2021

Factors Predicting Counselor Education and Supervision Doctoral Student Career Choices

Lisa Corbin
Walden University

Walden University

College of Counselor Education & Supervision

This is to certify that the doctoral dissertation by

Lisa Corbin

has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,
and that any and all revisions required by
the review committee have been made.

Review Committee
Dr. Melinda Haley, Committee Chairperson, Counselor Education and Supervision Faculty
Dr. Jenelle Pitt, Committee Member, Counselor Education and Supervision Faculty
Dr. Geneva Gray, University Reviewer, Counselor Education and Supervision Faculty

Chief Academic Officer and Provost
Sue Subocz, Ph.D.

Walden University
2021

Abstract

Factors Predicting Counselor Education and Supervision

Doctoral Student Career Choices

by

Lisa Corbin

MA, Walden University, 2014

MA, University at Albany, 2001

BA, SUNY Oneonta, 1998

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Counselor Education and Supervision

Walden University

May 2021

Abstract

Despite the increased need for counselor educators, less than half of graduates of counselor education and supervision (CES) programs enter into faculty positions after graduation. There is also a significant lack of diversity among counselor educators. Some researchers found that the quality of a mentoring relationship influences the mentee's self-efficacy and career choice. The purpose of this quantitative survey research study was to explore the perceived quality of the participant's mentoring relationship as measured by the Mentorship in Clinical Training Scale (MiCTS) and whether that score predicted the participant's career choice or a change in career choice, investigate whether students' demographic variables of race, age, or gender were related to their perceived quality of the mentoring relationship and describe qualities identified as essential qualities of an ideal mentor across the CES students' age, gender, and race. The conceptual underpinnings of this study were Bandura's social cognitive theory, Kram's theory of mentorship, and Gottfredson's theory of circumscription. The researcher used binomial logistic regressions, analysis of variances (ANOVA), and descriptive statistics to analyze participant's responses on the MiCTS and career related questions. Key findings from this study are that the MiCTS total scores cannot predict whether the participants obtained a full-time faculty position but can predict if a participant experienced a career goal change. Participants scored the research domain as the most essential quality of an ideal mentor. A key recommendation from this study is to start mentoring programs earlier than in a CES program. Social change implications relate to how mentorship can increase the diversity and success of the CES field and faculty.

Factors Predicting Counselor Education and Supervision Doctoral Student Career Choices

by

Lisa Corbin

MA, Walden University, 2014

MA, University at Albany, 2001

BA, SUNY Oneonta, 1998

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Counselor Education and Supervision

Walden University

May 2021

Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to all underrepresented groups in counselor education. May the findings of this study help you get the mentorship you deserve.

This dissertation is also dedicated to all of the mentors in my life. Dr. P, I thank you for being my cheerleader, mentor, and inspiration from the moment we met.

Greg Krikorian, thank you for being my very first mentor and for introducing me to the amazing world of higher education.

Dr. Haley, you're the faculty member I aspire to be. Your attention to detail is like no other and I thank you for your patience, dedication, and inspiration. You are a beautiful human being!

Dr. Pitt, you allowed me to make this 250-page document become something livable and helped align it with my values; I am forever grateful and will carry on this tradition.

Dr. Nouri, thank you for taking a chance on me and opening up my mind to the wonderful world of research. I think of you often.

Bob, you exceed my expectations of what a mentor is and does. You inspire me. Thank you for taking a chance on me, supporting me, and being the absolute best mentor a young professional could ever ask for!

Acknowledgments

Thank you Ray for being an amazing father and part-time mother to our four children as I worked on my degrees. You are the only person I want by my side in this journey called life. You put as much sweat into this degree as I did. I love you.

To my children, thank you for allowing me to fulfill my dream of obtaining a PhD and live my career goals as a Director of a Counseling program. My hope is to now earn my PhD in being your mother and give each of you the attention you deserve and have deserved over these past nine years. Thank you for adjusting your expectations of me as I had to make school a priority in my life.

I'd also like to thank my grandmother Esther who fought in the army and taught me that women can do anything if they put their minds to it. To my father who was, and always is, my rock and biggest fan; thank you for making me the feminist I am today (I love you more). Mom- wish you held on for 7 more months, I miss you. I also need to thank God who provided me with the faith that I'd make it to this point. A special shout out to my girls who kept me sane and on track; Steph, Bre, Marcella – you rock! Michael, the amount of appreciation I have for you is beyond words.

Last but not least, my dear cousin and wonder twin Kim. We started this journey of obtaining our doctorates together, were the first of our 40 cousins to graduate with master's degrees, were supposed to be walking across that stage together, and were going to change the world one country at a time. Unfortunately, that blood clot got the best of you. I promise that I will dedicate my life to serving the underserved as you did, continue your work in Africa, and mentor your daughters. I miss you every single day.

Table of Contents

Table of Contents i

List of Tables iii

List of Figures v

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study 1

Background 2

Problem Statement 9

Purpose of the Study 13

Research Questions and Hypothesis 14

Conceptual Framework 15

Nature of the Study 19

Definitions 22

Assumptions 24

Scope and Delimitations 25

Limitations 27

Significance 29

Summary 30

Chapter 2: Literature Review 31

Literature Search Strategy 34

Conceptual Framework 36

Literature Review Related to Key Variables Relevance of the Problem 47

Chapter 3: Research Method....104
Research Design and Rationale....105
Methodology....111
Research Questions and Hypothesis....136
Threats to Validity....140
Ethical Procedures....145
Summary....146
Chapter 4: Results....148
Pilot Study....149
Data Collection....150
Results 155
Chapter 5: Discussion....177
Interpretation of the Findings....178
Limitations of the Study....187
Recommendations....190
Implications....195
References....200

List of Tables

Table 1. Demographic Characteristics of Participants ……. 154

Table 2. Mentor Demographics and Affiliation …….156

Table 3. Career Choice of CES Students upon Entering and Upon Graduating the CES program……158

Table 4. Participant's Primary Position Entered Upon Graduating…….160

Table 5. Omnibus Test of Model Coefficients: Significance of MiCTS Scores Predicting Faculty vs. Non-Faculty (RQ1)……...164

Table 6. Binomial Logistic Regression Predicting Faculty v. Non-Faculty using the MiCTS (RQ1)……..….. 165

Table 7. ANOVA Significance Test of Race and MiCTS ……...…...166

Table 8. ANOVA: Race and MiCTS ……..166

Table 9. Post-Hoc: ANOVA Results for Race and Scores on MiCTS ……...…166

Table 10. ANOVA Significance Test of Age and MiCTS ……....167

Table 11. ANOVA: Age and MiCTS …….……167

Table 12. Post-Hoc: ANOVA Results for Race and Scores on MiCTS …….167

Table 13. ANOVA Significance Test of Gender and MiCTS ……168

Table 14. ANOVA: Gender and MiCTS ……168

Table 15. Descriptive Statistics: Did Career Goals Change Over the Course of Being Enrolled as a CES Student …….169

Table 16. Omnibus Test of Model Coefficients: Significance of MiCTS Scores Predicting Career Choice Change (RQ3)……..169

Table 17. Effect Size: MiCTS and Career Choice Change …….....170

Table 18. Binomial Logistic Regression Predicting Career Choice Change Using the MiCTS (RQ3)……..170

Table 19. Ideal Qualities of Mentor by Age: Psychosocial and Career Domain ……171

Table 20. Ideal Qualities of Mentor by Age: Clinical and Research Domain ……171

Table 21. Ideal Qualities of Mentor by Race: Clinical and Research Domain……172

Table 22. Ideal Qualities of Mentor by Race: Psychosocial and Career Domain……172

Table 23. Ideal Qualities of Mentor by Gender: Career and Clinical Domain ……...173

Table 24. Ideal Qualities of Mentor by Gender: Psychosocial and Research Domain…173

List of Figures

Figure 1. Distribution of Responses for Position Obtained After Graduation.....164

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

The counseling profession is faced with a severe shortage of faculty who have doctoral degrees accredited by the Council for Accreditation of Counselor Education and Related Programs (CACREP; Hinkle et al., 2017; Hipolito-Delgado et al., 2017; Isaacs & Sabella, 2013; Woo et al., 2017). There is also a shortage of diverse counseling faculty (Hinkle et al., 2017). Many counselor educators have created mentorship programs aimed at strengthening retention rates, attending to issues of diversity, and increasing the likelihood of students entering into faculty positions (Stark et al., 2019). Therefore, in this study, I examined how participants' perception of the quality of their mentoring relationship might predict the career choice or a career choice change of counselor education and supervision (CES) students with an emphasis on students from diverse backgrounds. I also collected demographic data on mentees and what qualities they wanted in an ideal mentor which allowed me to analyze the relationship between mentees demographic variables (i.e., gender, race, and age) and their ideal qualities of a mentor. The results of this study might provide counseling faculty and administrators insight into how experiences in mentorship could influence the career choices of CES students, what students want from a mentor, and could possibly be a rationale for including career exploration into mentoring relationships between faculty and CES students.

The results of this study have implications for social change. For instance, previous researchers found that allied health students reported many gains from being mentored (Anekstein & Vereen, 2018; Baltrinic et al., 2016; Borders et al., 2012; Dollarhide et al., 2013; Gadbois & Graham, 2012; Hipolito-Delgado et al., 2017;

Murdock et al., 2013; Protivnak & Foss, 2009; Yob & Crawford, 2012). These gains included increased confidence to enter an occupation after receiving mentorship that involved career exploration, persistence to graduation, and feeling more connected as a student and alumni (Conklin et al., 2013; Denault et al., 2019; Whiston et al., 2017). Therefore, CES faculty and administrators might be able to use the results of this study to strengthen their pre-existing mentoring programs or create new mentoring programs for CES students. In particular, counselor educators can create mentorship programs using the ideal scores from the MiCTS (Prouty et al., 2015) which could identify factors that CES students want in their ideal mentoring relationship. In this chapter, I discuss the background, purpose of this study, identify my research questions, the conceptual framework for the study, and the assumptions, scope, and delimitations of my study. Most importantly, I address the significance of this study.

Background

Counselor educator positions are projected to increase nearly 20% over the next five to eight years thus representing a substantial need to fill counselor educator positions (U.S. Department of Labor, 2017). While there is a significant need for graduates of CES doctoral programs to enter academia, only between 20% and 43% of CES graduates reported wanting to pursue a faculty position upon graduation (Hinkle et al., 2017; Isaacs & Sabella, 2013; Woo et al., 2017). Hinkle et al. (2017) identified four major themes as reasons students had for entering a CES doctoral program. These were to become a professor (n = 22), to seek respect and job security (n = 2), to grow as a clinical leader (n = 2), to succeed for family and others (n = 2) and neutral or a combination of the above

responses (n = 7). However, only about 45% of these participants reported that they had actually entered a faculty position upon graduation (Hinkle et al., 2017). In addition, Hinkle et al.'s (2017) study brought attention to how students' perception of the low salary and perceived rigor of academic positions may deter CES graduates from applying for faculty positions. Thus Hinkle et al. called for future researchers to more fully explore career decisions of CES students.

Woo et al. (2017) highlighted the need for more extensive research on CES student perceptions of faculty roles. These researchers reported that most CES students did not know about the high demand for CES faculty and that career expectations, rather than career intention, may be a factor in why CES doctoral students reported a desire to obtain a faculty position but did not go into the profession. For instance, Woo et al. found evidence to support a misalignment between what CES students believed a faculty position entailed and what faculty actually do. These authors urged other researchers to explore this misalignment (Woo et al., 2017).

Kuo et al. (2017) found that researcher self-efficacy and motivation to conduct research predicted faculty research productivity. They also found that the doctoral student's relationship with his or her advisor moderated the relationship between research motivation and productivity. The results of Kuo et al.'s study highlighted the importance of the advising relationship when advisors act as mentors. Kuo et al. helped make the link between advisors and mentors in that they found mentors served as role models in many areas, such as teaching, research, counselor advocacy efforts, and professional engagement. Kuo et al. also reported the mentoring experiences of CES doctoral students

influenced counselor self-growth, promotion of well-being, empowerment, and adherence to professional ethics.

Many researchers found that counselors-in-training and CES students of color demonstrated significant positive gains from having a mentor, yet many students of color reported not having the opportunity to have a mentor (Brown & Grothaus, 2019; Hipolito-Delgado et al., 2017; Miller & Stone, 2011). Hipolito-Delgado et al. (2017) emphasized the need for counselor educators to proactively provide mentoring and advising of counseling students of color because they identified three protective factors that helped students persist to graduation: diversity among peers and faculty, faculty support, and family and friends as support. These researchers also reported that students identified having to balance work, family and school, and feeling disconnected from the program, along with incidents of White dominance, as risk factors related to persistence in counseling programs. Respondents in Hipolito-Delgado et al.'s study placed more of an importance on feeling connected to the program than on academic learning aspects of the program.

In particular, African American females shared that they were more likely to attend class if they felt the professor understood them and their experiences (Hipolito-Delgado et al., 2017). Brown and Grothaus (2019) reported CES students were more likely to trust a faculty member who was of the same race. Unfortunately, Sanderson et al. (2000) found that only 5% of full-time faculty members were African American. These researchers also found that African American counselor educators stayed in faculty positions due to the ability of having a flexible lifestyle and engaging in meaningful work

(Sanderson et al., 2000). However, these African American faculty also expressed a lack in the sense of belonging which inhibited their desire to remain in these faculty positions (Sanderson et al., 2000).

Sanderson et al.'s (2000) findings on how African American counselor educators were not feeling connected to their program and university may explain the shortage of minority counselor educators. For instance, Myers (2017) found only 25% of current CES faculty identified as being an ethnic minority and approximately 50% of all minority students enrolled in a doctoral program did not complete their degree. Many faculty of color reported feeling isolated and unsupported which led them to leave academia (Lloyd-Jones, 2014) which leaves counselors-in-training without mentors who look like them. The lack of counselors of color starts with the weak pipeline of African American students going from high school to college and graduate school (Johnson et al., 2007). This deficit is due to weak relationships with mentors in high school and shortages in recruitment and retention (Johnson et al., 2007). Other explanations for the shortage of African American counselor educators relate to stress, lack of resources, and an increase in barriers (Bradley & Holcomb-McCoy, 2004). Although faculty of any racial background face challenges, the effect of stress on African American counselor educators is more compelling because so few African American counselor educators exist (Brooks & Steen, 2010).

Faculty and administrators serving in programs accredited by CACREP often found themselves in a lose-lose situation in which they were unable to attract minority master's level students because they did not have a diverse faculty, and did not have a diverse

faculty, because of the lack of minority master's level students (Meyers, 2017). While many universities have tried to develop ways to attract and retain minority counselors on both the master's and doctoral levels, few researchers have investigated how minority students in CES doctoral programs make career choices (Farmer et al., 2017). In fact, Farmer et al. (2017) identified the lack of knowing how CES doctoral students perceive faculty roles and make career decisions as a limitation of their study and an area worthy of exploration.

Other researchers indicated how mentors can influence the mentee's career choice as well as self-efficacy (Murdock et al., 2013). Murdock et al. (2013) found that mentorship influenced both the mentee and mentor and can take on different forms. For instance, Murdock reported that CES doctoral students who mentored master's level students also reported positive professional outcomes of scholarly productivity and greater satisfaction with their educational training program.

Magnuson et al. (2009) found that new faculty members who had mentors to guide them through the research processes experienced less stress and greater productivity which then led to successful completion of their tenure process. Hollingsworth and Fassinger (2002) contended that students' research productivity was strongly related to their research mentoring experiences. Other researchers found that the mentorship of doctoral students aided in the student obtaining positive professional outcomes such as promotions, wage increases, and overall job satisfaction (Burgess, 2007), that having a mentor was one of the best ways to increase the chances of the counselor educator's research productivity (Briggs & Pehrsson, 2008), and that self-efficacy levels rose as the

student engaged in mentoring experiences (Baltrinic et al., 2015). The numerous findings on how mentorship influenced both the mentor and mentee was the rationale that the Association for Counselor Education and Supervision (ACES) used when creating their research mentor guidelines (Borders et al., 2012). The ACES wanted to increase research productivity and addressed the need for guidelines on research mentorship (Borders et al., 2012).

Other researchers have explored the negative impact of the absence of a mentor. For instance, Milsom and Moran (2015) found that most CES students who entered into faculty positions reported a lack of formal support in the form of an assigned mentor and that this lack of mentoring, or inadequate mentoring, created stress and frustration for them. Lastly, Hill et al. (2005) found low research productivity for some counselor education faculty and doctoral students was linked to the lack of effective research mentoring. This finding was especially significant for African Americans and female counselor educators in which over two-thirds of the sample reported not having a mentor as being the most significant factor in them wanting to leave their faculty position.

After an exhaustive literature review, I could not find any research that explored factors related to CES students' career choices and quality of the mentoring relationship. There is also limited research on the demographic makeup of CES students and counselor educators (Brown & Grothaus, 2019; Hinkle et al., 2017; Isaacs & Sabella, 2013) as well as limited data from quantitative studies among the counseling profession (Borders et al., 2012). Therefore, I filled a gap in the research by conducting a quantitative study that was robust and attended to many of the factors currently impacting the counseling

profession. Results from this study may be beneficial in providing counselor educators with statistics that could support them in creating better mentoring programs for CES students by examining how mentorship experiences might predict a career choice change, how the perceived quality of the mentoring relationship might predict career choice, how demographic variables could influence CES students' perceived quality of the mentoring relationship, and how essential ideal mentoring qualities might vary across the CES student demographics of age, gender, and race. Some of the results might also provide insight into what CES established faculty should include in mentoring experiences for new faculty. Results might relate to CES students who graduated from CACREP accredited programs. Therefore, this study may link some of the previous findings on mentorship with the specific population of CES graduates. In particular I explored how the perceived quality of the mentoring relationship might predict career choice and how demographic variables of age, race, and gender might influence CES student's choice in identifying essential qualities associated with ideal mentors. Therefore, my results might provide insight into (a) the lack of diversity among the counselor education and supervision profession; (b) if having a mentor increases the chances of CES graduates going into a specific career; (c) what experiences the mentee reported as being the most essential of their mentor; and (d) if a mentee's demographics played a role in the perception of the quality of the mentoring relationship. For instance, the results of this study might lead to identifying ways of increasing the chances for mentees to enter faculty positions which may help support the field of counseling and could aid in diversifying the CES profession.

Problem Statement

According to the United States Department of Labor (2017), the need for CES faculty will increase between 18-20% over the next five years. The shortage of adequately trained counselor educators from programs accredited by CACREP exists because the 2016 CACREP standards now require faculty teaching in counselor education master's and CES doctoral programs to hold a doctorate from a CACREP accredited program (Adkison-Bradley, 2013). Many counseling programs responded and are continuing to respond to the shortage of qualified counselor educators by lowering requirements for faculty positions such as entertaining applicants who were still students enrolled in CACREP doctoral programs and accepting applicants with few or no publications (Law, 2012; Torres Bernal et al., 2017). Programs also made significant budget cuts (e.g., cuts in research funding, mentorship programs, and travel expenses), relied on adjuncts to teach more courses, and also increased class-size, all of which added to the workload and responsibilities of current faculty (Law, 2012; Torres Bernal et al., 2017). Faculty responses to these changes negatively influenced faculty productivity and longevity, as well as hindered student retention, satisfaction, learning, and interest in careers related to teaching on college campuses (Arcuri, 2016; Baltrinic et al. 2016; Hardre & Hackett, 2015; Kuo et al., 2017).

Counseling agencies have had to hire less stringently trained individuals due to counselor education programs not graduating enough qualified counselors to meet the demands of society. This in turn has led to clients being less satisfied with the counseling process and they were less likely to view counseling in a positive way (Wilson et al.,

2018). These choices have impacted the counseling profession because people were then less likely to be interested in a career when they perceived the profession in a negative light (MacLeod & McMullen, 2016; Rubin, 2014). Therefore, the CES faculty influenced the counselors they were training who in turn left an impression about the profession upon the clients they were serving.

Researchers have not been able to thoroughly explain why CES graduates choose career paths other than those in academia despite a significant need to fill counselor educator faculty positions, CES students having a considerable interest in teaching, and CES students feel competent and confident to teach at the graduate level (Farmer et al., 2017; Woo et al., 2017). This phenomenon is particularly intriguing because full-time faculty positions were the primary reason 79% of students stated they enrolled in a CES program and a faculty position is the only career path that requires counselors to hold a doctoral degree (Hinkle et al., 2017). For instance, the most common requirement for a clinical supervisor, counseling director, or therapist position is for the candidate to hold a license and have documented clinical experiences which candidates can meet by maintaining a master's degree in counseling (Bodenhorn et al., 2014).

While there is a significant need for counselor educators to serve as faculty members and approximately 79% of students enter CES doctoral programs with the desire to obtain a position in academia, only between 20-43% of CES graduates reported wanting to pursue a faculty position upon graduation (Hinkle et al., 2017; Isaacs & Sabella, 2013; Woo et al., 2017). Therefore, researchers are left wondering why students choose not to pursue faculty positions which is their career intention when they entered

their CES program. This is particularly intriguing because the majority of CES students chose to supplement their income in a variety of professional roles outside of academia upon graduation (Hinkle et al. 2017; Miller & Stone, 2011). For instance, Hinkle et al. (2017) found almost two-thirds of CES students who partook in their survey held more than one job after graduation and almost one-third held two or more positions. Therefore, researchers may wonder why CES graduates are not willing to make becoming a full-time faculty member one of the numerous positions they hold.

The research on factors related to CES student career choice is inconclusive. For instance, Baltrinic et al. (2016) found CES students chose careers outside of academia because they questioned their teaching abilities. However, Lamar and Helm (2017) found that it was the lack of confidence in their research abilities, and not having a researcher identity, kept students from choosing to become a counselor educator. Many researchers have linked this lack of confidence in job related tasks to career choice (Kaminsky & Behrend, 2015) and how having a mentor may increase self-efficacy levels related to job tasks (Lambie and Vaccaro, 2011). For instance, Lambie and Vaccaro (2011) found that students who had a mentor were more likely to have published, had an elevated interest in research positions, and had higher levels of researcher self-efficacy. Students' confidence in job-related tasks is particularly important because even though most faculty indicated conducting research was the task they spent the least amount of time on (Austin & Hill, 2014), many CES students reported they were deterred from becoming a counselor educator because they felt incompetent to perform the research tasks they thought were associated with becoming a counselor educator (Wilde et al., 2015). This finding led

Austin and Hill (2014) to urge mentors to discuss the job tasks associated with the careers in which their mentee is interested.

There is a significant discrepancy between student perceptions of faculty roles and the tasks that faculty reported (Hinkle et al., 2017; Wilde et al., 2015). This misalignment between what students perceived the faculty position entailed and what tasks faculty actually reported engaging in could potentially be mediated by having a mentor in the field. For instance, Carpenter et al. (2015) found that explaining faculty roles to their mentee was the task helping professionals spent the most amount of time on during mentoring sessions. These researchers also discussed how mentors not only provided their mentees with guidance on career choice, but also on psychosocial adjustment, research interests, and ways to increase intellectual stimulation (Carpenter et al., 2015).

Mentorship is one factor researchers found that influenced the success of counselor educators across all aspects of their position. For instance, counselor educators who stated they had a mentor also reported: (a) experiencing a successful transition into the counselor educator role (Baltrinic et al., 2016; Boswell et al., 2015; Milsom & Moran, 2012; Yob & Crawford 2012); (b) having satisfaction in their current faculty position (Burgess, 2007; Davis, 2007; Gambrell et al., 2011); (c) reporting positive gains from negotiating contracts (Warnke et al., 1999); (d) having a strong professional identity (Dollarhide et al., 2013); (e) having an increased sense of ability to overcome obstacles (Eaton et al., 2015),;and (f) feeling confident in engaging in gatekeeping and teaching responsibilities (Hunt, & Gilmore, 2011; Schuermann et al., 2018). Mentees were more

likely to publish a scholarly publication (Benishek et al., 2004; Murdock et al. 2013), create a researcher identity (Briggs & Pehrsson, 2008; Dollarhide et al., 2013), and obtain tenure (Hill et al. 2005; Nolte et al., 2015). Having a mentor also influenced career planning, academic productivity, job satisfaction, and career choice (Yehia et al., 2014).

The lack of mentorship has especially been identified as a barrier for female and African American counselor educators in obtaining faculty positions, feeling supported, and completing their doctoral degrees (Hipolito-Delgado et al., 2017; Protivnak & Foss, 2009). Female counselor educators reported they had to actively seek out mentoring relationships more often than their male counterparts (Park et al., 2017; Protivnak & Foss, 2009). African American participants in Miller and Stone's (2011) study believed that mentorship was a positive factor in promoting self-confidence, giving lectures, and presenting at regional conferences. These respondents shared that they did not know working in academia was an option until they were exposed to a faculty member of color who also served as their mentor (Miller & Stone, 2011). After an exhaustive literature review, I could not find any research that explored demographic factors related to CES career choices and the role of mentorship.

Purpose of the Study

My purpose for this quantitative study was to explore the perceived quality of the participant's mentoring relationship as measured by the MiCTS and whether that score then predicted the participant's career choices or a change in career choice. I also investigated whether students' demographic variables of race, age, or gender influenced their perceived quality of the mentoring relationship. Finally, I described qualities

identified as essential qualities of an ideal mentor across the CES students' age, gender, and race.

I asked questions about the mentee's demographics (age, gender, and race) and questions that enumerated the mentoring relationship such as if their mentor influenced their career decision upon graduating or if their career goals changed while they were enrolled in a CES program. I captured the dependent variable (DV) of CES student career choice by asking CES students to identify their primary intended career choices upon graduation. I measured the independent variable (IV) of perceived quality of the mentoring relationship through the scores on the MiCTS that captured actual mentorship experiences and essential qualities of an ideal mentor (IV) through the MiCTS scores that captured what qualities students want in an ideal mentoring relationship. I identified if students' race, age, or gender influence which qualities CES students assign as essential qualities of an ideal mentor and if their perceived quality of the mentoring relationship influenced their career decisions.

Research Questions and Hypothesis

I explored the following research questions in this study:

RQ1: Does the perceived quality of the mentoring relationship predict career choice of CES students upon graduation?

$H_0$1: The perceived quality of the mentoring relationship does not significantly predict career choice of CES students upon graduation.

H_a1: The perceived quality of the mentoring relationship does significantly predict career choice of CES students upon graduation.

RQ2: Does race, age, or gender influence CES students' perceived quality of the mentoring relationship?

$H_0$2: Race, age, or gender does not influence CES students' perceived quality of the mentoring relationship.

H_a2: Race, age, or gender does influence CES students' perceived quality of the mentoring relationship.

RQ3: Does perceived quality of the mentoring relationship predict CES students' career change?

$H_0$3: The perceived quality of the mentoring relationship does not predict CES students' career change.

H_a3: The perceived quality of the mentoring relationship does predict CES students' career change.

RQ4: Do age, gender, or race influence qualities CES students assign as essential of ideal mentors?

$H_0$4: Age, gender, or race do not influence qualities CES students assign as essential of ideal mentors.

H_a4: Age, gender, or race do influence qualities CES students assign as essential of ideal mentors.

Conceptual Framework

Researchers often use Bandura's social cognitive theory (SCT) to predict how likely it is someone will engage in future behaviors (Kaminsky & Behrend, 2015). Bandura (1997) referred to feelings of confidence and competence as self-efficacy. Self-

efficacy is a person's belief that they can successfully accomplish a task based on their level of feeling confident and competent and whether they have successfully accomplished a similar task in the past (Bandura, 1997). People with high levels of self-efficacy often believe they have the power to affect change within themselves and attribute their own failure to external factors (Bandura, 1997). Whereas people with low self-efficacy tend to lack motivation to change because they believe they do not have the ability to successfully accomplish tasks. This lack of motivation often stems from the individual not having positive gains when previously engaging in a task (Bandura, 1997).

Lent et al. (1994) expanded upon Bandura's theory by focusing on his findings that mentors can strengthen a mentee's level of competence and confidence by acknowledging previous accomplishments, thus instilling in mentees feelings of encouragement and support, as well as by exposing the mentees to experiences where they can learn by observing the mentor (Bandura, 1997). Lent et al. (1998) referred to Bandura's findings on career related self-efficacy as social cognitive career theory (SCCT). Lent et al. (1998) used SCCT to explain how an individual develops career interests, makes career choices, and obtains career success. Social cognitive career theory researchers use the self-efficacy levels of mentees to predict whether or not mentees will engage in a career by assessing their self-efficacy levels that are related to specific tasks (Kaminsky & Behrend, 2015).

