from what they were expecting as to change their way of relating in the relationship. Often these moments might go unnoticed to others but were of salience to the participant. For example, one participant experienced a critical shift when her advisor offered her written notes from her thesis defense meeting.

I remember when I defended my master's... I was presiding, I was doing my pamphlet slides and I was answering questions and so on and I didn't really get a chance to write down the comments from my other committee members ... But, right after the meeting, he actually handed me a piece of paper with all the comments from other committee members and also questions he had. And I was really, I don't know how to put it. I was really, not shocked, but touched. I really appreciated what he did because I would never imagine having my advisor take notes for me at my committee meeting. It was really important because it really shows that he really cares about my work and he really cares about me as an individual.

Critical shifts could either be positive or negative.

Positive, intrapersonal critical shifts occurred when an advisee's expectations for their advisor were violated thereafter changing the way the advisee perceived his or her advisor or their relationship in a positive way. For example, one advisee shared how an early meeting with her advisor (where she relayed her desires to pursue a predominantly clinical career) made her feel supported and free for the remainder of their relationship.

[I appreciate her] because I was able to tell her very early on that I didn't want a research career, and it's pretty well known here that if you do that you're advisor will pretty much disown you... but she was like "No, that's really great. I'm glad that you've come to that understanding about yourself. It's really important that you do something that you love. And I'm totally supportive in whatever you want to do." And so [for example], last summer, I met up with a clinician at a conference who runs a pretty well-known clinic in Oklahoma. And, he was like "You should just come down for the summer and just see patients here if you want." And I was like, "Really?" and so, I told my advisor. And she said, "No I think you should do that. Go for it!" rather than saying "No, I want you to help me with my research." And so it's moments like these when I think, I've really got a supportive advisor.

Another advisee relayed a positive, intrapersonal critical shift that occurred when his advisor stepped into an uncomfortable situation he was encountering with another faculty member.

Yeah, another critical moment was probably when I ran into the trouble with that other faculty member that I was telling you about, where he was kind of stalking me. And then [the other faculty member] pulled me into his research and I said "I'm not that interested in this," but he strong-armed me into going to meetings with him, [me] and a fellow grad student of mine in my lab, and then when we started backing out. Then he started calling me, literally ten to twelve times a day about when were we going to meet next. And it was just really bizarre and really uncomfortable and felt like a political game that we didn't want to play because, I don't want to insult a faculty member that's pretty prominent while I'm trying to get through my program. Well, [me and the other graduate student] let my advisor know and as quick as we could say it he confronted the person and made it his issue. So [he went to the faculty and said] "This is inappropriate for this, this, and this reason. And these are my students and they need to meet this for me." [My advisor] took it all upon himself, it get us out of that situation without it having a negative impact on us at all.

And that was a moment when I knew that he was there to support us; at that moment it was really crystal clear.

Finally, another advisee relayed a positive, intrapersonal critical shift that occurred when she approached her advisor with concerns about their relationship and her advisor reacted in a positive, but unexpected, way.

I would say there was a talk I had with her that really stands out, because that was a real turning point early on. And then, I'd say it got suddenly better... [The most memorable moment] was the conversation we had, that I was alluding to earlier. [During this conversation] I said to her, "Look, you know, the way I've been getting feedback from you really makes me want to give up and makes me feel like I'll never be a successful clinical psychology student." And you know, it just communicated to her "Look I can't deal with this. I really can't. And I'm sorry but something has to change. It makes me feel like I don't belong here when that happens." And, since that moment there has been nothing but positive repercussions. I mean she literally, like, sat back and just paused. And I was freaking out because I'm like oh my gosh, she's gonna kick me out of the program. Instead, she just said, "I am so sorry." And it was like, "What!?! Okay, awesome!" I mean, it was just very, very difficult to have that conversation. But then to have her apologize, that was so cool!

Negative intrapersonal critical shifts, on the other hand, occurred when an advisee's expectations for their advisor were violated, thereafter changing the way the advisee perceived their advisor or their relationship in a negative way. For example, one advisee shared a series of "awkward interpersonal exchanges" that changed her expectations for the relationship negatively. Specifically, the participant, who originally hoped for a warm, emotionally invested relationship, came to be emotionally disengaged as the result of approximately five small incidents including a moment when her advisor publicly criticized her grammar (see above for full quote, "*Ahhaha, you mean the data are ready to go*"), another where she chastised her for asking questions during a lab meeting (see above for full quote, "*You should know this!*") and still another where she asked the advisee to move down a few seats at a conference (see above for full quote). As a result,

this participant reported determining to emotionally disengage from the relationship; though she was notably still bitter and resentful in tone.

At this point, my efforts have stopped. I've detached and don't even try to be friendly anymore with her because of my past experiences. I'm very much all business now because I'm just to the point of, why do I even try? Why do I set myself up and try to be nice to her only to be shot down?

Another advisee described an incident in which she lost respect for her advisor after he made a sexist comment during a lab meeting.

A significant moment for me was towards the end of my first year. So, I guess it was sort of mid first year, we were talking about interview weekend, and he was saying how it sure would be nice to "get some more men in the lab." And, all of the women [in the lab] raised their eyebrows like, "What is he saying?" Then he went on to say how women behave so much better when there's a higher man-to-women ratio and we have too many women in the lab right now and, that's when bitchiness and cattiness come out. And all of us women were looking at each other silently, like expressing "What the hell is he saying? We all got along really well." And I was thinking "What you're saying is that women need men to keep them in their place!"

This advisee also reported a pattern of disengagement from her advising relationship.

Together, these results suggest that intrapersonal conflict is common in advising relationships and can resolve in a critical shift to the benefit or disadvantage to the advising relationship. What is also important about this type of conflict is that it has high potential for invisibility. Specifically, though some of these events might have been noticed by the advisor, others likely were not. In the case of a positive result, this is most likely not problematic. However, in the case of a negative result, this type of conflict can result in a critical shift toward disengagement from the relationship with little opportunity for resolution.

Interpersonal Shifts

Critical shifts brought on by interpersonal conflict were the result of an identifiable point of shared animosity in the advising relationship. Specifically, 8 of 18 participants (44%) told a story in which they and their advisor were directly and mutually angry with one another for a period of time. The specific content of the conflicts varied dramatically from disagreements about employment duties, to quarrels about authorship, to cultural clashes; however, what unified the stories were the participants' experience of the conflict as a turning point in their advising relationship. For example, recall the participant quoted above who described her first few years with her advisor as "rocky" due to a cultural conflict (see above for full quote, "*I mean the biggest thing is that she would always try to fix it*"). Another example involves an advisee's dispute with her advisor about authorship on a paper.

There was an incident where there was a seminar that he was teaching, and I was in there. And I came up with an idea for a research study, and there were ten other people there who heard me come up with it, and he was like, "Oh, that's a great idea. We should work on that." And then, I found out like a month later that he was having someone else in the lab take first author on that paper, and he had written like a few pages of it without even telling me that they were starting on the project. And I emailed him, and said "I was really excited about this project. I'd really like to take the lead on this if possible." But he told me that it was more important that this other student who was going up on the job market soon had another first author publication, so she needed to be first author. And I asked to meet with him about it, and he met with and basically accused me of being selfish and he couldn't even understand why I was making such a big deal about this. So I ended up still working on the paper and I did a lot of work on it, but ever since then, I've been really bitter toward him because I feel like what he did was dishonest and took advantage of me. ... So that was the end of my second year when all that happened. And, I felt better about him back then, but I don't think I'll ever go back to the point of feeling really positive toward him because of that... But as far as he's concerned, that was all resolved. But basically, he was being so mean during the meeting that I was afraid I was gonna start crying, I just wanted to get out there, so I couldn't really express everything that I

wanted to say. And so we left the meeting with him thinking that everything was fine.

Like intrapersonal conflict, interpersonal conflict could result in either positive or negative relational shifts. Although the immediate consequences of an ongoing conflict were predominantly negative (e.g., anger, hurt, fear, withdrawal), what really seemed to dictate the long-term impact of conflict was whether or not it was resolved. Specifically, resolved conflicts typically led to an increased sense of security in the relationship. For example, the participant who described her relationship as initially “rocky” (above) described their present relationship as “supportive,” “collaborative,” and that they make a good team.

[Participant] I think both of us have come quite a long way. [For example,] she says “I don’t know why I’m your dissertation chair, I know nothing about this [topic area].” But the reason why is because nobody would help me design it as well as she could.

[Interviewer] So you make a good team?

[Participant] Yeah, we work well together. [laughs] Finally! We do now.

Another advisee reported a series of conflicts with her advisor in her role as project coordinator. These conflicts were predominantly related to the advisee’s feelings of being “overworked” and “micromanaged” by her advisor. In this case the initial impact was quite negative.

[Participant] That’s when it was the hardest and I actually thought about leaving her lab. Because it was her project, it needed to be done her way. But with her, it’s just like minute details over and over again. They would change one day, go back the next day. I mean down to needing to cut paper on the paper cutter a specific set way.

[Interviewer] Sounds as though you felt a bit smothered maybe?

[Participant] Oh yeah! And again, not right now because I really worked to set up better boundaries with her, but in that second year, oh my gosh! We’d here her footsteps come down the hall and it’s like I’d shudder and cry, “Oh no, it’s coming.”

However, the advisory relationship dramatically improved via a series of conversations over the conflict. Specifically, the advisee learned how to set limits with her advisor in a way that her advisor could hear and respect.

Like this is second year when I had the issue and then the conversation with her, and we finally came to agreement. Communication increased in terms of our working relationship. I told her how I felt, and one of the comments she had was that I was stubborn or needed to be more flexible in some domains.... And, through that conversation, that's where I would come down every time she would give me a new task. Okay, you want me to do X, Y, Z. I have two hours. What, what needs to be done today? What do I need to delegate to someone else? ...And I think she's adjusted to me, too. ... She's changed so much.

In contrast, unresolved conflict had a series of negative consequences including increased hostility, insecurity, and disinterest (both emotionally and in some cases professionally) in the relationship. For example, one participant who had a series of unresolved conflicts with her advisor in her position as project coordinator described herself as mistrustful of her advisor and as decreasing in both her emotional and professional investment in the relationship as a result.

[Participant] I am not very trusting of her... I do not have a relationship with her where I share very much at all about my personal life. I don't tell her most of the time what I'm thinking or working on in the lab. I generally do my own thing and rely on her when I need support of a professional but never personal level. But even with that it's limited. For instance, I'm applying to clinical psychology internships right now, and so I've asked her for a letter of recommendation and I'll tell her the sites that I'm applying to but I'm not having conversations with her about why I'm applying to particular sites, because that's a professional choice but I also don't think that she'd be very helpful because it's more personal...Another thing we don't talk about is teaching vs. research vs...we don't talk about long-term career decisions.

[Interviewer] And do you mind sharing with me your reasoning for not discussing that with her? Or do you have any reason that you don't share it?

[Participant] I think that because she is emotionally labile at times, I don't trust that I can rely on her for emotional support. So now I try and keep that separate. So and I guess that might a sort of boundary between personal and professional for me; my, my professional life has less affect tied to it.

Another participant who had a conflict with her advisor in his role as clinical supervisor also reported a large degree of hostility and increasing distance in her advising relationship. Specifically, despite her reports of feeling satisfied prior to the conflict she used some of the most hostile language of any participant to describe her advisor (e.g., “incompetent,” “asshole,” etc.) and she also frankly stated that she was coping with the conflict by avoiding interacting with him.

[Participant] Right now my favorite aspect is that I don't have to see him very much...Like right now the way I relate to him is by avoiding him...I basically don't want to schedule a meeting with him and him being that he's typically hands off, he's not pressing me to.

[Interviewer] Okay, so at present you really feel like the conflict between you is being ignored?

[Participant] I am actively ignoring it because I don't want to cry in front of him again because he used that as evidence of my...he called it “inappropriateness and unprofessional conduct.” I'm ignoring it just to get through and to handle things. And I don't know why he's ignoring it. I do think that it's not his responsibility now that he's not my supervisor.

Together, these results suggest that, though interpersonal conflict is difficult, its long-term impact is neither inherently positive nor negative. Instead it is how the conflict is handled (either via resolution or distance/withdrawal) that determines its full impact. Specifically, these results suggest that open dialogue facilitates conflict resolution and the advising relationship as a whole, whereas conflict avoidance leads to hostility and disinterest.

In sum, the data on the dynamic nature of the advising relationship suggests that it is not static and is instead continuously progressing or radically shifting. On the whole, two sets of dynamics occur: gradual changes and critical shifts. Specifically it seems that relationships free of significant critical shifts progress gradually, or develop over time, to become more freeing, more secure and more emotionally invested. Advising relationships also change via critical shifts or moments in which either an intra- or interpersonal conflict shifts the relationship. These shifts can either be positive (e.g., changing the relationship to be more freeing, secure or invested) or negative (e.g., changing the relationship to be more hostile, less secure and/or less invested).

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS

THE PROPOSED INTEGRATIVE THEORETICAL MODEL

In the previous chapter, the four core themes that emerged from the qualitative interviews of the doctoral candidates were identified and described. The themes derived indicated that advising relationships are interpersonal, goal-oriented, contextually shaped and dynamic. In this chapter, an integrative theoretical model is proposed. The proposed model shows how the four core themes relate to each other and provides a framework for understanding and evaluating advising relationships and the various issues and dimensions that characterize them.

The Playing Field: Defining the Nature of the Advising Relationship

Overall, the interviews overwhelmingly indicated that advising relationships are not just, or even predominantly, working relationships. Instead, the data suggested that the essence of advising relationships is interpersonal. As a result, the first core concept in the proposed integrative theoretical model is that advising relationships are most meaningfully characterized in interpersonal terms. Specifically, the proposed integrative theoretical model posits that the interpersonal core of advising relationships is defined by four central dimensions of temperature, control, security and investment. Each of these dimensions and their role in the proposed theoretical model are described below.

The Relational Quadrants: The Role of Temperature and Control

Recall that the first two interpersonal components to emerge from the data were the dimensions of temperature and control. Specifically, temperature was defined as an

interpersonal dimension ranging from warm to hostile and reflects the degree to which the advisory relationship was characterized by mutual respect, compassion, support, or liking on the one hand (warmth), or antagonism, animosity, and disrespect on the other hand (hostility). The interpersonal dimension of control ranges from freeing to controlling and reflects the degree to which the advisee felt regulated, dominated or under the command of their advisors on one hand (controlled) or liberated or affirmed by their advisors on the other hand (freed).

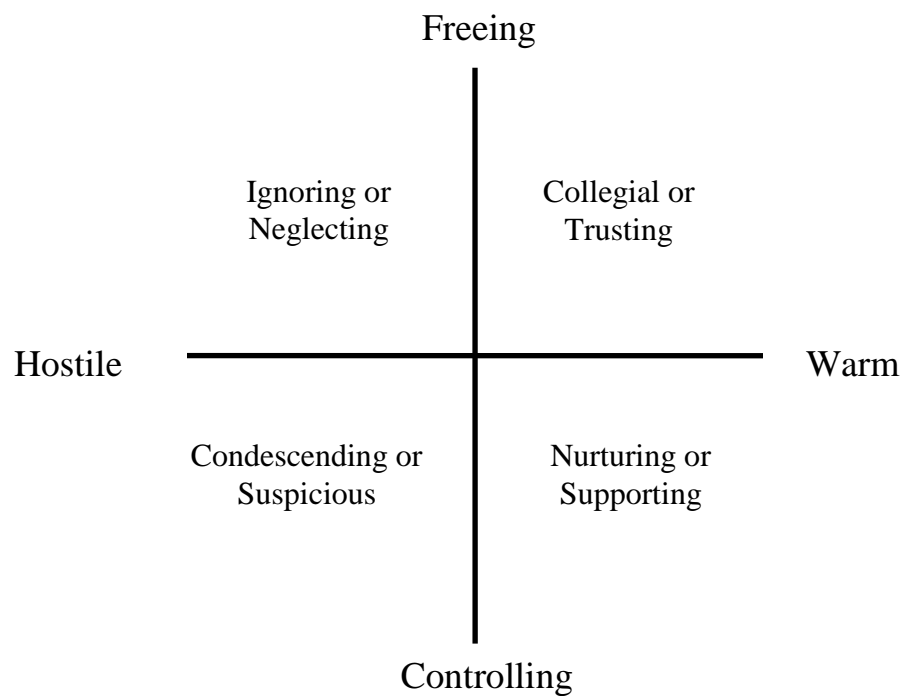
The integrative theoretical model proposes that these two dimensions are intersecting vectors which combine to create four relational quadrants (see Figure 1). In this way, each quadrant represents a potential relational state that reflects the combined experience of temperature and control in the relationship⁵. Specifically, according to the proposed theoretical model, advisory relationships (including the specific interactions which comprise them) inherently include elements of both temperature and control and that very few, if any, relationships reflect neutrality on either of these dimensions. Thus, it is highly improbable that any advisory relationship can be defined as *only* warm or *only* controlling. Instead, most advising relationships are characterized using combined terms. For example, several participants in the study described their relationships as “collegial,” a term which includes both elements of warmth and elements of freedom.

Specific interactions that occur in the advising relationship can also be characterized by a combination of temperature and control. For instance, a participant whose advisor publicly rebuked her experienced elements of both control (e.g., monitoring and regulating behavior) and hostility (e.g., disapproval) in that specific relational moment. This indicates that, at any given point in time, an advising relationship can be globally

⁵ For similar conceptualizations of these two interpersonal dimensions see Benjamin, 1974; Leary, 1957.

categorized as falling into one of four potential relational states: (1) collegial and/or trusting (warm and freeing), (2) nurturing and/or supporting (warm and controlling), (3) condescending and/or suspicious (hostile and controlling) and (4) ignoring and/or neglecting (hostile and freeing).