Many researchers have found that mentorship positively influenced self-efficacy and career outcome expectations which in turn predicted mentees' career interest and career choice (Briggs & Pehrsson, 2008; Dollarhide et al., 2013; Eaton et al., 2015;

Murdock et al., 2013; Nolte et al., 2015). For instance, CES students with high self-efficacy levels were more likely to persist in their academics (Walsh & Kurpius, 2016), had stronger supervisory skills (Frick & Glosoff, 2014), had more research publications (Kuo et al., 2017), and had higher levels of professional identity (Dollarhide et al., 2013). Therefore, results from this current study might bring depth and insight into how counselor educators can use SCCT to explain CES students' career choices and whether the quality of the mentoring relationships might influence career choices.

Kram's Theory of Mentoring

Many researchers use Kram's theory of mentoring when studying mentorship because Kram not only produced a theory of mentorship, but also produced a model for mentoring that is easy to enact (Abbott-Anderson et al., 2016). According to Kram (1983) mentors serve in the role of career developer and psychosocial supporter. Mentors and mentees progress through a four-stage process that involves initiating the mentor to the mentoring relationship, cultivating the mentoring relationship, separating from the mentoring relationship, and redefining a new mentoring relationship with a new mentor (Kram, 1983). Mentors help mentees learn the formal and informal rules of an organization and help facilitate the mentee's professional advancement (Kram, 1983).

Under the career development aspect of Kram's (1983) theory, mentors provide sponsorship, coaching, protection from adverse forces and challenging assignments, while increasing the mentee's visibility (Kram, 1983). According to Kram, the psychosocial components of mentorship include enhancing mentees' sense of competence, self-efficacy, and professional and personal development (Kram, 1983).

While Kram still stresses the importance of the mentoring relationship, she most recently posited that mentors could influence mentee career possibilities by increasing information about careers, providing career resources, and exposing the mentee to a variety of career possibilities (Higgins & Kram, 2001). Therefore, Kram integrated how factors of the mentoring relationship could influence mentees' career choice and also infused aspects of SCCT by addressing how mentors could affect a mentee's level of self-efficacy.

Gottfredson's Theory of Circumscription

Gottfredson (1981) theorized that people transition through making career choices as early as age three. In her theory of circumscription, Gottfredson (1981) postulated that young children take the career view of their parents, then fall victim to societal sex role stereotyping, then look to careers that are valued by society, but then eventually make their own career choice by aligning their individual traits with career options. Gottfredson hypothesized that while people eventually made their career choices that were grounded in the internal unique self, her research results found that information and experiences from participants' previous stages still influenced all their career choices. Gottfredson's postulated that the stages helped capture both Kram's (1983) theory on mentoring as well as Lent et al.'s (1998) SCCT by providing an overall conceptual framework that encompassed environmental influences such as people (i.e., as in Kram's theory) and self-awareness and abilities as discussed by Bandura and Lent. I will provide more details on these theories in Chapter 2.

Relationship to Framework

The MiCTS captures all three of the conceptual frameworks used in this study. For instance, the authors of the MiCTS (Prouty et al., 2015) included questions on the instrument that assess self-efficacy, career choice, and ideal mentoring. Specifically, the MiCTS asks about concepts identified by Kram such as environmental influences, coaching, protection from adverse forces, and increasing the mentee's visibility. Prouty et al. (2015) captured self-efficacy by asking participants if their mentor role modeled behaviors, confirmed their competence, provided encouragement and many others. Many researchers can quantitatively assess self-efficacy because there are many self-efficacy scales that can easily be converted (Kaminsky & Behrend, 2015). Numerous researchers have studied career choices across race, age, and gender using self-efficacy scales as well as analyzed the relationship between mentorship and self-efficacy (Curtin et al., 2016; Ellis et al., 2018; Fix et al., 2020).

Nature of the Study

I used a correlational research design using survey research. I analyzed the data from question one using binomial logistic regression because I wanted to analyze the predictive value of the perceived quality of the mentoring relationship (IV; continuous variable) as measured by the scores on the MiCTS (Prouty et al., 2016) that captured actual experiences with mentorship on CES students' career choice as measured by the career choice questions (dichotomous: faculty vs. non-faculty). I conducted three separate one-way analysis of variances (ANOVAs) for research question two (RQ2) to see if CES students' gender (IV), race (IV), or age (IV) independently influenced CES students' perceived quality of the mentoring relationship (DV). I also used binomial logistic

regression for research question three (RQ3) to see if the perceived quality of the mentoring relationship (IV) as indicated by the scores on the MiCTS (continuous variable) that capture actual experiences with mentorship predicted change in a CES students' career choice (DV) as measured by the change in career choice question on the demographic questionnaire (dichotomous: yes vs. no). Lastly, I used descriptive statistics to answer research question four (RQ4; Do age, gender, or race influence qualities CES students assign as essential of ideal mentors as indicated by the scores on the MiCTS that capture ideal mentor qualities) because this question was easily answered using frequency tables.

My dissertation was more than a descriptive study, but it did not meet the rigor of an experimental design. For instance, I could not manipulate the variables, I gathered data at one point in time, and I was not able to limit extraneous variables or characteristics of study participants. My study was suitable for a quantitative methodology because I gathered information using survey questions that were based on theories and previous research.

Participants were CES students who were about to graduate (prior to May 2021) or had graduated within the past 10 years (after 2010) from a CES CACREP accredited program. The independent variable for questions one and three was the perceived quality of the mentoring relationship as indicated by the scores on the MiCTS (continuous variable) that captured actual experiences with mentorship. The dependent variable for question one was CES students career choice. The dependent variable for question three was CES students career choice change. The independent variables for question two were

CES student demographics of race, gender, and age and the dependent variable for question two is the scores on the MiCTS that captured perceived quality of the mentoring relationship. The independent variables for question four were race, age, and gender while the dependent variable for question four was essential qualities of ideal mentors as indicated by the scores on the MiCTS that captured ideal mentor qualities.

There were no covariates. Researchers use binomial logistic regression when trying to predict the probability that a participant with certain characteristics of the independent variable (IV) fall into a dichotomous group that serves as the dependent variable (DV; Sheperis et al., 2010). This was an appropriate design for my study because the purpose of this quantitative study was to evaluate how the perceived quality of the mentoring relationship (IV) predicted CES student career choice which is a categorical variable that was broken into two dichotomous categories (faculty vs. non-faculty position) or career choice change (yes or no). I used three separate ANOVAs to test how CES student's demographics of age, gender, or race might have independently influenced their perceived quality of the mentoring relationship as measured by the scores on the MiCTS that captured actual experiences with mentorship. This was also an appropriate design for my study because the secondary purpose of my study was to determine whether there are any statistically significant differences between the means of multiple groups (race, age, gender).

Definitions

Age: Age refers to the length of time regarding the development of an individual on a physical, emotional, and mental level across multiple life domains (Ong et al., 2009).

Career choice: Career choice refers to when a person selects a specific vocation (Pam, 2013). I captured career choice at the categorical level by listing the following options: Full-time faculty, adjunct, clinical leader or administrator (private practice), clinical leader or not private practice, clinical or counselor (not private practice), clinical or counselor in private practice, supervisor for licensure, researcher, post-doctoral opportunities, or advocacy.

Career choice change: A career change is a change in the pursuit of a career whether that be in reference to their primary or secondary job (Harrison et al., 2011; Webster & Edwards, 2019). I assessed career choice change by asking participants if their career goals changed over the course of being enrolled as a CES student. Participants answered by being prompted with a dichotomous choice of yes or no response.

Gender: Gender is defined by the World Health Organization as a person's perception of having a particular gender (refers to the socially constructed roles, behaviors, activities, and attributes that a given society considers appropriate for men and women), which may or may not correspond with their birth sex (WHO, 2017). Questions pertaining to gender and race followed the inclusive language suggested by the National Institute of Health (NIH; Bauer et al., 2017). Therefore, participants were presented with

six categorical choices that represent gender (What is your current gender identity? Male, Female, Trans male or Trans man, Trans female or Trans woman, Gender queer or Gender non-conforming, or Different identity; please identify).

Ideal mentorship: Ideal mentorship was determined by which attributes CES students identified as being the most essential attributes of a quality mentor.

Mentor: For the purpose of this study, a mentor was defined as a person who is more experienced than the mentee and who engaged in a relationship with the mentee for the purpose of helping and developing the mentee's career (adapted from Kram, 1985).

Mentoring relationship: A mentoring relationship, as indicated by Kram (1985), involves a relationship between two people that was created with the purpose of helping and developing a mentee's career and involves both personal and professional aspects. This definition of mentoring relationship differs from that of an advisor who primarily helps students choose classes or troubleshoot academic problems such as dropping classes (Boswell et al., 2015).

Race: A social classification enacted on individuals based on physical appearance, which has contributed to social and hierarchal influences in society (Eisenhower et al., 2014). Although several racial classifications exist, the U.S. Census Bureau collects racial information using the six categories of Black or African American, White, Hispanic or Latino, Asian, American Indian and Alaska Native, and Native Hawaiian and Other Pacific Islander (U.S. Census Bureau, 2020).

Assumptions

One of the assumptions I had for study participants is that they would understand and follow the definition of mentorship that I provided to them in the inclusion page of the survey. I provided participants with a definition so that they understood the difference between a mentor and advisor. Advisors tend to be more prescriptive and handle academic concerns whereas mentors tend to focus more on professional and career goals. Participants would most likely have had negative ideal scores on the MiCTS if they used an advisory relationship to fill out the form because the majority of the statements on the MiCTS dealt with the mentorship aspects of a relationship (i.e., encouraged me to publish, helped me find a job, was a role-model) and not tasks associated with an advisor.

I also assumed participants followed the guideline that I provided for them about choosing just one mentor to think about as they filled out the MiCTS. Participants who thought of more than one mentor could have skewed the results for the actual score on the MiCTS, because participants may have filled out this survey and layered their experiences. Another assumption I made was that there is a difference between CACREP accredited and non-CACREP accredited CES students' experiences while in their programs which is why I only collected data from graduates of CACREP accredited programs. Finally, the last assumption I made was that participants adhered to the inclusion criteria and answered the questions honestly. I attempted to mitigate these

assumptions by increasing the suggested sample size, setting requirements (e.g., please think of just one mentor), and by providing definitions.

Scope and Delimitations

Current counselor educators are concerned because the demand to fill counselor educator positions is projected to increase by 20% and there are few applicants who identify as being from a diverse background (Bodenhorn et al., 2014; U.S. Department of Labor, 2017; Woo et al., 2017). The phenomenon of having only between 20% and 43% of CES graduates wanting to pursue a faculty position upon graduation (Hinkle et al., 2017; Isaacs & Sabella, 2013; Woo et al., 2017) is also concerning considering the degree was primarily created for graduates to enter into faculty positions (Karazsia & Smith, 2016). It is time for researchers to address this problem through quantitative assessments because the majority of the researchers have used qualitative measures (Briggs & Pehrsson, 2008; Hinkle et al., 2017; Woo et al., 2017). Program administrators who cannot find a way to fill counselor educator positions with qualified faculty may resort to lowering standards, relying on adjuncts, increasing class-size, adding to the responsibilities of current faculty, or making significant budget cuts (Law, 2012; Torres Bernal et al., 2017). Program administrators who are not able to hire faculty of color or those from diverse backgrounds may be hindering the profession's delivery of counseling services to communities that are in desperate need of service, and could leave students of color without a mentor who looks like them, and could also continue to jeopardize the academic success and professional competencies of counselor educators and counselors-in-training.

Eligible participants for my study were students who were enrolled in a CES program who were within one year of graduating (prior to 2021) and those who had already graduated from a CACREP accredited CES program within the past 10 years (after 2010). I also limited participants to CES students who had graduated within the past 10 years because the majority of my study was based on research published within the past ten years and the amount of CES programs increased by 45% about 10 years ago (Maples et al., 1993; Pace, 2016). I recruited participants from around the United States using various listservs and social media outlets and I collected data using REDCap which is an online survey tool. I chose to include only those CES students who were within one year of graduating because I would not be able to identify if mentorship influenced CES students' career choice from when they were admitted into the program and when they graduated. Therefore, researchers cannot generalize results to students in psychology, counseling psychology, social work, nor to other allied health professions.

I chose not to use theories of perception (Gibson's, constructivist, or Gregory's) because while they may be important to analyze a CES students' perception of a faculty position I felt it more important to first find out if there is a significant difference in career choices before analyzing the perception of possible career choices. While many authors pointed out a significant deficit in research mentoring, I chose to first investigate overall mentoring as it related to career choices. I ruled out other career choice theories because they were too broad or did not relate to my research questions. For instance, Holland believed people search for careers that involve being around people with similar characteristics (Sheldon et al., 2020). However, each of the careers CES students have as

possible career options involve being around people with similar characteristics because they all fall under the counseling or education umbrella. Parson's theory would not attend to aspects of mentorship and Krumboltz's theory of happenstance may not have resulted in significant findings because these students have dedicated years to obtaining a degree.

Limitations

Kost et al. (2014) reported many studies were not published or approved by Institutional Review Boards (IRB) because the applicant lacked clarity in how they would capture a sample that mirrored the population. Unfortunately, CACREP does not provide demographic statistics on counselors-in-training which would have made it hard for me to create a sample that mirrors the population (Hinkle et al., 2017). Research on faculty demographics is limited and ever-changing thus limiting researchers from generalizing results and communicating a real sense of urgency (Hinkle et al., 2017).

Participants self-selected to be a part of this study which may have skewed results if more faculty and administrators responded than practitioners. For instance, Kidd et al. (2019) found that top-level administrators responded to an online survey more often than practitioners responded. People who had positive mentoring relationships may have been more likely to participate in my study because they were experiencing the many benefits of having been mentored. Also, I could not find any assessments that were purely designated for capturing how mentorship experiences influenced students' career choice (Farmer et al., 2017). This means I may not have captured confounding variables that influenced career choice.

I limited participants to CES students who had graduated within the past 10 years because the majority of my study was based on research published within the past ten years, and the amount of CES programs increased by 45% about 10 years ago (Maples et al., 1993; Pace, 2016), and as of the 2016 CACREP requirements, faculty must hold a PhD in CES or a full-time faculty position prior to 2013 to be eligible to teach in CES programs. Therefore, I captured graduates from a CACREP accredited CES program who met the most recent 2016 CACREP standards. I also limited my study to those students who were about to graduate (within one year) because many researchers have found that career choice changes over the course of a student's time in a program (Woo et al., 2017). I also added prompts in the form of categories to help trigger participants' memory and therefore decreased the limitation of having people remember events from many years ago. However, I collected data from a larger sample size to counteract these identified limitations.

My study was subjected to self-selection bias because study participants self-selected to participate in this study. I did not capture any extraneous variables by the assessments, nor did I collect any data on CES students who lacked mentorship experiences; therefore, information about the quality of mentoring experiences were also limitations to this study. Lastly, because my study was quantitative in nature and used a survey with fixed answers, my study may have lacked depth in fully understanding an individual's career decision making process, such as how participants were affected by their mentoring experiences, and their feelings associated with career choice; these are all questions that could have been addressed by a qualitative study.

Significance

The results of this quantitative survey study might provide significant insight into which factors could predict a CES student's career choice. In particular, CES faculty and administrators might be able to use the results of this study to create mentoring opportunities for CES students that incorporate ways to assist them in navigating the career decision process. Implementing mentorship programs focused on the factors that predict career choice may strengthen the mentor's ability to assist CES students with their career fit, choice, exploration, and expected outcomes. Program administrators who align aspects of CES students' career choice may positively influence the outcomes and satisfaction of students along with the clients they serve. Faculty could also use the data derived from this study to implement mentoring programs if none currently exist. Comparing the demographics of CES students with aspects of qualities associated with ideal mentors may help identify the specific needs of certain mentees, especially in relation to mentoring underrepresented counselor educators (Yehia et al., 2014). Counselor educators may also be able to replicate the identified mentorship variables of students who chose to become faculty members which may revive students' original desire to become a counselor educator and fill the need for qualified CES faculty. Ultimately, this study may deepen our understanding of CES students' career choice decision making and provide a stronger framework for counselor educators to draw from when mentoring students or developing mentorship programs (Brown & Grothaus, 2019; Hipolito-Delgado e al., 2017; Miller & Stone, 2011).

Significance to Social Change

The CACREP urges counselor education programs to make systemic efforts to attract and retain diverse faculty (CACREP, 2016). Counselor education and supervision program administrators might be able to use results from this study to positively impact social change by providing quality mentorship opportunities to all CES students. These mentorship opportunities may increase CES students' overall self-efficacy levels which may lead to CES students applying for faculty positions which addresses the demand on the profession. Additionally, because this study took age, race, and gender into account, counselor educators may be able to further explore variables related to what attributes underrepresented counselor educators want in their ideal mentor.

Summary

Few researchers have studied the career choices of CES doctoral students (Hinkle et al., 2017). While some researchers identified variables related to career choices of CES doctoral students, no researcher has specifically identified if the perceived quality of the mentoring relationship predicts CES students' career choice or a career choice change nor if CES students' demographics influence what qualities they assign as essential qualities of ideal mentors. Therefore, I attempted to fill the gap in research related to CES students' demographics, mentorship, and career choices. I explore the background and foundation of the problem in Chapter 2. I also provide a literature review of my chosen variables and provide a critique of some of the key literature that formulated my plan for my methodology for this study.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

According to the United States (U.S.) Department of Labor (2017), the need for counselor education faculty will increase between 18% and 20% over the next five years. While there is a significant need for graduates of CES doctoral programs and most CES doctoral students enter CES programs with the desire to obtain a position in academia, only between 20% and 43% of CES graduates reported wanting to pursue a faculty position upon graduation (Hinkle et al., 2017; Isaacs & Sabella, 2013; Woo et al., 2017). The profession is also faced with a deficit of diverse faculty (Hipolito-Delgado et al., 2017).

Hipolito-Delgado et al. (2017) emphasized the need to increase diversity among CES faculty because counseling students of color identified having a diverse faculty member to turn to as the most significant protective factor that helped them persist to graduation. It is crucial to help diverse counselors graduate because ethnic minority clients were more likely to report positive therapeutic gains and have a positive view of the counseling profession when they received services from a minority counselor (Untanu & Dempsey, 2018). Non-Caucasian clients were also more likely to seek treatment if they believed they were going to receive counseling from a counselor who looked like them (Johnson & Jackson, 2015). Chang (2005) found women and faculty of color were more likely than their Caucasian counterparts to engage students in active learning activities, encourage student input, and include the perspectives of women and minorities in coursework. Having students engage in small groups made up of diverse individuals increases the groups productivity, creativity, and innovation (Stojmenovska, 2017).

Inclusive learning environments help students learn how to collaborate across cultures, respect differences, and navigate the workforce (Fidalgo-Blancoa et al., 2017). Therefore, these in-class experiences strengthen the student's cultural respect which allows them to treat clients in a culturally competent manner and reduce healthcare disparities as well as increase access to high-quality health care (NIH, 2017).

Knowing faculty often influence students' career decisions through mentoring relationships (Conklin et al., 2013) and that minority students often gain the most benefits from mentoring relationships (Montgomery, 2017), the purpose for this quantitative study was to explore the perceived quality of the participant's mentoring relationship as measured by the MiCTS and whether that score then predicted the participant's career choice or a change in career choice, investigate whether students' demographic variables of race, age, or gender influenced their perceived quality of the mentoring relationship and describe qualities identified as essential qualities of an ideal mentor across the CES students' age, gender, and race. Having knowledge related to how students from various backgrounds make career decisions and how the perceived quality of the mentoring relationship influences the career decisions of CES students, may provide CES programs with valuable information on how to help guide CES students into considering the field of academia as a career option. Increasing the pool of qualified counselor educators and the diversity of applicants will lead to positive social change by providing counselors-in-training with quality instruction, diverse learning experiences, and more opportunities for mentorship from faculty who are underrepresented in the counseling field.

The shortage of counselor educators is due in part because the CACREP 2016 standards now require faculty teaching in counselor education master's and CES doctoral programs to hold a doctorate from a CACREP accredited program (Adkison-Bradley, 2013; CACREP, 2020). However, full-time faculty positions are the only careers that require counselors to hold a doctoral degree (Hinkle et al., 2017). Therefore, it is important to find out why CES graduates choose career paths other than those in academia because they were qualified for these positions prior to entering a doctoral program (Hinkle et al., 2017). One hypothesis researchers have is that counselors enter CES programs to enhance their clinical skills (Hinkle et al., 2017). Either way, the counseling profession faces a vicious cycle in which the profession does not have enough diverse counselor educators because there are few diverse counselors due to the lack of interest in the counseling profession which is partially due to clients viewing the counseling profession in a negative way because they were counseled by inadequately trained counselors (Wilson et al., 2018).

One way to prepare adequately trained counselors is to provide them with a mentor. Many researchers have linked how having a mentor increased students' self-efficacy levels related to job tasks (Lambie & Vaccaro, 2011; Lejonberg & Knut-Andreas, 2015; Renbarger & Davis, 2019). Mentors also influence how mentees perceive careers which is particularly important for the CES field because even though most faculty indicated conducting research as the task they spent the least amount of time on (Austin & Hill, 2014), many CES students reported they were deterred from becoming a counselor educator because they felt incompetent to perform research tasks they

associated with faculty positions (Wilde et al, 2015). Mentors not only provided guidance on career choice, but also on psychosocial adjustment (Carpenter et al., 2015; Yehia et al., 2014), research interests (Dollarhide et al., 2013), and a successful transition into the counselor educator role (Baltrinic et al., 2016; Boswell et al., 2015; Milsom & Moran, 2015; Yob & Crawford 2012) which led to increased satisfaction in positions (Burgess, 2007; Davis, 2007; Gambrell et al., 2011).

Conversely, the lack of mentorship is a significant barrier for graduates of CES programs in obtaining faculty positions, feeling supported while in the program, and completing doctoral degrees, especially among female and African American CES graduates (Hipolito-Delgado et al., 2017; Protivnak & Foss, 2009). After an exhaustive literature review, I could not find any research that explored factors related to CES students' career choices and if they had a mentor. Therefore, I filled a gap in the research by examining factors related to CES student demographics and perceived quality of the mentoring relationship as predictors of career choice. In this chapter, I provide extensive details of the problem by reporting on my literature search, outlining a theoretical foundation, and identifying gaps within the literature.

Literature Search Strategy

I conducted multiple searches using the following databases: Academic Search Premier, Dissertations and Theses at Walden University, ProQuest Central, Sage, PsycInfo, the U.S. Census Bureau, and Google 19 Scholar. I used key words for literature review that included counsel*, counselor education, career, doctoral, mentor*, counselor education and supervision, career choice, counselor education faculty, student perception,

confidence, teaching, self-efficacy, generation*, trend, faculty role, interests, decision, pursue, counseling psychology, psychology, research, divers*, minority, impostor, career, minority clients, minority counsel*, African American, race, ethnicity, Hispanic, Latino, Latina, Asian American, retention, mentor model, Gottfredson, Bandura, Kram, demographics, job satisfaction, burnout, impostor, turnover, meaning, gatekeeping, and career counseling.

I also researched mentorship scales, clinical training instruments, and self-efficacy measures. I focused on studies published within the past 10 years and cited earlier research that presented key factors related to the field of counseling, CACREP regulations, or the progression of the lack of counselor educators. I used websites of professional organizations such as the American Counseling Association, Association for Counselor Education and Supervision, Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs, and the U.S. Census Bureau to provide current information on the state of the counseling profession and statistics regarding demographics. Unfortunately, there appears to be a deficit in literature pertaining to career choices of CES students, mentoring assessments, as well as the demographical makeup of the counseling profession as a whole. Therefore, I searched for literature within the field of psychology, sociology, and other related helping professions. However, I often had to use articles that were within the past 20 years due to the lack of current research on CES students' career choices, mentoring experiences, and self-efficacy levels. I made note of the dated articles or linked the earlier article with recent findings when I used dated articles.

Conceptual Framework

While there is a significant need for counselor educators to serve as faculty members and most students enter CES doctoral programs with the desire to obtain a position in academia, only between 20% and 43% of CES graduates reported wanting to pursue a faculty position upon graduation (Hinkle et al., 2017; Isaacs & Sabella, 2013; Woo et al., 2017). Therefore, researchers are left wondering why students choose to not pursue faculty positions which is their career intention upon entering their CES program and is the only counseling profession that requires a doctoral degree (Hinkle et al., 2017). This is particularly intriguing because people often make career decisions based on many of the attributes positively associated with serving as a counselor educator such as believed competencies, exposure to job related tasks, if there is a demand for the profession, as well as if they perceive that the career will bring them prestige and fulfillment (Dollarhide et al., 2013; Gottfredson, 1983; Poidevant et al., 1991; Whiston et al., 2017). Therefore, the student's race, gender, age, and the experiences they had with their mentor are all factors that make up the career decision making process.

The conceptual framework I used for this study was Lent et al. (1998) SCCT which is an extension of Bandura's SCT which researchers often use to predict career choice (Kaminsky & Behrend, 2015; Lent et al., 1998). I used Gottfredson's (1983) theory of circumscription as the conceptual framework for how people make career choices and Kram's (1983) theory on mentorship to connect Lent's (1998) SCCT and Gottfredson's (1983) theory on how career choices are made. These theorists all support the need for mentors to role model, increase students' self-awareness, and build

competencies in mentees which leads to a better career-person fit (Bandura, 1997; Gottfredson, 1983; Kram, 1983; Lent, 1998). The MiCTS covered aspects of each of these theories and their underpinnings and is the scale I used to assess the mentoring relationship.

Social Cognitive Career Theory

A person's previous accomplishments, feeling encouraged and supported by a mentor, as well as being exposed to experiences where a person can learn through others can positively influence a person's feelings of competence and confidence (Bandura, 1997). Bandura (1997) referred to feelings of confidence and competence as self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is a person's belief that they can successfully accomplish a task based on their feelings of confidence and competence as well as having successfully accomplished tasks in the past (Bandura, 1997). People with high self-efficacy often believe they have the power to affect change and attribute failure to external factors (Bandura, 1997). Whereas people with low self-efficacy tend to lack motivation to change because they believe they do not have the ability to successfully accomplish tasks (Bandura, 1997). This lack of motivation often stems from not having positive gains when previously engaging in a task (Bandura, 1997).

Social cognitive career researchers use the self-efficacy levels of mentees to predict whether or not the mentee will engage in a specific career-related task (Kaminsky & Behrend, 2015; Lent et al., 1998). Many researchers found that mentorship positively influences self-efficacy and career outcome expectations which in turn predict career interest and career choice (Briggs & Pehrsson, 2008; Dollarhide et al., 2013; Eaton et al.,

2015; Murdock et al., 2013; Nolte et al., 2015). For instance, CES students with high self-efficacy levels are more likely to persist in their academics (Walsh & Kurpius, 2016), have strong supervisory skills (Frick& Glosoff, 2014), publish research articles (Kuo et al., 2017), and have high levels of professional identity (Dollarhide et al., 2013). Lent et al. (1998) found a person's self-efficacy beliefs, their expectations related to career outcomes, and career goals influenced each other to predict career choice. Therefore, results from this study may bring depth to how counselor educators can use SCCT to explain the connection between career choices and mentoring experiences among CES students because few studies have taken career decision, self-efficacy levels, and the perceived quality of the mentoring relationship into account.

Many researchers have evaluated the self-efficacy levels of counselors and counselor educators as moderated by having a mentor (Crowe et al., 2013). For instance, Crowe et al. (2013) found the self-efficacy levels of counselors working with people who had co-occurring mental health disorders increased as they engaged in a service-based internship. These participants identified observing their mentor, receiving feedback from their mentor, and co-leading counseling sessions as being the most beneficial to increased feelings of competence and confidence in treating these clients (Crow et al., 2013). Similarly, Kuo et al. (2017) found the mentor-advisory relationship was a moderator between research self-efficacy, motivation, and productivity among counselor education doctoral students. In particular, the mentoring relationship moderated the relationship between intrinsic and failure avoidance motivation and productivity (Kuo et al., 2017) which is of particular relevance to the career choice of CES students because Gaubatz

and Vera (2006) found many CES students did not consider faculty positions due to underrating their abilities to perform tasks associated with faculty positions. These participants also scored their peers low on teaching competencies and shared they had serious concerns about their peers teaching as well as having to teach students who are similar to their peers and have low competencies. These authors found students rated themselves and their peers much lower than how faculty rated them on their teaching abilities (Gaubatz & Vera, 2006). These findings highlight the importance of faculty feedback, mentoring, and how building on competencies is a life-long process, yet none of these studies addressed all of these aspects.

As previously stated, it is imperative for researchers evaluating the career choices of CES students to consider the students' researcher self-efficacy level (Lambie & Vacarro, 2011). For instance, Lambie and Vacarro (2011) found CES students who had a research mentor reported high levels of researcher self-efficacy, a high interest in research, and more scholarly publications. Consistent with these findings, Kuo et al. (2017) reported there was no link between extrinsic motivation to conduct research and having published unless the participant had a mentor. These researchers found researcher self-efficacy levels strengthened as a participant progressed through their doctoral program (Kuo et al., 2017). These findings were more pronounced if a student had a research mentor (Kuo et al., 2017). These authors suggested having a mentor may mediate the external motivation to publish by suggesting how publishing benefits the field and, in turn, the mentee's career path (Kuo et al., 2017). Therefore, a person's career

path is significantly influenced by their self-efficacy levels which can be strengthened by mentors (Kuo et al., 2017; Lambie & Vaccaro, 2011).

While SCCT provides a strong foundation for this study, Bandura (1998) nor Lent et al. (1998) did not fully address external factors such as environmental influences (e.g., gender, geographical area, etc.), life happenings (e.g., familial concerns, trauma, adverse events), or secondary gains from being mentored (e.g., feeling supported, social engagement). Therefore, I used Kram's (1983) theory of mentorship and Gottfredson's theory of circumscription (1985) to fill the gaps. The use of Kram's (1983) theory of mentorship and Gottfredson's theory of circumscription (1985) to deepen the knowledge of CES students' career choices and how mentorship influences their career aspirations provides readers with a more in-depth understanding of all of the intricacies of the career decision making process of CES students.

Theories of Mentoring

According to Kram (1983) mentors serve in the role of career developer and psychosocial supporter. Mentors help mentees learn the formal and informal rules of an organization and help facilitate professional advancement (Kram, 1983). Under the career development aspect, mentors provide sponsorship, coaching, protection from adverse forces, and challenging assignments while increasing the mentees visibility (Kram, 1983). The psychosocial components of mentorship include enhancing the mentees sense of competence, self-efficacy, and professional and personal development (Kram, 1983).

While Kram still stressed the importance of the mentoring relationship, she most recently posited that mentors influence mentees' career possibilities by increasing

information about careers, providing career resources, and exposing mentees to a variety of career possibilities (Higgins & Kram, 2001). Therefore, Kram integrated how factors of the mentoring relationship influence career choice and also addressed how mentors affect mentees' level of self-efficacy which addresses Bandura's SCCT, as well as addressed factors found in Gottfredson's (1981) theory of circumscription and compromise.

Career Choice: Gottfredson

Gottfredson (1981) created the theory of circumscription and compromise and proposed that children progress through stages of career decision making that start as early as age three. Gottfredson postulated parents highly influence the career thoughts of children between the ages of 3 and 5 years old. Then, children begin aligning their careers with the stereotypes associated with their gender (Gottfredson, 1981). During stage three, children begin to take prestige and status into account when considering career options but also maintain gender role stereotypes (Gottfredson, 1981). It is not until the last stage (Stage 4) that young adolescents begin to take their abilities, interests, and values into account when considering career goals (Gottfredson, 1981). Eventually, adolescents form a vocational career map made up of personality traits and abilities that were highly influenced by their early life circumstances and societal stereotypes (Gottfredson, 1981).

However, as Gottfredson (1981) pointed out, many people have already ruled out certain occupations due to messages from the familial unit and society. For instance, people consider their knowledge and perceptions of the obstacles and opportunities they

would face if they held a specific position which narrows their career exploration. Unfortunately, students who were not exposed to a variety of careers limit their career options (Gottfredson, 1981). Gottfredson (1981) believed people who promote self-insight and career exploration can help prevent or reverse inappropriate circumscription. Therefore, problems arise when an individual's self-assessment is inaccurate which led them to overemphasize barriers and restrict career options which is why it is critical to examine a person's perception of career opportunities, ability to make career choices, priorities when compromising, and dysfunctional career thoughts (Gottfredson, 1981).

Numerous demographic variables including sex, gender, sexuality, and minority status also influence career decisions (Schneider & Dimito, 2010). For instance, Schneider and Dimito (2010) found gay men and women whose sexuality was not known to others limited their career choices to professions in which they believed they could hide their sexuality or ones they believed their sexual preference would be a nominal factor in their job performance. Harris (2014) reaffirmed Schneider and Dimito's (2010) findings on sexual minorities but also found employees who were persons of color reported managing the way they expressed their racial background and heritage by masking their blackness. Harris's (2014) study demonstrated how many employees feel as if they have to conform or assimilate into majority culture. Hardie (2015) found males who held conservative gender role attitudes were less likely to enter a female-dominated field like counseling and counselor education. Age is also a factor in career decision making. For instance, Walker and Peterson (2012) found individuals made career decisions based on how many years they believed they had left to engage in a career, how

the participant viewed him or herself as an instrument in the chosen career, and the psychological value placed on a job. Emotional commitment is also a major component to career decision making (Conklin et al., 2013). For instance, Conklin et al. (2013) found career decision self-efficacy mediated the relationship between affective commitment to a major and career outcome expectations such as expected career performance and satisfaction. Therefore, a student's perception of their abilities and the demands of the job are critical factors to how a person emotionally identifies with both their major and career choice (Conklin et al., 2013).

Jackson et al. (2010) demonstrated how males who entered the counseling profession faced serious hardships related to sex role stereotyping and how these hardships led them to consider leaving the profession. Similarly, Michel et al. (2013) found one of the barriers to recruiting males into the counseling profession was that many males had a negative perception of the field due to the lack of male counselors. These researchers highlighted how the lack of male counselors affected how counselors provided services for male clients and how males negatively viewed counseling as a career choice (Michel et al., 2013). Therefore, Gottfredson's (1981) theory provides the framework for the lack of interest in the counseling profession because she posited people limit their career choices when they have a negative view of the profession or if the profession does not align with a person's stereotypical gender role.

Gottfredson's theory could also explain some of the comments found in Brooks and Steen's (2010) qualitative study involving African American males. For instance, participants reported they chose to enter the world of academia because they thought

faculty positions were flexible, prestigious, and fulfilling yet reported low job satisfaction because there was a misalignment between their perceptions and lived experiences (Brooks & Steen, 2010). In fact, one respondent reported, “the pay was a major let-down given the amount of prestige associated with obtaining a doctoral degree” (Brooks & Steen, 2010, p. 146). Another respondent from Brookes and Steen’s (2010) study commented on the lack of diversity among counselor educators by stating, “you cannot pursue something you do not know exists” (p. 147). These findings highlight Gottfredson’s (1981) claims about exposure to careers and people within those careers, prestige, and perceptions about the career.

DeCino (2019) found counselors who engaged in re-writing their career narrative to debunk career indecisiveness experienced a critical transformation in themselves and strengthened their professional and individual identity development. DeCino’s (2019) finding further supports Gottfredson’s (1981) claim that people can prevent or reverse inappropriate circumscription by engaging in activities that support self-insight. Gottfredson (1981) supported self-assessment because she believed individuals who had an accurate sense of self were less likely to focus on barriers and were more open to exploring different careers. Therefore, the link between DeCino’s (2019) findings and Gottfredson’s (1981) claims strengthen the connection between demographics, mentorship, and career choice. For instance, mentors often focus on the career needs of their mentees and help mentees gain insight into self and career opportunities (Black et al., 2012; Kram,1983; Zopiatis et al., 2017) which Gottfredson (1981) posited increases career exploration. However, one factor not taken into account within these studies is the

overwhelming number of students who stated they chose a career within the helping profession because they wanted to help others overcome obstacles they also overcame (Hill et al., 2013; Holliday et al., 2018). Many of these students stated that the desire to help others superseded other aspects of their career decision making process (Hill et al., 2013; Holliday et al., 2018).

Michel et al. (2015) identified perceived opportunities, minimal barriers, and good supports were protective factors among minority and male counseling students. These findings further support Gottfredson's (1981) theory because Gottfredson (1981) posited people would avoid certain careers if they associated barriers with the career, if the profession lacked professionals who looked like them or if they perceived the career to have limited opportunities. Gottfredson's (1981) claims and Michel et al.'s (2015) findings also reinforce the role of the mentor in career decision making and navigation. For instance, counselors who reported having a mentor stated the most significant ways a mentor helped them was by helping them navigate barriers within their chosen career, increase their view of career opportunities, and by increasing their feelings of support and confidence (Baltrinic et al., 2016; Carpenter et al., 2015; Eaton et al., 2015; Protivnak & Foss, 2009).

Similar to Gottfredson (1981), Bandura (1997) also focused on how people make career decisions based upon their perceptions of self, their environment, and the interaction between cognitions and behavior. Bandura (1997), in his social learning theory, bring depth to Gottfredson's (1981) framework for how people make career decisions because he provides details on each of Gottfredson's (1981) claims. For

instance, Bandura (1997) posited a person's feelings of competence and confidence influence their perception of their abilities which in turn affects their interests. These claims made by Bandura support Gottfredson's argument that individuals make career decisions based upon their perceived abilities, interests, and values. Bandura (1997) also claimed environmental stimuli play a role in learning similar to how Gottfredson believed environmental factors influence career decisions. However, Bandura (1997) expanded on how people learn from their environment by incorporating aspects of role modeling, shadowing, and supporting individuals through challenges. Similar to Gottfredson's (1981) claim that people consider obstacles associated with a career, Bandura (1997) posited people consider the consequences of their actions before behaving in a certain way and that rewards are intrinsic in nature and often develop from early life experiences. Bandura (1997) highlighted the importance of mentorship because he found people learn by watching, imitating, and modeling other people and that a person could increase their chances of strengthening their self-efficacy levels if they had a mentor who guided them and provided them with feedback when they engaged in challenging activities.

Gottfredson (1981) believed a person can reverse inappropriate circumscription through insight which other researchers found is a common task performed by mentors (Black et al., 2012; Yob & Crawford, 2012). Kram's (1983) theory of mentorship bridges self-efficacy and Gottfredson's claims on career decision making. For example, Kram (1983) stated mentors must address both personal and professional issues as well as assist mentees in adjusting to new learning environments by supporting them to overcome

obstacles, exposing mentees to new tasks and careers, as well as addressing cultural and demographic attributes of the mentee.

In conclusion, the claims of Bandura, Gottfredson, and Kram helped me evaluate the career choices of CES students. Gottfredson's (1981) theory of circumscription and compromise provided the conceptual framework for how people make career decisions and highlighted the importance of collecting demographic data. Bandura's (1997) claims brought depth to relationships found in Gottfredson's (1981) theory by highlighting the importance of self-efficacy and how people learn through interacting with others. Kram (1983) then linked how mentors influenced the personal and professional aspects of mentees and further explained how mentors affect a mentees career choice and their self-efficacy levels.

Literature Review Related to Key Variables Relevance of the Problem

In this section I discuss the need to fill counselor educator positions and the factors influencing the shortage of counselor educators. I also discuss findings related to why CES students may not be considering faculty positions, motivations behind obtaining a CES degree, and highlight how mentors influence these factors. I conclude this section by sharing recommendations from the literature for how to address the shortage of counselor educators and the lack of diversity among counselor educators as well as how best to mentor CES students.

Counselor Education and Supervision Programs

As many researchers have pointed out, the need to fill faculty positions in counselor education programs is a significant problem for the profession (Farmer et al.,

2017; Hinkle et al., 2017; Isaacs & Sabella, 2013; Woo et al. 2017) and has been since the late 1980's (Maples, 1989; Maples et al.,1993). Unfortunately, the demand for qualified counselor educators will increase even more because approximately 25% of current counselor educators are due to retire within the next 10 years (Isaacs & Sabella, 2013). The shortage of adequately trained counselor educators stems from the new CACREP (2016) standard that require CES programs to hire faculty who graduated from a CACREP accredited program. The problem lies with there not being enough CACREP accredited CES programs and graduates of these programs are choosing positions outside of academia (Woo et al., 2017). The lack of CACREP trained counselor educators is not a new issue for the profession but is a notable phenomenon because people often make career choices based upon the supply and demand for the profession and there is a strong need for counselor educators (Gardner, 2013). Therefore, researchers are left wondering why CES graduates of CACREP programs are choosing not to enter the field of academia despite the increasing demand to fill CES faculty positions. Woo et al. (2017) postulated this deficit exists because individuals do not know about the significant number of retirements within the next 10 years. Others believe low salary (Brooks & Steen, 2010; Hinkle et al., 2017), low self-efficacy (Poidevant et al., 1991), or misperceptions about tasks associated with faculty positions (Farmer et al., 2017) deter CES students from becoming faculty. However, others found the lack of mentoring relationships that foster a sense of connectedness and belonging are the cause for CES graduates not wanting to enter into faculty positions (Groccia et al., 2018).

Some departments chose to capitalize on the demand for CACREP accredited graduates by creating CES doctoral programs. In fact, Maple et al. (1993) reported there were only 27 CACREP accredited doctoral counselor education programs in 1990. Whereas today there are 91 CACREP accredited doctoral programs (CACREP, 2019) which is a 45% increase from 2015 in which there were only 63 CACREP accredited doctoral programs (CACREP, 2019; Pace, 2016). While the number of CES programs and student enrollment in CACREP accredited doctoral programs has risen, graduates of these programs are not entering the world of academia which maintains the problem of not having enough qualified applicants to fill the demand for counselor educator faculty positions (Isaacs & Sabella, 2013).

Unfortunately, many counselor education programs who needed to fill positions with CACREP accredited graduates resorted to restructuring their department, laying off current faculty who did not meet CACREP standards, reassigning adjunct courses and responsibilities, redirecting funds, as well as adding responsibilities to full-time faculty job descriptions (Law, 2012; Torres Bernal et al., 2017). These actions ended up negatively influencing faculty productivity and longevity which in turn lowered student retention, satisfaction, learning, and interest in careers related to teaching on college campuses (Arcuri, 2016; Baltrinic et al., 2016; Hardre & Hackett, 2015; Kuo et al., 2017). Some researchers found student retention rates dropped and student satisfaction with programs decreased when students did not receive adequate faculty mentorship (Hoffman, 2014). Bersola et al. (2014) posited student satisfaction with mentorship is of particular concern for doctoral programs because contact with faculty plays a significant

role in how students decide which graduate institution to attend and if they persist in a doctoral program. Meaning, students are more likely to attend an institution if they believe they will have close contact with faculty (Bersola et al., 2014) and are more likely to graduate if they receive mentorship (Hipolito-Delgado et al., 2017).

However, hardships placed on counselor education programs put faculty in a tough position where they may not have time to provide mentorship to students (Altbach & Reisberg, 2017). This hardship is especially true for faculty of color who are taxed with mentoring students of color which adds to retention issues for faculty of color and further adds to the lack of retention of students of color because they do not have mentors who look like them (Brooks & Steen, 2010; Schwartz, 2012). Faculty of color are often overutilized and showcased as exemplifying diversity as well as spending time mentoring students of color which comes at the expense of time designated for research and writing (Turner, 2002). These faculty also face the dilemma of admitting students who are not fully prepared for doctoral level work in order to meet admissions quotas (Altbach & Reisberg, 2017). Consequently, students who are not well equipped for doctoral level work tend to drop out of the program which leads to low retention rates (Sleeter et al., 2005). Other institutional reasons for leaving doctoral programs are lack of funding, absence of resources to complete the dissertation, high rates of anxiety and depression, and inadequate support personnel (Miller & Stone, 2011; Nolte et al., 2015; Smith et al., 2006). Golde (2011) found the majority of doctoral students are not happy with the training they receive and feel as if they are not prepared for the job they take. Golde

(2011) also found students do not understand what doctoral study entails or how to successfully navigate the doctoral process.

CES Faculty

Alves et al. (2019) found nearly one-third of faculty were overwhelmed with additional responsibilities, supplementing their income by taking on jobs outside of academia, or spending time doing research in order to meet publishing requirements. Burnout of counselor educators can lead to cynicism, low self-efficacy rates, and high turnover (Coaston & Cook, 2017). Coaston and Cook (2017) found burnout negatively affected faculty members' quality of life, regardless of their field of knowledge and that women were more susceptible to burnout than men. These results are especially concerning for the field of counseling as three-fourths of counselors and counselor educators are women (ACS, 2019) and because a faculty member's quality of life may affect the quality of education they provide to students (Alves et al., 2019). These additional responsibilities may also keep faculty from fully attending to student mentorship which then influences student retention rates. For instance, students in Miller and Stone's (2011) study identified the lack of connection with other students, few mentoring relationships, and insufficient role modeling as factors that negatively influenced their ability to remain a student in their counseling program. While Miller and Stone's (2011) study is a bit dated, I could not find relevant studies that addressed the use of mentors to help retain CES students which is congruent with claims about the lack of research on CES students made by other researchers (Hinkle et al., 2014; Lockard et al., 2014; Sackett et al., 2015; Woo et al., 2017).

CES Burnout

Another outcome related to the drastic cutbacks and changes within counselor education departments is the low morale within academic environments (Sangganjanavanich & Balkin, 2013). For instance, many counselor educators experienced burnout due to increased faculty job expectations, engaging in student gatekeeping strategies, as well as keeping up with the demands of the counseling profession (Hill, 2009). Overall career satisfaction correlates with job-person fit, reflective career awareness, and an individual's realistic occupational perceptions (Zopiatis et al., 2017). Individuals who are satisfied in their careers are also more likely to stay and progress in their current field than those who are not satisfied (Zopiatis et al., 2017). Unfortunately, the converse is also true. For instance, the counselor educators in Coaston and Cook's (2017) study who reported low levels of job satisfaction and a desire to leave the profession also identified a poor work-life fit and high levels of burnout. Unfortunately, students often make career choices based on how their mentor, advisor, or faculty member portrayed the profession (Ramirez, 2010). Therefore, faculty may be inadvertently diverting students away from the profession because they are overwhelmed and burned out.

CES Job Satisfaction

Researchers found it is especially important to consider the job satisfaction levels of faculty across both work and life. Researchers discovered there is a strong correlation between faculty job satisfaction and research productivity, longevity, and self-care strategies (Sangganjanavanich & Balkin, 2013; Woo et al., 2017). For instance, Woo et

al. (2017) found counseling faculty who reported high levels of burnout showed significantly lower levels of scholarly productivity than those who reported less burnout. However, these researchers also found job satisfaction moderated the relationship between burnout and research productivity and highlighted the importance of providing systematic interventions to enhance scholarly productivity of counseling faculty (Woo et al., 2017). Lastly, these authors discussed previous research findings in relation to their results and summarized over involvement leads to emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, yet also contributes to an increased sense of personal accomplishment among counselor educators (Woo et al., 2017).

Bradley and Holcomb (2004) found African American counselor educators' perception of department racial climate predicted their level of job satisfaction. Unfortunately, many African American faculty reported experiencing a negative racial climate in their department, which may mean these faculty are inadvertently diverting students, especially African American students away from the teaching profession (Bradley & Holcomb, 2004). Although women have earned over 50% of doctorates since 2006, they continue to be underrepresented in tenured faculty positions and overrepresented in non-tenured, instructional faculty positions (Johnson, 2016, p.392). Taylor et al. (2017) found an employee's satisfaction with psychologically healthy workplace practices, as outlined by the American Psychological Association (APA), were positively correlated with high levels of organizational commitment and overall mental wellbeing and with lower levels of emotional exhaustion and turnover intention. Therefore, it is important to consider how satisfied counselor educators are with their

faculty positions when analyzing the shortage of counselor educators because students' lack of interest in academic careers could be linked to how faculty portray the profession. Also, the dearth of research on CES students becomes even more pronounced when assessing the needs of African American CES students which is why I had to incorporate Bradley and Holcomb's study from 2004.

Gambrell et al. (2011) found counselor educators are more satisfied with their positions than mental health, school, or creative arts counselors who held a master's degree. However, doctoral level counselors were more satisfied than counselor educators and attributed being happy in their profession with opportunities for job promotion (Gambrell et al., 2011). Mamiseishvili et al. (2016) also identified the lack of job promotion as one possible reason why mid-career CES associate faculty participants in their study reported lower levels of job satisfaction than assistant professors who are at the beginning of their career. These researchers found newer assistant professors and senior ranking professors who were about to retire similarly reported positive job satisfaction rates (Mamiseishvili et al., 2016). While participants in Milsom and Moran's (2015) study reported being happy in their counselor educator position, these individuals reported struggling with the transition from school counselor into a counselor educator because they felt their faculty positions were isolating and did not have clear job descriptions, expectations, or evaluation procedures. While these researchers focused on counselor educators who transition from school counselors, the findings highlight the importance of mentoring relationships for newly appointed faculty.

Occupational Benefits and Salaries

Some researchers found people make career decisions based on what they believe to be the benefits of a career or what benefits they are receiving while being employed. According to Bray (2014), about 20% of counselors reported they received three weeks of paid time off, 13% said they received more than six weeks, and 14% said they received no paid time off at all. Counselor educators (20%) and mental health or community counselors (21%) were the two groups with the largest percentage of respondents who reported receiving no paid time off (Bray, 2014). Seventy-seven percent of counselors reported their employer paid for trainings, 39% received tuition benefits, and 33% received paid supervision hours (Bray, 2014). Thirty-four percent of counselors and 57% of counselor educators held a second job outside of their primary position which on average adds an additional $3,133 annually (Bray, 2014). However, counselor educators tended to make an additional $7,000 annually by additional responsibilities (Bray, 2014). Bray (2014) noted counselor educators reported working a second job in a clinical setting whereas those who reported their primary job was as a clinician worked a second job as an adjunct faculty. Almost 20% of all counselors worked a third job in different areas such as consultation, outside of the clinical field, or program evaluation (Bray, 2014). These findings highlight reasons why some students may not enter into either a graduate or doctoral program within the counseling field.

Lack of Diversity Among Counselor Educators

Sustaining African American counselor educators is a significant issue for the field of counseling because African American counselor educators perceived publishing, colleagues' racism, and lack of mentoring as major barriers to attaining promotion and

tenure (Bradley & Holcomb, 2004). Similarly, and more recently, CES graduate students of color in Hipolito-Delgado et al.'s (2017) study identified their protective factors as having diverse peers, being supported by faculty, and having family and friends who helped with outside of the classroom commitments. Similarly, the three risk factors for not persisting in doctoral programs identified by these participants were difficulty balancing work, family and school, feeling disconnected from their program, and perceived instances of White dominance (Hipolito-Delgado et al., 2017).

While the percentage of African American counselors rose from 5% in 1990 to 20% in 2017 (U.S. Census Report, 2017), an overwhelming 70% of counselors-in-training identified as Caucasian. Only 25.6% of CES faculty reporting to CACREP in 2015 identified as ethnic minorities (Meyers, 2016). Similarly, 65% of currently enrolled doctoral students in CES programs identify as Caucasian and the majority of counselors-in-training and CES doctoral students do not graduate (Meyers, 2016). Other fields within the helping profession reported similar concerns for the lack of diverse faculty. For instance, in a more recent study, the American Psychological Association (APA) reported 86% of psychologists in the U.S. workforce identified as Caucasian, 5% as Asian, 5% as Hispanic, 4% as Black and 1% were Multiracial or from other racial or ethnic groups (Lin et al., 2018). However, Lin et al. (2018) also reported one-third (32%) of psychology doctorates earned in 2016 were awarded to racial or ethnic minorities which suggests the field of psychology could begin to soon mirror the greater U.S. population, which is 62 % Caucasian and 38 % minority. However, counselor educators are falling short which is

why it is critical to find quality ways to strengthen mentoring programs devoted to increasing diversity among the counseling profession (Hiplolito-Delgado et al., 2017).

The problem of having too few minority doctoral students originates from the lack of diverse master's level students because most doctoral programs require students to already have a master's degree (Brooks & Steen, 2010). The lack of diverse counselor educators and counseling students is problematic because the counseling profession wants to create a cohort of professionals that mirrors the population they are serving. Rationale for this mirroring is because minority clients are more likely to persist in counseling if they feel their counselor understands them, can relate to their adversity, and can establish trust (Constantine, 2002; Hayes et al., 2016). Also, non-Caucasians in Lee's (2010) study reported they felt Caucasian faculty were unwelcoming which led to them feel isolated. Feelings of isolation and mistrust of faculty members are reasons why students of color leave CES programs (Brown & Grothaus, 2019). However, Brown and Grouthaus (2019) found mentorship can strengthen trust in students of color who are being mentored by Caucasian counselor educators.

Knowing the census predictions for 2050 are that the non-Hispanic Caucasian population will decrease to 46% of the total population, while 30% of the population will be Hispanic; 13% Black; one percent American Indian, Eskimo, and Aleut; and eight percent Asian and Pacific Islander (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 2017) places the counseling profession in a significant predicament. The lack of diverse faculty hinders the experiences of both CES students and counselors-in-training (master's level) and

deserves increased attention as well as provides a strong rationale for taking race into consideration when evaluating the career choices of CES students.

Motivation to Pursue a Doctoral Degree

Most students enter a CES doctoral program with the intent to obtain a faculty position (Hinkle et al., 2017). Hinkle et al. (2017) found students entered a CES program because they were motivated by their desire to persevere for their family and make a difference in their community. These participants were also motivated to earn a doctoral degree because they associated having a PhD with job security and being respected (Hinkle et al., 2017). Other researchers found students were motivated to earn a degree in the helping profession because they experienced adversity and wanted to help others overcome similar obstacles (Hill et al., 2013; Holliday et al., 2018). Similarly, Bradley et al. (2012) found social workers were motivated to enter a doctoral program when they believed the program would validate their values in holistic and systems approaches. Other researchers found individuals pursued a doctoral degree because they felt rewarded by the intellectual challenge (Scott et al., 2004), had a love for learning (Ivankova & Stick, 2007), saw the degree as an opportunity to prove their abilities (Leonard et al., 2005), gain confidence (Jablonski, 2001), and remain viable in a profession (Laurent et al., 2008). Gaining prestige, professional respect, and an increase in salary were also motivators for pursuing a doctoral degree (Laurent, 2008). Lastly Carpenter et al. (2018) as well as Duffy et al. (2011) found people were more likely to pursue a degree in a specific field, persist through to graduation, and be happy in the profession after graduation if they associated positive outcomes with the job they will hold upon

graduation. While each of these findings relate to the study at hand, many of these researchers did not exclusively have CES students in their sample.

Salary

According to a large national survey conducted by the ACA (Bray, 2014) which consisted of nearly 9,000 counselors and counselor educators, the average annual salary for a counselor educator was $66,405 which was about $13,000 more than the highest annual counselor salary of $53,500 which was reported by rehabilitation counselors and school counselors. Mental health, clinical mental health, and community counselors reported the lowest average annual salary of $40,422 (Bray, 2014). Unfortunately, counselors were paid approximately $12,000 less than the average national salary of $52,065 and approximately $29,000 less than the national average for people holding a master's degree (U.S. Census Bureau, 2017). Counselor educators made approximately $23,000 less than the average person in America holding a doctorate degree (U.S. Census Bureau, 2017).

Salaries for counselors varied by geographic location with California counselors receiving about $64,000 annually versus counselors in Hawaii and the Northwest region of the U.S. being paid about $43,000 a year (Bray, 2014). According to the College and University Professional Association for Human Resources who had 184,924 tenured or tenure-track faculty members at 794 institutions nationwide who participated in their study, while the average annual income for counselor education faculty was $66,405, the average salary for a faculty teaching in a master's or doctoral program was $89,144. The low salary associated with becoming a counselor education faculty may deter students

from entering into this field. Faculty could educate students on the many other benefits of holding faculty positions such as the ability to hold a second job, flexible work schedules, continuing education, career development, retirement packages, or job security (Patton, 2016)

Hardie (2015) found males were more likely to enter a female-dominated occupation if they felt the salary was worth their investment. Unfortunately, the low salaries associated with the counseling and counselor education field may hinder males from entering both the counseling and faculty positions (U.S. Census Bureau, 2017). For example, Hinkle et al. (2017) postulated CES graduates could earn more working in private practice than if they entered academia as a counselor educator. These findings were especially true for African American males (Hinkle et al., 2017). However, people in private practice may not gain the many benefits Patton (2016) spoke of that are congruent with faculty positions. In addition, folks who earn their CES and enter into private practice have to pay for a degree that is commonly not needed to become a private practitioner and will likely not be eligible for tuition reduction programs (Patton, 2016).

While participants in Ramirez's (2010) study were undergraduate students evaluating reasons for not entering the K-12 teaching professions, this author also found the converse to be true. Meaning, Ramirez (2010) found ethnic minority students chose not to enter the field of teaching because they felt there was a lack of respect for the teaching profession, nobody encouraged them to become a teacher, they had poor experiences with teachers, and they experienced negative events in schools. While this

study is dated and did not include CES students in particular, Brooks and Steen (2010) reported similar findings among African American male counselors-in-training.