Figure 1: Temperature-Control Quadrants



Examining the right (or warm) half of the grid more closely, we find two relational states generally characterized by mutuality, respect, and complementary roles. Stated another way, relational dyads on this half of the grid are effectively working together, or “on the same page.” In the collegial/trusting state, this mutuality reflects the dyad’s concordant views of the advisee as competent and capable. Thus, from the advisee’s perspective, being in a collegial/ trusting state in the advising relationship develops their

sense of self-efficacy by validating and encouraging use of already present abilities. Consistent with advisees' sense of high self-efficacy, advisors who are in a collegial/trusting state in the advising relationship send interpersonal messages that communicate their view of the advisee as an effective and capable professional. For example, one participant in a collegial/trusting relationship state described her experience this way:

[Interviewer] Describe your most favorite aspects of your relationship with your advisor.

[Participant] I think the best thing about my advisor and our relationship is that he treats me like a colleague...He has faith in my abilities...I take more risks and put myself out there in ways that I don't think I would've been able to do on my own. It was his encouragement and saying "You can do this" ...even when I may have doubted whether or not I had anything worthwhile to say. So his encouragement and treating me like an equal encouraged me to go beyond and really grow as a scholar and have more confidence in myself as a researcher.

Mutuality is also reflected in nurturing and/or supporting relational states in which both individuals in the dyad share the view that the advisee needs support and development. The nurturing/supporting relational state falls on the warm end of the temperature dimension (e.g., communications of mutual respect, compassion, etc.) and it combines these warm feelings with advisee feelings of being regulated or monitored by their advisors. Thus, from the advisee perspective, the essence of the nurturing or supporting state is to feel looked after, developed, or taken care of by the advisor. Concordantly, advisors in a collegial or trusting state with their advisee send interpersonal messages which communicate the desire to support and help guide advisee development and growth.

The nurturing/supporting state is distinguished from the collegial/trusting relationship state by the presence of a need for development on the part of the advisee. For instance,

the advisory dyad in a collegial state mutually accepts the advisee “as is.” In contrast, the advisory dyad in a nurturing state is actively promoting (through assignments, feedback or challenge) advisee growth or change. For example, one participant described his advisor as characteristically nurturing and supportive. In this case, the advisor frequently integrated “coaching minutes” where he sought to teach the advisee important lessons about the field of academe.

So he's very big on constantly talking about professional development issues and using every opportunity to have “coaching minutes” as he calls them... [For example] remember the example I gave before about agreeing to give this lecture without talking to him? Well, he really thinks everything through so fully and thinks about the pros and the cons of the issues that might come up. And that's something that I never really did before I got into grad school. I tend to be somewhat more impulsive than that... and so he'll talk to me about really thinking things through before I commit and things like that.

Essentially, relationships that predominantly exist on the warm side of the grid can be globally characterized as mutual or reciprocal. In contrast, advisees whose advising relationships exist predominantly on the hostile side of the grid can be characterized as antagonistic, disparate, or at odds. Stated another way, individuals in hostile relationships have divergent opinions or are “not on the same page” and land in one of two relational states: the condescending and/or suspicious relational state or the ignoring and/or neglecting relational state. These states are characterized by feelings of hostility experienced by one or both individuals.

Advising dyads in condescending and/or suspicious relational states are characterized by animosity which is reflective of disparate opinions about the advisee's competence or ability to function independently. From the advisee perspective, the essence of the condescending and/or suspicious state is to feel micromanaged or taken advantage of by

the advisor. Thus, the advisee in this relational state does not want to be controlled, or does not feel that the advisor's attempts to teach or guide him/her are warranted or constructive. However, the advisee perspective is at odds with the advisor perspective, whose interpersonal communications suggest the view that the advisee needs to be controlled because of incompetence or limited professional potential. For example, one advisee who felt unfairly judged and controlled by her advisor described her advisor's frank feedback for her in this way:

[My advisor told me to] stop being so emotional. Stop perceiving slightly negative things as crushing. Do more research. Want to be a tenured faculty researcher, as opposed to being interested in balancing out teaching, research, and clinical work.

In this case, the advisee felt that her advisor saw her as generally incompetent and wrong but she did not agree with his position and as a result was angry and rejecting toward her advisor.

Finally, like the condescending/suspicious state, dyads in the ignoring/neglecting state hold disparate views of the advisee's ability to function independently, which leads to animosity in the relationship. However, advisees in the ignoring/neglecting relational state want and need more direction and support but feel that the advisor is not providing for these needs. Thus, from the advisee perspective, the essence of the ignoring and/or neglecting state is to feel overlooked or dismissed by the advisor. The advisor, on the other hand, likely feels burdened by advisee demands. For example, one advisee described feeling very frustrated with her advisor's limited feedback.

Overall, I feel pretty negatively. I mean, don't... this is my last year here, so I'm looking forward to having someone who actually mentors me wherever I end up next. I don't think he's a bad person, but I just wouldn't recommend that someone join our lab... it's hard. I mean on the positive side I'll leave here with a lot of publications. It won't be hard for me to

get a job... he doesn't hassle me a lot and I think he's a decent person. But on the negative side, I don't get real guidance, I don't have face-to-face contact. I don't get feedback.

In sum, the first component of the proposed theoretical model integrates the first two emergent interpersonal dimensions, temperature and control, into a grid of four relational states. Specifically, the model asserts that each advising relationship, at any given moment, can be characterized by a combination of warmth/hostility and freedom/control. Further, it asserts that the position in this relational playing field reflects how well the dyad works together or struggles to work together.

Relational Stability: The Role of Security

The next emergent dimension to play an important role in the interpersonal playing field is security. Recall that security referred to the degree of fear, anxiety or doubt experienced by the advisee and ranged from feelings of insecurity (anxious, nervous, doubtful, etc.) to feelings of security (safety, comfort, etc.). The integrative theoretical model proposes that security reflects the advisee's sense of the relational stability or predictability of the advising relationship. Specifically, feelings of insecurity reflect the advisee perception that the advisory relationship is changeable or unstable (e.g., my advisor may think well of me today, but that could change tomorrow), whereas feelings of security reflect relational stability (e.g., I may make a mistake today, but our relationship will be the same tomorrow). In addition, the model posits two forces that shape advisees' experiences of security or insecurity.

First, advisees' feelings of security or insecurity may reflect the actual relational stability or changeability of the advising relationship itself. For instance, one participant who felt insecure in her advising relationship squarely identified that swift and dramatic

changes in her advisor's perceptions and affect toward the relationship were the source of her insecurity.

[Interviewer] Describe how your advisor makes you feel.

*[Participant] Oh, nervous! ... *Laughs* Yeah, normally I would say anxious and nervous... I think that because she is emotionally labile at times, I don't trust that I can rely on her.*

This advisee went on to tell several stories illustrating her advisor's shifts from amicable to angry, including a moment in which her advisor suddenly became angry over progress on a study and another in which her advisor was incensed about an email exchange in which the advisee "misrepresented her." In this case, the advisee's feelings of insecurity were reflective of the actual instability of the advisor.

Participants who reported feelings of security reported viewing their relationships as largely stable. In some cases, these participants noted moments in which they were fearful the relationship would change, but it actually remained stable. For example, one participant who reported currently feeling highly secure in his relationship noted initially being fearful that his advisor would someday reject him; however, he found this not to be the case in the relationship at all.

I'm thinking back to my interview, when he was clearly evaluating me and he was clearly very bright. I think I was a little intimidated by him at first. I remember my first year, in the very beginning, it took me time to get past how bright he was and how knowledgeable he was. And my concerns were that he would realize I wasn't what he looked for in a student and that I was more average than he thought I was. But over time he validated me and told me that he brought me in because he thought I was who I am, and that was nice.

In this case, this advisee's ability to feel secure was a reflection of the actual stability of his advisor's opinions. These examples suggest that advisee reports of security are tied to

the lived experience of the relationship and can reflect whether or not the relationship is generally stable or unstable.

The second primary force shaping feelings of security (particularly insecurity) are advisees' preexisting expectations regarding the stability of advising relationships. Stated another way, advisees enter advising relationships with ideas about the likelihood of stability that have nothing to do with their experience of the advising relationship itself.

In the previous chapter, this was referred to as the contextual force of history. Recall that advisees' perceptions of their current advisory relationship were intimately related to their experiences in previous advising relationships and their cultural heritage. One of the ways this seemed to most obviously influence advising relationships was to set up expectations about the stability of advisor opinions. For example, participants reported feeling anxious due to unrealized fears of negative evaluation or conflict that they attributed to their ongoing character traits or the result of previous relational history, rather than the result of changing or unstable advisor views.

I always feel extremely self-conscious around him and afraid to, okay this part's definitely me, make a mistake or be caught being not perfect.

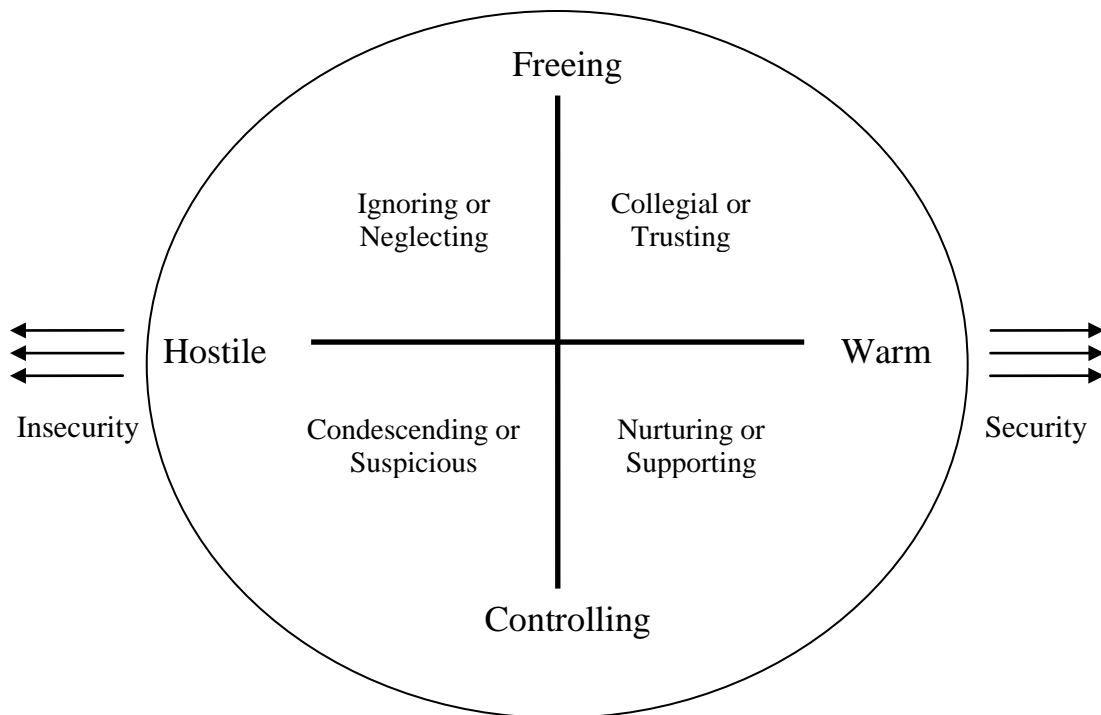
In these cases, it was not changes in the relationship itself which resulted in insecurity but the *anticipation* of such negative shifts.

Thus, the proposed theoretical model integrates these findings by positing two potential etiologies for advisee feelings of security or insecurity: (1) actual relational stability or instability and/or (2) historical stability or instability in relationships with authority figures (e.g., parents, prior mentors).

The proposed integrative theoretical model posits that advisee level of security impacts the relationship regardless of etiology (see Figure 2). Specifically, advisee

feelings of insecurity act as a magnet, pulling the relationship toward hostility by sowing elements of doubt, mistrust and fear into relational exchanges and interpretations. For example, an insecure advisee is more likely to view advisor support as disingenuous and potentially passive aggressive. In the same way, advisee feelings of security also act as a magnet, pulling the relationship toward warmth by sowing elements of safety, trust and assurance into relational exchanges and interpretations. For example, a secure advisee is likely to be less impacted by small hostile exchanges as they are viewed as a result of a “bad day” rather than a reflection of an advisor’s long hidden resentment.

Figure 2: Impact of Security and Insecurity



Overall, the interpersonal dimension of advisee security (either originating in the advising relationship itself or in historical relationships) acts as a magnet on the playing field, pulling relational dyads toward warmth or hostility. Although security acts as a magnet, it is notable that security, or relational stability, does not necessitate warmth. Nor does insecurity, or relational instability, necessitate hostility. For example, imagine an advisee who is in a collegial and trusting relationship with their advisor. If the advisee is secure, this state is easily maintained and even propelled to become warmer. However, if the advisee is insecure, the collegial state is in competition with the force of insecurity; making a sustained warm relationship more difficult.

Interpersonal Currency: The Role of Investment

Finally, the interpersonal dimension of investment plays an important role in shaping the playing field of the advising relationship as well. Recall that the emergent interpersonal dimension of investment reflected each individual's practical and/or emotional stake in the relationship (i.e., how much each individual cares about or will be impacted by the success or failure of the relationship) ranging from invested to disinterested. Recall also that there were two subtypes of investment: professional investment and emotional investment. Professional investment referred to each individual's stake in the advisee's development as a researcher or more broadly as a psychological professional. Emotional investment, on the other hand, referred to the individual's stake in the emotional well-being of the relationship or the extent to which the state of the relationship is valued by the advisor and advisee.

The proposed model integrates these findings by first conceptualizing investment as a form of interpersonal currency that can be contributed or withheld. In this way both

professional and emotional investment are tender and can be combined; however, they are of different types and values. For example, professional investment refers to an interpersonal currency paid in activities which develop the advisee as a researcher. For example, a professionally invested advisor might provide thorough feedback on a research manuscript or be prompt in returning advisee e-mails. Emotional investment refers to an interpersonal currency paid in activities that seek to develop the emotional well-being of the relationship or consider the other as a whole person. For instance, an emotionally invested advisee might think or talk about the dynamics of the relationship itself, or seek to demonstrate gratitude by purchasing a birthday card for their advisor.

Similarly to actual currency, interpersonal currency can be paid in large doses (e.g., two weeks focused solely on an advisee's dissertation is a large dose of professional investment) or accumulate gradually through small actions (e.g., receiving thorough and considerate responses over the entirety of the relationship). Also like actual currency, interpersonal currency has differentiating value, with some actions being more valuable (e.g., \$100 bill) than others (e.g., \$.50). For example, consider an advisee who is very interested in emotional investments. They may meet and exchange pleasantries frequently with their advisor (e.g., depositing loose change) but rarely discuss issues of relational significance (e.g., large bills) resulting in a minimally invested advisee.

Unlike physical currency, the interpersonal currency of investment is difficult to withdraw. Specifically, investment occurs on a moment-to-moment basis (e.g., the decision to pay attention to the sad look on an advisor's face comes and then goes) and once it has passed, the investment cannot be either made or unmade. Investment can also diminish across time. Continuing with the currency metaphor, this would be akin to bank

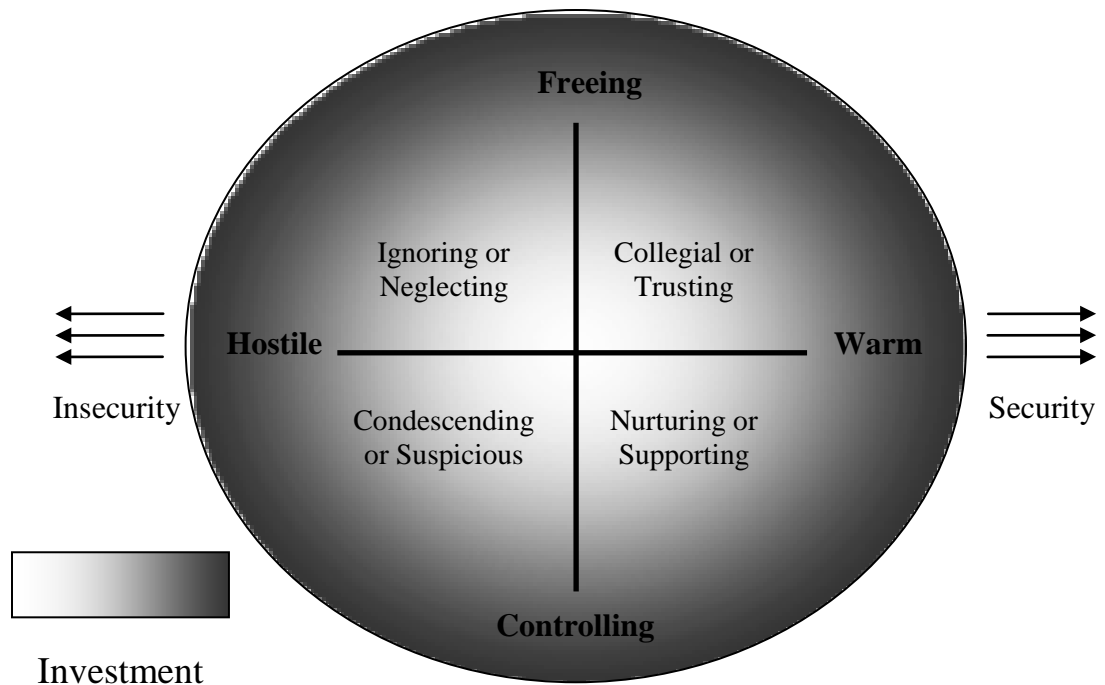
fees diminishing the value of an account rather than actual withdrawals. Thus, without withholding investment, total investment typically accumulates across time.