Clinical Leadership Positions

According to Hinkle et al. (2017), the second most popular motivation for perusing a CES doctoral degree was to improve clinical skills and become a clinical leader. However, many doctoral graduates reported a lack of confidence in conducting tasks related to clinical leadership (Hinkle et al., 2017; Isaacs & Sabella, 2013; Lockard et al., 2014; Woo et al. 2017;). For instance, the 228 participants in Lockard et al.'s (2014) study reported feeling the least prepared to hold a clinical leadership position that required them to manage an organization; yet, becoming a clinical leader was the position Hinkle et al. (2017) found most counselor educators entered upon graduation. One possible rationale for people entering the clinical world over academia is that graduates of younger generations learn to love what they do if the salary is appealing to them (Aronson, 2017) and they weigh the debt associated with a doctoral degree with their salary (Donald et al., 2018). For instance, participants in Milsom and Moran's (2015) study shared that the toughest transition from being a school counselor to becoming a counselor educator was the financial strain placed upon their family which led them to consider more financially stable positions that were outside of academia.

Own Mental Health Issues

Some students with mental health issues reported entering the helping profession because they believed they could correct their own mental health issues by learning more about disorders, interventions, and how to regulate emotions (Hill et al., 2013). Luke and

Diambra (2017) and Puffer (2011) urged career counselors to discuss regulations surrounding counselor comportment when providing information on the counseling field to students who expressed a desire to enter the counseling profession because they want to learn how to deal with their own mental health issues. The rationale for educating this population on counselor comportment comes from these researchers' findings that students who have a tough time regulating their emotions due to perfectionism and overgeneralization also had dysfunctional career thoughts (Luke & Diambra, 2017; Puffer, 2017).

Dysfunctional career thoughts and occupational indecision are also related to depressive symptoms and career decision making confusion (Walker & Peterson, 2012). Students' inability to regulate emotions was also tied to career indecisiveness, fear to take on career challenges, lack of self-awareness, low self-efficacy, and low career success (Coetzee & Harry, 2014; De Haro García & Castejón Costa, 2014; Di Fabio & Kenny, 2015; Harry, 2017). These findings relate to counselor education because personal comportment is a significant factor for counselors and counselors must be able to regulate their emotions (CACREP, 2016; Swank & Smith-Adcock, 2014). In fact, numerous institutions and the CACREP have guidelines that require faculty to assess attributes of counselors-in-training (CACREP, 2016). Some counselor education programs even start the gatekeeping process during admissions interviews because they know how important emotional regulation is to perform as a counselor and as a counselor educator (Swank & Smith-Adcock, 2014).

Life Experiences

Many people choose counseling as a profession because they faced personal struggles or traumas in the past and gained from engaging in clinical services (Dean et al., 2018). For instance, Conteh et al. (2017) reported that 95% of counselors-in-training reported they experienced at least one trauma in their lives and almost 50% of the sample reported four or more traumas. It is also important to note that women are consistently more likely to meet criteria for Posttraumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) and experience more severe symptoms than men who experienced a traumatic event because the majority of counselors-in-training are females (Vishnevsky et al., 2010). While an overwhelming number of counselors-in-training have experienced a trauma, many of these individuals also reported an increase in empathy as well as having hope for their clients which maintained their interest in performing clinical services (Dean et al., 2018). Therefore, the negative life experiences that prompted counselors-in-training to enter the field of counseling could also be influencing the CES students' decision to enter the field of counseling after graduation because CES students were once counselors-in-training.

Student Perceptions of Faculty Positions

Some researchers found doctoral graduates were not interested in faculty positions due to students associating faculty positions with low salaries, a high demand for research productivity, job stress, and a lack of opportunities for promotion (Brooks & Steen, 2010; Hinkle et al., 2017; Nagle et al., 2004). Graduate psychology students in Nagle et al.'s (2004) study ranked the roles and activities faculty engaged in as the greatest benefit to becoming a faculty member. These students perceived prestige and salary as the lowest benefits to holding an academic position (Nagel et al., 2004). Finally, these participants

identified incentives that would be helpful in overcoming hesitancy in applying for an academic position such as reducing politics in the tenure process, an increase in salary, and more availability of academic positions that emphasize applied work (Nagle et al., 2004; Schimanski & Alperin, 2018).

There also appears to be a significant discrepancy between student perceptions of faculty roles and the tasks in which faculty engage (Hinkle et al., 2017; Wilde et al., 2015). This misalignment between what students perceive the faculty position to be, and what tasks faculty actually report engaging in, may be influenced by having a mentor in the field. For instance, Carpenter et al. (2015) found explaining faculty roles to their mentee was the task upon which helping professionals spent the most amount of time. This finding highlights that CES students may misperceive faculty roles.

CES Student's Self-Efficacy

Other researchers found students lacked confidence in performing faculty roles (Hunt & Gilmore, 2011), which is interesting considering Adkison-Bradley (2013) reported the goal of CES programs is to "train students to become leaders in all areas of the counseling discipline, including counselor education, and to gain competencies in advanced clinical work, supervision, research, teaching, and leadership" (p. 45). In fact, the CES degree was originally created to train individuals to become counselor educators and continues to be the single most identified degree requirement for counselor education faculty positions (Bernard, 2006; Bodenhorn et al., 2014). As per the CACREP standards (2016), all CES doctoral programs should graduate students who can "work as counselor educators, supervisors, researchers, and practitioners in academic and clinical settings"

(p. 52). Each program requires students to engage in field experiences in clinical practice, research, teaching, supervision, and leadership (CACREP, 2016; Hinkle et al., 2017; Woo et al. 2017). Doctoral internships that expose students to a wide range of experiences increases the student's competence and confidence whereas doctoral coursework positively influences content expertise (Kilbourne et al., 2018). Therefore, graduates of CES programs should be well prepared to hold a faculty appointment because these students have completed internships with breadth and depth as well as numerous courses within all areas of CES. However, CES graduates still report low self-efficacy rates among many areas associated with the CES degree (Hunt & Gilmore, 2011).

Upon graduating, many CES students reported low self-efficacy in their ability to teach (Dollarhide et al., 2013; Hunt & Gilmore, 2011), conduct research (Lamar & Helm, 2017), and manage a leadership position (Lockard et al., 2014). Self-efficacy is an important variable when examining career choice because a person is more likely to enter a career if they feel both confident and competent to perform the job-related tasks of that profession (Whiston et al., 2017). Also, confidence to perform job related tasks comes from experiencing, actively engaging in, and watching others perform tasks (Baltrinic et al., 2016; Dollarhide et al., 2013). Therefore, many CES faculty take an applicant's post-master's experiences into account when granting admission into their program because faculty know having experience in the field positively influences self-efficacy levels (Farmer et al., 2017; Ferguson, 2012; Sackett et al., 2015) which in turn influences career fit and persistence (Farmer et al., 2017). For instance, counselor educators who

previously held positions as school counselors reported higher self-efficacy levels in the areas of teaching and service to the college because they previously engaged in these tasks as school counselors (Milsom & Moran, 2015). Therefore, it is critical to examine how self-efficacy rates of CES students are influenced by having a mentor related to each area of the CES program because these feelings of competence and confidence extend into how they make their career choice.

Mentorship could moderate the relationship between self-efficacy and academic adjustment. For instance, Thomas et al. (2009) studied African American CES students in particular and found African American counselor educators in training who reported higher levels of confidence in their ability to succeed were also more motivated to acquire knowledge and reported higher levels of academic adjustment. These researchers recommended counselor educators create interventions that specifically address mentees perception of their ability to be academically successful as well as provide a mentoring environment that addresses the socio-cultural and institutional obstacles that are present (Thomas et al., 2009). Thomas et al.'s (2009) goal is to empower mentees by increasing their self-efficacy and make a career choice that aligns with their abilities while understanding jobs come with some challenges and these challenges can be accomplished through trial and error.

Similarly, Dollarhide et al. (2013) found that African American females, more than any of the other participants interviewed for their study, reported a strong desire to have a faculty mentor support them because they lacked confidence in their skills. Dollarhide et al. also found African American participants that was not seen in other

participants was that the African American participants reported lower self-efficacy scores on professional development and identified their desire for obtaining a mentor of a similar racial background (Dollarhide et al., 2013). Those African American female counselors in training who had a mentor reported higher levels of professional identity self-efficacy (Dollarhide et al., 2013). Therefore, the link between counselor self-efficacy, race, and mentorship is worthy of investigation, which is why these are all variables in my study.

Both Magnuson (2002) and Hall and Hulse (2010) found CES students reported a lack of knowledge in teaching pedagogy and content delivery methods which led to low teaching self-efficacy rates. Buller (2013) found students associated their low teaching self-efficacy rates with having only one course on teaching methods. Baltrinic et al. (2016) proposed that CES programs establish a co-teaching model because CES students reported positive gains when they engaged in co-teaching with their peers. Similarly, Hunt and Gilmore (2011) found doctoral students who engaged in a didactic course in teaching reported knowing how to develop course materials, manage behaviors in the classroom, and were likely to report having a teaching style. Although teacher self-efficacy rates of CES students are not as high as the profession may want them to be, CES students reported higher levels of teacher self-efficacy than those students who were enrolled in counseling psychology or Doctor of Psychology (PsyD) programs (Poidevant et al., 1991). While Poidevant et al.'s (1991) study is fairly dated, results may affirm CACREP's goals for CES programs as well as strengthen the identity of the CES degree as a degree that was created for counselor educators. These findings could especially hold

true since this study took place during the great divide between counseling psychology and counselor education.

Graduates of CES programs also reported low self-efficacy in gatekeeping strategies (Schuermann et al., 2018) which may deter them from considering faculty positions because faculty reported spending a significant amount of time engaging in gatekeeping responsibilities (Rapp et al., 2018; Swank & Smith-Adcock, 2014). The lack of wanting to perform in gatekeeping strategies as a counselor educator may also stem from how students view their peers (Brown-Rice & Furr, 2013). For instance, Brown-Rice and Furr (2013) conducted a national survey of counseling master's students and found that 74% of the respondents reported they witnessed a significant concern regarding their peers' professional or personal comportment. Results for doctoral psychology students were similar in that 57.8% indicated they were aware of at least one peer who displayed problems of professional competence (Veilleux et al., 2012). In both cases, the most common concern students experienced was witnessing their peer disrupt the learning environment (Brown-Rice & Furr, 2013; Veilleux et al., 2012). Therefore, the lack of wanting to engage in gatekeeping combined with feelings of incompetence related to gatekeeping may also be a factor in why CES students choose to not pursue academic positions.

Many counseling students lack the competence to conduct career counseling (Lara et al., 2011). Lindo et al. (2019) found students lacked an interest in career counseling because they believed the Internet can be just as beneficial of a resource to clients seeking career advice as they can. These researchers also found students who reported

having a clear understanding of career theories also had a clear career path and felt more comfortable engaging in career counseling (Lindo et al., 2019). These authors reiterated that counselor education programs need to have students in counseling programs engage in self-reflective career activities, so they gain an understanding of their career path (Lindo et al., 2019). Therefore, the lack of confidence in helping individuals make career decisions may also deter CES students from becoming a faculty member because faculty also serve as advisors who commonly provide career guidance.

Research as an Overall Problem

The persistent shortage of clinical research within the field of counseling is a significant problem for counselor education as well as other helping professions (Borders et al., 2012; Kaminsky & Behrend, 2015; Lee, 2014). Borders et al. (2012) made a serious call to the counseling profession and created guidelines to help counseling professionals increase research productivity as a solution to the research deficit. Briggs and Pehrsson (2008) found the best way to increase research productivity among recently hired counselor educators was to provide these individuals with a research mentor who focused on research methodology, data analysis, and scientific integrity. Newly hired counselor educators who were participants in Magnuson et al.'s (2003) study reported experiencing less stress and greater productivity than those who did not have a research mentor. Confidence in conducting research is particularly important because even though most faculty indicated conducting research as the task they spent the least amount of time on (Austin & Hill, 2014), many CES students reported they were deterred from becoming

a counselor educator because they felt incompetent to perform research tasks they associated with becoming a counselor educator (Wilde et al., 2015).

Overall, researcher self-efficacy increases as a CES student persists in their doctoral training (Dollarhide et al., 2013; Lambie & Vaccaro). Many researchers linked how having a research mentor increased self-efficacy levels of research related job tasks (Hollingsworth & Fassinger, 2002; Lambie & Vaccaro, 2011). For instance, Lambie and Vaccaro (2011) found students who had a research mentor were also more likely to have published, had an elevated interest in research positions, and reported high researcher self-efficacy levels. Having a research mentor increases the chances of both the mentor and mentee publishing scholarly work (Benishek et al., 2004; Murdock et al., 2013), creating a researcher identity (Briggs & Pehrsson, 2008; Dollarhide et al., 2013), and obtaining tenure (Hill et al., 2005; Nolte et al., 2015). However, as many researchers have pointed out, few CES students reported having a researcher identity or receiving research mentorship (Dollarhide et al., 2013; Hollingsworth & Fassinger, 2002). In fact, the lack of research mentorship among counseling professionals was the guiding force behind Hollingsworth and Fassinger (2002) creating the Research Mentoring Experiences Scale (RMES) which measures research mentoring experiences by research task functions. These researchers used the RMES and found research mentoring experiences and research self-efficacy were significant predictors of research productivity. These findings highlight the substantial deficit of researcher self-efficacy as well as the positive influence mentoring relationships has on research productivity among counselor educators.

Ramsey et al. (2002) brought a different perspective on the research deficit. These researchers argued that counselor educators conduct quite a bit of scholarly activities by presenting at workshops or trainings, working on departmental initiatives, undergoing accreditation processes, and reviewing publications (Ramsey et al., 2002). This broader view of faculty research requirements appears to be a trend among many institutions and especially for faculty serving in the social sciences (Schimanski & Alperin, 2018). Similarly, Woo et al. (2017) highlighted how faculty research demands varied by type of institution and faculty rank, and that many institutions are lax on what counts as peer-reviewed journals. Therefore, it would be interesting to see if CES graduates considered taking on a faculty position because their mentor let them know some institutions take a broader stance on faculty research requirements.

Career Decision Making

While an individual's feelings of confidence and competence in performing job responsibilities is a major factor in how an individual makes a career decision, so is considering if the individual is going to make meaning out of their work (Allan et al., 2017; Brooks & Steen, 2010). Allan et al. (2017) and Amundson et al. (2010) interviewed newly hired professionals born between 1980 and 1990 and found these individuals were taking time to explore if a career would allow them to perform job tasks that were meaningful and if they believed they would feel a sense of belonging. These concepts of meaning making and giving back are particularly strong among African American faculty because these factors are the main reasons why African American faculty choose to stay in faculty positions (Brooks & Steen, 2010).

Similarly, Prawitasari (2018) found professionals in the Z Generation (born 1994-2004) tend to choose careers that give them freedom and allow them to express their creativity. In contrast, Aronson (2017) found most Generation Z participants in their study expressed a serious concern about finances and reported they will learn to love a job that is going to pay them well. However, it is important to note Arson identified not stratifying the sample of undergraduate students into different categories of degrees as a major as a limitation of the study. Aronson also stated researchers should investigate individual aspects of student career decision making and if there are different financial attitudes among undergraduate and graduate students of this generation (Arson, 2017). Either way, it is important for researchers to know how undergraduate students make career choices because undergraduate students will eventually make career decisions about entering (or not entering) doctoral programs. Researchers must also consider the limitations of these studies because many helping professionals identified their desire to help others as the driving force that prompted them to enter the helping profession which superseded the low pay associated with working in the helping profession (Hill et al., 2013).

Career Decision Self-Efficacy

Researchers concerned with addressing the shortage of counselor educators must also examine how people make career decisions. Even a person's feelings about how confident and competent they are in making a career decision influences how they make career decisions (Conklin et al., 2013). For instance, Conklin et al. (2013) found career decision self-efficacy moderated the relationship between college student's emotional

identification toward their area of study with career outcome expectations. These researchers also found students' perceptions of their ability to meet the demands of the job influences the major they chose (Conklin et al., 2013). Therefore, it is important to consider how confident and competent CES students feel about their career decision making because their career self-efficacy may be playing a role in which field they choose to enter after graduation.

Similar to previous findings, Sidiropoulou-Dimakakou et al. (2012) found students whose degree matches their career interests were less likely to experience difficulties in their career decision making process. These researchers also found people who knew their values and had high levels of general self-efficacy were less likely to experience feelings of career indecisiveness. For instance, Sidiropoulou-Dimakakou et al. found self-knowledge, psychological stability, being less dependent on others, and being able to confront difficulties were attributes of people with high clarity of their values. These authors proposed university students find a mentor who guides them through the process of self-reflection which helps students clarify their values and interests (Sidiropoulou-Dimakakou et al. 2012).

Most importantly, Sidiropoulou-Dimakakou et al. (2012) found students who chose a vocational domain that was linked to their degree and career interests exhibited higher generalized self-efficacy levels that those whose interests did not match. These researchers stated that it was possible students with high levels of general self-efficacy were willing to face challenges because they felt confident in their decision-making abilities, had knowledge about the career decision making process, and saw the positive

gains of being satisfied with their career (Sidiropoulou-Dimakakou et al. 2012). Sidiropoulou-Dimakakou et al. concluded that students who were not satisfied by their educational choices might see this lack of satisfaction as a hinderance in the decision-making process which led them to feel less capable of making a career decision.

Sidiropoulou-Dimakakou et al.'s (2012) findings are critical to understanding this current study. These researchers concluded their study by highlighting the importance of self-efficacy in career decision making and the important role mentors play in strengthening a person's self-efficacy and clarification of values. In particular, these authors stated mentors should aim to strengthen a person's self-perception through self-esteem building activities, supporting them through job related challenges, and helping them identify personal strengths as well as teaching them how to find career related information. These suggestions build on Dollarhide et al. (2013) and Thomas et al.'s (2009) findings that programs can strengthen the likelihood of African American females being academically successful in a counseling program if their mentor encourages and supports them to acknowledge their academic abilities as well as provide them with realistic job-related tasks. Sidiropoulou-Dimakakou et al. (2012) suggested mentors engage in these tasks because doing so would allow the mentee to discover career choices that aligned with their interests, values, and personal strengths which other researchers found increased the chance for the mentee to be satisfied with their job choice (Zopiatis et al., 2017).

Cultural Influences

At times, cultural influences impact a person's career choice (Jung & McCormick, 2011). For instance, Jung and McCormick (2011) found individuals whose culture supported independence reported an idiocentric view toward their future career goals. However, these researchers pointed out a person's idiocentric views on occupational intentions were often balanced with the allocentric components of culturally specific familial values, occupational interest, and enjoyment (Jung & McCormick, 2011).

Wambu et al. (2017) found similar results when studying African American immigrant families and reported these students tended to value prestigious careers over what they found interesting. These researchers found many African American immigrant families pushed their children to choose careers that were prestigious and whose salaries were going to support the family (Wambu et al., 2017). Parents in this collectivistic culture tend to believe they brought their children to the U.S. so they could ensure the economic survival of the family and take care of their ageing parents (Wambu et al., 2017).

However, Okubo et al. (2007) found the amount of pressure varies on the ethnicity, acculturation level, socio-economic status, and structure of the family. These researchers also found students feel pressured depending on the way genders are socialized in their culture, how conflicts among elders are handled, and the birth order of the student (Okubo et al., 2007). Therefore, mentors are encouraged to take each of these demographic and cultural factors into consideration when attending to the career needs of their mentees (Wambu et al., 2017).

Familial Influence

It is also important to note that many researchers found parental influence was a significant factor in the career decision making process of high school students who were entering undergraduate programs (Latashia, 2012). In particular, students who reported high levels of familial conflict and low levels of family expressiveness also exhibited career decision making confusion, commitment anxiety, and external conflict in career decision making (Lustig et al., 2017). While parental influence played a significant role in an undergraduate student's choice of career and negatively influenced the career decision making of undergraduate students, parental influence had little to no impact on how graduate students chose a graduate degree or career (Latashia, 2012). Both Asian and African immigrant families tended to have higher educational expectations of their children and put a lot more pressure on their children to become academically successful than the Caucasian student families in Jeffrey et al. (2014) and Bennett-Garraway's (2014) studies. Stebleton et al. (2019) found some students from families who value economic independence urged their children to get a job right out of high school because they are concerned with the dept college students acquire when attending college.

Career Counselor Influence

Another person who contributes to an individual's career choice is a career counselor (Whiston et al., 2017). In fact, participants in Whiston et al.'s (2017) study who collaborated with a career counselor reported positive gains in every dimension of career decision making. Poidevant et al. (1991) urged career counselors to blend career counseling with psychotherapy and pay particular attention to an individual's personal

issues such as anxiety, mood, identity, attachment, and psychological separation. Career counselors who blended career and personal counseling skills addressed their students' overall depressive symptoms which lowered the students' anxiety associated with career indecision, decision-making confusion, and dysfunctional career thoughts (Walker & Peterson, 2012). Career counselors must also be conscientious about how they present occupations to clients because Ramirez (2010) found negative information generated from teachers and counselors about careers in teaching was the primary reason students lacked an interest in teaching.

Mentorship

Mentorship is one factor researchers found influences the success of counselor educators across all aspects of their position. For instance, counselor educators who stated they had a mentor also reported experiencing a successful transition into the counselor educator role (Baltrinic et al., 2016; Boswell et al., 2015; Magnuson et al., 2009; Milsom & Moran, 2015; Yob & Crawford 2012), satisfaction in their position (Burgess, 2007; Davis, 2007; Eaton et al., 2015; Gambrell et al., 2011), positive gains from negotiating contracts (Warnke et al., 1999), having a strong professional identity (Dollarhide et al., 2013), having an increased sense of ability to overcome obstacles (Eaton et al., 2015), and feeling confident in engaging in gatekeeping and teaching responsibilities (Hunt, & Gilmore, 2011; Schuermann et al., 2018). Having a mentor also influences career planning, academic productivity, job satisfaction, and career choice (Yehia et al., 2014) as well as non-professional aspects such as work-life balance and feeling socially connected (Eaton et al., 2015; Niles et al., 2001). Mentorship even

influenced the theoretical orientation of supervisees more than coursework or a program's theoretical orientation (Buckman & Barker, 2010). Most of all, Lambie and Vaccaro (2011) and Gadbois and Graham (2012) found being mentored increased the likelihood that faculty would mentor students in the future and that previous experiences of being mentored influenced how a faculty member provided mentorship.

Similarly, Magnuson et al. (2009) found support for each of the above-mentioned variables in a mentoring relationship in their six-year longitudinal study of counselor educators. These researchers followed counselor educators who were appointed faculty positions within the 2000-01 academic year through to 2006-07. During each stage of data collection all faculty members in this study reported the most critical factor related to their success and satisfaction with teaching was feeling supported and having engaged in a mentoring relationship (Magnuson et al., 2009). Therefore, the critical importance of having a mentor within the field of counselor education is vital to the sustainability of the profession.

Quality of the Mentoring Relationship

According to Guramatunhu-Mudiwa and Angel (2017), quality mentors should create a safe and trusting environment in which power is equally distributed and both participants can engage in open dialogue. These researchers found mentees who had mentors who met these criteria reported positive gains, advanced personal and professional growth, and had an increased appreciation for mentoring relationships. These findings were especially true for minority and female mentees (Guramatunhu-Mudiwa & Angel, 2017).

One particular role mentors engage in was giving feedback. Dollarhide et al. (2013) described in their study that CES students reported faculty feedback positively influenced their feelings of legitimacy and validity when their expectations met reality. These researchers found recent CES graduates reported experiencing similar positive gains when peers and colleagues provided constructive feedback (Dollarhide et al, 2013). Receiving feedback also aided in decreasing symptoms of impostor syndrome (Lane, 2015). Researchers found students who reported symptoms of impostor syndrome also reported doubting themselves prior to engaging in a task, experienced anxiety when conducting a task, and discrediting themselves after engaging in a task (Bachem et al., 2020; Lane, 2015). Lane (2015) found counseling students who had a mentor who provided them with feedback also reported lower levels of impostor syndrome and anxiety. Therefore, faculty serving as mentors can decrease feelings of impostor syndrome which may lead mentees to expand their career search.

Mentorship of CES students should begin within the first year of the student's program (Dollarhide et al., 2013). Dollarhide et al. (2013) found CES students who received mentorship within their first year of coursework reported having a stronger professional identity than those who had not received mentoring. Quality mentors will urge the mentee to take time to reflect and engage in self-awareness (Black et al., 2004). Mentors should also seek contact with the mentee, establish what the mentee wants from the mentoring relationship, and set clear goals (Black et al., 2004). Boswell et al. (2015), and Magnuson et al. (2009) encouraged CES faculty to tailor the mentoring relationship to the unique career needs of the mentee. These researchers suggested guiding the mentee

in all areas associated with the CES degree including how to navigate the political climate of higher education and help mentees find a job (Boswell et al., 2015; Magnuson et al., 2009). Briggs and Pehrsson (2008) reported similar findings and suggested mentors focus on assisting their mentee through the tenure and promotion process. Newly appointed faculty participants in Levitt and Hermon's (2009) study affirmed both Boswell et al.'s (2015) and Briggs and Pehrson's (2008) findings and added mentors should also help mentees with challenges associated with balancing various faculty roles within and outside of academia as these were significant areas in which faculty felt incompetent and led to increased levels of stress.

Miller and Stone (2011) and the participants in their study sought to debunk myths associated with mentoring. These researchers pointed out how not all senior faculty are capable of providing quality mentoring experiences and that there is a significant difference between mentoring and advising (Miller & Stone, 2011). These researchers also stated mentors and mentees did not have to be of the same race or background, nor did they have to have the same research interests or philosophical positions (Miller & Stone, 2011). Similarly, Milsom and Moran (2015) urged counselor educators to take on mentoring roles even if they felt they needed more experience in the profession or wisdom concerning research. Their rationale for this recommendation was that these researchers found many of the participants in their study reported benefitting from mentoring relationships that attended to the informal aspects of mentoring including connecting them with people who had expertise in certain areas (Milsom & Moran, 2015).

Lack of Mentorship

Researchers identified the lack of mentorship as a significant barrier for female and African American counselor educators in obtaining faculty positions, feeling supported, and completing doctoral degrees (Hipolito-Delgado et al., 2017; Protivnak & Foss, 2009). Female counselor educators reported they had to actively seek out mentoring relationships more often than their male counterparts (Park et al., 2017; Protivnak & Foss 2009). African American participants in Miller and Stone's (2011) study reported mentorship was a positive factor in promoting self-confidence, giving lectures, and presenting at regional conferences. These respondents shared that they did not know working in academia was an option until they met a faculty member of color who also served as their mentor (Miller & Stone, 2011). Brinson and Kottler (1993) supported the continuation of mentoring once a program hires an African American CES graduate as a counselor educator. These researchers asserted having a mentoring relationship with a senior faculty member helped the new faculty member form realistic career goals and assisted in helping the mentee achieve professional success (Brinson & Kottler, 1993).

Helping Manage Internal and External Challenges

Milsom and Moran (2015) studied how counselors transitioned to counselor educator. These researchers interviewed school counselors who obtained a doctoral degree and became a counselor educator. Themes that emerged from this study suggested counselor educators should focus on the internal and external influences that affect both work and home environments (Milsom & Moran, 2015). Participants reported having trouble managing their time, having financial, familial, and social lifestyle changes, as

well as having problems adjusting to unclear job expectations (Milsom & Moran, 2015). Niles et al. (2001) addressed these same internal and external struggles when they reported all of the 14 counselor educators who served as mentors and participated in their study would tell newly hired faculty to obtain a mentor who is willing to discuss both the professional and personal challenges that come with being a counselor educator. Participants in Niles et al.'s (2001) study reported spending most of their mentoring hours helping mentees balance their time, overcome obstacles, and cope with multiple life roles. These counselor educators serving as mentors also recommended the use of multiple teaching methods, adapting a student-centered approach in the classroom, and staying current on the literature (Niles et al., 2001). Thus, underscoring the importance of studying mentorship, race, and career choice.

Ideal Mentorship

The mentee's expectations of a formal mentoring relationship often determine the success of the relationship (Finkelstein & n, 2010). Many times, the characteristics of the people delivering the mentorship influence the mentee's perception of the mentoring relationship (Finkelstein & Poteet, 2010). For instance, Bailey et al.'s (2016) findings suggested that the ideal mentor is understanding, role modeled good behavior, and has strong ethical values. Lazovsky and Shimoni (2007) found counselor educators out on internship wanted their mentor to be well-educated, highly effective, established in their career, and professional. Mentees wanted mentors to give them the opportunity to express their perceptions and opinions and have a good attitude toward mentoring new mentees.

Like many others, Prouty et al. (2015) found ideal mentorship of clinicians fell under four domains: psychosocial, career-focused, research focused, and clinical mentorship.

Prouty et al. (2015) used the findings from years of research to create the MiCTS which assesses mentors under the various positive attributes associated with ideal mentors. Positive attributes of ideal mentors who took a psychosocial approach included establishing a sense of safety and trust, encouraged the mentee to adopt a positive attitude toward achieving goals, increased the mentee's self-image, provided emotional support and counseling, was accepting and friendly, confirmed the mentee's competence, and treated the mentee as a colleague (Prouty et al., 2015). Ideal mentor qualities under the career domain involved assisting mentee's in understanding the political workings of the organization, increasing mentee's professional visibility, assisting the mentee in the establishing professional networks, being a role model in how to build a professional name, helping the mentee find an internship, assisting the mentee in finding a job after graduation, providing or encouraging the mentee to do professional networking and providing professional opportunities to the mentee (Prouty et al., 2015).

A clinical ideal mentor attributes involved helping the mentee develop academic, clinical, or research skills, helped the mentee develop personal ethics and professional values, challenged the mentee to try new clinical theories or techniques in therapy, served as a role-model who built a theory of therapy congruent with who the mentee was, role-modeled how the mentee might handle a situation, taught the mentee clinical skills, and offered guidance on getting through the clinical program. Ideal research mentors served as a role model in how to build a research track, collaborated with the mentee on

research, collaborated with the mentee on a publication and encouraged the mentee to publish (Prouty et al., 2015).

Research Mentorship

Similar to previous findings, counselor educators who transitioned from being a school counselor and partook in Milsom and Moran's (2015) study indicated they wanted more information and support with designing and implementing research studies. These participants stated even just thinking about implementing a research project caused them great stress as they transitioned from being a school counselor to counselor educator (Milsom & Moran, 2015). Participants in Niles et al.'s (2001) study also addressed this request for more guidance on research design and implementation by finding mentees were more likely to engage in research if their mentor took a disciplined, focused, and collaborative approach to research. Therefore, mentors serve a critical role in the successes and failures of CES students as well as counselors-in-training. These findings also highlight the importance of questioning students' experiences with mentorship and research; both of which are captured in the MiCTS.

Mentor Affiliation

Many counselor education administrators are assigning mentors to students through formal mentoring programs. However, students are also seeking out more informal mentoring relationships with other faculty members to whom they feel connected to or have similar personalities and career interests (Boswell et al., 2015). Other students reported having supervisors who were mentors, former faculty (undergraduate or graduate faculty), or internship seminar leaders as supervisors

(Gadbois & Graham, 2012). Another trend happening in counselor education is to assign CES students with a more senior peer mentor (Hunt & Gilmore, 2011). Participants in Hunt and Gilmore's (2011) study reported significant gains in teaching abilities when they had a peer mentor. Other programs are having CES students mentor master's level counselors in training (Benishek et al., 2004). No matter the affiliation, ACES urges CES and master's level counseling program administrators to create mentoring opportunities and specifically urges these mentoring relationships to focus on conducting research (Borders et al., 2012).

Solutions from Allied Health Professions

Other professions also face a shortage of qualified individuals and faculty to teach them. One way the field of nursing combated the shortage of nursing applicants was to have nurse educators and admissions representatives attend community gatherings in which they introduced the field of nursing to participants of all ages (Lauver et al., 2011). Participants of this program eventually expressed an interest in nursing as a career and many ended up enrolling in a nursing program (Lauver et al., 2011). Ironically, doctoral students of color who were participants in Miller and Stone's (2011) study also urged counselor educators to encourage students in high school to enter the helping profession and consider becoming a counselor educator. Highlighting positive aspects of a career may spark interest even in people who are already established in a career if the field they are currently employed in is not a good fit for them (Zopiatis et al., 2017). Denault et al. (2019) encouraged students to engage in extra-curricular experiences related to various professions as a way to spark an interest in the profession. These researchers found

engagement in extracurricular activities increased a student's vocational exploration which in turn decreased their career indecisiveness (Denault et al., 2019).

A Variety of Career Options

Yahanpath et al. (2013) proposed one way for career counselors to address career indecisiveness is to have the client consider a degree that provides them with options. Therefore, people may deduce that the CES degree would be a viable option for individuals who want to enter the helping profession because students receive training in a variety of areas and CES faculty engage in diverse professional roles. Knowing the CES degree offers various professional options, Protivnak and Foss (2009) urged counselor educators to share their interests, motivations, and professional endeavors with students because sharing these career decision processes will strengthen the degree of academic success among student recipients. Similarly, Milsom and Moran (2015) recommended that counselor educators tell students about their work experiences, the various types of events they engage in, and how they supplement their salaries. These researchers also discussed how students reported positive gains from engaging in extra-curricular activities but warned counselor educators not to hold these events during daytime hours because many doctoral students, especially those who are school counselors, work during the day and may miss these learning and bonding opportunities which led students to have a negative perception of their program (Milsom & Moran, 2015).

Support Groups and Social Justice Activities

Faculty in counseling programs can increase student retention rates by creating a doctoral student support group (Dollarhide et al., 2013). More specifically, when students perceived they matter, they were more likely to persist and complete their degrees (Tinto, 2017). Schlossberg (1989) coined the phrases marginality and mattering in reference to how students feel about themselves in relation to the campus climate. Marginality refers to a feeling of not being cared for or not feeling a sense of connection with peers or someone at the institution. Mattering refers to a students' perception that they fit in at the school, are significant, and feel a sense of being needed (Schlossberg, 1989).

Peer support groups for minority students often resulted in positive retention rates because individuals felt connected and supported (Benishek et al., 2004). For instance, Benisheck et al. (2004) found mentors increased feelings of connectedness among mentees who experienced marginalization in academia by providing them with a forum to express themselves and feel heard. Another way to retain diverse students is to incorporate social justice work into the curriculum because Dollarhide et al. (2018) found social justice work increased resiliency for African American CES students.

Mentor Others

Many researchers have supported the creation of a mentoring program for doctoral students. For instance, Murdock et al., (2013) found doctoral students who mentored master's-level students reported higher levels of professional identity, strengthened leadership skills, and stronger relationships with other professionals. Therefore, being a mentor positively influenced scholarly productivity as well as

satisfaction with the educational program (Murdock et al., 2001). Each of these characteristics noted by Murdock et al. (2001) are captured within the MiCTS and I can analyze how each of these variables relates to career choice as well as race.

Research Mentoring Model

Faculty looking for a more guided approach to mentoring may find Nolte et al.'s (2015) research mentoring model (RMM) a helpful tool. Nolte et al. (2015) created the RMM for faculty who wanted to mentor doctoral students in identifying research topics, creating a research identity, and increasing skills in conducting research. The framework behind this model suggested faculty create experiences in research that lead to an increased sense of community (Nolte et al., 2015). Doctoral students who had mentors who followed the RMM reported they developed a researcher identity, increased researcher self-efficacy levels, were more motivated to conduct research, as well as felt comfortable initiating opportunities to gain support from peers and faculty (Nolte et al., 2015). These participants shared the importance of feeling a sense of being a part of a research community by stating feeling connected to peers and faculty was critical to their mentoring experiences and eventually led to them becoming a researcher.

Participants in both Miller and Stone's (2011) and Hipolito-Delgado et al. (2017) study suggested programs make a sincere and realistic commitment to diversity by offering mentoring and advising to students, establishing support networks for students of color, making sure all textbooks incorporate multicultural aspects, and creating space and opportunities for family and community gatherings. Participants in this study believed mentorship was a positive factor for promoting overall self-confidence and self-esteem

that results in people engaging more in networking opportunities, giving lectures, and attending regional conferences (Miller & Stone, 2011).

Demographics

The needs of the mentees vary by age (Neale et al., 2018), gender (Zhang et al., 2019; Protivnak & Foss, 2009), and race (Brown & Grothaus, 2019). Other researchers identified not including demographic variables as a limitation of their study or suggested researchers include these variables in future studies (Hinke et al., 2017; Milsom & Moran, 2015). Hipolito-Delgado et al., (2017) reinforced the importance of having diversity related aspects be taken into consideration in counselor education as it relates to clients, future students, service to communities, and all other aspects of increasing diversity among counselor education. Hipolito-Delgado et al. stated counselors can better serve communities by providing counselors who look like their clients. Lastly, overall self-efficacy levels of counselors and counselor educators strengthen as counselors-in-training and CES students' progress in their program (Lambie & Vaccaro, 2010). Therefore, it is imperative to capture a person's age, gender, sexuality, and minority status (Gottfredson, 1983; Schneider & Dimito, 2010).

Age

According to the U.S. Census Bureau (2017), the average age of male counselors in the workforce is 42.9 and of female Counselors is 41.3. The only age group in which male counselors outnumbered the number of females was between the ages of 75 and 80 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2017). Most counselors fall between the ages of 25 and 38 and the

two most common ages for females represented in this study was 26 (19,400) and 37 (19,300; U.S. Census Bureau, 2017).

Age is an important variable to consider when analyzing the predictability of career choice because participants in Walker and Peterson (2017) study reported making career decisions based on how many years they believed they could devote themselves to a career. Karaoulani et al. (2017) found that the older a counselor was, combined with the amount of time they were out of work, negatively correlated with their beliefs about their knowledge, skills, and abilities to function as a counselor and led many of the older participants who were out of work to consider professions outside of counseling. Counselors between the ages of 30 and 39 years old reported the highest rates of self-efficacy among all age groups (Lam et al., 2013). The high self-efficacy rates of this age group are important because many researchers reported self-efficacy levels determine career choice (Conklin et al., 2013; Connolly et al., 2018; Ponnock et al., 2018).

Age was also a significant predictor of counselor educators reported satisfaction as a faculty member (Neale, et al., 2018). Neale et al. (2018) found middle-aged counselor educators between the ages of 35 and 50 were the least satisfied with their faculty position compared to all other age groups. It is important to consider satisfaction levels because Jeong and Choi (2017) found satisfaction and perceived satisfaction were predictors of career choice. Neale et al. also found age was a predictor of counselor educator's satisfaction levels. These researchers found work to family enrichment, support from colleagues, and number of children under age six were significant

predictors of counselor educator's satisfaction with their faculty position (Neale et al., 2018).

Hartwig and Van Overschelde (2016) found that age was negatively associated with scores on the National Counselor Exam (NCE) and Counselor Preparation Comprehensive Examination (CPCE). This finding could be explained by the challenges older adults face when going back to school (Kara et al., 2019), and reiterates the need for mentorship experiences that mitigate the difficulties experienced by students by offering support and resources (Conklin et al., 2013), and could explain why some graduates do not enter into the field of counselor education. For instance, people chose a career they believe they will be successful in when performing tasks related to the job (Kaminsky & Behrend, 2015). Counselors-in-training may interpret low scores on the NCE and CPCE as areas they are deficient in which may lead them to feel insecure about teaching others in those areas.

Age of students is also a factor in graduation persistence (Hartwig & Van Overschelde, 2016). For instance, the American Council on Education (2015) found older adults reported having to care for others, experienced personal and family illnesses, had outside work obligations, experienced lack of time, inadequate technology competence, inadequate support services, and had difficulty financing their education. All of these issues were barriers for older adults obtaining optimal performance in a graduate program. Similarly, Hartwig and Van Overschelde (2016) also reported student academic performance on the Graduate Record Examination and university Grade Point Average positively predicted CPCE total and content domain scores. These researchers suggested

researchers investigate if there is a link between how intelligent a person believes they are and their scores on the NCE and CPCE and career choice (Hartwig & Van Overschelde).

Neale et al.'s (2018) finding also supported previous findings that mentoring needs of counselor educators vary by age (Boswell et al., 2015). Nate (2015) found female counselor educators aged between 40 and 50 reported a stronger alignment with many of the views associated with social advocacy than any other age group. Previous researchers found counselor educators who reported having the ability to engage in social advocacy also reported higher occupational satisfaction and having more resiliency traits than those who reported having little to no opportunities to engage in social change projects (Dollarhide et al., 2018).

Race

According to the National Center for Education Statistics of the total 1.5 million faculty teaching at postsecondary institutions in 2017, 41% identified as Caucasian males, 35% as Caucasian females, 6% as Asian or Pacific Islander males, 5% as Asian or Pacific Islander females, and 3% as Black males, Black females, Hispanic males, and Hispanic females. Only 1% of full-time faculty identified as American Indian or Alaska Native or having two or more races (NCES, 2017). Only 25.6% of the CES faculty reporting to CACREP in 2015 identified as ethnic minorities (Myers, 2016). According to the CACREP (2017), 74% of full-time faculty working in accredited counselor education programs in 2016 were Caucasian and 61% were female. Lam et al. (2013) found that Asian and Caucasian students generally reported lower counseling self-efficacy means in

all areas than other ethnic groups in the sample. This finding is important because many researchers found self-efficacy predicted career choice (Connolly et al., 2018; Conklin et al., 2013; Ponnock et al., 2018).

Nearly 71% of counselors identify as Caucasian, with the second most common race being Black (19.8%; NCES, 2017). Researchers found racial differences among counselors receiving mentorship also reporting higher levels of self-efficacy (Miller & Stone, 2011). For instance, Miller and Stone (2011) found Black males were inspired to enter the field of counselor education if they were exposed to a faculty member of color and that their mentor was often the person who initiated contact with a Black counselor educator. Males in this study reported tangible gains from being mentored (networking, giving lectures, and presenting at regional conferences) whereas females reported personal gains (increase self-confidence and working through personal conflicts). Black male mentees also have different needs of their mentors than Caucasian mentees with Black males requiring higher levels of trust from their mentoring relationship (Brown & Grothaus, 2019).

Hardie (2015) found Black males who held conservative gender role stereotypes and had high educational aspirations were less likely to enter the female-dominated counseling field. This finding is important because the majority of counselors and counselor educators are female and many people associate the counseling profession with stereotypical female traits (Barth et al., 2015). Black male counselor educators differed on their reasons for staying in the field of counselor education. For instance, Brooks and Steen (2010) found the most significant reason why Black males reported remaining

within the field of counselor education was due to their engagement in social advocacy projects. Therefore, race is a variable worth considering when analyzing mentorship and career choice.

Gender

Seventy-three percent of counselors are female, making them the more common gender in the occupation. Hardie (2015) found males were more likely to enter a female-dominated profession if they also reported having a lot of female friends, if their parents obtained a bachelor's degree, and if the profession was projected to have a high growth rate; Which the U.S. Census Bureau (2017) predicts a 20% increase in counseling jobs over the next 5-10 years.

According to Coaston and Cook, (2017) burnout encompasses feelings of exhaustion, cynicism, and professional inefficacy. These researchers found female counselor educators reported feeling exhausted which led to them feeling burnt out (N = 64), whereas males in this study scored higher on cynicism scales than females and reported thinking about leaving the counselor educator profession more often than females (Coaston & Cook, 2017). One possible explanation for this difference is that females reported higher levels of professional efficacy and used their mentors for personal concerns more often than males (Coaston & Cook, 2017). These findings are important and relate to the different ways males and females use their mentor; especially because many researchers found mentorship may lessen the mentees feelings of exhaustion by offering both personal and professional support (Boswell et al., 2015;

Hipolito-Delgado et al., 2017). Therefore, it is imperative to collect data on the gender differences between career choices and experiences with mentorship.

For instance, Zhang et al. (2019) and Protivnak and Foss (2009) found females sought mentoring relationships and incorporated psychosocial assistance from their mentors more often than males. It is also important to consider the gender of the mentee as well as mentor. For instance, CES doctoral participants in Boswell et al.'s (2015) study reported the gender of their mentor was the quality that superseded all other qualities when choosing a mentor (Boswell et al., 2015). Other researchers found post-graduate females were less interested in obtaining a research-focused academic position than men and explained these results by sharing Moss-Racusin et al. (2012) findings that mentors provided career guidance to post-graduates in different ways to males and females (McConnell et al., 2018).

Also, male pre-tenured faculty were two times more likely to have a mentor than female pre-tenured faculty (Blood et al., 2011). Blood et al. (2011) found 52% of female pre-tenured faculty identified their mentor had not provided them with adequate mentorship in developing and achieving career goals and negotiation skills. These researchers also highlighted female mentees wanted more direction from their mentor on how to balance work-life issues (Blood et al., 2011).

Hartwig and Van Overschelde (2016) found men scored reliably lower on the professional orientation portions of the NCE and CPCE. This finding is important because previous researchers found female students scored higher than male students after four years in a professional program on a measure of moral motivation (You et al.,

2011). You et al. (2011) suggested that women may develop a stronger sense of professional accountability toward their clients, peers, and society during their professional education course.

In turn, professional accountability influenced the career decisions of students serving in health systems (Reeve et al., 2017). Many of the students in Reeve et al.'s (2017) study reported they had a desire to serve the underserved if their program stressed the importance of working in disadvantaged communities. These findings relate to my study because all counselor educators attending a CACREP accredited doctoral program come from counseling programs (Hinkle et al., 2017). Therefore, many counselors, especially female counselors, may not choose to become a counselor educator because they were sent the message to serve the underserved and believe counselor educators serve privileged students.

Near Graduation

Hinkle et al. (2017) found a discrepancy between CES doctoral students' motivation for entering a CES program and their intended career. These researchers urged researchers to explore the reasons for this discrepancy in more detail (Hinkle et al., 2017). Therefore, my study could fill the gap mentioned by Hinkle et al. (2017) by asking questions pertaining to desired career choice when entering and graduating from a CACREP accredited CES program. Many researchers found that the self-efficacy levels of CES students increased as they progressed in their doctoral program (Dollarhide et al., 2013; Kuo et al., 2017; Lambie & Vaccaro, 2010).

In his theories, Bandura (1997) posited that mentors positively influenced the mentee's self-efficacy levels. People were more likely to enter a field if they reported high self-efficacy levels associated with job tasks related to that field (Bandura, 1997; Strapp et al., 2018). Lastly, it is important to consider the CES student's year in their program because the more time a student is enrolled in a program the higher the probability that they have received mentorship.

Related Studies

Few researchers have reported on the effects of the mentoring relationships within the counseling profession (Briggs & Pehrsson, 2008; Hinkle et al., 2017; Woo et al., 2017). Even fewer researchers have conducted studies on mentorship within the field of CES (Briggs & Pehrsson, 2008; Prouty et al., 2016). In fact, many researchers identified the lack of knowing how mentorship influences doctoral students, especially CES students, as a detriment to the field (Briggs & Pehrsson, 2008; Hinkle et al., 2017) and the reason many researchers needed to both create assessments for capturing the specific needs of CES students (Briggs & Pehrsson, 2008) and get creative in assessing career choices associated with the CES degree (Hinkle et al., 2017). In the section below, I critique the few studies researchers conducted on CES students, discuss how these studies informed my design, as well as state how I will overcome at least one of the limitations outlined by the researchers in my study.

After conducting a pilot test, Hinkle et al. (2017) assessed 25 female and 10 male participants' motivation to pursue a CES doctoral degree using Q-methodology. In the sample, 25 identified as Caucasian, five African American, three Latino, one American

Indian, and one Italian. Participants identified their professional roles as counselor educator (n = 14), counselor educator or clinician (n = 9), student (n = 8), student clinician (n = 3), and clinician (n = 1). Hinkle et al. asked: (a) "When in your life did you decide to pursue a doctorate in CES, why did you choose a doctorate in this area; (b) What do you believe were the most influential experiences that led you to this decision; How did this motivate you; (c) What were the main things you hoped to get from your doctoral studies; (d) What does having a doctorate in CES mean to you; (e) Is there anything else that you wish for us to know about your decision to pursue doctoral work in CES" (pg. 6).

Participants sorted the 43 statements on a semi-normal distribution ranging from "4" (Most like my motivations for pursuing a doctorate in CES) to "-4" (Most unlike my motivations for pursuing a doctorate in CES). The most commonly mentioned motivation for entering a CES program was to attain professional goals. Limitations to this study included a non-diverse sample that predominantly consisted of doctoral students who had to retroactively rely on their original motivation for entering the CES program (Hinkle et al., 2017). Not only are Hinkle et al.'s (2017) findings pertinent to my study, but it was suggested that researchers should focus future studies on how faculty mentors influence students' motivation to enter a specific career after graduation or how counselor educators influence the motivations of counselors-in-training to enter a CES program. Therefore, I addressed Hinkle et al.'s (2017) suggestion for future research by investigating how mentorship predicts career choice.

Similarly, Woo et al. (2017) investigated the career intentions of CES students. The 97 female and 35 male CES students filled out the brief survey with demographic questions and career intention questions as well as completed the Vocational Outcome Expectations-Revised (VOE-R; Metheny et al., 2008). Their sample included six participants who identified as Asian or Pacific Islander, eight who identified as Asian American, 24 as Black, nine as Hispanic, 79 as Caucasian, and six identified as others. There were twenty-four first-year students, 28 second-year students, 41 third-year students, 20 fourth-year students, 13 fifth-year students, four sixth-year students, and two students who identified as "other" who participated in their study.

Male participants chose geographic location, salary, and collegial relationship as the most important variables, whereas female participants selected geographic location, family need, and work conditions as the most critical variables in making a career choice. While 80% of participants reported their career intention was to become a counselor educator, these researchers demonstrated how their findings are drastically inconsistent with previous findings and urged researchers to further explore career intention of CES students upon entering and graduating from CES programs.

In particular, these researchers suggested CES students may not fully understand faculty roles, might get deterred to enter the field of academia after completing their dissertation because they overestimated research requirements, or that they felt as if they do not meet the counseling program's hiring requirements (Woo et al., 2017). Woo et al.'s (2017) study highlighted the importance of career choice upon entering a CES program, what field the CES student intended to enter upon graduation, as well as

highlighted the importance of including recent graduates in future studies to see if there was a difference between career intention and the field the graduate entered into post-graduation. All of these aspects were embedded within my study.

Woo et al. (2017) identified that students may not fully understand faculty roles. Often when people do not fully understand a concept, they rely on previous schemas (Corey, 2019). Austin et al. (2010) and Reed et al. (2001) found a strong correlation between dysfunctional career thoughts and career indecisiveness. Career indecisiveness is often caused by a lack of information about a career and is a critical factor to address in this study because researchers have linked career indecisiveness to poor emotional intelligence, fear to take on new job related tasks, low job satisfaction, overall low self-efficacy levels, perceived employability, and identified it as a predictor of career success, career risk-taking, and career adaptability (Coetzee & Harry, 2014; De Haro García & Castejón Costa, 2014; Di Fabio & Kenny, 2015; Harry, 2017; Sidiropoulou-Dimakakouet al., 2012). Many researchers found that mentors addressed dysfunctional career thoughts (Carpenter et al., 2015; Hinkle et al., 2017; Wilde et al., 2015) which provided a basis for my present investigation into the predictive value of mentorship on career choice. My hypothesis was that mentors can discredit students' dysfunctional career thoughts and assist CES students in their decision to enter academic roles.

Another factor highly relevant to this study was dysfunctional career thoughts. Dysfunctional beliefs about a career negatively influence a person's ability to make a career decision (Sidiropoulou-Dimakakou et al., 2012). Sidiropoulou-Dimakakou et al. (2012) found self-efficacy moderated the relationship between dysfunctional career

thoughts and career indecisiveness (Sidiropoulou-Dimakakou et al., 2012). For instance, Sidiropoulou-Dimakakou et al. (2012) found that people who exhibited high levels of self-confidence and determination also reported few to no difficulties when making a career decision.

These researchers also found that students who had some form of career experience in their intended career field reported feeling that they had sufficient information to make a career decision, were self-aware, understood the career decision making process, and knew ways of obtaining additional information about careers (Sidiropoulou-Dimakakou et al., 2012). All of the characteristics of successful students in Sidiropoulou-Dimakakou et al.'s (2012) study were attributes positively associated with having a mentor (Black et al., 2004; Boswell et al., 2015). I chose the MiCTS as my instrument because this scale captured both the actual and ideal characteristics of the mentoring relationship, and also captured aspects of self-efficacy, and career guidance given to the student via their mentor.

Summary and Conclusions

In this section I identified the demographic differences that exist among how CES students and counselors-in-training make career decisions, how faculty influence counselors-in-training and CES students' perceptions of academic careers and summarized the many positive gains from receiving mentorship. I made the connection between self-efficacy, career decision making, and mentorship while highlighting demographic variables and attended to Bandura's SCCT, Gottfredson's theory of career circumscription, as well as Kram's theory on mentorship. I also discussed the need for

CES graduates from CACREP accredited programs to fill open faculty positions, the lack of diversity among CES graduates, as well as why creating a diverse student body and faculty is critical for the profession and society at large.

However, what is not known is if the perceived quality of the mentoring relationship specifically predicts a CES student's career choice or a career choice change as well as if CES students from specific age, gender, and racial backgrounds value different ideal qualities in a mentoring relationship. In fact, Woo et al. (2017) identified the lack of knowledge surrounding CES students career decision making as a major concern for researchers interested in addressing the lack of counselor educators. These researchers questioned if CES students know about the 25% of counselor educators due to retire within the next ten years or if they fully understood the benefits of holding a counselor educator position (Woo et al., 2017). Many researchers posited that faculty mentoring relationships are the key to understanding these unanswered questions about CES students' knowledge of the counseling profession (Bodenhorn et al., 2014; Farmer et al., 2017; Hinkle et al., 2017; Isaacs & Sabella, 2013; Woo et al. 2017).

What is also unknown is how CES students perceive faculty tasks and roles (Michel et al., 2013; Milsom & Moran, 2015) and what the misalignment is between the tasks faculty actually engage in and what CES students believe they engage in. We only know a discrepancy exists because many researchers found explaining faculty roles to their CES student mentee and newly appointed faculty mentees as the task they spent the most amount of time on (Carpenter et al., 2015; Hinkle et al., 2017; Wilde et al., 2015). Researchers have made many assumptions about why CES students may not want to

enter the world of academia such as low researcher self-efficacy, lack of competence in gatekeeping strategies, and salary, but none of these assumptions have been fully explored and few were quantitatively evaluated. While I did not investigate perceptions of faculty roles, I did collect data on attributes of ideal mentors that address faculty roles.

This study provided insight into whether the perceived quality of the mentoring relationship can predict the career decisions or career choice changes of CES students. This study also provided the demographic attributes of the participants being mentored and attributes of those who entered into faculty positions. I used the MiCTS which produced results that allow for quantitative exploration into the various aspects of the mentoring relationship as predictors of career choice after graduation. I chose the MiCTS because this assessment captured many of the predictor variables outlined by Bandura, Gottfredson, and Kram.

I also took demographic variables into consideration because there is a severe lack of diversity among counselor educators and demographic information may help counselor educators customize mentoring relationships across gender, age, and race. However, I did not provide depth into the perceptions CES students have about faculty positions, specific ways in which their mentor influenced their career decisions, nor did this study capture students who did not persist to graduation. After an exhaustive literature review, I could not find any research that explored factors related to CES career choices and the role of quality mentorship. Therefore, I filled a gap in the research by examining factors related to CES student demographics and their experiences with mentorship as predictors of their career choices.

Chapter 3: Research Method

My purpose for this quantitative study was to explore the perceived quality of participants' mentoring relationships as measured by the MiCTS and whether that score then predicted the participant's career choices or a change in career choice. I also investigated whether students' demographic variables of race, age, or gender influenced the perceived quality of the mentoring relationship. Finally, I described qualities identified as essential qualities of an ideal mentor across the participant's age, gender, and race.

I used binomial logistic regression (BLR) to assess whether the perceived quality of the mentoring relationship experienced by CES students predicted their career choice (i.e., faculty vs. non-faculty) as well as if the perceived quality of the mentoring relationship predicted a participant's career choice change (i.e., yes or no). I also used a series of three separate ANOVAs to assess if CES students' demographics of race, age, or gender influenced their perceived quality of the mentoring relationship. I ran each of these analyses independent of the other. Lastly, I used descriptive statistics to describe what the qualities of ideal mentors were across participants' age, gender, and race. In Chapter 3, I provide more detailed information about the methodology of this study. I describe the design, the population, and sampling procedures. I also provide in-depth information on the instrument (MiCTS), the ways I will analyze the data, potential threats to the validity of this study, and possible ethical issues. Data from this study might contribute to the limited research on CES student career decision making.