Notably, advisees are typically required to be more invested than advisors. Specifically, at the outset, advisees enter the advising relationship with significantly more at stake than do their advisors; or, to use a poker metaphor, advisees are asked to ante much more interpersonal currency to the pot than their advisors. For example, advisees, at the very least, are entering a graduate program where they have little (if any) formal authority, are looking to their advisors to be their primary trainer and evaluator and are hoping to successfully navigate a difficult and unfamiliar process. Advisors, on the other hand, are degreed individuals who are employed by the department and imbued with evaluative authority, and also often have existing relationships with a series of graduate students. For advisees, the initial investment is huge (e.g., a lot of time and energy spent working to impress this person) and the stakes are high (e.g., failure means public embarrassment and delay at the least, and loss of preferred career path at the most). For advisors, on the other hand, the initial investment can vary considerably and in no case is the advisor risking their livelihood. In this way investment provides a clean examination of the power dynamic in the advising relationship and illustrates that the default position is for the advisee to be more invested than the advisor.

With regard to its impact on the relational playing field, the proposed integrative theoretical model posits that investment impacts the relationship by accounting for the valence of feelings for and about the relationship, such that a more invested individual has a more intense experience of the quadrant of reference (see Figure 3). For example, imagine two advisees, both in relationships that currently fall in the nurturing or

supporting (warm and controlling) quadrant. In one case, the advisee is minimally invested; in the other case, the advisee is highly invested. According to the proposed integrative theoretical model, the advisee who is minimally invested will experience similar affect toward their advisor; however, with less intensity than the advisee who is highly invested. Thus, to continue with the poker metaphor, those with more chips on the table react more strongly (either positively or negatively) to the outcome of the hand.

Figure 3: Integrating Investment



Overall, the interpersonal dimensions of temperature, control, security and investment coalesce in a complex manner to create the playing field for advising relationships.

Temperature and control are communicated in varying degrees and combinations across a

series of interpersonal moments, pushing the advising dyad into ever-changing relational states. These two dimensions operate together to set an overall tone of collaboration or discord for the professional work that is to occur within the relationship. Interpersonal messages containing varying degrees of temperature and control are perceived and communicated through the advisee lens of security (or lack thereof). Interpersonal security functions like a magnet and serves to pull the dyad toward mutuality or conflict. Finally, the level of investment each individual brings to the table either amplifies or attenuates the interpersonal experience and professional importance of the advising relationship.

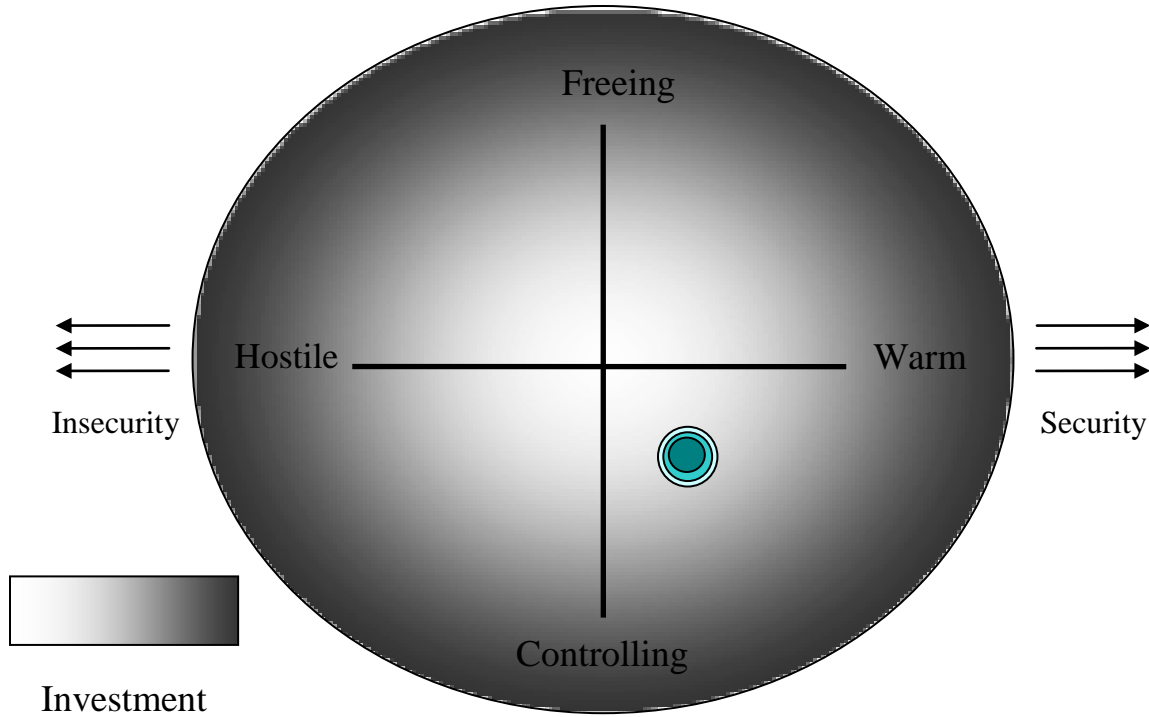
The Players: Who Influences the Advising Relationship?

The section above was focused on describing the four potential relational states of the advising relationship and the major interpersonal dimensions which characterize and influence these states. The following section articulates the conceptualization of the key players in defining movement within and between the relational states. Specifically, in the integrative theoretical model it is proposed that the relationship occurs at one point on the defined field at any particular point in time. For example, examine Figure 4.

In this image the relationship itself is represented as by a turquoise circle, falling in the warm/controlling quadrant; indicating that the relationship is presently in a nurturing or supporting state of moderate investment. However, this relationship is not stationary. Instead, it is a dynamic relationship, constantly moving shifting within and between relational states. This section will fully define and explore the mechanism by which this movement occurs. Specifically, it will identify the key players whose needs, preferences

and engagement combine to propel the relationship. This section also identifies the three most influential contexts in which the players reside and exert their influence.

Figure 4: Integrating the Players



The Immediate Context: The Advisory Dyad

The first two (and by far, the most important) players involved in determining the position and course of the advising relationship are the advisor and advisee themselves. Specifically, both advisors and advisees enter the advising relationship with personal history (i.e., historical context) and goals (i.e., goal-oriented relationship) which can combine or collide to influence the course of the relationship. These combinations and

collisions are the central directional force of the advising relationship. Specifically, the model poses three types of movement: (1) movement along the temperature dimension, (2) movement along the control dimension and (3) movement along the investment dimension.

Movement along the Temperature Dimension: Match

Recall that the goal-oriented and historical context themes pointed to the idea that from the outset all advising relationships are pointed toward particular goals. In the goal-oriented section, these goals were characterized as potential roles advisors could play (e.g., facilitator/overseer, research supervisor, professional advisor and role model). What also emerged was that different advisors emphasized different roles and/or approached similar roles differently (e.g., research lab vs. apprenticeship approaches, check with vs. check on styles of facilitating). Further, the findings regarding the importance of historical context (e.g., previous advising relationships and cultural background shape expectations and preferences for the advising relationship) suggest that advisors and advisees enter advising relationships with a preference for particular types of goals and roles. Sometimes the dyads in this study were in agreement regarding the goals and roles of the relationship (e.g., we are both most comfortable with an apprenticeship, “check with” style of relating); sometimes they were not (e.g., she emphasizes her role as research supervisor but I want to be a clinician).

The proposed theoretical model integrates these results by positing that it is this process of goal/preference combining, “match” or goal/preference collision, “mismatch” that comes together to create the first directional force of the advising relationship. Specifically, advisory dyads can be well matched (i.e., having similar goals for the

relationship) or poorly matched (i.e., having dissimilar goals for the relationship). For example, imagine an advisory dyad in which both the advisor and advisee conceptualize the relationship as a “professional relationship” where the role of each player is to work hard to develop the advisee as a researcher. In this relationship, the advisor and advisee are likely to behave similarly (e.g., spending time working on manuscripts together, developing research ideas and discussing options for a career in academe) and appreciate each other. In this case they are “well matched.” Imagine, on the other hand, another advisory dyad in which the advisee is interested in developing a more emotionally attached relationship where she can explore both her personal and professional identities and the advisor is interested in a relationship aimed at preparing the advisee for a career in academe. In this case, the advisor and advisee are likely to behave contrarily (e.g., advisor spending time on professional development activities, advisee sharing personal stories and thoughts) and the players are likely to devalue or disapprove of the others contributions. This dyad is “poorly matched.” In this way, match and mismatch can be considered directional forces within the advisory dyad that propel the advising relationship toward either warmth (via matches) or hostility (via mismatches). The impact of match and mismatch is represented visually in Figure 5 by directional arrows: right, towards warmth, for matches and left, towards hostility, for mismatches.

Figure 5: Integrating Match

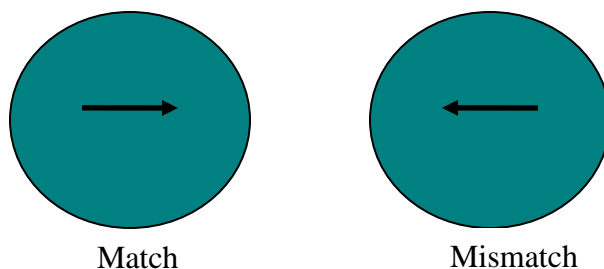


Figure 6: Match vs. Match

<i>Advisee</i>	match vs. mismatch	<i>Advisor</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Wants to be an academician</i> 	→	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Wants to develop academicians</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Wants to explore research related to children</i> 	→	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Is willing to explore research related to children</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Wants to work 35 hours per week</i> 	←	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Expects no less than 50 hours per week</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Needs to develop writing ability</i> 	→	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Likes editing manuscripts</i>
Total Match vs. Mismatch	→	

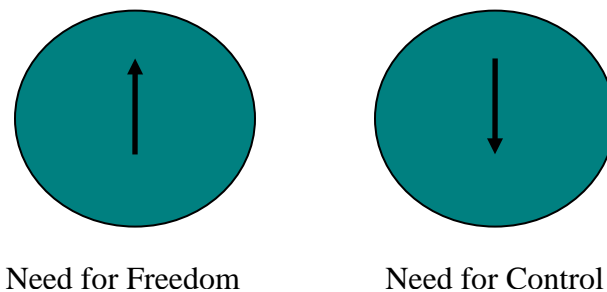
Although described and represented globally here, global match and mismatch actually represent a number of smaller matches and mismatches that exist and occur in a daily, relational, moment-to-moment manner. For example, imagine an advisee who is research oriented and wants to pursue a career in academe, who is paired with an advisor who also wants to produce academics. We can imagine that a number of their goals and roles would match, creating a global match. However, it is possible, and quite likely, that some small goals and roles mismatch; just not to the extent that it impacts the overall match of the relationship. Figure 6 further illustrates this possibility. Thus, it is via match and mismatch that movement along the temperature dimension is determined (e.g., with matches moving toward warmth and mismatches moving toward hostility).

Movement along the Control Dimension: Needs

While movement along the temperature dimension is largely determined by match, movement along the control dimension is largely determined by needs. The term “need” is used here to refer to a pressing professional or personal requirement, a lack of

something wanted or deemed necessary. Most obviously, this is represented by an advisee’s “need” for professional development. For example, writing a dissertation is a requirement of graduate school. Thus, if an advisee “needs” to develop as a writer, this constitutes a need that impacts and shapes the advising relationship. Specifically, an advisee who needs to develop as a writer likely needs more control, guidance, or direction (i.e., via the monitoring and evaluation of manuscripts) from the advisor. In contrast, if the advisee is a well established writer, the advisor’s feedback is unnecessary and constitutes a “need for freedom” (e.g., less intense editing of manuscripts, validation of the advisee as is; see Figure 7).

Figure 7: Integrating Needs



Outside of advisee specific needs for professional development, other influential needs exist as well. For example, imagine an advisee who enters into the advising relationship with an interpersonal need to function independently due to a history of abuse by authority figures. In this case, the advisee is likely to push for freedom (e.g., consulting with the advisor infrequently, or bristling at significant feedback) or express a “need for freedom.” Similarly, imagine an advisor who has an interpersonal need to be seen as perfectly competent due to a history of being shamed for small mistakes. In this

case, the advisor is likely to push for control (e.g., frequently monitoring the advisee's public behavior and chastising the advisee for imperfect performance) or express a "need for control."

Like match, though described and represented globally here, needs for freedom and control represent a number of smaller needs that exist and occur in a daily, moment-by-moment manner. For example, imagine an advisee who is generally competent with few needs for practical development, paired with an advisor who also sees them as capable and competent. We can imagine their relationship would largely be dominated by needs for freedom. However, it is possible that some small needs for control remain, just not to the extent that it impacts the overall match of the relationship. Figure 8 further illustrates this possibility. Thus, like match, the directional force resulting from the individual needs in the relationship are cumulative.

It is important to remember, that needs are not always agreed upon by advisors and their advisees (e.g., the advisor believes the advisee needs control and the advisee does not). This represents a type of mismatch; moving the relationship along the temperature dimension toward hostility (see above). The movement along the control dimension in this circumstance is related to the need with the more powerful thrust or force. Stated another way, it is the need with greater investment that propels the relationship.

Movement along the Investment Dimension: Force

Thus far, movement within and between relational quadrants is conceptualized as being due to a series of matches and mismatches, needs for freedom and needs for control. The final element which must be incorporated to fully understand the movement of the relationship is investment. Specifically, while matches and needs dictate the

direction of movement, investment accounts for the force behind them. Essentially, not all matches/mismatches and needs for freedom/control are created equal. Some matches and needs are much more influential than others. For example, two advisors may both need to be represented as fully competent to their department peers. However, if one is facing an upcoming tenure review meeting and the other has been a fully tenured faculty for several years, their needs are likely to vary correspondingly in intensity.

Figure 8: Control vs. Freedom

<i>Advisor</i>	
• <i>Sees advisee as competent and capable</i>	↑
• <i>Generally prefers to allow advisees to work independently</i>	↑
• <i>Is currently up for tenure and wants to be represented as competent to peers</i>	↓
<i>Advisee</i>	
• <i>Is a competent researcher</i>	↑
• <i>Requires extensive feedback on manuscript writing to feel competent</i>	↓
• <i>Works well independently</i>	↑
Total Control	↑

Investment accounts for these differences by scaling the force or thrust of the needs. Specifically, recall that investment was conceptualized as the interpersonal currency of the relationship, traded via behaviors of various values (e.g., \$.50 vs. \$100) and accounting for the valence of feelings in the relationship. At the individual level, investment then applies to the amount of currency or the value placed on different types of matches and/or needs. For example, imagine two advisees who want to research children both working with advisors who are unwilling to research this area (a mismatch). For one advisee, this is viewed as critical to their success as a professional (an invested mismatch). For the other, this is viewed as a compromise for the sake of training (a disinterested mismatch). In the case of the first advisee, this would likely create significant feelings of hostility and potentially move the relationship to a hostile relational state. In the case of the second advisee, the mismatch would likely create some feelings of irritation but would not have the force to move the relationship out of its current relational state. In this way, investment accounts for the directional force of the mismatch.

Figure 9 demonstrates how this is integrated into visual representation of the proposed integrative theoretical model. Specifically, the force of movement is represented by the weight of the arrows: thin, for minimally invested forces, moderately thick for invested forces and heavy for highly invested forces. Matches and needs that have no investment at all (or are disinterested) are not represented at all, as there is no thrust and therefore no impact.

Taken together, advisor and advisee daily lived experience of match, needs and force cumulatively dictate movement in the relational grid. Thus, within the immediate context

(represented by the turquoise circle in Figure 4) there are a potentially large number of arrows of various directions and weights that average together to create the general thrust and movement of the relationship.

Figure 9: Integrating Investment (Force)



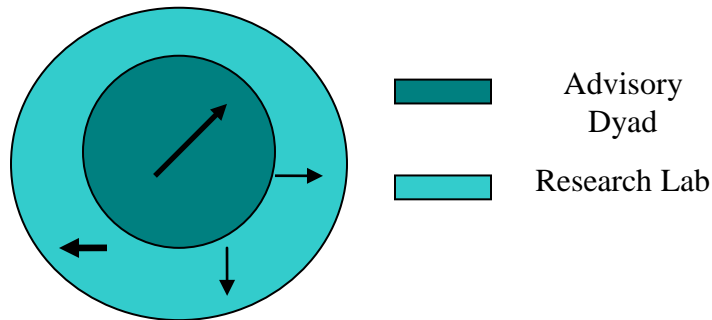
The Primary Context: The Research Lab

In addition to immediate forces within the advisory dyad itself, recall that relational forces outside of the dyad significantly influenced the advisory relationship. The first of these contexts was the research lab. Recall that the essence of this theme was that advisor and advisee relationships with the other lab members influenced the advising relationship itself; most often by offering other persons with whom to compete, compare, support and gossip.

The proposed theoretical model integrates these findings by suggesting that the research lab provides an additional layer of directional forces which impact the advising relationship. Specifically, imagine an advisory dyad housed within a research lab characterized by mutuality and respect (match), willingness to work with and help each other (investment) and a general belief in the competence of one another (need for freedom). This would create an alternate (albeit less influential) force outside of the immediate context which would propel the advisory relationship toward a collegial,

trusting state. In the proposed integrative theoretical model, this context and its potential forces are represented as the first concentric circle surrounding the immediate context (see Figure10).

Figure 10: The Immediate and Primary Contexts



Though the example discusses a unified research lab influence, this is rarely the case. Instead, individual relationships and small groups tend to form within the research lab which can (and often do) exert different types of directional force. In order to account for this fact, the proposed integrative theoretical model represents every salient relationship independently, with one directional force possible for each individual and/or group relationship within the lab.

For example, refer again to Figure 10. In the center, the immediate context of the advisory dyad is represented. It is cumulatively moving toward warmth, freedom and investment, suggesting a prevalence of matches, a global need for freedom and a moderate degree of investment. In the encompassing circle, the research lab (or primary context) is represented as having three salient relational forces. The most salient of these forces is a push toward the hostile side of the grid; for example, the advisee may be close

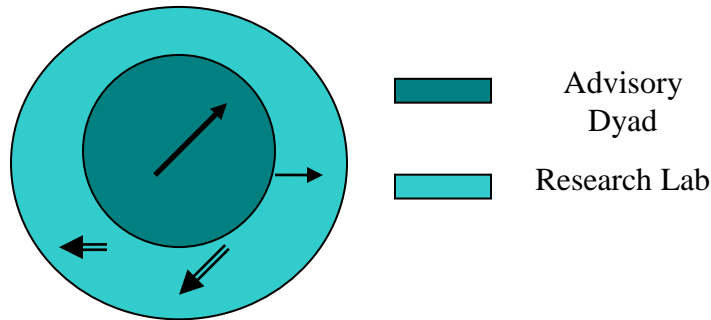
to two peers within the lab who frequently criticize their advisor as too critical. The second of these forces is a less forceful push toward the warm side of the grid; for example, the advisee may also have a close relationship with a third peer who speaks highly of their advisor and points out his good qualities. Finally, the third directional force is a push toward the controlling side of the grid; for example the advisor may have an advisee who needs more close regulation that places pressure on him to oversee all relationships similarly.

Notably, the number of potential relational forces increases swiftly with each additional research lab member. For example, imagine a research lab of 5 (advisor, advisee and 3 peers). This produces 9 potential forces due to direct, or one-on-one, relationships (3 advisor-peer relationships, 3 advisee-peer relationships, 3 peer-peer relationships) and another 10 potential grouping forces called alliances. (The term alliance here is used to refer to a group relationship involving three or more persons merging together around similar efforts, interests, or agendas.)

Alliances are unique in that they exert a larger force than individual relationships themselves. This is due to the fact that they combine the investments of multiple individuals and they tend to be synergistic. For example, imagine a six person lab in which the advisee aligns with two peers who all feel angry with their advisor for providing minimal feedback. This alliance's force toward hostility on the advising relationship is determined by the combined investment of all of the members regarding the issue itself (e.g., minimal feedback), the advisee's investment to each individual member and finally the advisee's investment to the group itself. Further the existence of the group (e.g., a number of peers with whom the advisee shares negative opinions) can

serve to insulate the advisee from differing perspectives, diminishing the likelihood of change.

Figure 11: Integrating Alliances



Due to their unique impact, alliances are represented as double-lined arrows in the model rather than single-lined arrows (see Figure 11). Specifically, recall the example above where the advisee was invested in a relationship with two other peers who disparaged their advisor as too critical. This is an example of a relational alliance pulling toward a hostile relational state (represented by the double-lined arrow pointing left). Also imagine that the advisor from this dyad has an alliance with the remaining two peers, whereby they criticize the other lab members as “lazy.” This is an example of a relational alliance pulling toward hostility and control (represented by the double-lined arrow pointing left and down). Together, this example paints a picture of a dyad which within the immediate context is collegial and trusting but has the weight of two hostile alliances siphoning the relationship’s momentum. Thus, a critical component of understanding the current relational state and course of an advisory relationship is to

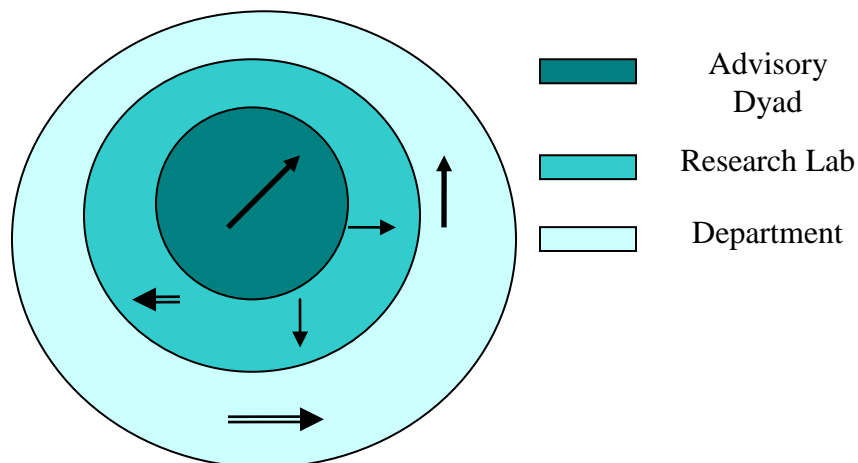
understand the most salient relationships in the research lab and the directional force they exert on the advisor-advisee relationship.

The Secondary Context: The Department

The next context to exert an influence over the advisory relationship was the department context. Recall that the essence of this theme was that advisor and advisee relationships with the department as a whole, and with individuals within the department, influenced the advising relationship itself; in this case the influence occurred most often by offering perspective (via advisory dyad comparisons), providing others from whom to receive support, or by providing a mutual evaluative body.

The proposed theoretical model integrates these findings by suggesting that the department provides the next layer of directional forces impacting the advising relationship, represented by the third concentric circle surrounding the immediate context (see Figure 12).

Figure 12: The Secondary Context



Like the immediate and primary contexts, salient one-on-one relationships are represented by single-lines and significant alliances are represented by double-lines. In Figure 12, the single-line arrow represents a one-on-one relationship, moving the advisory relationship toward freedom. An example of this could be a relationship between an advisee and a significant supervisor who provides support and encouragement. As the supervision relationship increases the advisee's feelings of competence, it creates an increased need for freedom in the advising relationship. Next examine the double-lined arrow in Figure 12, which represents an alliance moving the advisory relationship toward warmth. An example of this could be a group of faculty (of which the advisor is a member) who work together to promote student rights. This causes the advisor to frequently consider student issues and be sensitive to her own advisees' difficulties, which then impacts the advisory relationships by making the advisee feel heard and advocated for.

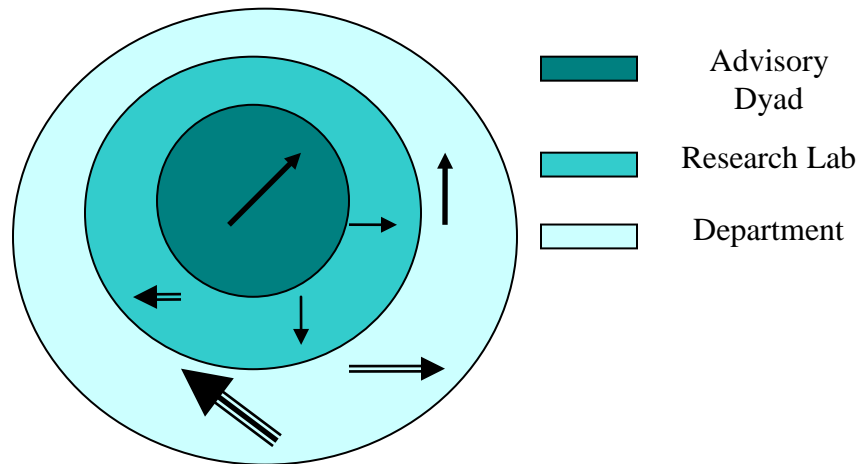
Like the research lab context, the number of potential relational forces increases with the number of available faculty and peers within the department. Also like the research lab context, only those relationships which are exerting an influence are represented in the diagram.

However, what was unique about the department context is that it was capable of adding an additional type of relational force: the department culture. The term "culture" here is used to refer to the shared behaviors and beliefs characteristic of a body of people as a whole, in this case, the psychology department. Culture is also a unique force, in that it exerts a more comprehensive impact relative to either individual relationships or alliances. This is due to the fact that culture combines the investments of multiple

individuals over generations and may even be represented in formalized policies and procedures.

For example, imagine a psychology department housed in a prestigious 100-year-old university that produces predominantly academicians. This department's cultural force was laid out decades before the advising relationship, has been invested in by numerous trainees and faculty members, and was likely the basis for the composition of the formalized policies for training. This type of relational force is tremendous. On the other hand, consider a psychology department that is new, which graduated its first Ph.D. candidate less than two years ago and recently hired over half of the staff. This department's cultural force would likely be much less significant, as it has had limited investment, existed only briefly and is malleable given the predominantly new staff.

Figure 13: Integrating Department Culture



Due to its unique impact, culture is represented as triple-lined arrow in the model (see Figure 13). In the case of Figure 13, the arrow represents a forceful, department culture

moving the relationship toward an ignoring and neglecting state. An example of this type of departmental culture is a longstanding atmosphere of “publish or perish” which presses advisors toward long hours completing and publishing research independently, leaving little time for advising duties.

Altogether, the example in Figure 13 paints a picture of the multiple forces that influence the relational state of the advising relationship. Specifically, it illustrates that the immediate interpersonal relationship is situated within primary (the research lab) and secondary (the department) contexts, which each house key players. Each key player can impact the relationship in a different way. Key players can also band together to create group relationships, such as alliances and culture, which exert a larger influence over the relationship. As a result, in order to fully understand an advisory relationship it is critical to understand the key players and their directional force on the advising relationship itself.

The Game: The Goal of the Advising Relationship

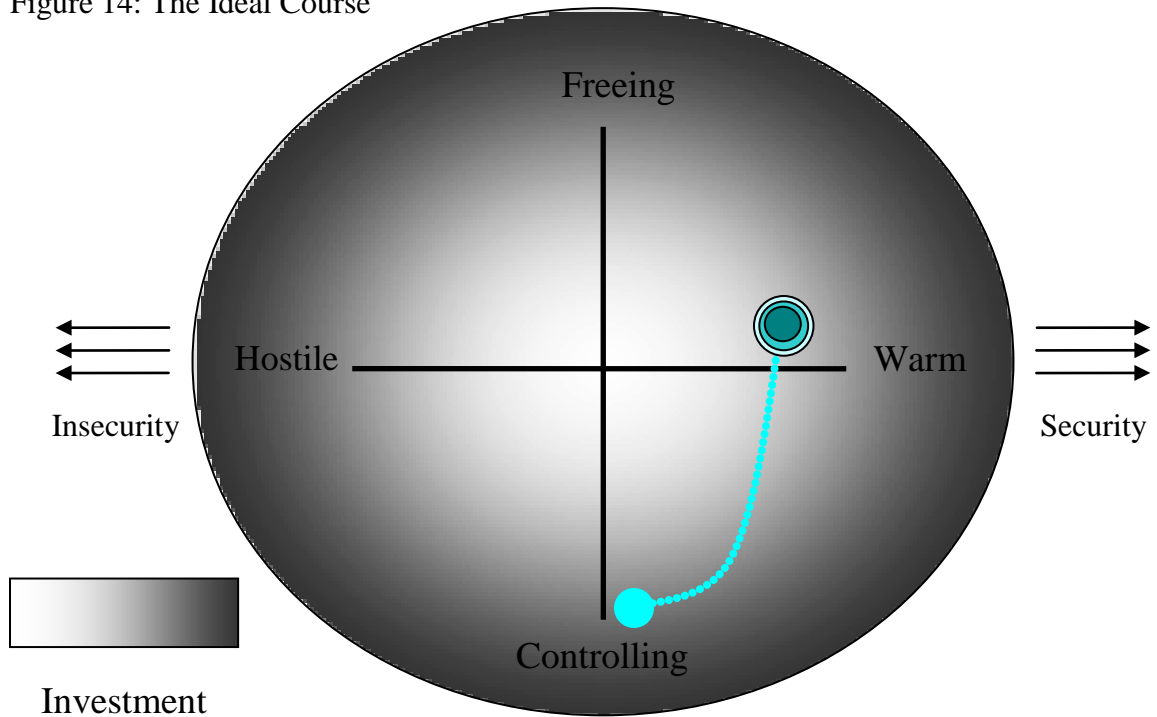
The two previous sections introduced the conceptualization of key players in the advising relationship and the potential relational states and defined the conditions for movement between and among states in the advising relationship. However, one final question remains: “What is the goal of the advising relationship?” This section seeks to answer that question by defining the ideal course for the advising relationship and introducing the other common courses (both positive and negative) identified in the data.

The Ideal Course

Recall that the data suggested that in the absence of a critical shift or conflict, a predictable, developmental, interpersonal trend toward increasing warmth, security and

emotional investment was the norm. Placed in terms of the proposed integrative theoretical model, this charts a course for the relationship to begin in the nurturing and supporting relational state (represented by the solid blue circle in Figure 14) and to end in the collegial and trusting state (represented by the blue concentric circles).

Figure 14: The Ideal Course



Further, the ideal course is also characterized by gradually increasing investment over the course of the relationship. Specifically, regardless of content, if the ideal course is followed, advisees enter into graduate school as trainees and leave as degreed professionals who felt supported and enriched by their advising relationships. The process of this transformation is initially one in which the advisee needs more oversight and feedback and transitions to needing less oversight and feedback (e.g., more control to

less control). The process also ideally reflects ever increasing cooperation and respect (e.g., more warmth). Finally, this relationship increasingly involves getting to know the other person and investing more time and aspects of the self into the relationship (e.g. increasing investment).

This is not to suggest that this course is possible or even probable for all advising dyads; in fact, the data overwhelmingly suggest that it is not. For example, some advisees may come into training with a large amount of prior knowledge and sophistication, resulting in an advisee who needs much less control from the outset. On the other hand, some advisees may enter training with the belief that they are sophisticated and independent when, in fact, they need training. In this case, the relationship is at a mismatch from the outset (the advisee needs training but wants freedom) making a warm relational state difficult and increases the probability of a relational start in the condescending and suspicious state. Additionally, some advisors may have such a high need for control that they are incapable of attaining collegial relationships with their advisees at all.

What the proposed integrative theoretical model does suggest is that “the ideal course” provides the safest and easiest route to a critical destination; a relationship characterized by mutual respect, trust and achievement of important professional and training goals. Specifically, if the ultimate pursuit of graduate training is to move advisees from trainees to colleagues, the desired ending point to the advising relationship is the collegial and trusting relational state.

Consider the three alternative ending points. First, the relationship could end in the supporting and nurturing quadrant. This quadrant suggests a warm/mutual relationship,

but an advisee who is still in need of further training, not presently ready to function as an independent professional. Next consider an end in the ignoring and neglecting quadrant. This quadrant suggests an advisee who is functioning without oversight; however, this advisee does not feel competent to be doing so. Finally, consider an ending in the condescending or suspicious quadrant. This quadrant suggests the worst potential outcome of all; specifically, being in this quadrant would reflect the advisor's belief that the advisee needs more training, whereas the advisee does not believe they need more training. In this case, the advisee is deemed incompetent by their advisor, but believes he/she is competent and graduates from the program. Ultimately, both parties should feel ready and confident about the advisee's entry into the field. Therefore, the proposed integrative theoretical model posits that the ultimate success or failure of an advising relationship is largely defined by its achievement of a collegial, trusting relational state.

Other Common Courses

Recall next that the data suggested that the most prevalent course for the advising relationship involved at least one critical shift or conflict that occurred over the course of the relationship. Some of these shifts were beneficial to the relationship and allowed the relationship to return from a hostile quadrant to a more ideal relational course. Some of these shifts were detrimental, and if unaddressed led to significant long-term damage to the advising relationship. These two relational patterns represent the most common, alternate course for the advising relationship and are discussed below.

The Course of Beneficial Critical Shifts

Two types of critical shifts were identified as beneficial to the relationship: positive intrapersonal shifts (e.g., a moment where an advisee's expectations for their advisor

were disconfirmed, thereafter changing the way the advisee perceived his or her advisor or their relationship in a positive way) and resolved interpersonal conflicts (e.g., there was a period of mutual animosity that was resolved to the satisfaction of both parties). In both cases, a similar course of relational movement occurred. Using the terms of the proposed integrative theoretical model, the relationship was experiencing some mismatch (being pulled toward hostility), then a critical shift occurred which addressed and resolved the mismatch (resulting in warmth).

Almost always, beneficial critical shifts came in one of two forms: (1) an unexpected investment on the part of the advisor or (2) an open dialogue which increased understanding. For instance, an example of an unexpected investment might be a beneficial critical shift that occurred when an advisor who was perceived as emotionally disinvested gave a warm hug during a difficult moment. Another example would be an advisor who is perceived as cold and hostile, apologizing for his or her contribution to a conflict.

In the case of open dialogue, a beneficial critical shift was typically the result of increased understanding. For example, an advisee who discovers that her advisor's recent disinterest is the result of a death in the family rather than disappointment in the advisee would develop a better understanding of her advisor's behavior. Similarly, an advisor who discovers that an advisee is not avoiding her out of arrogance, but because she does not want to be perceived as a burden might shift toward better understanding their advisee's behavior.