Research Design and Rationale

In this correlational research design using survey research, I used an online survey to collect my data. I then used binomial logistic regression to determine if CES students' perceived quality of the mentoring relationship (IV) predicted career choice (DV; RQ1) or a career choice change (DV; RQ3). I used a series of three ANOVAs to analyze the independent relationships between a CES student's age (IV) and their perceived quality of the mentoring relationship, race (IV) and their perceived quality of the mentoring relationship, and gender (IV) and their perceived quality of the mentoring relationship (DV; RQ2). Lastly, for RQ4, I used descriptive statistics to describe what qualities CES students assigned as essential qualities of ideal mentors (DV) across participants' age (IV), gender (IV), and race (IV).

I chose to quantitatively assess these variables because an overwhelming number of qualitative researchers concluded there was a saturation in the qualitative data (Briggs & Pehrsson, 2008; Hinkle et al., 2017; Woo et al., 2017). These qualitative researchers recommended future researchers focus on quantitatively assessing CES student mentoring and career choice and suggested these quantitative researchers use variables they identified in their qualitative studies (Briggs & Pehrsson, 2008; Hinkle et al., 2017; Woo et al., 2017). I used a survey to quantitatively assess CES student demographics (See Appendix A), perceived quality of the mentoring relationship, ideal qualities in a mentor, and career choice because surveys help researchers obtain the large sample size required for quantitative analysis (Frankfort-Nachmias et al., 2015).

Researchers use binomial logistic regression when trying to predict the probability that a participant falls into a specific group (Sheperis et al., 2010). In particular, researchers use binomial logistic regression when they are trying to identify a factor among the independent variables that can predict the odds of a person belonging to a particular dichotomous group (the DV; Sheperis et al., 2010). This was an appropriate design for my RQ1 (i.e., Does the perceived quality of the mentoring relationship, as indicated by the scores on the MiCTS, that capture actual experiences with mentorship, predict career choice of CES students upon graduation) and RQ3 (Does perceived quality of the mentoring relationship (IV), as measured by the scores on the MiCTS that capture actual experiences with mentorship, predict CES students' career change (DV) as measured by the career change question on the demographic questionnaire), because the purpose of this study was to evaluate whether the perceived quality of the mentoring relationship (IV; continuous variable) predicted CES student career choice (dichotomous: faculty vs. non-faculty) or a career choice change (dichotomous: yes vs. no).

Therefore, I used binomial logistic regression to analyze if the perceived quality of the mentoring relationship (IV), as indicated by the scores on the MiCTS (continuous variable) that captured actual experiences with mentorship, predicted career choice (DV) as indicated by faculty or non-faculty (dichotomous) responses (RQ1). I also used binomial logistic regression to analyze if the perceived quality of the mentoring relationship (IV) as measured by the MiCTS scores that captured actual experiences with mentorship predicted a CES students' career change (DV) as measured by the career

change question on the demographic questionnaire (RQ3). I used the sum of the total scores on a participant's MiCTS scores for their actual experiences with a mentor.

The actual scores on the MiCTS are continuous and numerical. I used these scores to assess whether they predicted a participant's career choice (RQ1) or a career choice change (RQ3). For RQ1, I captured career choice by using the question I added to the demographic questionnaire (What is the primary position you want or wanted to obtain upon graduating the CES doctoral program?). The career choice questions were categorical in nature (i.e., full-time faculty, adjunct, clinical leader, clinical counselor, supervisor, researcher). However, I divided the categorical career choices into faculty (i.e., full-time faculty and adjunct) versus non-faculty positions (i.e., clinical leader or administrator, clinical or counselor, supervisor for licensure, researcher, post-doctoral opportunities, advocacy, or other). For RQ3, I captured career choice change by asking participants if their career goals changed over the course of being enrolled as a CES student. I provided participants with the dichotomous choice of yes or no. Therefore, I met the assumptions of a binomial logistic regression because I had a continuous numerical IV (scores on the MiCTS) predicting dichotomous group membership (faculty vs. non-faculty; RQ1) or career choice change (yes or no; RQ3).

I used a series of one-way ANOVAs for RQ2 (i.e., Does race influence CES students' perceived quality of the mentoring relationship, does age influence CES students' perceived quality of the mentoring relationship, and does gender influence CES students' perceived quality of the mentoring relationship) to assess if mentorship varied across race (IV), age (IV) or gender (IV). Using a one-way ANOVA allowed me to

analyze the relationships between each of the categories found within many of the variables accounted for in my study. For example, I looked at the demographic variables as they related to the perceived quality of the mentoring relationship and I looked at the demographic variables as they related to career choice. Essentially, employing this model allowed me to see if the perceived quality of the mentoring relationship varied across race, ethnicity, or gender.

I used descriptive statistics for RQ4 (i.e., Does age influence qualities CES students assign as essential of ideal mentors, does gender influence qualities CES students assign as essential of ideal mentors, or does race influence qualities CES students assign as essential of ideal mentors). I first divided participants into age, gender, or racial category. Then I reported which of the 26 attributes participants from that racial category rated as being the most essential using frequency tables. I also reported overall findings of essential qualities of ideal mentors.

I captured the independent variables of gender, age, and race for research questions two and four through questions on the demographic questionnaire. I used the MiCTS to capture the independent variable of the perceived quality of the mentoring relationship for research questions one and three. I also used the MiCTS to capture ideal mentor qualities (DV) for question four. The MiCTS captures 26 qualities of the mentoring relationship. Participants ranked both their actual experiences with a mentor and qualities they attributed to an ideal mentor using a 3-point Likert scale with three categorical choices for their actual mentorship experiences (i.e., rarely, sometimes, and almost always) and three categorical choices for what they see as qualities of their ideal

mentoring relationship (i.e., irrelevant, sometimes important, and essential). Therefore, participants produced 52 coded responses on the MiCTS (26 actual and 26 ideal aspects of mentorship). I captured the dichotomous dependent variable for RQ3 regarding CES students' career choice through a question on the demographic questionnaire (i.e., faculty or non-faculty).

Researchers use a cross-sectional design when gathering data at one point in time (Sheperis et al., 2010). Using a cross-sectional survey design allowed me to complete my dissertation within an appropriate timeframe, allowed for comparison of multiple variables at a specific point in time, and helped establish a baseline. This method was also cost effective.

Time and Resource Constraints

I conducted this study within a 12-month period using SPSS 24.0 for data analysis and REDCap for data collection. I used the REDCap data management service because REDCap is the web application my employer requires faculty to use when collecting, analyzing, and storing data. I chose REDCap over Qualtrics because I am very familiar with Qualtrics and wanted to increase my knowledge base and familiarize myself with the resource used at my work institution so that I would be less reluctant to engage in future research at my institution. REDCap is Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act (HIPPA) compliant, free, and fairly easy to navigate (Harris et al., 2019).

The MiCTS is a pre-existing instrument that previous researchers found reliable ($r = .77$) and valid ($p < .001$). Constructs on the MiCTS align with my conceptual

framework and my operationalization of constructs. Researchers using online surveys can reach participants located in various regions of the U.S., obtain a large sample size, and save money and time by not having to input data (Evans & Mathur, 2005). The researchers did not charge me for using the MiCTS which eliminated financial costs. I used public venues (i.e., Cesnet, Linkedin, Facebook, my university's participant database, state licensing email distribution lists, state counseling email distribution lists, contacting CES programs) to access my sample. These strategies also mitigated financial, geographical, and time constraints; allowed me to collect data within a short time frame, maintain anonymity, and increased the chances of me obtaining participants who went into one of the many CES career options. Respondents may not have felt the pressure of participating or answering in a specific way because the survey was not associated with their institution.

Advance Knowledge in the Field

Many of the researchers who conducted studies on CES student career choices or mentoring experiences used a qualitative research design (Bradley & Holcomb-McCoy, 2004; Dollarhide et al., 2013; Gadbois & Graham, 2012; Groccia et al., 2018; Hinkle et al., 2014; Lara et al., 2011) and concluded that the qualitative data on mentorship is becoming saturated (Briggs & Pehrsson, 2004; Nolte et al., 2015; Stark et al., 2019). To date, no researcher has quantitatively assessed the relationship between CES students' quality of experienced mentorship (i.e., the perceived quality of the mentoring relationship), demographics, and career choice. This quantitative study met the rigor that Borders et al. (2012) urged counseling professionals to use when conducting research

within the counseling profession because I used a quantitative survey research design, the MiCTS is a valid and reliable instrument, and my analysis of the variables was supervised by various professionals. Also, I used an online survey which allowed me to capture a large sample size of respondents from around the U.S.

Methodology

I used a binomial logistic regression when analyzing the data for research questions one and three and an ANOVA for data related to question two. I reported descriptive statistics and the bivariate correlations between the independent variable (demographics) and ideal mentor qualities using frequency tables for RQ4. In addition, I reported descriptive statistics and the bivariate correlations between each independent variable (demographics; the perceived quality of the mentoring relationship) and the dependent variables (career choice, essential qualities of an ideal mentor, career choice change, and the perceived quality of the mentoring relationship). I also provided an assessment of the model's assumptions, and statistical significance for each pairing. I also performed the appropriate correlations between the independent variables of race, age, and gender with the dependent variables of career choice, career choice change, and the perceived quality of the mentoring relationship. I also tested first level moderation effects such as those between race* perceived quality of the mentoring relationship, age* perceived quality of the mentoring relationship, and gender * perceived quality of the mentoring relationship.

Population

My intended targeted population for this study were CES students who were one year or less from graduating from a CACREP accredited program and those who have already graduated from a CACREP accredited CES program within the past 10 years (since 2010). I chose to extend the invitation to participate to CES students who are about to graduate and those who have graduated within the past 10 years to increase the likelihood of reaching my sample size. I limited my sample to those who have graduated within the past 10 years (after 2010) to decrease recall bias and because the majority of my study was based on research published within the past ten years. The number of CES programs increased by 45% about 10 years ago (Maple et al., 1993; Pace, 2016), and as of the 2016 CACREP regulations, faculty must hold a PhD in CES, or a full-time faculty position, prior to 2013 in order to teach in a CES CACREP accredited program. Therefore, I likely captured most of the graduates from a CACREP accredited CES program that met either the 2009 or 2016 CACREP standards. Collecting data on intended career choice upon entering and career choice upon graduating helped me identify changes in career choice due to mentorship over time (i.e., from enrollment to graduation).

I limited my population to students about to graduate (prior to May 2021) because many researchers have found that career choices of CES students changed throughout the course of a student's doctoral program (Hinkle et al., 2017; Lambie & Vacarro, 2011; Whiston et al., 2017), that self-efficacy levels increased over the duration of a doctoral program which also influenced career choice (Dollarhide et al., 2013; Gadbois &

Graham, 2012; Magnuson et al., 2003; Milsom & Moran, 2015; Whiston et al., 2017), and the full effects of the mentoring relationship emerged as students got closer to graduation because they had engaged in the mentoring relationship for a longer period of time (Boswell et al., 2015; Burgess, 2007; Eaton et al., 2015). Lastly, other researchers found internships, which take place at the end of a CES student's doctoral program, highly influenced the CES students' career choice (Hill et al., 2011; Lambie & Vaccaro, 2011; Lockard et al., 2014). Therefore, I excluded students who were not one-year from graduating because they had not engaged in mentorship nor field experiences.

According to CACREP's 2019 annual report, there were 2,917 students enrolled in CACREP accredited CES programs and approximately 479 students graduated from CES programs in 2018 (CACREP, 2019). Enrollment numbers dipped from 2,668 in 2016 to 2,561 students enrolled in 2017 with 428 students graduating in 2016 and 379 students graduating in 2017. Therefore, CACREP graduated 1,286 CES students over the last three years which means approximately 428 students graduate each year. The CACREP did not publish graduation data for years prior to 2015. Therefore, researchers cannot calculate the total population size.

Sampling and Sampling Procedures

I used a nonprobability convenience sample for this study. Probability sampling was not feasible for this study because I did not have access to, nor could I have controlled for, who participated in my study. Respondents self-selected to participate in this study by filling out a survey created in REDCap. I invited participants who were

about to graduate (within one year) or had already graduated from a CACREP accredited CES program within the past 10 years.

Participants clicked on a link in which the first page that came up identified the qualifiers for the survey (i.e., about to graduate prior to May 2021 or have graduated within the past 10 years from a CACREP accredited program and have or had a mentor). Other inclusion factors were enrollment in or graduated from a CACREP accredited CES program fluency in reading English, and legally eligible to give consent. Participants who did not meet the criteria were not able to complete the survey and were re-routed to a page that thanked them for their interest but informed them that they did not qualify to participate in this study.

I chose to only include graduates of CACREP accredited programs because few researchers have reported on non-CACREP accredited CES programs. While PsyD programs also face a similar problem with a lack of diversity among their faculty, there are too many differences between CES and PsyD program course requirements, career intentions, requirements to teach in either program. In addition, the majority of PsyD graduates do not go into, nor was the degree created with the focus of, having students enter into faculty positions (Karazsia & Smith, 2016).

On the contrary, the primary reason administrators created the CES degree was to produce counselor educators who were fit to teach in master's and doctoral counseling programs. The CACREP also requires faculty who teach in CACREP accredited programs to have graduated from a CACREP accredited PhD program unless the faculty member held a full-time faculty appointment for at least a year prior to 2013 (Karazsia &

Smith, 2016). Despite the growing number of CES students, there is a national shortage of CES faculty (Hinkle et al., 2017). Therefore, limiting my sample to participants from CACREP programs helped me fulfill my goal for this research study which was to provide information as to why many CES graduates were not entering into faculty positions.

I used G*Power to determine the appropriate sample size for the ANOVA. G*Power is a power analysis program that researchers use to conduct a broad range of statistical tests (Faul et al., 2009). I used a medium effect size of 0.25, a power level of .80, and an alpha level of 0.05 which are the standard requirements used among researchers in the helping professions (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2000). I found I needed 216 participants to conduct an ANOVA.

An alpha level of 0.05 allowed me to test for Type 1 error with a 95% confidence level that I would not reject the null hypothesis when the null is false (Baguley, 2004). A power level of .80 allowed me to state that I am 80% sure my findings obtained a statistically significant effect; meaning, these same results would be found 8 out of 10 times if the study was repeatedly conducted. Using a .80 power level is the norm among the social sciences where there is not a high cost of reporting a false significance (Baguley, 2004).

Bujang et al. (2018) and van Smeden et al. (2018) supported the use of the minimum Events Per Variable (EPV) method for calculating a sample size for a binomial logistic regression. These researchers stated the minimum EPV criterion is 50 which produces better results. Therefore, the calculation for my study was n-100 + 50i, with “i”

being the number of independent variables, which in my case was one for RQ1 (i.e., perceived quality of the mentoring relationship) and one for RQ3 (i.e., perceived quality of the mentoring relationship) which asks if there was a career choice change. This means the estimated sample size could have been 150. However, these researchers stated the sample must be split between groups. If the two groups are relatively equal in size, this calculation should suffice. However, I would have needed a larger sample size if the two groups are unequal. I would have had to stop accepting participants in the over-represented group and just collect data for the under-represented group. Either way, I went with the sample size calculation for the one-way ANOVA which was 216 because the estimated sample size for the binomial logistic regression was only 150 which is smaller than 216.

Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection

I drew a convenience sample by advertising my study on multiple ACA and CES-related listservs such as CESNET, my university's participant database, Facebook, state licensing boards, Chi Sigma Iota, regional and state specific ACES groups, as well as use the CACREP's database which offers contact information for CACREP accredited programs. I also used snowball recruitment by asking my CES peers to take and forward the survey link to fellow CES students at other universities. In hopes of obtaining a diverse sample, I sent emails to CES program administrators and CACREP liaisons from various geographical areas and of Minority Serving Institutions, Historically Black Colleges and universities, Hispanic-serving institutions, Asian American and Native American Pacific Islander-serving institutions, Tribal Colleges and Universities, and

Alaska Native-Serving and Native Hawaiian Serving institutions and asked them to distribute information publicizing my study to current students and alumni. I asked program liaisons to direct participants who had questions to the appropriate personnel at my institution when they forwarded my email because Ridley (2009) found students felt coerced when their faculty forwarded them a study they were conducting. I called and followed up with program liaisons to make sure they received my email and answered any questions.

The other ways I attempted to create a diverse sample was to reach out to groups whose organizations emphasize diversity, inclusion, and service counselors of color (national, state, and local groups), the Association for Counselor Education and Supervision (ACES), the Counselors for Social Justice (CSJ), Association for Multicultural Counseling Development (AMCD), Association for Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender Issues in Counseling (ALGBTIC), Military and Government Counseling Association (MGCA), and other relevant divisions of the ACA. I chose these groups so that my participant pool could encompass counselors who had CES degrees but did not necessarily pursue faculty positions. These online avenues encompassed a wide geographic area which may have increased the generalizability of the findings and were cost-effective and time-efficient (Diaz de Rada., 2015; Fowler, 2014).

I reached out to state licensing boards in the 50 United States and asked them to forward the survey to licensed clinicians because licensure is a common requirement for both faculty and clinical positions and students graduating from CES programs could have their license. I also reached out to Chi-Sigma Iota representatives and CES student

groups at various institutions including alumni groups for CES members. I maintained an Excel spreadsheet of the organizations to which I sent an email as well as followed up with reminder emails about every 2-3 weeks until I met my sample size.

It was my intent to offer all participants a $10 amazon gift card as a token of their time. I clearly stated in the original informed consent that participants will receive information on how to claim the token gift card after successfully submitting the survey. As per my university's policy, all participants earned a $10 gift card for donating their time to fill out the survey. However, I had to file a change of procedure with my institution's IRB due to a data breech. I will discuss this in more detail in chapter four.

As per the suggestion from my university's institutional review board, I placed the compensation for participating in the subject line of my email to participants and constituents (personal communication with IRB, May 13th, 2020). It was not possible in REDCap to create an anonymous survey while still gathering information for incentives (such as collecting email addressing for compensation). Instead, REDCap suggested researchers create two surveys. The first survey was done anonymously while the second survey collected information required for compensation. The first survey routed straight to the second survey. However, the two surveys could not be linked, which kept the first survey's data anonymous. Following REDCap's guidelines ensured confidentiality. REDCap only released the email addresses for the gift card survey. I did not foresee graduates of doctoral programs violating research ethics and creating new email addresses to earn an additional ten dollars. However, I experienced a data breach and had

to file a change of procedure and remove the incentive. Therefore, only a certain number of participants earned a gift card. I will discuss this in more detail in chapter four.

Screening Questions

Upon clicking the link, participants were taken to the first page of the survey which had two screening questions, which were my inclusion questions. The first screening question was: Did you graduate after 2010 or are about to graduate (i.e., will graduate before May 2021) from a CES doctoral program that is CACREP accredited? The next screening question was: For the purpose of this study, a mentor is defined as a person who is more experienced than you and who engaged in a relationship with you for the purpose of helping and developing your career (adapted from Kram, 1985). Keeping the following definition of mentor in mind, did you have a mentor while attending your CES program? Participants were then prompted with a dichotomous choice of: Yes or No. Participants who responded "no" to both or either of these inclusion questions received a message stating "Thank you for your offer to participate, but you do not meet the qualifications to participate in this survey."

Informed Consent

I built the informed consent process into the REDCap survey. Qualifying participants read through the informed consent and clicked a box to indicate they were willing to participate in the study. After clicking yes to participating, participants were taken to the second page of the survey where I presented the information on the study and informed consent. I clearly informed participants that they could withdraw from the survey at any point because participation is voluntary. The informed consent included

information on the purpose of this study, the compensation for participating, identified the researchers involved, provided the contact information for the individuals who can answer participant questions about the research, explained the potential benefits and risks of engaging in this study, the procedures for ensuring confidentiality, and the ways for the participant to find out information on their rights as participants (See Appendix A). I also included information about free or reduced cost counseling. Participants could not access the survey until they provide electronic indication of consent.

Survey Questions

After giving consent, participants were taken to the demographic questionnaire. Demographic questions included assessing the participant's age in years (continuous, numerical), gender (categorical variable), and race (categorical variable). As suggested by the NIH, I captured a participant's race by asking how they would describe themselves and offered six categories: American Indian or Alaska Native, Asian, Black or African American, Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander, Caucasian, or Hispanic, Latino, or of Spanish origin, or, they could have filled in their race (Bauer et al., 2017)

I included additional questions related to mentorship and career choice to the demographic questionnaire. Participants were asked to identify both the primary and secondary career choices they had upon entering their CES program, primary and secondary career choices they want to enter upon graduation; and, for those who had graduated, to choose their primary and secondary (if appropriate) career choices they entered upon graduating from a CES program. Each of the career choice questions offered various career options that researchers have postulated that CES students enter

upon graduation as well as what university admissions websites have stated are common among CES graduates (Bray, 2014; Hinkle et al., 2017). Participants could have also written in a response under the "Other" prompt. Participants could have chosen multiple secondary career choices but only one primary career choice. Participants could have also chosen an option that allowed them to indicate that they do not have a secondary career choice.

I created a few questions which captured aspects of the mentoring relationship not captured by the MiCTS. These questions asked the participant to identify their perceived race of the mentor (categorical), gender of their mentor (categorical), which professional area is their mentor affiliated with (categorical), the primary occupation of their mentor (categorical), if their mentor's career is the occupation the participant desired when entering the CES program (i.e., yes or no), and if their mentor's career is the same occupation the participant obtained when graduating (i.e., yes or no). I also added an open-ended question that read: "For those of you who did not enter academia, please describe why you chose not to enter a faculty position." While the open-ended question (i.e., why did you choose to not enter into a faculty position) made me vulnerable to processing error, this question likely helped me collect data that captured extraneous variables affecting why a person does not enter into a faculty position as well as provided data for future researchers. All of the questions that I added to the demographic questionnaire were supported via the research literature (Boswell et al., 2019; Briggs & Pehrsson, 2008; Hinkle et al., 2017; Prouty et al., 2015; Quinlan et al., 2019; Trolia,

20190). I added these questions to the demographic questionnaire but did not alter the MiCTS in any way.

Data Collection

I collected my data using REDCap. REDCap is a data collection tool that is HIPAfrican American compliant and allows the researcher to create a sharable link (Harris et al., 2019). The creator of the survey is the sole proprietor of the data collected (Harris et al., 2019). REDCap is designed with built-in features to address confidentiality and compliance requirements, participants did not have to log-in to complete the survey, and all data was encrypted (Harris et al., 2019). I will keep the data for five-years and then delete all data as is required by my university.

Exiting the Survey

Upon completion, participants were directed to a page informing them that they completed all parts of the study which also thanked them for their time. There was no need for follow-up procedures or debriefing because there was minimal risk with filling out this survey and I did not need to collect any follow up data. I once again provided the participant with information on how to contact my university if they identified an issue with this study. Participants were provided with my e-mail address and I stated in the informed consent that if contacted by participants, I would send out a one-page summary of the study results.

Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs

In this section, I discuss the MiCTS scale, how I received permission to use this scale, and the statistical concepts related to the MiCTS. I also discuss my demographic

variables and rationale for the way I worded questions. Lastly, I provide the career choice questions and rationale for how I created these constructs.

The MiCTS

I received permission to use the MiCTS via email communication with the authors. Prouty et al. (2016) created the MiCTS to measure the four most common types of mentorship: psychosocial, career, clinical, and research. Constructs found within the MiCTS cover the clinical, career, and psychosocial realm of mentoring including research mentorship, the mentor providing support to the mentee in finding a job after graduation, encouraging professional networking, offering guidance on how to survive professionally, and providing professional opportunities. These researchers designed this instrument to measure student and faculty mentorship outcomes in training programs similar to those found in CES programs.

The scales within the MiCTS capture components of the theoretical orientations I used when laying the foundation of this study. For instance, the MiCTS scale has questions regarding how the mentoring relationship helped the mentee bridge the personal and professional challenges of work which align with Kram's (1983) postulation that quality mentorship attends to both personal and professional aspects of the mentee's world. The MiCTS also has questions regarding self-efficacy, role modeling, and social learning which derived from Bandura and his social cognitive career theory (Bandura, 1997). Lastly, the MiCTS asks participants to identify how and if their mentor helped them explore career opportunities which Gottfredson covered in her theory of circumscription.

Prouty et al. (2016) also based their questions on previous findings that were valid and reliable. These researchers also stated they tried to provide insight into the inconsistencies found within the literature. For instance, Prouty et al. cited previous studies that affirmed the importance of investigating the number of hours a week a mentee received mentorship, the genders of both mentee and mentors, whether or not the mentor was formally assigned, whether gender matching was used, and what the race of the mentee and mentor was (Cohen & Gutek, 1991; Edwards et al., 2014; McGuire, 1999; Prouty et al. 2017; Ragins & Scandura, 1999).

Participants filling out the MiCTS score both their actual experiences with mentorship and their ideal mentorship experiences. Researchers can view the MiCTS as two separate instruments: one that uses 26 statements to capture the actual or lived experiences of participants and one that uses these same 26 statements to capture what participants deems as their ideal mentorship experiences. Prouty et al. (2017) used 26 statements that have a 3-point Likert scale (rarely, sometimes, or almost always; irrelevant, sometimes important, or essential) to measure both the actual experiences with mentorship and the ideal mentorship experiences. Scores on the MiCTS are calculated by tallying up raw scores from the 3-point Likert scales associated with each of the 26 statements (52 total statements). Scores on both the actual mentorship experience scale and the ideal mentor experiences scale range from 26 to 78. A score of 26 on the actual mentorship scale would mean that their mentor rarely did the statement. A score of 26 on the ideal mentorship scale would mean that the statement was irrelevant for their ideal mentor (Prouty et al., 2016). Whereas a score of 78 means the opposite.

The MiCTS produces individual scores from either the ideal and actual scales as well as a combined score (actual and ideal) to create a total MiCTS score (Prouty et al., 2016). Total MiCTS scale scores range from 52 to 156. A score of 52 would represent a low score on the actual scale (i.e., rarely did my supervisor do this) and the ideal scale (i.e., these items are irrelevant to me). A score of 156 would be a high score in that the person believes their actual mentor almost always engaged in that activity and the statement on the MiCTS was an essential attribute of an ideal mentor.

Prouty et al. (2016) measured both a participant's actual as well as their ideal experiences with mentorship because these researchers found inconsistencies in the literature in which participants reported positive gains from having a mentor but also reported low levels of satisfaction with specific mentor qualities. Lastly, these authors discussed the lack of research surrounding mentoring experiences of students within the helping profession, how advisors and mentors blur roles, and the inconsistent results between student satisfaction with mentors and their mentors' positive view of their mentoring competencies (Prouty et al., 2016). Therefore, I provided a definition of mentorship that is grounded in the literature and differs from the definition of advisor.

Similar to my population, Prouty et al. (2016) used family therapists who had recently completed their MFT degree or were about to complete their MFT program. In particular, their participant pool consisted of 166 master's and 57 doctoral students completing their MFT degree who were predominantly alumnae (n = 155), heterosexual (90 %), and of Caucasian European decent (n = 181). Only 34 of the respondents identified as male and two as intersex. There were three participants who identified as

being gay, six as lesbian, and seven as bisexual. An overwhelming about of participants (83%) attended a COAMFTE accredited master's program.

Prouty et al. (2016) also investigated variables I collected such as mentees' age, gender (of mentee and of mentor), race (of mentee and of mentor), career goal or current occupation (of mentee and of mentor), and accreditation status of the institution. For instance, Prouty et al. (2016) asked if the MFT program was accredited by the American Association for Marriage and Family Therapy whereas I asked about CACREP. However, these researchers added the demographic variables of sexual orientation (of mentee and of mentor), citizenship (of mentee and of mentor), and age of supervisor (Prouty et al., 2016). I did not alter the MiCTS, but I chose to exclude the demographic questions that Prouty et al. asked in addition to the MiCTS. For example, I omitted questions such as type of mentorship (formal or informal), whether the mentor was internal or external to their program, how many hours per month the mentee received supervision, and the mentee's overall satisfaction with the mentoring relationship because this data is not relevant to my study. While MFT doctoral programs are clinically based, Prouty et al. still accounted for student interest in academic positions, designed the scale to assess teaching mentorship and related tasks of faculty, as well as asked students to identify if their mentor was an academic or clinician.

The original MiCTS consisted of 36 items and was initially evaluated using a sample of 223 participants who previously experienced a mentor relationship. Following factor analysis of the original items, Prouty et al. (2016) initially identified seven factors, but these researchers later reduced the factors down to four because three of the factors

had too few item loadings. The four factors initially accounted for 49.67% of the variance. However, the researchers found that ten items either did not load uniquely onto one factor (> .30 on two factors) or the loading was too small to be significant (< .40). By eliminating these items, the researchers ensured convergent and discriminant validity.