In either case, the hallmark of a beneficial critical shift is its ability to correct the course of the relationship, returning (albeit sometimes gradually) to the ideal course.

Reapplying the route metaphor, this suggests that beneficial critical shifts are well understood as course corrections, which, when successfully carried out, redirect the relationship toward its ultimate goal.

The Course of Unresolved Conflict

Finally, one type of critical shift was identified as being significantly detrimental to the relationship: unresolved conflicts (e.g., when there was a period of animosity that was not resolved over an extended period of time). Specifically, whereas periods of conflict (e.g., times of mutual animosity) were common, their long-term impact could not be universally characterized as either positive or negative. Instead it was the poor or incomplete resolution of conflict that made its impact negative.

The course of unresolved conflict was similar across participants; specifically, immediately after the conflict there would be a period of intense hostility followed by a gradual withholding and then decreasing investment in the relationship. In the case of unresolved conflict, there was no return to the ideal course. Instead there was a tendency to remain in the same quadrant (either ignoring/neglecting or condescending/suspicious) for the remainder of the relationship.

Almost always, unresolved conflict was accompanied by the following behaviors: (1) decreased physical interaction (avoiding) and (2) decreased emotional investment (boundaries). Specifically, several participants in relationships with unresolved conflict noted “laying low” or “avoiding” their advisor by limiting the number of meetings or shared time in the lab together. Also, when physical encounters were necessary, emotional exposure continued to be avoided. Specifically, advisees would avoid talking about “personal information” or areas of known conflict. This predictable pattern of

avoidance generally resulted in diminishing overall investment, but particularly emotional investment; such that most advisees facing unresolved conflict for multiple years no longer cared much for or about their advisors.

As a result, the hallmark of an unresolved conflict is the tendency for the relationship to stagnate across time and to lose its significance to the members. Reapplying the route metaphor, this suggests that unresolved conflicts can be understood as wrong turns. Unaddressed, these wrong turns derail the relationship away from achieving its ultimate goal by pointing the relationship in the opposite direction and then eventually resulting in an empty tank of gas.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION

This dissertation was designed to identify the salient dimensions of advising relationships in clinical psychology doctoral programs from the advisee perspective. Specifically, 18 advisees in clinical psychology programs were interviewed about their advising relationships. Four themes characterizing advisee perspectives emerged from these interviews. The four emergent themes were then integrated into a theoretical model. In this section the primary findings of this study, including the four emergent themes and the integrative theoretical model, are contextualized within the literature and the study limitations and implications for future research and practice are presented and discussed.

Primary Findings: The Emergent Themes

The primary findings in this dissertation correspond to the four themes that emerged from the data. The first overarching theme was that advising relationships are, at their very core, interpersonal relationships that have important interpersonal goals. Second, the advising relationship is a goal-oriented relationship in which each individual strives to achieve professional goals. Third, advising relationships do not occur in a vacuum. Instead, advising relationships occur within a context and are impacted by forces at the individual, group and cultural levels. Fourth and finally, advising relationships are dynamic relationships that change over time and are significantly impacted by both resolved and unresolved conflict. Generally, these findings are both consistent with previous research in this area and serve to extend and deepen understanding of the mechanisms that impact advising relationships.

Advising Relationships are Interpersonal

The first predominant theme to emerge from the data clearly suggested that advising relationships, by their very nature, are interpersonal relationships. This finding is consistent with the previous literature on graduate training generally (Gelso, 1979, 1997, 2006) as well as mentoring (Clark, Harden & Johnson, 2000; Cronan-Hilix, & Davidson, 1986; Fallow & Johnson, 2000; Johnson & Huwe, 2003; Lark & Croteau, 1998; Shivy, Worthington, & Wallis, 2003) and advising relationships specifically (Knox, Schlosser, Pruitt & Hill, 2006; Rice, Choi, Zhang, Villegas, Ye, Anderson, Nesic & Bigler, 2009; Schlosser & Gelso, 2001, 2005; Schlosser, Knox, Moskowitz, & Hill, 2003) which has consistently identified “rapport,” “emotional bond” or “the interpersonal factor” as a key component of the relationship. Further, the results of this study were consistent with extant literature that identifies temperature (e.g., warmth and hostility) as a sub-component of the interpersonal relationship that develops between advisor and advisee (Knox, Schlosser, Pruitt & Hill, 2006; Schlosser & Gelso, 2001, 2005; Schlosser, Knox, Moskowitz, & Hill, 2003).

The notion that advising relationships are characterized by an interpersonal core is consistent with existing literature, but the findings in this dissertation go beyond those of previous studies to provide a more in-depth and complex view of the interpersonal nature of the advising relationship. Whereas existing conceptualizations of the advising relationship include temperature, this study identified three additional interpersonal dimensions: control, security and investment.

In this study, the interpersonal dimension of control was described as having an important effect on the relationship between advisor and advisee. Although the dimension

of control has never been applied to existing conceptualizations of the advising relationship, the idea that interpersonal freedom and control impacts interpersonal relationships is not a new one. This concept has its roots in the interpersonal circumplex models of Harry Stack Sullivan (1953). Specifically, two circumplex models of interpersonal relatedness are tied with Stack Sullivan's work, Leary's Interpersonal Circle (1957) and Lorna Benjamin's Structural Analysis of Social Behavior (SASB; 1974). Both theories conceptualize the dimension of control (and its relationship to the dimension of hostility) similarly to the way it was observed and emerged in this study. Thus, although unique to understanding advising dyads, control as an interpersonal dimension has longstanding roots in the literature as a useful dimension for characterizing general interpersonal relations.

The dimension of security also emerged as a factor that had important implications for the development of the relationship between advisor and advisee. Like control, the application of the dimension of security to understanding advising relationships is in some ways novel. The previous literature on advising relationships has identified a dimension similar to security, often called "trust," which has been conceptualized as the degree of comfort in disclosing professional, and when appropriate, personal, information in advising relationships. This definition seems to capture part of the dimension of security identified here inasmuch as it is reflective of the relational stability of the advising relationship. However, a fuller understanding of the dimension of security seems to be captured through acknowledgment of historical influences (i.e., personal history and temperament) in concert with the characteristics of the actual advising relationship.

The current conceptualization of security as being influenced both by proximal and distal factors is consistent with the growing research in the area of adult attachment (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). Specifically, this research suggests that relationships of significant import have qualities akin to parent-child relationships, particularly with regard to how an individual first ascertains the security or stability of the relationship and then develops relational patterns consistent with that assessment. Thus, the findings in this study confirm the important shaping influence of advisee interpersonal security (typically referred to as trust in extant literature), but also revealed its intricate ties to relationship history.

Finally, the dimension of investment had an important influence on the interpersonal advising relationship. This dimension is new to conceptualizations of the advising relationship. Investment, as it is conceptualized here, has some similarities to the therapeutic alliance construct of investment (also called engagement; Orlinsky, Ronnestad, & Willutzki, 2004). According to the psychotherapy literature, investment is a key dimension of the therapeutic bond which has implications for the effectiveness of therapeutic interventions (e.g., the more invested the parties are in therapy, the more impactful therapy is). Though not studied frequently in isolation, investment as part of the therapeutic alliance has been robustly related to therapy outcomes (Orlinsky, Ronnestad, & Willutzki, 2004). Thus, there is some evidence to suggest that investment is an important relational construct, particularly in change inducing relationships.

Advising Relationships are Goal-Oriented

The second primary finding of this dissertation was that advising relationships can be characterized as goal-oriented or purposeful. This finding is consistent with the definition

of the relationship provided at the opening of the document (i.e., an advisor is the faculty member who bears greatest responsibility for the advisee's development as a researcher), as well as numerous theoretical and empirical publications dating back to the inception of the Boulder model (American Psychological Association, 1959; Cronan-Hillix, Grensheimer, Cronan-Hillix, & Davidson, 1986; Gelso, 1979, 1993, 1997, 2006; Hollingsworth & Fassinger, 2002; Kahn, 2001; Knox, Schlosser, Pruitt & Hill, 2006; Schlosser & Gelso, 2001, 2005; Schlosser, Knox, Moskowitz, & Hill, 2003; Willis & Diebold, 1997). Thus, the idea that advising relationships are organized around a goal, specifically the goal of developing the advisee as a professional, is not new.

This study additionally suggested that advisors act in a variety of roles (e.g. facilitator, research supervisor, professional advisor and role model) and serve to facilitate a variety of tasks (e.g., developing advisee research identity, building writing skill, networking in the field, etc.). These findings are consistent with both the extant theoretical (Johnson & Huwe, 2003) and empirical (Knox, Schlosser, Pruitt & Hill, 2006; Schlosser, Knox, Moskowitz, & Hill, 2003) literature.

Notably, although the various roles of the advisor are described at length in the theoretical literature (Johnson & Huwe, 2003, Kram, 1985), the empirical literature on psychology advising relationships has offered limited depth in this regard. Specifically, Schlosser et al (2003) identified that number of foci (or tasks) in the advising relationship appeared to positively correlate with satisfaction; however, they stopped short of specifically identifying and describing the foci and/or the various roles that advisors take.

This study is the first to empirically examine advisory roles and tasks from the advisee perspective. Two innovative findings emerged from this examination. First,

results suggest that though advisors may play similar roles (e.g., facilitator or research supervisor), they often have different styles for approaching these roles (e.g., check with vs. check on facilitative styles). This extends Schlosser et al.'s (2003) findings to point out that, in addition to the total number of foci, an advisor's approach to the foci influences the advising relationship.

Second, the results from this study suggested that advisors are always being observed as models. This is inconsistent with the previous theoretical and empirical literature which concludes that a significant positive emotional attachment is necessary for role modeling to occur (Kram, 1985; Schlosser & Gelso, 2001, 2005). What the current study seems to suggest is that positive opinion may be necessary for emulative behavior to occur (e.g., I watch my advisor and want to be just like him/her), but is unnecessary for observational learning to occur (e.g., I see my advisor managing time well, I want to do that like him/her). This is an important distinction to make because modeling (called apprenticeship in the Advisory Working Alliance Model; Schlosser & Gelso, 2001, 2005) is a central dimension of the most contemporary theory of advising relationships and is hypothesized to positively correlate with strong advisory alliances.

These results suggest that further research examining advisory styles and the prevalence and types of modeling is necessary to fully understand their roles in the advising relationship.

Advising Relationships are Contextual

The third emergent theme of this dissertation was that forces outside of the advising relationship play a significant role in its course. Specifically, the study identified forces at the immediate (history and personal life), primary (the research lab) and secondary (the

department) levels which impact advising relationships. This finding is unique to the conceptualization of advising relationships in clinical/counseling psychology and represents a significant area for further inquiry.

Although Gelso's conceptualization of the Research Training Environment (RTE) places department-level relationships, policies and supports at the center of research training generally, it does not address how these factors shape the advising relationship specifically (Gelso, 1979, 1993, 1997, 2006). Furthermore, neither Johnson's work on mentoring relationships (Clark, Harden & Johnson, 2000; Fallow & Johnson, 2000; Johnson & Huwe, 2003; Johnson & Nelson, 1999) nor Schlosser's work on advising alliances (Gelso & Schlosser, 2001, 2005; Knox, Schlosser, Pruitt and Hill, 2006; Schlosser & Gelso, 2001, 2005; Schlosser, Knox, Moskovitz, and Hill, 2003) directly incorporate contextual forces into their models of advising relationships. Thus, in the area of psychology doctoral training this finding promotes a more in depth understanding of how the advising relationship is shaped.

The notion that contextual forces impact interpersonal relationships and human development is highly consistent with large bodies of literature in psychology. For example, Bowen's widely accepted and prolifically researched family system's theory (Kerr and Bowen, 1988) highlights the importance of system-level relationships in the nuclear family unit. This model suggests that each unit has predictable behavioral patterns and roles that are interrelated and cannot be fully understood in isolation. The notion of important interrelated systems has parallels with the research lab and department-level influences on advising relationships found in this study. Further consistent with the findings in the present study, Minuchin's Structural Family Therapy

(an extension of Bowen's work; Minuchin, 1974, Minuchin & Nichols, 1998) identifies the influence of alliances (or coalitions) over the process of family relationship development.

With regard to the developmental literature, results from this study are consistent with Bronfenbrenner's Ecological System's theory of development (Bronfenbrenner, 1977). Specifically, Bronfenbrenner proposed that the course of physical, emotional and cognitive development in children is shaped by factors at various systemic levels from the immediate (e.g., genetics and family) to the distal (e.g., culture). For example, Bronfenbrenner (1977) posited that the factors which determine a child's literacy have something to do with genetics, something to do with the food available, something to do with literacy in the family and something to do with the culture's view of literacy. Similarly, the findings in this study indicated that the content and course of advising relationships has something to do with what the advisee wants to learn, something to do with what the advisor wants to teach, something to do with the sort of activities the research lab is doing and something to do with what the department requires. Thus, although the notion of context is new to advising relationships, it is well established as an important component of understanding how relationships and development generally unfold and are multiply determined.

Advising Relationships are Dynamic

The final and fourth emergent theme of this dissertation was that advising relationships are ever changing or dynamic. This finding breaks into three sub-findings. First, advising relationships appear to have a developmental course with a desired outcome. Second, big changes or critical shifts occur in the relationship. Third, conflict is

common in advising relationships and the manner in which conflict is resolved (or not) has a critical influence on success.

The idea that advising relationships appear to have a developmental course which moves toward a desired outcome is consistent with the empirical literature. This literature suggests that moving toward independence in the advising relationship is desirable (Schlosser & Gelso, 2001). The findings in this dissertation broaden these findings by suggesting that increasing levels of investment and warmth over the course of the relationship are desirable outcomes as well. This finding is significant because it allows for the conceptualization of advising relationships as developmental and provides new hypotheses about healthy or ideal developmental trajectories.

The second sub-finding was that only a minority percentage (37%) of participants in this study cleanly experienced the developmental course described above (e.g., more independence and increasing levels of warmth and investment). Specifically, although 100% of participants experienced gradual changes over time in their advising relationship, a majority of participants (63%) experienced some memorable moment or critical shift that changed the course of the relationship. This finding is consistent with existing literature, which uniformly suggests that advisees have salient memories which they draw on to relay the stories of their advising relationship (Lark & Croteau, 1998; Rice, et al., 2009; Schlosser, Knox, Moskovitz, & Hill, 2003). Research on the positive or negative valence of these stories is somewhat inconsistent. Consistent with some research, (Lark & Croteau, 1998; Rice, et al., 2009) advisees in this study recalled both positive and negative relational memories, where previous research has suggested that advisee memories are uniformly positive (Schlosser, Knox, Moskovitz, & Hill, 2003).

Finally, the third sub-finding was that a sizable portion (44%) of participants experienced some period of open conflict with their advisor. Specifically although there is reason to suspect that this sample is biased toward more conflict (for a further discussion see the limitation section below), these findings still suggest that conflict is a relatively common occurrence in advising relationships. This finding is central because a closer look at the data indicated that it was not the conflict itself that dictated the course of the relationship but rather the manner in which it was handled. Specifically, the results from this study suggested that resolved conflict led to positive relational outcomes (e.g., a return to the ideal course for the relationship) and unresolved conflict led to negative relational outcomes (e.g., stagnation and diminishing investment). These findings are consistent with the literature in this area, which has suggested that approach to conflict was a significant marker for both “satisfied” and “unsatisfied” advisees (Schlosser, Knox, Moskovitz, & Hill, 2003) and advisors (Knox, Schlosser, Pruitt & Hill, 2006).

Whereas the findings of the present study suggest that successfully resolved conflict led to more positive relationships and unresolved conflict led to more negative relationships, existing research has implied the opposite causal pathway: that good relationships led to good conflict resolution and that poor relationships led to unresolved conflicts. As a result, the empirical casual chain between conflict resolution and end relational state remains to be determined. What does seem clear from both the findings of this study and existing research is that conflict resolution (or lack thereof) is an area of significant import to the advising relationship. Specifically, several empirical studies suggest that unresolved conflict is a significant hindrance (or maker of hindrance) to advising relationships and that resolved conflict seems associated with positive

relationships. The contrary implications regarding the causal pathway suggest a need for future research to clarify the role of conflict.

Overall, these four dimensions of advising relationships and their associated sub-dimensions expand upon existing research and add to a more complex understanding of the combined interpersonal and professional nature of the advising relationship. Beyond identifying these four themes, an integrative theoretical model was proposed explaining how these dimensions of the advising relationship come together and interact dynamically to determine the course and ultimate outcome of the advising relationship.

Primary Findings: The Integrative Theoretical Model

At the core of the proposed integrative theoretical model was the proposition that advising relationships are most meaningfully characterized in interpersonal terms. Specifically, advising relationships were conceptualized as occurring (at any single point in time) on a relational playing field comprised of four relational states or quadrants created by two dimensions: temperature of the relationship ranging from warm to cold/hostile and degree of control by the advisor ranging from low to high. The four resulting quadrants were ignoring/neglecting, collegial/trusting, nurturing/supporting or condescending/suspicious). Also characterizing the field were the dimensions of security and investment. Specifically, interpersonal security was proposed to function like a magnet, pulling the dyad toward warmth (in the case of security) or hostility (in the case of insecurity). Finally, the level of investment was proposed to amplify or attenuate the interpersonal experience of the relationship and to reflect the relational and professional importance of the advising relationship.

In addition, it was proposed that three sets of key players, occurring at three corresponding levels of context, exerted directional force over the advising relationship. Specifically, players at the immediate, primary and secondary contexts were introduced. At the center, housed within the immediate context, were the advisor and advisee themselves. The directional force at this level of context was thought to be determined by the dyads combination of matches and mismatches, their needs and the strength of their individual forces. Specifically, movement along the temperature dimension was conceptualized as being determined by a process of goal/preference match (leading toward warmth) and goal/preference mismatch (leading toward hostility). Movement along the control dimension, on the other hand, was described as being determined by the cumulative total of needs for freedom and needs for control among the dyad members. Finally, the directional force or the match or needs was determined by the investment behind it such that those matches or mismatches with more investment yielded a higher impact on the relationship. At the primary (the research lab) and secondary (the department) levels, directional forces were thought to exist as well. These forces could be the result of individual relationships, group alliances or culture.

Finally, it was proposed that advising relationships have an ideal relational course which results in a specific goal: the desired relational destination of collegiality. Specifically, ideal advising relationships were proposed to start as supportive and nurturing and end as collegial and trusting, reflecting the advisee's gradual transition from trainee to professional. This relational course was not always followed, nor was it the norm. Two common, alternate courses were defined including the path of beneficial

critical shifts which resulted in a return to the ideal course and the path of unresolved conflict which resulted in stagnation and diminishing investment.

Contextualizing the Proposed Integrative Theoretical Model

Recall that three existing theoretical models of the advising relationship have been proposed in the literature: the apprenticeship model, the mentor model and the working alliance model. The following section contextualizes the new, integrative theoretical model by comparing and contrasting its tenets with the tenets in these models.

The Apprenticeship Model

Generally, the apprenticeship model characterized the advising relationship as a craftsman relationship, where an advisee enters as a novice apprentice to the profession hoping to work up to professor (or master craftsman). The professor (or advisor) is responsible for passing on the trade and the advisee is expected to successfully complete the tasks set before him or her. Over the course of the relationship, the advisor gains increasing trust in the advisee, who is given more and more responsibility. This culminates in the advisee's graduation into full craftsman status (Yeoman, 2006).

The proposed integrative theoretical model is in some ways consistent and some ways inconsistent with the apprenticeship model of advising. The most marked similarities between the models are their similar developmental trajectories. Specifically, apprentice style relationships are intended to gradually progress from controlling to freeing with desired aim of producing a colleague.

Despite this similarity, the models have substantial differences. Specifically, the area of largest departure from the apprenticeship model seems to be the concept of match. Whereas it is assumed in the apprenticeship model that the advisee wants to fully emulate

the advisor's professional life, the proposed integrative theoretical model makes no such assumption. Specifically, advisees and advisors are free to have significant areas of agreement (match) and disagreement (mismatch) which shape the course of the relationship. Another point of departure from the apprenticeship model is the proposed integrative theoretical model's integration of affective experience. Specifically, mention of mutuality, hostility, security and/or investment are entirely absent from the apprenticeship model, yet all play key roles in the proposed integrative theoretical model.

Finally, the apprenticeship model does not consider the impact of contextual forces. Specifically, the apprenticeship model is conceptualized as a one-on-one relationship with limited external influence, whereas the proposed integrative theoretical model places the advising relationship at the center of a multilevel system. Though the data suggest that some one-on-one advising relationships may exist, they were not the norm in this sample. Thus, the proposed theoretical model sought to represent the majority experience by integrating the important impact of contextual level influences.

The Mentor Model

Recall that the mentor model characterized the advising relationship as a personal relationship where the mentor (the advisor) fulfills the developmental needs of a protégé (the advisee) by playing various roles (e.g., guide, role model, counselor, teacher, champion) and serving various functions (e.g., providing advice, encouragement, support, challenge; Johnson & Huwe, 2003; Kram, 1985). In this model, mentor-advisors are thought to fulfill both the professional and psychosocial needs of the protégé-advisee. Notably, the mentor model does not assume that all advisors can fulfill all duties with

equal aptitude. Thus, the success or failure of the relationship is thought to hinge on the “fit” between the mentor’s natural abilities and the advisee’s specific needs.

The proposed integrative theoretical model is in some ways consistent and some ways inconsistent with the mentor model of advising. The most marked similarities between the models are their emphasis on an interpersonal and developmental goal, incorporation of relational (or psychosocial) functions and their emphasis on “fit” or “match” between advisor and advisee. Specifically, both the mentor model and the proposed integrative theoretical model define the advising relationship’s goal as interpersonal. The mentor model focuses on the role that the advisor plays in adult development, moving the advisee from an earlier stage of adulthood (trainee) to a later state of adulthood (colleague). This is highly consistent with the idea proposed here that the advising relationship has an ideal course and desired destination.

In addition, both the mentor and proposed integrative theoretical models emphasize the importance of the psychosocial or relational functions of the advising relationship. Specifically, both the mentor and proposed integrative theoretical model suggest that relational elements are of significant influence. However, the proposed integrative theoretical model departs from the mentor model in that the mentor model assumes mutuality as definitional (e.g., to be mentored is to have the psychosocial functions successfully served). In contrast, the proposed integrative theoretical model suggests that relational functions can be met or remain unfulfilled in advising relationships.

Finally, the models are similar in their heavy emphasis on the unique fit or match between advisors and advisees and the role that fit plays in the success or failure of the relationship. Although the mentor model vaguely defines this process as a result of

“natural abilities” and “specific needs,” the proposed integrative theoretical model makes specific predictions about the nature and impact of goal/preference matches or mismatches, the impact of interpersonal and professional needs and the force of investment behind them. In this way, the proposed theoretical model makes overall fit a definable and ultimately measurable construct that is open to empirical examination.

Despite their similarities, the models diverge on the influence of contextual forces. Specifically, like the apprenticeship model, the mentor model conceptualizes the advising relationship as a one-on-one relationship with limited external influence. As stated above, the proposed integrative theoretical model abandons this view by placing the advising relationship at the center of a complex system rather than an entity in isolation.

The Working Alliance Model

Finally, recall that the working alliance model defined the advising relationship as a change-inducing relationship built on a tripartite foundation of rapport, identification and task focus (Schlosser & Kahn 2007, Schlosser & Gelso, 2001, 2003). Specifically, rapport refers to the interpersonal warmth in the relationship, identification/apprenticeship refers to the part of the bond which captures the advisees desire to emulate the advisor, and task focus refers to the dyad’s ability to identify and remain focused on the professional goals of the relationship. Each of the tripartite components is considered beneficial to the change process, such that more successful advising relationships have higher levels of all three components.

The proposed integrative theoretical model is in some ways consistent and some ways inconsistent with the working alliance model of advising. The most marked similarities between the models are their emphasis on dimensional constructs and the inclusion of

poorly functioning relationships, their focus on the role of interpersonal connection in the training and growth process and their attention to the professional functions of the relationship. Specifically, both the working alliance and proposed integrative theoretical model conceptualize advising relationships as occurring on a continuum from poorly functioning to highly functioning. As a result, both models are inclusive of poor and/or moderately functioning advising relationships which allows for a more comprehensive understanding of the fuller spectrum of positive, negative and middle-of-the-road advising relationships.

Second, both models place a high level of significance on the interpersonal elements of the relationship. Specifically, in the working alliance model, emotional bond and identification/apprenticeship lay the foundation on which the professional goals of the relationship are pursued. In the proposed integrative theoretical model the interpersonal dimensions of temperature, control, security and investment combine to create the playing field in which a professional relational state is sought (collegiality).

Third, both models directly integrate professional aims. Specifically, the working alliance model addresses the professional functions of the relationship in its conceptualization of task focus and its identification of professional goals as the desired product of the relationship. The integrative theoretical model also incorporates professional goals by suggesting that they provide the content for the relational matches and needs which direct the relationships course.

Despite these similarities, these models have some significant points of departure. First, whereas both models place significant emphasis on the interpersonal relationship that develops, the impact of the relationship between advisor and advisee is

conceptualized differently. Specifically, the working alliance model defines the interpersonal elements as a facilitative vehicle for the achievement of professional goals (e.g., if I am going to teach my advisee, he must first respect me). In contrast, the proposed theoretical model integrates and includes the interpersonal elements as being goals themselves. Specifically, a strong advisory relationship is not viewed as just an effective medium for imparting research knowledge; achievement of a strong advisory relationship is an essential goal itself.

Second, while both models place interpersonal elements at the center; the specific elements differ from one another. Although the working alliance model's concept of emotional bond is similar to the concept of temperature in the proposed integrative theoretical model, the other interpersonal dimensions contained in each model vary considerably. For example, the proposed integrative theoretical model does not represent feelings of identification or emulation as described in the working alliance model. The theory proposed here contains a dimension reflecting the degree of control in the relationship which is not reflected in the working alliance model of advising relationships.

Third, and finally, these theories depart in their conceptualization of the role of context. Specifically, the working alliance model acknowledges the possibility of contextual influences but does not incorporate them directly into the model. This is not the case with the proposed integrative theoretical model.

Overall, the theory proposed in this dissertation is both consistent with and extends contemporary theories of advising relationships. The consistency between the theory proposed in this dissertation and existing models of advising relationships lends further

empirical support to those elements which continue to appear in the literature as being crucial to understanding what elements characterize the advising relationship (e.g., the advising relationship is interpersonal and goal oriented, match or fit is important). In addition, the proposed theoretical model extends and expands upon existing models, suggesting that contextual influence, interpersonal dimensions such as control and investment, and the complex manner in which these dimensions operate warrant future attention.

Limitations

This study had notable limitations comparable to limitations inherent in any qualitative research study. The limitations to this study can be characterized as falling into two categories: (1) limitations as a result of the sample and (2) limitations as a result of the data analysis procedures.

First, this study is limited by its sample; specifically, the sample consisted of a small (N=18) number of self-selected advisees in their fourth year of training. This fact most notably leaves open the possibility that these findings are not generalizable to the population of advisory relationships. One significant aspect of this limitation is that these results are representative of the experience of only one half of the advisory dyad, the advisee. Thus, further research is necessary to determine whether and how the dimensions and model translate to advisor perspectives.

Another limitation in this vein is that we only sampled advisees in their fourth year of training who had been in long-term advising relationships. Thus, it is possible that dimensions identified and the model created are applicable only to those graduate

students who are more seasoned or who have been in longstanding relationships. Further research examining the generalizability of the dimensions and model to differing points and lengths of relationships is necessary to address this concern.

This study is also limited by its high refusal rate (95%). Specifically, it suggests that participants in this study were self-selected rather than randomly selected and possibly systematically biased. For example, it is possible that unsatisfied advisees would respond in higher numbers to a solicitation for research in which they are asked to discuss (complain about?) their advising relationship. Similarly, another possibility is that particularly satisfied advisees would respond in higher numbers to a request to discuss (brag about?) their advising relationship. Cumulatively, these possibilities suggest a potential bias toward the extreme ends of advising experience or a sample that represents the polar ends with higher prevalence.

Given the strong affect expressed by a large proportion of the participants of this study, the possibility that we over sampled advisees with extreme experiences cannot be ruled-out and even seems likely. However, given that the study sought to identify dimensions rather than compare and contrast groups, this possibility is less problematic. Specifically, over-sampling at the extreme ends allows for multiple experiences of the poles to be considered, which might be less likely in a representative sample. Still, the possibility remains that over-sampling at the extreme ends has in some way biased the results to not be representative of the experience of the typical advisee. As a result, future research will need to examine the findings from this study on a larger scale to determine generalizability.

Another sampling limitation is the limited cultural and ethnic diversity of the participants. Specifically, the large majority of advisees (as well as advisors) in the sample were European-American. Though the numbers from this study were generally consistent with the estimates of the demographic composition of doctoral clinical psychology departments currently (APA, 2010), minorities groups represent a population of particular interest. Thus, further research is necessary to explicitly examine the extent to which the findings from this study generalize to minority groups.

A final sampling limitation is the decision to include only those participants in clinical psychology Ph.D. programs. Specifically, clinical psychology as a discipline is unique from the other branches of psychology in that the split between its academic and applied pursuits is much more dramatic. For example, a graduate student in clinical psychology may choose to be an academician or professional researcher, in both cases utilizing research skills frequently, or he/she may choose therapist career focused on psychotherapy and psychological assessment and consequently utilize research skills infrequently. These two dramatically different career choices likely place unique pressures on the advising relationship in clinical psychology programs which may not generalize to other the psychological disciplines or other disciplines outside of psychology. Consider, for example, the participant who noted that within their program advisors “disown” their students for choosing a clinical career. This type of pressure is not likely in disciplines where the available career choices are more consonant with the advisors role and skill set. As a result, the extent to which elements of the theoretical model apply to the other disciplines of psychology remains unknown.

Second, this study is limited by relying primarily on one researcher to collect, summarize and conceptualize the results. This leaves open the possibility that these findings are a reflection of the biased perceptions of the investigator rather than a true reflection of advisee experiences. It is also possible that other dimensions, models or conceptualizations would have been developed by another primary researcher. Thus, this construal of the data cannot be understood as definitive. Several safeguards have been put in place to diminish the possibility of bias or misrepresentation (e.g., oversight and reliability analyses by research supervisor, the provision of a Theory Building Table in Appendix H, etc.); however, the possibility of bias remains. Thus, further research geared at testing the proposed model's efficacy in defining and predicting outcome in advising relationships must be completed to substantiate the validity and usefulness of the model.

Implications for Research

This study has several clear implications for future research. First, as mentioned previously, further research is necessary to determine whether and how the resultant dimensions and integrative theory translate to advisor perspectives. Specifically while one qualitative examination of advisor perspectives on the advisee relationship currently exists (Knox, Schlosser, Pruitt & Hill, 2006), it is significantly limited by the authors' decision to categorize relationships as either "satisfied/positive" or "unsatisfied/negative." Thus, a more comprehensive qualitative approach to studying advisor's experiences of advisory relationships may help to determine whether and how the emergent themes and proposed model translate to advisor perceptions.

Second, it also remains unclear to what degree these findings generalize to advisees in different stages of training (prior to 4th year and beyond 5th year), in shorter-term relationships or who are from cultural minority groups. Thus, further research aimed at examining perspectives from alternate samples of advisees would help to flesh out the emergent theories and proposed model, ensuring its broad applicability to advisory relationships. Research along this line would also help to determine whether there was over-sampling of extreme groups in this study and, if so, how it may have biased the theory.

Third, the extent to which the relational state is seen similarly by the members of the advisory dyad remains unclear. Specifically only one study has been published to date examining advising dyads (Schlosser & Kahn, 2007). This study indicated that advising dyads' rankings of the relationships correlated only moderately ($r = .31$). However, given that this was based solely on a new measure of the advisory working alliance, it remains unclear whether the low correlations were a result of problems with the measure or true disagreements between dyad members. Thus, after determining whether and how the emergent themes and model translate to advisors, it will be important to determine whether and how they translate to dyadic experiences. For example, perhaps there is another dimension of agreement-disagreement accounting for the similarity of experience that would only be found through the qualitative observation of dyads.

Fourth, this study has implications for future research on the relevant contexts to the advising relationship. As stated previously, the salience of the research lab and research lab relationships was dramatic in this sample. Given that no studies have been conducted examining the research lab context in graduate training very little is known about the

research lab's role in training generally or the advising relationships specifically beyond this study's findings.

In addition, though this study only identified three salient contexts (e.g., the dyad itself, research lab, and department) it is highly probable that a fourth context, the discipline of psychology, exists. Specifically, historical tensions exist between branches of psychological training (e.g., Ph.D. vs. Psy. D.; clinical vs. counseling vs. experimental vs. industrial organizational) which undoubtedly influence advising relationships. For example, pressures for advisees to show strong aptitude for research, is in part the result of clinical psychology Ph.D. programs as a discipline desiring to distinguish themselves from the less research intensive Psy.D. programs. Thus, further research explicitly examining for differences in advising relationships between the disciplines is needed to determine the extent to which the model translates to other branches of psychology.

Fifth, this study has implications for the future research of conflict in the advising relationship. Specifically, findings from this study, though rudimentary, suggest a high incidence of conflict in advising relationships, with nearly half of participants experiencing a significant conflict during the course of their advising relationship. Given that no studies have been conducted focusing on conflict in the advising relationships, beyond the results of this study little is known. Further research focused explicitly on determining the prevalence, dynamics and impact of conflict is warranted.

Finally, the validity and utility of the proposed integrative theoretical model remains unknown. Future research targeted at developing a measure of the model and correlating it with various measures of outcome is necessary to fully determine whether or not it is of any practical worth.

Implications for Practice

This study has clear implications for the future of graduate research training in psychology. First, findings from this study may help advisors think more holistically about how they interact with their advisees. For example, results suggest that advisors should attend to the interpersonal as well as the training components of their relationships with advisees. Specifically, results from this study overwhelmingly indicate that the interpersonal dimensions of temperature, control, security and investment are all highly salient to advisees in advising relationships.

Second, results from this study also suggest a rethinking of the graduate school admissions process. Specifically, extant research indicates that students are admitted to graduate school paired with faculty based predominantly on and letters of intent (Brown, 2004). Letters of intent are conceptually included to assess for degree of “fit” or “match” between the program, advisor and potential student. However, empirical literature indicates that in practice “match” amounts to shared desires to complete research and overlapping areas of research interest (Brown, 2004). Findings from this study suggest a much more comprehensive understanding and evaluation of match. Specifically, this study calls for the assessment of more static elements of match (e.g., working style, long-term personal and professional goals, etc) in addition to those assessed for already.