The newly formed 26 item measure accounted for 54.03% of the total variance. The four factors or subscales created by the overall measure were psychosocial (7 items), career (8 items), clinical (7 items), and research (4 items). The overall scale draws from the four factors or subscales to produce a final score for either the actual or ideal as well as both the ideal and actual mentorship experiences scale. The Cronbach's alpha reliabilities ranged from r =.77 to r =.88 across subscales. Overall, previous research supports the reliability and validity of the four factor, 26 item MiCTS measure, and that researchers could use subscales independent of each other or in any combination (Prouty et al., 2016). The examples of the constructs found on the MiCTS are: Increased my self-image, confirmed my competence, taught me clinical skills, and assisted in the establishment of professional networks.

Prouty et al. (2016) stated that faculty can administer the MiCTS and use the findings to develop mentorship programs, focus on the specific needs of students, and indicate areas of mentorship that need to be strengthened. These researchers also stated the MiCTS could help administrators document program outcomes. Congruent with my study, Prouty et al. suggested that future researchers investigate if having a successful mentoring relationship results in a specific career choice, if the gender or race of mentees influenced the mentoring relationship or career choice, and if there was a difference in

mentor satisfaction levels between new professionals who went into clinical positions versus those who chose academia.

Research Using the MiCTS

Few researchers have used the MiCTS. However, Quinlan et al. (2019) used the MiCTS when they evaluated the effects of a year-long peer mentoring program and Trolia (2019) used the MiCTS in their dissertation. The lack of literature on the MiCTS is most likely due to Prouty et al. (2016) only publishing the scale in 2016 and it takes time for a scale to become widely used and accepted. In addition, researchers need time to conceptualize, plan, develop, apply, and write up research (Frankfort-Nachmias & Leon-Guerrero, 2015).

Quinlan et al. (2019) investigated which aspects of the mentoring relationship between a psychologist in training (5th or 6th year) and a newly admitted (1st year) PsyD student were most helpful. Quinlan et al.'s study involved 23 mentors and 41 mentees whose ages ranged from 22 to 54 years with the majority (approximately 80%) being female. These respondents participated in a year-long mentoring relationship and answered an online survey that captured aspects of their mentoring experiences. Quinlan et al. found mentees scored the psychosocial functions significantly higher than both clinical functions ($Z = 2.52$, $p < 0.05$) and career functions ($Z = 3.72$, $p < 0.01$). In turn, clinical functions were significantly higher than career functions ($Z = 3.64$, $p < 0.01$). Similarly, mentees scored the psychosocial functions significantly higher than both clinical functions ($Z = 3.22$, $p < 0.01$) and career functions ($Z = 3.73$, $p < 0.01$).

Both mentors and mentees in Quinlan et al.'s (2019) study who reported having their psychosocial and clinical needs met were more likely to be satisfied with the mentoring relationship than those who did not report alignment between their actual and ideal mentorship experiences in these areas. Mentees who reported an alignment between their actual and ideal mentorship within the areas of career were also more likely to report a high level of overall satisfaction with the mentoring relationship.

Quinlan et al. (2019) added a few open-ended questions in which they found respondents indicated that the most helpful mentorship tasks included psychosocial support, mutual understanding, and skill development. The most frequent hindering events were logistics (time), lack of structure of the mentoring relationship, and mentor technique (Quinlan et al., 2019). Quinlan et al. identified a small sample size ($N = 43$) and not having the ability to quantitatively assess causal relationships as a limitation of their study. I attempted to overcome this limitation as my study had approximately 210 participants and examined relationships and differences between groups.

Trolia (2019) used the MiCTS in her dissertation that involved predominantly Caucasian (77%) participants who ranged in age from 24 and 50 years. There were four African American, one Arab, six Asian, one Multiracial, and three Hispanic participants. Fifty of the 66 participants in Trolia's study held a master's degree and ten reported having a professional license. Trolia found that PsyD students who perceived their supervisor as a mentor reported effective clinical supervision. Trolia found supervisees who reported a positive experience with their mentor scored their mentor highest on the psychosocial mentor function ($M = 2.57$, $SD = 0.53$) with the clinical mentor function

being the second-most reported (M = 2.32, SD = 0.52), and the career mentor function the third most frequently cited attribute of their mentor (M = 2.02, SD = 0.54). She also reported those who described their supervisor using a specific supervisory style reported levels of mentor functions that varied among the respondents. Trolia (2019) concluded that non-clinical supervisors often meet specific mentoring needs of students but that clinical supervisors can serve as mentors and often meet the overall needs of their students more often than non-clinical mentors. Trolia identified a small sample size and not identifying the difference between the mentor and supervisor as a limitation of her study. I attempted to overcome this limitation by providing participants with a definition of mentorship and have a large sample size of over 200.

Operationalization of Variables

Researchers must clearly define the variables that they want to study ((Frankfort-Nachmias et al., 2015). Operationalization reduces subjectivity and increases the reliability of a study (Frankfort-Nachmias et al., 2015). Therefore, I operationally define the terms demographics, mentorship, and career choice in the paragraphs below.

Demographics

Demographic questions included assessing the participant's age (continuous numerical variable), gender (categorical variable), and race (categorical variable). Participants in this study identified their age with an open-ended question: How old are you? Questions pertaining to gender and race followed the inclusive language suggested by the NIH (Bauer et al., 2017). Therefore, I presented participants with six categorical choices that represent gender: What is your current gender identity? The answer choices

were: Male, Female, Trans male or Trans man, Trans female or Trans woman, Gender queer or Gender non-conforming, or they can fill in their identity. Participants delineated their race by choosing one of the six categories: American Indian or Alaska Native, Asian, Black or African American, Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander, Caucasian, or Hispanic, Latino, or of Spanish origin, or, they could have filled in their race. Upon analyzing the data, I condensed many of these variables into categories as needed (See Appendix D).

Mentorship

I captured the potential predictor variable of perceived quality of the mentoring relationship by quantitatively assessing CES students' experiences with their mentor using the MiCTS along with a series of 13 questions related to their mentor. I created 13 questions that asked the participant to describe their perceived mentor's race and gender, and state if they believe their mentor influenced their primary and secondary career choice, identify if their mentor belongs to either their primary or secondary career choice, and state the areas they believe their mentor influenced them the most. These questions came directly from the literature as well as provided additional depth to the theoretical foundation from which I built this study. For instance, many researchers found that certain variables influenced the quality of the mentoring relationship, such as the length of time a student had a mentor (Dollarhide et al., 2013; Magnuson et al., 2003; Nolte et al., 2015; Sambunjak et al., 2006), the mentee or mentor's race or ethnic identity (Ensher et al., 2001; Hipolito-Delgado et al., 2017; Kern et al., 2019), the mentee and the mentor's gender (Early, 2017; McConnell et al., 2018; Ooms et al., 2019), mentor's

profession (Buckman & Barker, 2010; Carpenter et al., 2015; Davis, 2007; Dollarhide et al., 2018; Magnuson et al., 2009; Yob & Crawford, 2012), if the mentee sought out the mentor (Park et al., 2017; Milsom & Moran, 2015; Nolte et al., 2015; Wilson et al., 2010), and formal or informal type of mentoring relationship (Briggs & Pehrsson, 2008; Desimone et al., 2014; Holt et al., 2016).

I added a question regarding the mentor's affiliation to the mentee because mentees could have chosen a mentor from various aspects of their life. The question read: Is your mentor affiliated with your: (a) current place of employment; (b) former place of employment; (c) professional organization; (d) university (i.e., Your current CES program); (e) school(i.e., Your master's program); (f) school: (i.e., Your undergraduate program); (g) provided supervision for my license; or (h) other (i.e., participants can write in an answer). Knowing how the student chose their mentor may help CES program faculty appropriately plan mentoring opportunities. I also asked what the mentor's primary occupation was because numerous researchers found a correlation existed between a mentee's career aspirations and mentor career (Carpenter et al., 2015; Dollarhide et al., 2013; Hagemeier et al., 2013; Yob & Crawford, 2012). For instance, Baltrinic et al. (2016) found mentees reported a desire to enter the profession of their mentor if they had a good mentoring experience. However, these authors also pointed out mentees could want to enter their mentor's field because their confidence and competence increased as a result of watching their mentor (Baltrinic et al., 2016).

I pilot tested these 13 mentor related questions by having five CES faculty and five CES students complete the survey and provide me with feedback prior to publishing

the link. My rationale for pilot testing these additional 13 questions came from van Teijlingen and Vanora's (2002) suggestions to surveyors. I had hoped to evaluate if I missed an occupational choice, assess if my questions were written in an understandable manner, see how long it took people to fill out the survey, and ascertain if I needed to rearrange the order of my questions. I spoke with each of the participants who agreed to pilot test my survey and made note of all changes made to the survey that evolved from these pilot test conversations (See Appendix C).

Career Choice

The dependent variable for RQ1 was career choice. I captured career choice at the categorical level. For the sake of simplicity, career choice was defined as type of occupation. I offered categories of career choices to capture the dependent variable of CES student career choice. Categories for career choice (i.e., both upon entering participants' CES doctoral program and graduating; as well as, participants' primary and secondary career choices) were: (a) full-time faculty; (b) clinical leader or administrator (i.e., clinical director); (c) clinician or counselor, not in private practice; (d) adjunct faculty; (e) clinician or counselor in a private practice; (f) supervisor for licensure; (g) researcher; (h) advocacy worker; (i) part-time faculty; or (j) other (with a fill in the blank option).

I chose these categories because they were the primary career choices identified in the literature by Hinkle et al. (2017) and Bray (2014) who recently studied the career choices of CES students upon graduation. These career choices also aligned with information on numerous admission's websites of university's websites that publicize

CES programs. Participants were only able to choose one primary career choice but could have chosen multiple secondary career choices. My rationale for allowing multiple secondary career choices was because many researchers found CES faculty often supplement their salary in various ways (Bray, 2014; Hinkle et al., 2017). Only the secondary career category questions included the option of (k) I do not have a secondary career option.

Operationalization

In this non-experimental regression study, I used gender, age, and race as well as the perceived quality of the mentoring relationship as independent predictor variables with the DV's being career choice, career change, perceived quality of the mentoring relationship, or perceived qualities of ideal mentors. Gender was captured through six categorical choices as was race. Age was an open-ended question that yielded a continuous variable that was placed into categories for analysis purposes. Perceived quality of the mentoring relationship was the IV in the binomial logistic regressions (RQ1 & RQ) with the DV being career choice (RQ1) or career choice change (RQ3). The DV for the ANOVA (RQ2) was perceived quality of the mentoring relationship and the IV was race, age, or gender. The IV for RQ4 was age, gender, or race and the DV was essential qualities of ideal mentors.

Research Questions 1 and 3

The scores representing a participant's perceived quality of the mentoring relationship represented the mentorship variable in research questions one and three. The DV in RQ1 was career choice and I captured career choice through 11 various choices.

However, I condensed these choices into a dichotomous choice of: (a) faculty and (b) non-faculty. I condensed these choices because I was interested in examining why CES graduates were not entering faculty positions and I used binomial logistic regression to analyze this relationship and needed the DV to be dichotomous. I assigned anyone who chose a faculty position a "1" and those who chose any other career choice other than faculty a "0". The DV in RQ3 was career change which was captured by a yes or no response. I assigned anyone who answered this question with a yes a "1" and anyone who answered the question with a no a "0". Keeping the variable in a dichotomous choice (i.e., faculty vs. non-faculty or yes vs. no) allowed me to evaluate if mentorship predicted whether CES students chose faculty positions or had a career choice change as their career choice due to the quality of mentorship that they received, which was the premise behind my dissertation. I wanted to build on the limited research on why CES students are not entering into faculty positions.

Research Question 2

The scores representing a participant's perceived quality of their actual mentoring relationship experiences (DV) represented the mentorship variable in RQ2. The demographic variables of age, race, and gender represented the IV's. I ran a series of ANOVAs between age and perceived quality of the mentoring relationship, gender and perceived quality of the mentoring relationship, and race and perceived quality of the mentoring relationship.

Research Question 4

The scores representing essential attributes of ideal mentors (i.e., helped me obtain a job, provided psychosocial support, introduced me to research) represented the mentorship variable in RQ4. The demographic variables of age, race, and gender represented the IV's. I used descriptive statistics for RQ4. I first divided study participants into their age, gender, or racial category. Then I used frequency tables to report which of the 26 attributes participants from that racial category rated as being the most essential. I also reported overall findings of essential qualities of ideal mentors.

Data Analysis Plan

I used the REDCap management system which easily converted data into the International Business Machines (IBM) Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 21 (Harris et al., 2019). The SPSS is a software program that quantitative researchers use to analyze data. This software creates tables and graphs and can generate data output (Harris et al., 2019). I reviewed the data for missing information and removed the case if I found missing data. I used graphs, z-scores, and scatter plots to investigate potential outliers and appropriately removed them. I reviewed all test assumptions, reported descriptive statistics, checked for multicollinearity among predictor variables, checked for skewness and kurtosis, and analyzed percentage tables using histograms, scatter plots, and box plots.

Research Questions and Hypothesis

I explored the following research questions in this study:

RQ1: Does the perceived quality of the mentoring relationship predict career choice of CES students upon graduation?

$H_0$1: The perceived quality of the mentoring relationship does not significantly predict career choice of CES students upon graduation.

H_a1: The perceived quality of the mentoring relationship does significantly predict career choice of CES students upon graduation.

RQ2: Does race, age, or gender influence CES students' perceived quality of the mentoring relationship?

$H_0$2: Race, age, or gender does not influence CES students' perceived quality of the mentoring relationship.

H_a2: Race, age, or gender does influence CES students' perceived quality of the mentoring relationship.

RQ3: Does perceived quality of the mentoring relationship predict CES students' career change?

$H_0$3: The perceived quality of the mentoring relationship does not predict CES students' career change.

H_a3: The perceived quality of the mentoring relationship does predict CES students' career change.

RQ4: Do age, gender, or race influence qualities CES students assign as essential of ideal mentors?

$H_0$4: Age, gender, or race do not influence qualities CES students assign as essential of ideal mentors.

H_a4: Age, gender, or race do influence qualities CES students assign as essential of ideal mentors.

Binomial Logistic Regression

When using binomial logistic regression, researchers must code the dependent dichotomous categorical variable with binomial codes of 1 = yes (i.e., faculty) and 0 = no (i.e., non-faculty; Hilbe, 2015). Researchers using a binomial logistic regression to estimate the possibility of an event happening by using a logit (Hilbe, 2015). A logit is the logarithm of the ratio of the probability of the presence of an attribute (e.g., faculty as a career choice) as related to the probability of the absence of the characteristic (e.g., non-faculty as a career choice; Hilbe, 2015). Therefore, because odds refer to the probability that a particular outcome is a case divided by the probability that it is not a case, the logit is defined as $1n\ (p/1\text{-}p)$.

The log odds is the ratio of the probability of an event happening or not happening (Hilbe, 2015). Researchers transform odds ratios by taking the exponentiation of the log odds and then comparing the difference in odds using the Wald's test (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2013). The further the odds deviate from the sum of the number one indicates that there is a stronger relationship between the variables (Cohen et al., 2013). Researchers use the coefficient of the odd ratio statistics of Exp(B) to determine a change in the log odds of the probability of the DV (career choice) for a one unit increase in the values for the independent variables (Hilbe, 2015). Researchers set a p-value and any value that is less than or equal to the level of the significance value means there is a statistically significant relationship (Hilbe, 2015).

Binomial logistic regression requires the DV to be binomial. The DV in my study is career choice. Therefore, I split career choice into the categories of faculty and non-faculty positions. I coded faculty position as 1 because the factor level 1 should represent the desired outcome (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). Binomial logistic regression also requires that researchers include all variables in the equation and use a stepwise method when needed. Researchers who use the stepwise regression method will test the significance levels of specific variables when these variables are added or taken away from the model (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012).

In a binomial logistic regression, the error terms also need to be independent (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). Therefore, there should be little to no multicollinearity among the predictors (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). Multicollinearity occurs when a predictor variable linearly predicts other predictor variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). Researchers using SPSS can test for multicollinearity by viewing the variance inflation factor (VIF) score and addressing VIF scores above 5 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012).

This model also assumes the independent variables are linearly related to the log odds ratio (ExpB) and that there are no outliers in the data (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). I assessed for outliers by converting the predictor variable (perceived quality of the mentoring relationship), which is a continuous variable, to standardized z scores and removed values below -3.29 or greater than 3.29 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). Lastly, binomial logistic regression requires large sample sizes because the maximum likelihood estimates are not as powerful as ordinary least squares (Cohen et al., 2013).

Analysis of Variance

I conducted a series of one-way analysis of variances (ANOVA) to see if race (IV), age (IV), or gender (IV) influenced a CES students' perceived quality of the mentoring relationship (DV) as measured by the scores on the MiCTS that capture actual experiences with mentorship (Prouty et al., 2016). The assumptions of a one-way ANOVA are that the sample is normally distributed (i.e., normality), each sample is independent of the other (i.e., independence), and the variance of the data in the groups is the same (i.e., homogeneity of variance; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). I used the Bartlett's test to test the homogeneity of the variances and I did not reject the null hypothesis if the *p* value was over 0.05. I also used boxplots to test for homogeneity of variances and histograms to test for normality. Finally, I used the Shapiro-Wilk test to test for normality because my sample size was rather large (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012).

Threats to Validity

This study was subject to threats of both internal and external validity. Internal validity refers to the degree of confidence that a researcher has regarding their study (Sheperis et al., 2010). External validity refers to the extent to which researchers can generalize their findings (Sheperis et al., 2010).

Internal validity

Threats to internal validity included selection bias, processing error for the open-ended question (Other), and coverage error by not having enough CES students from around the United States. Considering previous researchers found CES students who had been mentored in conducting research were more likely to engage in conducting research

(Briggs & Pehrsson, 2008; Hill et al., 2005; Hollingsworth & Fassinger, 2002), I may have attracted more students who had a quality mentor than those who did not have a good experience with a mentor. More counselor educators may have filled out the survey as compared to other professionals holding a CES degree from a CACREP accredited program because faculty are more likely to engage in research and surveys than are clinicians (Briggs & Phersson, 2008). There also may have been significant differences that I did not account for such as the difference between those who had a research mentor and those who had a clinical mentor.

One way I tried to create a diverse sample was by sending my survey to various counseling organizations and counselor educator groups. While the open-ended question (i.e., why did you choose to not enter into a faculty position) made me vulnerable to processing error, this question helped me collect data that captured extraneous variables affecting why a person did not enter into a faculty position. These extraneous variables may help researchers plan future studies. The validity of this study was threatened by the participants dropping out which led to missing data. Another potential problem was if participants failed to provide truthful or accurate responses to the questions in the survey or on the MiCTS or filled out the survey multiple times.

To overcome these threats, I tried to exceed recruitment goals in order to achieve enough power and proactively compensate for any participants who dropped out after starting the study. I kept the survey open until I saw the minimum number of participants answered every question. Furthermore, in the informed consent, I encouraged participants

to carefully think and accurately respond in a truthful manner. Additionally, I ensured participants that all responses were confidential.

Considering I was looking at the potential predictor effect of the perceived quality of the mentoring relationship on career choice, I accounted for ambiguous temporal precedence. Temporal precedence is when a researcher can detect if the cause of the event comes before the effect (Frankfort-Nachmias, & Nachmias, 2000). Temporal precedence pertained to my study because a respondent could have had a specific career choice in mind when they entered the CES program and then sought out a mentor within their chosen career field which essentially reinforced their original career choice. However, I tried to address this temporal concern with the questions related to intended career choice upon entering the field and if the respondent sought out their mentor. For instance, I first asked questions related to career choice when participants entered their CES program and then presented participants with questions that related to their career choice upon graduation.

My study was also open to reliability and validity concerns regarding the few questions I created. However, I based these questions on the literature, had my dissertation chair and methodologist review my questions, and pilot tested my questionnaire using peers and fellow researchers. Lastly, there may have been confounding variables unaccounted for in my study that influenced a CES student's career choice. Therefore, I was cautious about making significant claims about the relationships between demographics, mentorship, and career choice.

External validity

One threat to external validity was that I am not able to generalize the results of my study to graduate students outside of CES programs. I am also limited to generalizing the results to the demographic groups that make up my sample, CACREP accredited CES programs, and to doctoral students who fell into the population parameters (i.e., graduating within one year and those who graduated within the past 10 years). Since I was condensing career choice into a dichotomous choice (i.e., faculty vs. non-faculty), I was limited in what I can conclude about how mentorship predicts career choice. Therefore, I published all demographic information, checked to see how the demographic makeup of my sample aligns with the population of CES graduates, and was cautious about generalizing my results.

My study was subject to response bias because I focused my recruitment procedures on the careers in which most CES graduates enter. Therefore, it is likely I did not capture CES students who went into non-academic or non-clinical positions after graduation. I did not think it would be plausible to open this survey up to any and all career listservs because both Bray (2014) and Hinkle et al. (2017) stated there were few participants in their studies ($n = < 3$) who were CES graduates and entered non-clinical and non-academic positions. In addition, it is unlikely that these respondents would substantially change the overall results of my study if they did participate. I used data from previous studies that involved large sample sizes or qualitative findings to assess whether or not the career choices and demographics of my sample aligned with their findings (Bray, 2014; Hinkle et al., 2017; U.S. Census Bureau, 2017).

Participants in the study who graduated could be subject to recall bias. Recall bias is defined as a respondent's inability to recall certain aspects related to the question found in a study (Fowler, 2014). My study was particularly prone to recall bias because according to CACREP (2017), the average person reported spending between four and seven years to complete a PhD in CES which means I asked participants to recall information from at least five years ago, if not longer. However, Althubaiti (2016) reported researchers can minimize recall bias by providing prompts, limiting the number of events a respondent must recall, and creating questions using neutral words to lessen social desirability effects. Using Althubaiti's (2016) suggestions, I provided the participants prompts for their career choices upon entering and graduating from a CES program. I also informed study participants of how I will maintain their confidentiality, and I did not ask sensitive questions that were subject to social desirability effects on the survey.

Overall, I attempted to decrease these threats by creating a diverse sample by promoting the survey on multiple venues, using a valid and reliable instrument, not using a pre or post-test, collecting data within a timely fashion so as to avoid maturation, and properly reporting all statistical information. I did not change my instrument during the study and the majority of my variables were categorical which decreased the chances of participants regressing to the mean (Hilbe, 2015). I did not provide an intervention nor did I manipulate variables or participants. I also remembered to check the power or for the violation of statistical assumptions for each of the analyses I conducted. There is also minimal risk of experimenter bias because I used an online survey.

Ethical Procedures

In order to uphold all ethical considerations, I only collected data once I received approval from Walden University's IRB. I already completed the NIH Office of External Research Protecting Human Research Participants training and the REDCap webinar on how to create a survey and delete personal identifiers. I did not contact any of the identified administrators of listservs (i.e., CESNET, CACREP) without approval of my university's IRB board. My IRB approval number was 09-17-20-0350446. Smith (2019) stated some directors of counseling programs required proof of IRB approval prior to posting a poster publicizing the survey. Therefore, I sent documentation of IRB approval out with my request to program directors to publicize the survey. I ethically identified all information on the IRB application and obtained all appropriate signatures. I submitted the email letter giving me permission to use the copyrighted MiCTS to my university's IRB.

I informed all participants in this study that their participation was voluntary, that they needed to provide their consent, and that they could discontinue the survey at any time. I did not manipulate any information or persons in the study, nor did I knowingly recruit from vulnerable populations; and therefore, there was minimal risk to participants. The World Health Organization identifies children, pregnant women, elderly people, malnourished people, and people who are ill or immunocompromised as being of a vulnerable population (WHO, 2020). Participants from vulnerable populations such as people who are pregnant or immunocompromised may have participated, but I would not have known this because I am not collecting any of this information. I would not know if

participants from my university participated. I recruited a larger sample size than suggested to account for any person who started the survey but did not complete it. There was minimal risk to adverse events associated with this study because I did not administer a treatment or intervention. However, some participants may have become triggered by remembering their relationship with their mentor. I provided participants with information on how to obtain a counselor in their community.

I also collected all data in an anonymous fashion because REDCap does not track IP addresses. I did not save email addresses or any identifiers and all data was encrypted. Transmission of data was onto my home computer which is located in my locked office. I stored all data on my computer which required a password. I will keep data that is able to be downloaded onto an external hard drive in a locked cabinet in my office to which only I have a key. I will destroy all data from this study in five years as per my university's policy. REDCap required researchers to create a strong password that only allows the researchers and those who she or he grants access to the survey to retrieve the data (Harris et al., 2019). I did not collect any personally identifying information which eliminated the possibility for any type of repercussions to the participant. All participants who successfully submitted a survey response were routed to the page that allowed them to earn the gift card for Amazon.

Summary

In chapter 3, I described the quantitative cross-sectional research design that I used in this study. I provided the rationale behind using this design and how previous studies informed my choice of research design. I identified the methods I used to analyze

my data including required attributes of my sample, my sampling procedures, and specifics on how respondents entered and exit the survey and receive informed consent and follow up information. I also provided specific information on the demographic and career choice questions as well as the MiCTS. I operationally defined mentorship and career choice and stated I used demographic questions derived from the U.S. Census Bureau and NIH (Bauer et al., 2017). Lastly, I discussed threats to both internal and external validity and outlined how I addressed ethical considerations.

Upon my committee approving my proposal and obtaining IRB approval, I conducted my study. In Chapter 4, I will include a discussion of any discrepancies in data collection that deviated from my original plan, discuss how representative my sample is of the target population, and justify inclusion of any covariates in my model. I will report the results of descriptive statistics, evaluate statistical assumptions, provide the findings of my statistical analysis, and include tables and figures that will illustrate results.

Chapter 4: Results

My purpose for this quantitative study was to explore the perceived quality of participants' mentoring relationships as measured by the MiCTS and whether that score then predicted the participant's career choices or a change in career choice. I also investigated whether students' demographic variables of race, age, or gender influenced their perceived quality of the mentoring relationship. Finally, I described qualities identified as essential qualities of an ideal mentor across the participant's age, gender, and race.

There were four research questions that comprised the current investigation. I analyzed the results of each question independently of the other questions. Below are the results of my analysis of my four research questions.

RQ1: Does the perceived quality of the mentoring relationship predict career choice of CES students upon graduation. My null hypothesis for RQ1 was: The perceived quality of the mentoring relationship does not significantly predict career choice of CES students upon graduation. My alternative hypothesis for RQ1 was: The perceived quality of the mentoring relationship does significantly predict career choice of CES students upon graduation. I used binomial logistic regression for research question 1.

RQ2: Does race, age, or gender influence CES students' perceived quality of the mentoring relationship? My null hypothesis for RQ2 was: Race, age, or gender does not influence CES students' perceived quality of the mentoring relationship. My alternative hypothesis for RQ2 was: Race, age, or gender does influence CES students' perceived quality of the mentoring relationship. I used ANOVA for RQ2.

RQ3: Does perceived quality of the mentoring relationship predict CES students' career change? My null hypothesis for RQ3 was: The perceived quality of the mentoring relationship does not predict CES students' career change. My null hypothesis for RQ3 was: The perceived quality of the mentoring relationship does predict CES students' career change. I used binomial logistic regression for RQ3.

RQ4: Do age, gender, or race influence qualities CES students assign as essential of ideal mentors? My null hypothesis for RQ4 was: Age, gender, or race do not influence qualities CES students assign as essential of ideal mentors. My alternative hypothesis for RQ4 was: Age, gender, or race do influence qualities CES students assign as essential of ideal mentors. I used descriptive statistics for RQ4.

In this section, I report the results of the pilot study, describe the time frame for data collection and other relevant statistics related to data collection. I also provide descriptive statistics, statistical assumptions, analysis, and related hypotheses. Lastly, I summarize the chapter by answering the research questions.

Pilot Study

I conducted a small pilot test on the 13 mentor related questions by having five CES faculty and five CES students complete the survey and provide me with feedback prior to publishing the link. My rationale for pilot testing these additional 13 questions came from van Teijlingen and Vanora's (2002) suggestions to surveyors. I had hoped to obtain information pertaining to occupational choice, assess if my questions were written in an understandable manner, see how long it took people to fill out the survey, and ascertain if I needed to rearrange the order of my questions. I spoke with each of the

participants who agreed to pilot test the survey and made note of all changes made to the survey that evolved from these pilot test conversations (See Appendix C).

Participants in the pilot study suggested changes to creating an open-ended question and gender identity. For instance, one contributor of the pilot test suggested participants fill in the blanks for gender identity allowing for self-description. Another pilot study participant suggested changing the phrase from "How does your mentor describe themself (choose all that apply)" to "How does your mentor identify themselves?" However, after consultation with my methodologist and one of the pilot study participants who works at a LGBTQ+ research agency, it was decided to keep "How does your mentor describe themself" as a way to capture participant gender. Other comments made by the pilot study participants were all positive and confirmed the use of the demographic questionnaire. For instance, participants stated, "very thorough", "I can't think of one career option you missed", and "kudos to you for being so thorough." Therefore, minor changes were made to the 13 demographic and mentor related questions.