Lastly, results from this study suggest that conflict negotiation skills are critical skill for effective advisement. Specifically, results from this study suggest that significant conflict is common and that small conflict (mismatch) is inevitable in the practice of advising. For example, the prevalence of significant conflict was estimated at approximately 50% in this study. Even if that is a large inflation of the true amount, such

that only 25% or even 15% of advising relationships experience significant conflict, it still suggests that an advisor with 6 or more students will experience significant conflict with at least one of them. This fact taken together with the findings that unresolved conflict is a marker for the worst outcomes in advising relationships (e.g., stagnation and diminishing investment) suggests that strong conflict resolutions skills are a requisite for quality research advising.

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APPENDIX A

RECRUITMENT LETTER

Subject line: Recruitment for paid participation in advising relationships study

INSERT CURRENT DATE

Dear Potential Participant,

My name is _____, and I am writing on behalf of the **Psychology Training Laboratory** at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas to invite you to participate in a research study aimed at exploring relational dynamics in clinical psychology advising relationships. This study hopes to gain insight into advising relationships by conducting semi-structured interviews with clinical psychology graduate students regarding their current advising relationship. If you agree to participate you will be asked to complete two audio-taped, telephone interviews.

We acknowledge that as a graduate student your time is very precious. Thus participants in this study will be compensated for their time. **Specifically, participants will be given a total of \$40.00 in gift cards for completing all study materials including a \$25.00 Visa Gift Card and a \$15.00 Starbucks Card.**

In order to be eligible for participation, you must be: (1) over the age of 18, (2) currently enrolled in your 4th year of doctoral training in clinical psychology, and (3) have been with the same research advisor for the duration of training. If you meet the above criteria and are interested in participating, please take a closer look at the attached materials including the informed consent form, background information form and contact information sheet. After reviewing these materials, please respond to this e-mail indicating your interest in participation (you may also decline if you are not interested).

If you have any questions or comments about the study, or would like to schedule an interview via telephone, we would be happy to accommodate you. Our phone number is (702) 895-5346. Thank you very much for helping with this study.

Sincerely,

Research Assistant
Psychology Training Laboratory
University of Nevada, Las Vegas
(702) 895-5346

APPENDIX B

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

TITLE OF STUDY: The Advisor – Advisee Relationship

INVESTIGATOR(S): Chris Heavey, Ph.D.; Paula Emke-Francis, M.A.

CONTACT PHONE NUMBER: Psychology Training Lab: (702) 895-5346

Purpose of the Study

You are invited to participate in a research study examining the experience of advising relationships in professional psychology programs from the advisee's perspective. The aim of this study to gain insight into the common relational themes and dynamics experienced by clinical psychology doctoral students in their relationships with their research advisors.

Participants

You are being asked to participate in the study because as a clinical psychology doctoral student you have first hand experience with a research advising relationship.

In order to be eligible for participation in this study, you must currently be enrolled as a doctoral graduate student in an American Psychological Association (APA) accredited clinical psychology program in your fourth year. In addition, you must also have been with the same advisor for the duration of your training.

Procedures

If you volunteer to participate in this study, you will be asked to do the following: First, you will need to complete the contact information form you received as part of your recruitment e-mail and respond to the primary investigator to indicate your willingness to participate.

Next, you will be contacted to schedule the initial telephone interview. The telephone interview will be audio-taped, follow a semi-structured interview format and will take approximately 1.5 hours to complete. During this interview you will be asked a series of open-ended questions regarding your relationship with your advisor.

Three weeks following the first interview, you will participate in a 45 minute audio-taped "follow-up" interview, also conducted via telephone. During the follow-up interview you will be provided a summary of you initial interview and then be asked if there is anything you would like to extend, modify or clarify.

Benefits of Participation

There *may not* be any direct benefits to you as a participant in this study. However, some participants find it enjoyable to spend time reflecting on their experiences in their advising relationship. You may also get some satisfaction from knowing that your

participated in a study which has the potential to increase understanding of the relationships between advisors and advisees. With greater understanding of these relationships it may be possible to generate helpful recommendations for both advisors and advisees.

Risks of Participation

This study involves **only minimal risk** of physical harm or injury; all you will be asked to do is answer some questions.

However, it is a possible that you may become uncomfortable when answering some of the questions. **Please remember that you have the right not answer questions that you consider too personal or upsetting.**

In addition, if you would like to review the project manuscript prior to publication a full manuscript can be e-mailed to you upon request.

Cost /Compensation

There will not be any financial cost to you to participate in this study. The study will take approximately 2-2.25 hours of your time. You will be compensated for your time. Specifically, you will be paid \$15.00 for your participation in the initial interview and \$10.00 for your participation in the follow-up interview paid via a Visa gift card. Also upon completion of all study materials, participants will be mailed an additional \$15.00 Starbucks gift card.

Contact Information

If you have any questions or concerns about the study, you may contact Chris Heavey, Ph.D. or Paula Emke-Francis, M.A. by phone at (702) 895-5346 or by e-mail at emke@unlv.nevada.edu. For questions regarding the rights of research subjects, any complaints or comments regarding the manner in which the study is being conducted you may contact **the UNLV Office for the Protection of Research Subjects at 702-895-2794.**

Voluntary Participation

Your participation in this study is voluntary. You may refuse to participate in this study or in any part of this study. You may withdraw at any time without prejudice to your relations with the university. You are encouraged to ask questions about this study at the beginning or any time during the research study.

Confidentiality

All information gathered in this study will be kept completely confidential. No reference will be made in written or oral materials that could link you to this study. All records will be stored in a locked facility at UNLV for 3 years after completion of the study. After the storage time the information gathered will be destroyed.

Participant Consent

I have read the above information and agree to participate in this study. I have been able to ask questions about the study. I am at least 18 years of age. A copy of this form has been given to me. **I will indicate my consent to participate in this study by completing and submitting the contact information sheet provided by the research team.**

Participant Note: Please do not sign this document if the Approval Stamp is missing or is expired.

APPENDIX C
BACKGROUND QUESTIONNAIRE

- 1) Age: _____
- 2) Gender: (check one)
___ Male ___ Female
- 3) With which of the following groups do you most identify? (Please circle one)
- | | |
|--|---------------------------------|
| European-American or European-American | African-American |
| Hispanic-American/Latina/Chicana | American Indian/Native-American |
| Asian-American | Pacific Islander-American |
| Other (please specify) _____ | |
- 4) How many long have you been in your graduate program: (Please circle one)
- a. Less than 1 year (12 months or less)
 - b. 1 to 2 years (13 to 24 months)
 - c. 2 to 3 years (25 to 36 months)
 - d. 3 to 4 years (37 to 48 months)
 - e. More than 4 years (49 months or more)
- 5) How many advisors (i.e. thesis/dissertation chairs, major professors, mentors, etc.) have you had? (check one) ___None ___1 ___2 ___3 or more
- 6) Do you currently have an advisor? YES NO
- a. If yes, how long have you been with this advisor?
___YRS ___MONTHS

APPENDIX D

CONTACT INFORMATION SHEET

Please provide the following information about yourself:

Name: First Name Last Name

Address: Street Address

Street Address (Additional Information)

City State Zip Code

Phone Numbers:

Home: (000) 000-000

Cell: (000) 000-000

Preferred Email:

Please indicate which phone number(s) and at what time(s) it would be best to reach you:

APPENDIX E

ORIGINAL SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW SCRIPT AND PROMPTS

I am going to ask you some questions about your relationship with your research advisor. By research advisor, I mean the person most responsible for your progress in the program, commonly this person is your thesis or dissertation committee chair.

As we progress, I want you to carefully consider each question and give me as much detail as possible. Please know that this study is focused on *your* experience of your relationship with your advisor; thus there are no right or wrong answers.

Do you have any questions?

Please tell me about your relationship with your research advisor.

Area's of Interest

- General Questions:
 - Describe your most favorite aspects of your relationship with your advisor.
 - Describe your least favorite aspects of your relationship with your advisor.
 - If you could have a completely frank conversation, one where you would not need to be concerned about repercussions or hurting anyone's feelings, what would you tell your advisor they could do better? What do you think they would tell you?
- Content of the Relationship Questions:
 - From your perspective, describe the purpose of your relationship with your advisor.
 - Describe a typical meeting with your advisor.
 - Describe the things your advisor is teaching you, if any, that you think will be most valuable to your future career and/or personal success?
- Interpersonal dimension of the Relationship Questions:
 - Describe how your advisor makes you feel.
 - Describe how you feel about your advisor.
 - Describe how you think your advisor feels about you.
 - As you look back at your relationship with your advisor, describe the events that stand out the most in your mind.
- Course of the Relationship Questions:
 - Describe any changes in your relationship with your advisor over time.
 - What have you learned from your advisor?
 - Would you say that there have been changes in the way that you relate to your advisor over the course of training?
 - If yes → Describe these changes.
 - Have you noticed any changes in the way your advisor relates to you over time?
 - If yes → Describe these changes.

- Think back, prior to your initiating your relationship with your advisor, what were your expectations for the relationship? Were any of your expectations unmet? Exceeded?

APPENDIX F

FINAL SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW SCRIPT AND PROMPTS

I am going to ask you some questions about your relationship with your research advisor. By research advisor, I mean the person most responsible for your progress in the program, commonly this person is your thesis or dissertation committee chair.

As we progress, I want you to carefully consider each question and give me as much detail as possible. Please know that this study is focused on *your* experience of your relationship with your advisor; thus there are no right or wrong answers.

Do you have any questions?

Please tell me about your relationship with your research advisor.

Area's of Interest

- General Questions:
 - Describe your most favorite aspects of your relationship with your advisor.
 - Describe your least favorite aspects of your relationship with your advisor.
 - If you could have a completely frank conversation, one where you would not need to be concerned about repercussions or hurting anyone's feelings, what would you tell your advisor they could do better? What do you think they would tell you?
- Content of the Relationship Questions:
 - From your perspective, describe the purpose of your relationship with your advisor.
 - Describe a typical meeting with your advisor.
 - Describe the things your advisor is teaching you, if any, that you think will be most valuable to your future career and/or personal success?
- Interpersonal dimension of the Relationship Questions:
 - Describe how your advisor makes you feel.
 - Describe how you feel about your advisor.
 - Describe how you think your advisor feels about you.
 - As you look back at your relationship with your advisor, describe the events that stand out the most in your mind.
- Course of the Relationship Questions:
 - Describe any changes in your relationship with your advisor over time.
 - What have you learned from your advisor
 - Would you say that there have been changes in the way that you relate to your advisor over the course of training?
 - If yes → Describe these changes.
 - Have you noticed any changes in the way your advisor relates to you over time?
 - If yes → Describe these changes.

- Think back, prior to your initiating your relationship with your advisor, what were your expectations for the relationship? Were any of your expectations unmet? Exceeded?
- Additional Questions:
 - Do your relationships with fellow lab members influence your relationship with your advisor (added 5/4/2008)?
 - Do you find that there is a parental type structure to lab relationships (i.e. your advisor as parent, your lab mates as siblings) (added 5/31/2008)?
 - Describe the significance of your relationship with your research advisor. (added 6/8/2008)
 - How you a rupture to your relationship with you research advisor impact you? (added 6/28/2008)
 - How ould you describe the interpersonal temperature (warm vs. cold) of your relationship with your research advisor? (added 6/8/2008)
 - How ould you describe the interpersonal connectedness (close vs. distant) of your relationship with your research advisor? (added 9/10/2008)

APPENDIX G

BRACKETING

The following is a summary of the primary investigator's biases and assumptions about advisor-advisee relationships.

I believe the advising relationship is an enormously impactful relationship in the lives of graduate students, particularly with regard to their development as researchers. The weight placed on the relationship is facilitated by the following factors. First, most graduate students enter the program deeply ambivalent about their abilities as a researcher. Second, in order to ameliorate this ambivalence, graduate students (advisees) look to an expert (generally advisors) to determine their competence and potential as researchers. Thus, the feedback provided by advisors to their advisees has a profound impact on advisees' self-concept and as a result can dramatically influence the course of their professional careers.

To a lesser extent, I believe the advising relationship is also important in the lives of advisors. Most academic faculty who choose to advise graduate students take their role very seriously and hope to work as both a supportive role model, guide and gatekeeper for the field. Juggling these multiple roles is difficult and many advisors feel the strain of managing conflicting roles simultaneously. In addition, advisees often fulfill roles necessary for the career advancement of their advisors, working on the advisor's research or publishing their thesis/dissertations with the advisor as co-author. Thus, to a certain extent advisors are dependent on their advisees to be productive.

The advisory relationship is an imbalanced one. Advisors hold responsibilities for their advisees that are not reciprocal; for example, advisors are expected to set and

maintain appropriate boundaries for the relationship, keep the confidence of their advisees, and take the time to ensure their advisees' research education is sufficient. The advisors increased responsibilities also imbue them with a large amount of power. Specifically, advisors can significantly facilitate or hinder an advisee's research development, progress through the graduate program and reputation in the psychological community. Due to their power-down position in the relationship, advisees are therefore at risk for exploitation and manipulation.

Despite the power differential, the quality of the advisory relationship is a combined result of the personality and behavior of both parties. As a result, the parties share responsibility for their experience of the relationship and its outcome. In addition, because neither individual is perfect the relationship cannot be perfect. Thus, all relationships are composed of both strengths and weaknesses reflective of the individual personalities of the parties and their interaction with one another.

Finally, the advisory relationship is a complex one that is unlikely to be traversed without some conflict. Thus, each party's approach to conflict significantly influences the quality and outcome of the relationship. Specifically, an open, assertive approach to conflict is favorable to an avoidant or authoritarian approach.

APPENDIX H
THEORY BUILDING

Table 4: Theory Building

Emergent Themes	Second Order Category	First Order Bin
An Interpersonal Relationship	Temperature	<p>Warmth:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>I have a good relationship with my advisor</i> • <i>I've always felt really warmly towards her</i> • <i>On the whole, I really like my advisor</i> • <i>I respect him very much</i> • <i>I am very grateful towards her for a lot of things</i> • <i>She's very accepting</i> • <i>He really cares about me</i> <p>Hostility:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>So it's on the cool side</i> • <i>I guess I'm bitter</i> • <i>I'm very aware of her weaknesses and sort of disappointed about that and angry about that</i> • <i>In general, when I interact with her a lot of times I feel frustrated or highly annoyed</i> • <i>Sometimes I almost feel like I'm little bit of a burden or like a thorn in his side</i> <p>Mixed Feelings or Ambivalence:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Kind of ambivalent, I guess</i> • <i>It's a love-hate relationship</i>
	Control	<p>Freeing:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>He's very hands off and allows his lab members to do their work independently</i> • <i>And so I feel like I have a lot [of] intellectual freedom to really come up with my own ideas about my research</i> • <i>I think the best thing about my advisor and our relationship is that he treats me like a colleague</i> • <i>It's a collaborative relationship</i> • <i>He didn't want to study kids but I'm really</i>

		<p><i>interested in kids so he let me, he lets me chose what I want to do. I have a lot of freedom in that regard</i></p> <p>Controlling:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>It's not a very hands off relationship actually. I tend to require a little bit of hand holding at times</i> • <i>What I'm trying to say is almost micromanaging at a certain level</i> • <i>But there are times when he becomes a control freak</i> • <i>There are certainly times when I feel chastised</i> • <i>My advisor make me feel inferior, like a little girl</i> • <i>[My advisor] makes me feel pressured, like I'll never measure up</i>
	Investment	<p>Advisor Investment:</p> <p><u>Professional</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Se puts a ton of work into what I'm doing. Like she really goes above and beyond.</i> • <i>She is incredibly accessible</i> • <i>She is always willing to set up sort of impromptu meetings if I need to talk to her about something</i> • <i>And he's very responsive to email and we'll meet whenever you want</i> <p><u>Emotional</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>I guess my favorite thing is that she definitely cares a lot about her students.</i> • <i>She's really supportive of both [my] research endeavors but also any personal decisions I may make.</i> <p>Advisor Disinterest:</p> <p><u>Professional</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>He's my advisor on paper.</i> • <i>He doesn't give suggestions on how to improve [my work]. He just tells you what the problem is and now that's yours to go deal with.</i>

		<p><u>Emotional</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>He doesn't seem that interested in my personal life; [our conversations are] always to the point.</i> • <i>In particular, she's a lot more professional, [with] very clear cut boundaries. [She] doesn't talk about personal life, just very all about work.</i> • <i>I find him to be both professionally and personally unavailable.</i> <p>Advisee Investment:</p> <p><u>Professional</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>It's been a pretty important relationship in my life</i> • <i>I mean I think in terms of my career it's probably um, going to be the most important relationship I'll ever have.</i> • <i>It's an important relationship; let's put it this way...I don't think that I would have wanted anyone else in our department as my advisor</i> • <i>I don't want to let her down, primarily because I am afraid it's going to hurt my career.</i> <p><u>Emotional</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>I guess my favorite thing is that she definitely cares a lot about her students.</i> • <i>She's really supportive of both [my] research endeavors but also any personal decisions I may make.</i> <p>Advisee Disinterest (Boundaries):</p> <p><u>Emotional</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>I kind of treat him at a distance I guess</i> • <i>I think we have a professional relationship that's probably not as boundary oriented as I usually am with people. It's probably a little bit more blurred, but I do think it's very professional.</i> • <i>I do not have a relationship with her where I share very much at all about my personal</i>
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		<p>life.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>In particular, she's a lot more professional, [with] very clear cut boundaries. [She] doesn't talk about personal life, just very all about work.</i> • <i>I find him to be both professionally and personally unavailable.</i>
	Security	<p>Secure:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>I feel safe, secure.</i> • <i>It's a comfortable relationship I have with my advisor.</i> • <i>I don't ever feel uncomfortable interrupting her or telling her I don't see things that way.</i> • <i>So she's no one to be scared of.</i> • <i>I think I've gained a lot more ability to speak more frankly and to disagree with him to, to say no.</i> <p>Insecure:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>More often than I would like, [I feel] very, very anxious; just feeling like I need to get more done, should be doing more</i> • <i>I always feel extremely self-conscious around him and afraid to make a mistake</i> • <i>Oh, nervous! Yeah, normally I would say, kind of anxious and nervous.</i>
A Goal-Oriented Relationship	Facilitator/Overseer	<p>General:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>The purpose of a research advisor is to help a graduate student get through the program; to help them meet deadlines and keep up with their progress in the program.</i> • <i>[My advisor's job is to] make sure I'm making adequate progress throughout the program.</i> • <i>I mean she really keeps involved in all aspects of our training to make sure that they are adequate.</i> <p>Check With:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>I would say he is responsible for guiding me through grad school,</i>

		<p><i>helping me negotiate the different goals and responsibilities that I'm gonna have whether it's research or classes or clinical experiences. He's responsible for keeping tabs on that and coordinating that in some way.</i></p> <p>Check On:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>I think [advisors' role] is to make sure I'm making adequate progress throughout the program. That I'm meeting my major milestones; that I'm performing at an acceptable level, that I am gaining the training and not just gaining it, but meeting the standards.</i> <p>Check Out:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Our department requires faculty advisors to write an evaluation about each student every year, so they have an idea about what's going on with everybody. But in our lab, all we get on our evaluation is he writes, "v period good" and that's it. Well, he doesn't write v period good for everyone. So the people that aren't doing well, he just writes "good." *laughs*</i>
	<p>Research Supervisor</p>	<p>Advisors purpose is research training:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>I would say the purpose is very much to train me to be the best researcher I can be</i> <i>From my purpose, I think it's to teach me how to do research properly.</i> <p>Seven Tasks:</p> <p><u>Facilitate involvement in research:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>[purpose is to expose to the] practicalities of being a researcher</i> <i>I think it's for me to get [involved in a] variety of research ideas and proposals</i>

		<p><u>Develop research identity/program of research:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Allowing me to find what interests me most and allowing me to build on my own program of research that branches off from his.</i> • <i>Helping you figure out how to develop your own ideas and thoughts to be able to conduct research you're interested in.</i> <p><u>Build scientific writing skills:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>She's really good at teaching me how to write because I wasn't very good at it in the beginning.</i> • <i>A purpose is also to try and pick up skills, in say grant writing.</i> • <i>Skills in just writing in general for publication, learning from her, using her as a model or a template for that.</i> <p><u>Build critical/scientific thinking skills:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>on a more micro level, he has taught me how to critically review some of the articles and research out there</i> • <i>I think that by far the most important thing he's taught me is just how to think through [research] issues in general.</i> <p><u>Teach time management:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>think um, let's say well, he, he has tried to teach me about setting goals and setting um, short term goals um, and to give myself time to work towards those goals.</i> • <i>And um, here's how you get there like with breaking seemingly impossible tasks down into really adjustable parts that can get done.</i> <p><u>Develop advisee expertise:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>And honestly, a lot about the content of what we're studying.</i> • <i>I think the most important thing is that she has a lot of training in [advanced statistics]. And since, the type of research I do, that's critical to get published, and so, that is one of the most valuable things I've</i>
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		<p><i>learned from her.</i></p> <p><u>Network advisee in the field:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>And networking! She's really good about like introducing me to the big names in the field and things like that.</i> • <i>I gotta throw in the networking, that she is teaching me that will be really valuable.</i> <p>Methods:</p> <p><u>Research Lab</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>I feel like a lot of my research skills for running studies, I've learned just from working and from experience in the lab</i> <p><u>Apprenticeship</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Going through research [training], it's like a craft. I think it's the same idea as apprenticeship.</i>
	<p>Professional Advisor</p>	<p>Advise about professional identity:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Advisors help students as they develop professional identities whether they intend to be clinicians or whether they intend to be researchers, academicians, whatever.</i> • <i>Then there's actual choosing classes that will serve you when you're out of school.</i> • <i>A lot of professional development.</i> • <i>Lately we've been talking a little bit more about my future and deadlines, internships, career prospects and so on.</i> <p>Advise about career in/reality of academe:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Um, every conversation that we have, I mean I am very frank about my career goals [to become an academician] and every conversation that we have is about how this is going to build in to my career and what choices to I need to make in</i>

		<p><i>order to set me on a career path that I want.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>I learned the politics and the reality of academia</i> • <i>I mean she'll have lab meetings where it's like, "Here's how you write a good CV."</i>
	Role Model	<p>Positive modeling:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>[Ideally] they're just sort of a model for like what you want to do eventually when you're done with your training.</i> • <i>I pay attention to how she runs her lab. And there's things that I really admire and appreciate about what she does, and then I take notes on that so that someday when I'm a professor those are things that I'll try to incorporate</i> • <i>Seeing him sign his reviews, and seeing him talk really straight forward, he wouldn't say anything about another psychologist or researcher that he wouldn't say to their face. So having that kind of integrity, and he's not directly teaching me that but he's modeling that you can be that way.</i> <p>Negative modeling:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>So, I hope it's [their relationship] shown me how to not do it [advise].</i> • <i>There are other things that I don't appreciate about her and I take notes about that.</i> • <i>One thing I would say that I've learned is be careful of, of who you trust, and how much you've divulged to individuals [by watching advisor be treated badly in the department].</i>
A Contextual Relationship	The Research Lab Context	<p>Advisor as team leader:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>I think he chooses his students carefully... He seems to choose students that are kind of relaxed and have a decent sense of humor. And he will not, if he sees someone come in and they seem really uptight and they, and even if their resumes are really impressive, he won't take them.</i> • <i>She's big in to making it a community</i>

		<p><i>focused research lab.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>There are certain people in the lab who don't really pull their weight as much... [For example] they might be co-authors on a publication with me, and if I feel like they're not doing enough work, it's not up to me if I can take them off [the publication]. And I've discussed this with [ADVISOR] before, so I know that in his view, it's to his benefit to have everyone in the lab "look" like they have lots of publications, even though really only a few people are doing the bulk of the work. So that makes me feel bitter.</i> • <i>Since we don't have that like um, you know, face to face to contact with him [advisor] a lot, then like we don't really have a leader in the lab, so the other graduate students are all kind of scattered. I don't really know what a lot of them are working on a lot of the time.</i> <p>Advisor as boss:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>It's very similar in any type of business relationship or anything like that with an employer-employee type of thing.</i> • <i>I do [have boundaries] because this is still my job, and you're still my boss.</i> • <i>I think the reason that he and I had worked so well together [before] is because we always had a research relationship. It was never an employee-employer relationship because when [he's] in an employee-employer relationship, he forgets about the mentor-mentee relationship.</i> <p>Labmates as a source of competition:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>It's unfortunate, but you know when we have group meetings, you can tell that there's competitiveness; we're not one hundred percent comfortable</i> • <i>One of the reasons why I chose to go where I went is that it's not particularly competitive.</i> • <i>We have two men in our lab, and one of them is a 5th year. He's actually going to</i>
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		<p><i>stay around for a 6th year. Our advisor really, really, really likes him, and would go to him with special favors and requests and also sort of give him first dibs on projects. And that was really annoying, but, hey, what are you gonna do?</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>And it's me and one other student in that [favored] position and two other students who feel sort of marginalized.</i> <p>Labmates as group of comparison:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>And, I mean other people have had that experience with her too. And it's just a fluke or whatever, it's not just me.</i> • <i>There are people, other grad students in my lab who are much closer to her interpersonally than I am.</i> • <i>And I notice that she only really does it with me [makes fun of her publicly], not with other grad students.</i> <p>Labmates as source of support:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>I think we all care about each other's goals and it's like a theme in lab meetings. We really celebrate each other's progress</i> • <i>If there's something going on and he's [advisor] not available for whatever reason um, I'll talk it over with them [labmates].</i> • <i>We get along well and I think we feel a sense of comradely in sort of being in the same crappy boat, at least with regard to our advisor, we, we're all pretty much doing our own things for the most part.</i> • <i>I'll ask[labmates] "Am I being obstinate here? Am I being too whatever?" We'll also consult about how she might react to feedback. Like, "How might she interpret this?" And the graduate students will point that out to each other because we know how she may interpret it.</i> • <i>So, we try very hard to support each other, and be there for each other because our advisor sure isn't going to do that. So we're surrogate advising each other.</i>
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		<p>Gossip:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>There was period of time when we would do a lot of bad-mouthing [my advisor].</i> • <i>I guess kind of talking behind his back more and negative things, more and in that sense being influenced by lab-mates.</i> • <i>I think that there are times where she doesn't use the most discretion when discussing things...I've heard other things at times about student's statuses and things like that, that I was somewhat surprised about. And, while I don't think that's impacted my experience at all, that's always one of the jokes that we students have about this particular advisor.</i> • <i>There was this falling out I had with a fellow lab-mate ...But apparently, the other grad student wasn't being professional like I was and seemed to be saying things to [ADVISOR] about me... Which puts me on edge like when I am with [ADVISOR] I sometimes wonder well what has [PEER] said to her? And you know, has she viewed me negatively based on what [PEER] has said? And so that's a concern.</i>
	<p>The Department Context</p>	<p>Advisor as supervisor:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>She's been the supervisor for one of my internships</i> • <i>He was my clinical supervisor this spring semester and I found it really difficult to work with him</i> • <i>She also happens to be an important clinical supervisor that I've had</i> <p>Other faculty as advisor comparison group:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>And I really appreciate her, and I'm really thankful that she's my actually advisor,</i>

		<p><i>given the other faculty members that are around here at our campus</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>I mean it's not that I would really expect a lot more but in comparison to other graduate students in my program who have relationships with their mentors that are just a little bit more friendly and warm</i> • <i>I know that there's nobody else in the department that would have given me all of the opportunities that he has.</i> <p>Department supports:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Getting to know other professors in my department has been really helpful. Just like, through them supervising my clinical work.</i> • <i>So I've had a relationship with this person who has been kind of a surrogate advisor for me, since I've started in the program.</i> <p>Department evaluation:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Maybe it's just the climate at [UNIVERSITY], but there's just lots of faculty meetings where they talk about the students and scrutinize them and give you written evaluations all the time.</i> • <i>His role as a protector, to defend me if necessary in the department.</i> • <i>If I need support in the department, for any reason, then, he's willing to go meet with the department head and help.</i> • <i>My research advisor, she's a newer faculty member... She's actually up for tenure this coming year. And the thing about that is that she's very, very driven right now to get publications, and do a lot of research, because she is up for tenure.</i> • <i>I'm sort of seen as an extension of him in the department in terms of that my behavior reflects so much on him.</i> • <i>I mean I can't even tell you how many times like I've explained that or her students will explain that to even other people in the department. Like, oh no! She's actually a great teacher.</i>
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	<p>The Historical Context</p>	<p>Prior research/mentor relationships:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>I thought it was going to be all business, hardcore, really intense because that's how all my other advising relationships have been.</i> • <i>From what I had in undergrad, my advisor, she was very boundary oriented. She was great. She was very helpful with everything. So, I guess I expected her to be like that.</i> • <i>And that was kind of an adjustment for me [advisor having clear professional boundaries] because I felt like I had a more of a friendship with my undergraduate advisor.</i> <p>Cultural background:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>One person in my entire family has to gone to undergraduate school, and no one's gone to grad school. So, for me, I wasn't really raised with expectations about even getting to go to grad school. Like, I wanted to, but I didn't really believe in myself enough.</i> • <i>All of my family is in [CITY] and um, and I never really left there. And it's a very huge Hispanic population, and so coming here to [Rural Mid-Western City] was like, "Wow, this is really different.</i> • <i>Um, and I didn't really like living up here, so that was a whole other thing. Um, and, I think that was a big thing is that because I identify as a person of color and she's white.</i>
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	<p>The Personal Life Context</p>	<p>Siphoning resources:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>I think that there are some times, like now, I'm planning a wedding. And, I'm not nearly as invested and working hard and putting in as many hours as I typically do.</i> • <i>And she was having problems, you know, her mom was really ill... so I knew she was under a lot of stress. So, like there's some understanding behind why you might be a little short in interpersonal interactions.</i> <p>Changing goals:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>He often says things like, "To succeed in this field you know you've gotta work 16 hours a day; at least 12 hours a day" and that's not the kind of life I want to have. I don't want to not be there and not be present with my family and I don't want to come home and carry that stress and that anxiety home with me to my family.</i>
<p>A Dynamic Relationship</p>	<p>Gradual Changes</p>	<p>Practical changes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>I know that definitely during my first year, he did a lot more checking in with me. "How are classes going? How's adjusting going" you know, "How are things like that? How are you integrating yourself into graduate school?"</i> • <i>Probably we were not meeting quite as frequently.</i> • <i>Now we're focused on defining a career path.</i> <p>Interpersonal changes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Over time, it seems that he has treated me more and more like a colleague.</i> • <i>I have noticed that during the dissertation process compared to the thesis process, my advisor has been more hands off with draft</i>

		<p><i>writing or suggestions or things like that.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>With research projects or awards, he'll ask me what I think about an idea and then if I don't like his idea or if I have a problem with the idea I voice that and he seems to really listen and take it seriously.</i> • <i>I think I've gained a lot more ability to speak more frankly and to disagree with him, to say no.</i> • <i>I mean interpersonally you just get closer.</i> • <i>I didn't know him very well at first, so there was a lot of small talk. Then [our] relationship got a little deeper [laughter].</i>
	<p>Critical Shifts</p>	<p>Intra personal shifts:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>I remember when I defended my master's... I was presiding, I was doing my pamphlet slides and I was answering questions and so on and I didn't really get a chance to write down the comments from my other committee members ... But, right after the meeting, he actually handed me a piece of paper with all the comments from other committee members and also questions he had. And I was really, I don't know how to put it. I was really, not shocked, but touched. I really appreciated what he did because I would never imagine having my advisor take notes for me at my committee meeting. It was really important because it really shows that he really cares about my work and he really cares about me as an individual.</i> • <i>A significant moment for me was towards the end of my first year. So, I guess it was sort of mid first year, we were talking about</i>

interview weekend, and he was saying how it sure would be nice to “get some more men in the lab”. And, all of the women [in the lab] raised their eyebrows like, “What is he saying?” The he want on to say how women behave so much better when there’s a higher man-to-women ratio and we have too many women in the lab right now and, that’s when bitchiness and cattiness come out. And all of we women were looking at each other silently, like expressing “What the hell is he saying? We all got along really well.” And I was thinking “What you’re saying is that women need men to keep them in their place!”

Interpersonal shifts:

- *I think in the beginning I didn’t like her very much because I felt she was pushy and she wanted to know much more personal things about me than I was willing to go to... We also struggled because she wanted to fix things all the time. [For example,] I didn’t like living here because it’s a predominantly white area ... I mean the biggest thing was that she would always try to fix it. She’d [say], “Okay, so what can we do? What can I do? Let’s fix this. Let’s do this, let’s do that.” And I’m like “You’re not getting it. You’re not understanding what I’m trying to say to you! You can’t make a whole bunchy of people of color all the sudden show up in our program. You can’t do that, so that’s not gonna be fixed!” And I think she just got frustrated with that because I told her that sometimes. That she can’t fix it, and she gets frustrated when she can’t fix things. So then, that just*

		<p><i>makes it harder, because she really wanted to [fix it] and she blamed herself a lot for everything.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Like this is second year when I had the issue and then the conversation with her, and we finally came to agreement. Communication increased in terms of our working relationship. I told her how I felt, and one of the comments she had was that I was stubborn or needed to be more flexible in some domains.... And, through that conversation, that's where I would come down every time she would give me a new task. Okay, you want me to do X, Y, Z. I have two hours. What, what needs to be done today? What do I need to delegate to someone else? ...And I think she's adjusted to me, too. ... She's changed so much.</i> • <i>I am actively ignoring it because I don't want to cry in front of him again because he used that as evidence of my...he called it "inappropriateness and unprofessional conduct". I'm ignoring it just to get through and to handle things. And I don't know why he's ignoring it. I do think that it's not his responsibility now that he's not my supervisor.</i>
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Master of Arts, Psychology, 2007
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Publications:

Emke-Francis, P., Skeem, J., Camp, J. & Eno Loudon, J. (2005) Contact and Violation Policies in Traditional and Specialty Mental Health Probation: Who Does What? Paper presented at the 2005 Annual American Psychology-Law Society Conference (LaJolla, California).

Emke-Francis, P., Skeem, J., Camp, J., Tiemann, J. & Eno Loudon, J. (2004) Probation and mental health: A national survey. Paper presented at the 2004 Annual American Psychology-Law Society Conference (Scottsdale, Arizona).

Skeem, J., **Emke-Francis, P.**, & Eno-Loudon, J. (2006). Probation, mental health, and mandated treatment: A national survey. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 33, 158-184.

Skeem, J., Golding, S. L., & **Emke-Francis, P.** (2003) Assessing adjudicative competency: Using legal and empirical principles to inform practice. In W.T. O'Donohue & E.R. W.R. Levensky's (Eds.), *Forensic psychology: A handbook for mental health professionals*. (pp.175-211) New York: Academic Press.

Dissertation Title: The Advisor-Advisee Relationship: A Qualitative Study of Advisee Perspectives

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