Data Collection

I obtained IRB approval from my institution on September 17, 2020 (IRB# 09-17-20-0350446). I created and sent a survey link in REDCap to various counselor education organizations. As described in Chapter 3, I used a correlational research design with convenience sampling. I advertised my study on multiple ACA and CES-related listservs such as CESNET, my university's participant database, Facebook, regional and state specific ACES groups, as well as the CACREP database. In hopes of obtaining a diverse

sample, I sent emails to CES program administrators and CACREP liaisons from various geographical areas and of Minority Serving Institutions and asked them to post the link to my survey to current students or faculty and alumni. As stated in my Chapter 3, I followed up with program directors via phone messages. I maintained an Excel spreadsheet of the organizations to which I sent an email as well as followed up with reminder emails about every 2-3 weeks until I met my sample size.

I collected data over a three-month period until I had to shut down my link due to a data breach. One hundred ninety-two people logged on to the survey link between September 17th and December 15th, 2020. However, only 158 participants completed the survey during this time. One hundred forty-eight of these participants received the $10 dollar gift card. Twenty-one of the 33 people who logged on to the survey link did not meet the requirements to qualify to take the survey because they graduated before 2010 (n = 14), they did not have a mentor (n = 8), or they graduated before 2010 and did not have a mentor (n = 6). The other five people did not complete the survey in its entirety.

An additional 120 participants clicked the link between January 13th, 2021 and February 3rd, 2021. However, 27 of these people reported graduating after 2010 and 11 reported they did not have a mentor which meant these 38 people were ineligible for the survey. Twenty-two people clicked on the link but did not complete the survey. Therefore 60 participants completed the survey during this one-month period. I had a total of 218 participants in my study.

Discrepancies in Data Collection

As stated in Chapter 3, it was my intent to offer participants a $10 amazon gift card as a token of their time. I clearly stated in the original informed consent and qualifying questions that participants had to have earned, or were about to earn (within the next year), their PhD in CES as well as have had a mentor. However, I had to file a change of procedure with my institution's IRB due to a data breech.

There were approximately 66 people who logged onto the survey between September 21st and 23rd. Twelve of these people did not qualify to take the survey because they either did not have a mentor or graduated over ten years ago which meant I had 54 participants at that time. Another 126 participants logged onto the survey between September 24th and December 16th, 2020. However, only 104 participants completed the survey. Therefore, the trend was that about one in every five participants did not qualify to take the survey and therefore did not complete it.

A state counseling association reported posting my survey on their social media page on December 15th, 2020. Between 10:46 pm on December 15th and 12:06 pm on December 16th 1,242 people logged on to take the survey. Only thirteen of these participants did not complete the survey, which meant that the ratio of one in five people not qualifying for the survey jumped to one in 100. Also, the response rate (after the initial sixty-six participants between September 21st and 23rd) jumped from one or two participants a day to one or two participants a minute. Participants who took the survey between December 15th and 16th took significantly less time (e.g., about three minutes less) to fill out the survey and there were numerous repetitive answers. For instance, participants 1,111 to 1,134 were all Caucasian. Also, 100% of the 1,242 people who took

the survey between December 15th and December 16th filled out the other survey requesting the gift card.

I consulted with my research team at my institution, with my committee, and my chair consulted with the coordinator of research, the chair of the IRB, and the quantitative expert of the research department at your university. The consensus was to remove the data that came in after December 15th 2020 because we believed participants who did not meet the criteria filled out the survey in order to receive the $10 gift card. Therefore, I had to request a change of procedure from my institution's IRB. On January 13th, 2021 my institution's IRB granted permission to collect the remaining 58 participants without providing the $10 gift card incentive.

Descriptive and Demographic Characteristics

A total of 218 people completed the survey (see Table 1). Participants ranged in age from 23 to 70 years of age with the mean age being 36. The majority of my sample (*n* = 128) identified as Caucasian (58.7%) with 23.9% (*n* = 52) identifying as Black or African American, 6% (*n* = 13) as Hispanic or Latino, 1.4% (*n* = 3) as American Indian or Alaska Native, 6.4% (*n* = 14) as Asian, 2.3% (*n* = 5) as Multi-ethnic, 0.9% (*n* = 2) as Different Race, and 0.5% (*n* = 1) as Prefer not to answer. No participants identified as Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander. One hundred seventy-nine participants (82%) identified as female, 33 (15.1%) as male, one (0.5%) as Trans male or Trans man, 3 (1.4%) as Gender queer or Gender non-conforming, and 2 (0.9%) as Different identity. No participants identified as Trans female or Trans woman.

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics of Participants

Characteristic	*n*	%
Age	48	22
20-29	113	51.8
30-39	46	21.1
40-49	11	5
50-70		
Gender	33	15.1
Male	179	82.1
Female	1	0.5
Trans male/man	3	1.4
Gender queer	2	0.9
Different		
Race	128	58.7
Caucasian	52	23.9
Black or African American	13	6
Hispanic, Latino, Spanish	3	1.4
American Indian/Alaskan	14	6.4
Asian	5	2.3
Multi-ethnic	2	0.9
Different Race	1	0.5
Prefer not to answer		

Representation of Population

According to CACREP (2017), 76.9% of CES doctoral students identify as female and 23.1% as male and 62% of full-time faculty are female with 38% of full-time faculty identifying as male. Similarly, 82% of the participants in the study identified as female, and 15.1% as male. Study participants were more diverse than what CACREP reported in 2017 because I had one (0.5%) participant who identified as Trans male, 3 (1.4%) participants who identified as Gender queer or Gender non-conforming, and 2 (0.9%) participants who identified as having a different identity.

According to CACREP (2017), 25% of CES students are African American or Black, 0.75% American Indian or Native Alaskan, 3% Asian, 55.33% Caucasian, 57% Hispanic or Latino, 0.19% Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, 1.75% multiracial, 3.16% nonresidents or aliens, and 5% were undisclosed. The study sample nearly mirrored the demographic makeup reported by the CACREP (2017) with 58.7% of my sample identifying as Caucasian, 23.9% identifying as Black or African American, 6%, as Hispanic or Latino, 1.4% as American Indian or Alaska Native, 6.4% as Asian, 2.3% as Multi-ethnic, 0.9% as Different Race, and 0.5% as Prefer not to answer. No participants in the study identified as Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander.

Results

I uploaded data from REDCap into SPSS version 27. I checked for missing information and removed one case with incomplete data. I screened for outliers by doing a normal distribution plot to determine if any of the participant responses were three standard deviations outside of the mean. I did this for all variables and found no outliers. Below are the results of my data analysis.

Descriptive Statistics

Fifty-nine percent of the sample identified their mentor's race as being Caucasian (see Table 2). Twenty five percent stated their mentor was Black or African American, 5.5% identified their mentor as being Hispanic or Latino, 0.5% as American Indian or Alaska Native, 1.4% as Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander, 2.3% as Asian, 2.3 as Multi-ethnic, 0.9% as Different Race, and 3.2% stated they were unsure as to their mentor's race. The majority of participants identified their mentors as female (72.9%).

Only four individuals (1.8%) said they did not know the gender of their mentor. No participants identified having a mentor who identified as Trans male, Trans female, Gender queer, or Different identity.

Table 2

Mentor Demographics and Affiliation

	Frequency	%
Mentor Race		
Caucasian	128	58.7
Black or African American	55	25.2
Hispanic, Latino, or Spanish origin	12	5.5
American Indian or Alaska Native	1	0.5
Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander	3	1.4
Asian	5	2.3
Multi-ethnic	5	2.3
Different race	2	0.9
I am unsure	7	3.2
Mentor Gender		
Female	159	72.9
Male	55	25.2
I am unsure	4	1.8
Mentor Affiliation		
University (Current CES program)	99	45.4
School: Master's program	28	12.8
Current place of employment	26	11.9
Former place of employment	25	11.5
Professional Organization	23	10.6
Other	11	5
Provided supervision for licensure	4	1.8
School: Undergraduate program	2	0.9
Mentor Occupation		
Counselor Educator	168	77.1
Counselor	39	17.9
Clinical Supervisor	7	3.2
Clinical Director	3	1.4
Other	1	0.5

Most participants (45.4%) reported their mentor was affiliated with their university (current CES program). Other areas in which participants reported their mentor

was affiliated with were their master's program (12.8%), current place of employment (11.9%), former place of employment (11.5%), professional organization (10.6%), undergraduate program (0.9%), or was the person who provided supervision for their licensure (1.8%), and 11 people (5%) reported their mentor was affiliated with an option not provided. Almost half (45%) of participants reported having a career choice change over the course of their CES program. One hundred forty (64.2%) participants reported their mentor reinforced that they should pursue the primary career that they identified as they entered their CES program, whereas 20.2% reported their mentor did not influence their primary career choice. Twenty-nine (13.3%) reported their mentor provided guidance that led them to change their primary career choice that they entered the CES program with. Five people reported they were unsure if their mentor influenced their primary career.

Fifty-nine participants (27.1%) reported not having a secondary career choice. Sixty participants (27.5%) stated their mentor reinforced their secondary career choice, 23 (10.6%) reported their mentor provided them with guidance that changed their secondary career choice, 21 (9.6%) reported their mentor suggested they pursue a secondary career choice that they had not considered upon entering the CES program, and 52 (23.9%) reported their mentor did not influence them to pursue their secondary career.

Participants identified their mentor's job occupation as counselor educator (77.1%), counselor (17.9%), clinical supervisor (3.2%), clinical director (1.4%) and one person (0.5%) identified their mentor as having a job not listed. Seventy-eight percent

(*n*=171) of participants reported their mentor's main occupation was the same position they identified as the position they wanted to obtain when they entered their CES program. Almost 86% of the sample reported their mentor's main occupation was the same position they entered (or hope to enter) upon graduation.

Just under half of participants (45%) stated their career goals changed over the course of being enrolled as a CES student. As demonstrated in Table 3, the majority of participants (59.6%) entered their CES program hoping to obtain a full-time faculty position. Other career intentions were becoming a counselor in a private practice (11.5%), clinical leader not in a private practice setting (5%), counselor not in private practice (4.1%), clinical leader in private practice (3.7%), researcher (2.8%), adjunct (2.8%), supervisor for licensure (0.9%), and post-doctoral opportunities (0.5%). Thirteen participants (6%) reported they were unsure of their career goals and six participants (2.8%) said they had a career identified that was not shown.

Table 3

Career Choice of CES Students Upon Entering and Upon Graduating the CES Program

	Upon Entering CES Program		Upon Graduating CES Program	
Position	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
FT Faculty	130	59.6	153	70.2
Adjunct	6	2.8	11	5.0
Clinical leader/Admin (PP)	8	3.7	4	1.8
Clinical leader/Admin (No PP)	11	5.0	5	2.3
Clinical or Counselor Not PP	9	4.1	8	3.7
Clinical or Counselor in PP	25	11.5	17	7.8
Supervisor for licensure	2	.9	1	.5
Researcher	6	2.8	8	3.7
Post-Doc Opportunities	1	.5	1	.5
Advocacy	1	.5	1	.5
I was unsure of my career goals	13	6.0	7	3.2
Other	6	2.8	2	.9

Twenty five percent of participants (n = 55) reported when they entered their CES program they did not plan on entering into a secondary career. Other participants reported when they entered their CES program they were hoping to enter into a secondary career as a clinical counselor in private practice (17.4%), full-time faculty (15.1%), adjunct faculty (10.1%), clinical leader or administrator (8.7%), clinical counselor not private practice (8.7%), research (5%), supervisor for licensure (4.6%), post-doctoral opportunities (2.8%), and advocacy (1.4%). Two participants (0.9%) stated when they entered their CES program they intended upon entering a secondary career that was not listed.

Upon graduating, 70.2% of participants reported they hoped to enter into a faculty position as their primary career choice (see Table 3). The remaining 30% of participants reported they wanted their primary career upon graduation to be counselor in private practice (7.8%), adjunct (5%), counselor not private practice (3.7%), researcher (3.7%), clinical leader not private practice (2.3%), clinical leader private practice (1.8%), supervisor for licensure (0.5%), post-doctoral opportunities (0.5%), and advocacy (0.5%). Seven participants (3.2%) stated they were unsure of their career path and two participants (0.9%) stated the primary position they had hoped to enter upon graduation was not listed (other).

Table 4

Participant's Primary Position Entered Upon Graduating

Position	Frequency	%
Full-time faculty	117	53.7
I have not yet graduated	41	18.8
Clinical or Counselor (NOT private practice)	18	8.3
Clinical or Counselor in Private Practice	11	5
Adjunct	9	4.1
Clinical leader or NOT Private Practice	5	2.3
Clinical leader or Administrator (private practice)	2	.9
Supervisor for licensure	2	.9
Researcher	2	.9
Post-Doctoral Opportunities	2	.9
Advocacy	2	.9
Other	7	3.2

As shown in Table 4, 54 % (n = 117) of participants identified the primary position they were able to enter upon graduating was a faculty position. Nineteen percent of participants had not graduated. Eighteen participants (8.3%) identified the primary position they were able to enter upon graduating was a full-time counselor position not in private practice. Other primary positions participants reported they were able to enter into after graduation were full-time clinical positions in a private practice (5%), adjunct positions (4.1%), clinical leader not private practice (2.3%), clinical leader in private practice (0.9%), supervisor for licensure (0.9%), researcher (0.9%), post-doctoral opportunities (0.9%), and advocacy (0.9%). Seven participants (3.2%) stated they entered into a primary position after graduating that was not listed (other).

Eighteen percent of participants stated they do not have nor do they want a secondary position upon graduating. Sixteen percent (n = 35) stated they have not yet graduated. About 9% of participants reported exploring a secondary career. Other secondary careers participants were able to obtain upon graduation were counselor in

private practice (15.6%), full-time faculty (13.8%), adjunct (6.9%), counselor not private practice (6%), clinical leader private practice (3.2%), clinical leader not private practice (2.8%), supervisor for licensure (2.8%), researcher (2.8%), and post-doctoral opportunities (1.4%). Four (1.8%) of participants reported the secondary position they were able to enter upon graduation was not listed (other).

Question 18 read for "those of you who did not enter into academia", please describe why you chose not to enter into a faculty position. I then provided them with an open dialogue box which allowed participants to provide additional information. Participants who answered this question wrote, "family responsibilities at the time," "I became a school counselor because I thought loan forgiveness would help me," "I didn't want to move," and "I tried but didn't get in." Other responses were "I am now doing research and liking it so much more," I saw how stressed my mentor was working at a college and knew I could make more money in private practice and it is not worth it," "not worth the headache and better pay in private practice," "more interested in direct care once I did my internship in my doctoral program," and "better opportunity to do clinical education and research; more money." Four study participants responded by addressing to the political climate of academia by stating, "academia is too political and too much gatekeeping," "organizational politics were too much for me," "I did not want to deal with academic politics that come with being a fulltime faculty member," and "political games in academia." There were two responses that spoke of CESNET and how the political undertakings of faculty positions and outward "racist acts on an open forum designed for counselor educators" made the respondent lean more toward private

practice. One of the participants wrote, “I'm torn between entering clinical work and academia because of the White supremacist power dynamics of academia. I am not sure I want to fight that stronghold as the only Latina in any program. The true cost would be my health and well-being and that is not worth it for me.” Another wrote “I’m tired of having to code switch and "play" what seemed like posturing and pandering "games" in order to advance in an academic setting”.

Statistical Assumptions

I conducted a series of ANOVA’s for RQ2 to see if race (IV), age (IV), or gender (IV) influenced a CES students’ perceived quality of the mentoring relationship (DV) as measured by the scores on the MiCTS that capture actual experiences with mentorship (Prouty et al., 2016). The assumptions of a one-way ANOVA (normality, independence, homogeneity) were met or accommodated for. I used a histogram and found that my dependent variable was normally distributed and therefore met the normality assumption. I met the independence of scores assumption because my sample was randomized and scores are not dependent upon each other. I used the Levene’s test to test the homogeneity of the variances and found I had heterogeneity of variances for age (p = 0.13), race (p = 0.42), and gender (p = .040). This is likely due to the uneven groups. Therefore, I used a Brown-Forsythe F-statistic in place of the typical ANOVA F-ratio to compute each of the three ANOVA analyses. The Brown-Forsythe statistic adjusts the degrees of freedom to be more conservative, compensating for heterogeneity of variances, thus reducing the chances of error. The results of the Brown-Forsythe are discussed below in the results section.

Statistical Analysis

I conducted three separate one-way analysis of variances (ANOVAs) for RQ2 to see if CES students' gender (IV), race (IV), or age (IV) independently influenced CES students' perceived quality of the mentoring relationship (DV). I also used binomial logistic regression for RQ3 to see if the perceived quality of the mentoring relationship (IV) as indicated by the scores on the MiCTS (continuous variable) that capture actual experiences with mentorship predicted change in a CES students' career choice (DV) as measured by the change in career choice question on the demographic questionnaire (dichotomous: yes vs. no). Lastly, I used descriptive statistics to answer RQ4 (Do age, gender, or race influence qualities CES students assign as essential of ideal mentors as indicated by the scores on the MiCTS that capture ideal mentor qualities) because this question was easily answered using frequency tables.

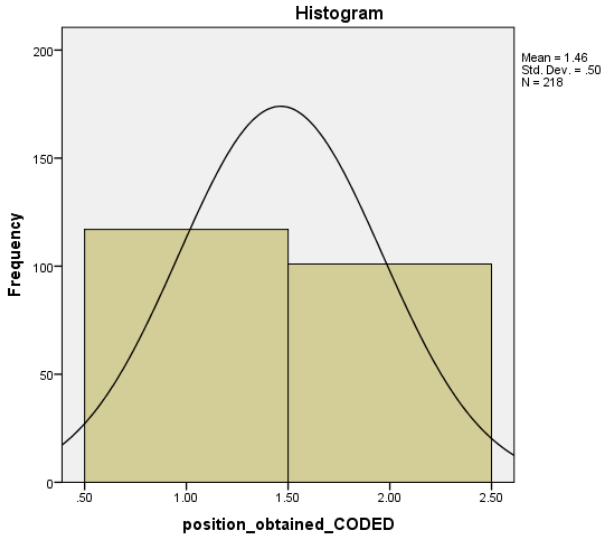
Research Question 1

RQ1: Does the perceived quality of the mentoring relationship predict career choice of CES students upon graduation? I needed to divide the responses to the career choice item into faculty position versus non-faculty position because I was predicting group membership (faculty vs. non-faculty) and the choices needed to be dichotomous. As can be seen in Figure 1, the sample was fairly even in distribution in choosing the options of faculty (n = 117) versus non-faculty (n = 101) positions. Non-faculty positions included the career options of adjunct faculty, clinical leader or administrator (private practice), clinical leader or not private practice, clinical or counselor (not private practice), clinical or counselor in private, practice, supervisor for licensure, researcher,

post-doctoral opportunities, and advocacy. I coded participant responses relating to faculty positions upon graduation as 1 and participants who responded that their career choice upon graduation was a non-faculty position as a 0.

Figure 1

Distribution of Responses for Position Obtained After Graduation



As shown in Tables 5 and 6, the results of the binomial logistic regression analysis indicated there was no statistically significant relationship between MiCTS and employment position obtained following graduation, $\chi^2(1) = 3.32$, $p = .069$. Thus, I accepted the null hypothesis. Therefore, the MiCTS total scores cannot predict whether the participants obtained a full-time faculty position or another career opportunity.

Table 5

Omnibus Test of Model Coefficients: Significance of MiCTS Scores Predicting Faculty vs. Non-Faculty

	Chi-square	df	Sig.
Step	3.318	1	.069
Block	3.318	1	.069
Model	3.318	1	.069

Table 6

Binomial Logistic Regression Predicting Faculty v. Non-Faculty Using the MiCTS (RQ1)

	B	SE	Wald	*df*	*p*	Odds Ratio	95% CI for Odds Ratio	
							Lower	Upper
Faculty	.025	.014	3.267	1	.071	1.026	.998	1.054
Constant	-1.470	.904	2.643	1	.104	.230		

Note. Results are not significant

Research Question 2

I conducted a series of ANOVA's for RQ2 to see if race (IV), age (IV), or gender (IV) influenced a CES students' perceived quality of the mentoring relationship (DV) as measured by the scores on the MiCTS that capture actual experiences with mentorship (Prouty et al., 2016). The assumptions of a one-way ANOVA (normality, independence, homogeneity) were met or accommodated for. I used the Levene's test to examine homogeneity of the variances and determined that the data violated this assumption, indicating heterogeneity of variances for age ($p = 0.13$), race ($p = 0.42$), and gender ($p = .040$). This heterogeneity of variances is likely due to the groups being unequal in size. I computed a Brown-Forsythe *F*-statistic for each independent variable, which adjusts the

degrees of freedom, and causes the significance testing to be more conservative. Also, for those analyses that required post hoc analysis, I used a Games-Howell to adjust for heterogeneity of variances. These results are reported below.

RQ2: Does race, age, or gender influence CES students' perceived quality of the mentoring relationship? Three, one-way analysis of variances (ANOVA's) were used to investigate the differences in total score on MiCTS and the independent variables of race, age range, and gender. Below are the results of the individual one-way ANOVA's.

Race

A statistically significant difference of total MiCTS scores was found depending on participant's identified race, $F(2, 109.98) = 18.73$, $p < .001$ (see Tables 7, 8, and 9). I used a Games-Howell post hoc analysis to further examine these differences and it was determined that those participants who identified as Black or African American had significantly higher total scores on the MiCTS compared to those who identified as Caucasian or Other (a combination of remaining races due to low numbers of participants per group; $p < .001$ and $p = .001$).

Table 7

ANOVA Significance Test of Race and MiCTS

	Statistic	*df1*	*df2*	*p*
Levene	3.217	2	215	.042
Brown-Forsythe	18.726	2	109.977	.000

Table 8

ANOVA: Race and MiCTS

	Sum of Squares	*df*	Mean Square	*F*	*p*
Between Groups	3281.699	2	1640.849	19.873	.000
Within Groups	17751.488	215	82.565		
Total	21033.187	217			

Table 9

Post-Hoc: ANOVA Results for Race and Scores on MiCTS

Race	Comparison Race	Mean Difference	Std. Error	*p*	95% Confidence Interval Lower	Upper
Caucasian	Black or African American	-9.38720	1.39828	.000	-12.713	-6.0614
	Other	-1.85133	1.86584	.585	-6.3472	2.6445
Black or African American	Caucasian	9.38720	1.39828	.000	6.0614	12.713
	Other	7.53587	2.04419	.001	2.6388	12.4329
Other	Caucasian	1.85133	1.86584	.585	-2.6445	6.3472
	Black or A	-7.53587	2.04419	.001	-12.4329	-2.6388

Note. *Significant at the 0.05 level

Age

Regarding the independent variable age, a significant difference was found in MiCTS scores between age groups $F(3, 35.6) = 4.42$, $p = .010$ (See Table 10). A Games-Howell post analysis (see Table 11) revealed a statistically significant difference between participants aged 30-39 and 40-49 ($p < .001$). Participants in the 30-39 age group had significantly higher total scores on the MiCTS compared to participants in the 40-49 age group. I will discuss these findings further in Chapter 5.

Table 10

ANOVA Significance Test of Age and MiCTS

	Statistic	*df1*	*df2*	*p*
Levene	3.663	3	214	.013
Brown-Forsythe	4.420	3	35.558	.010

Table 11

ANOVA: Age and MiCTS

	Sum of Squares	*df*	Mean Square	*F*	*p*
Between Groups	1588.938	3	529.646	5.829	.001
Within Groups	19444.248	214	90.861		
Total	21033.187		217		

Table 12

Post-Hoc: ANOVA Results for Race and Scores on MiCTS

	Comparison	Mean	Std.		95% Confidence Interval	
Age	Age	Difference	Error	Sig.	Lower	Upper
20-29	30-39	-2.63905	1.70097	.412	-7.0996	1.8215
	40-49	4.11188	1.89696	.140	-.8541	9.0779
	50-70	2.26921	4.45382	.955	-10.8732	15.4116
30-39	20-29	2.63905	1.70097	.412	-1.8215	7.0996
	40-49	6.75093*	1.49344	.000	2.8445	10.6573
	50-70	4.90826	4.029749	.673	-8.0490	17.8655
40-49	20-29	-4.11188	1.89696	.140	-9.0779	.8541
	30-39	-6.75093*	1.49344	.000	-10.6573	-2.8445
	50-70	-1.84267	4.37876	.974	-14.8911	11.2058
50-70	20-29	-2.26921	4.45382	.955	-15.4116	10.8732
	30-39	-4.90826	4.29749	.673	-17.8655	8.0490
	40-50	1.84267	4.37876	.974	-11.2058	14.8911

Note. *Significant at the 0.05 level

Gender

Lastly, I investigated differences between gender and MiCTS total actual scores. When investigating differences between gender, no significant differences were found between genders regarding MiCTS total scores, $F(1, 52.19) = 0.43$, $p = .84$ (see Tables 13

& 14). I will discuss possible reasons for no differences between gender identity in Chapter 5.

Table 13

ANOVA Significance Test of Gender and MiCTS

	Statistic	*df1*	*df2*	*p*
Levene	4.250	1	210	.040
Brown-Forsythe	.043	1	52.187	.836

Table 14

ANOVA: Gender and MiCTS

	Sum of Squares	*df*	Mean Square	*F*	*p*
Between Groups	3.087	1	3.087	.032	.858
Within Groups	20181.283	210	96.101		
Total	20184.370	211			

Research Question 3

RQ3: Does perceived quality of the mentoring relationship predict CES students' career change? Career choice change was represented by a 1 and no career choice change a 0. The sample was fairly equally distributed among career choice change as 98 participants said they had a career choice change over the course of their CES program and 120 participants said they did not have a career choice change (see Table 15).

Table 15

Did Career Goals Change over course of being enrolled as a CES Student

	n	%
No	120	55
Yes	98	45

Note: $N = 218$

To investigate this hypothesis, I computed a binomial logistic regression analysis and found it to be significant, $\chi^2(1) = 6.46$, $p = .011$ (see Tables, 16, 17, and 18). Therefore, I can confirm that the total score on MiCTS is able to predict group membership into the categories of changed career goals or no career change. However, upon looking at effect size (Table 17), the MiCTS scores do not account for much variability in the change of group membership, $r^2 = .029$. The identified equation for predicting group membership was as follows, Y= -.036*(Total score on MiCTS) + 2.07.

Table 16

Omnibus Test of Model Coefficients: Significance of MiCTS Scores Predicting Career Choice Change (RQ3)

	Chi-square	*df*	*p*
Step	6.464	1	.011
Block	6.464	1	.011
Model	6.464	1	.011

Table 17

Effect size: MiCTS and Career Choice Change

Step	-2 Log likelihood	Cox & Snell R Square	Nagelkerke R Square
1	293.524[a]	.029	.039

a. Estimation terminated at iteration number 3 because parameter estimates changed by < .001.

Table 18

Binomial Logistic Regression Predicting Career Choice Change using the MiCTS (RQ3)

	B	SE	Wald	*df*	*p*	Odds Ratio	95% CI for Odds Ratio Lower	Upper
Change	-.036	.014	6.272	1	.012	.965	.938	.992
Constant	2.072	.917	5.104	1	.024	7.943		

Research Question 4

RQ4: Do age, gender, or race influence qualities CES students assign as essential for ideal mentors? To investigate this question, I performed descriptive analyses. Specifically, I created frequency tables for each variable of interest and the four subscales of the MiCTS using the data from participants' ideal mentor responses. I placed responses into the domains (psychosocial, career, research, or clinical) as per the MiCTS scoring instructions provided by Prouty and colleagues (Prouty et al., 2017). The MiCTS is commonly separated into the domains of Psychosocial (items 1, 6, 7, 8, 14, 15, & 25), Career (items 3, 4, 5, 11, 17, 18, 23, & 26), Clinical (items 2, 9, 10, 16, 22, & 24), and Research (items 12, 19, 20, & 21) domains. For the data analysis, I examined which

qualities participants assigned as being essential in their ideal mentor across race, age, and gender.

Table 19

Ideal Qualities of Mentor by Age: Psychosocial and Career Domain

Age	Psychosocial Domain			Career Domain		
	Irrelevant	Sometimes Important	Essential	Irrelevant	Sometimes Important	Essential
20-29	2.1%	70.8%	27.1%	2%	75%	22.9%
30-39	0.9%	69%	30%	2.7%	76.1%	21.2%
40-49	4.3%	82.6%	13%	15.2%	82.6%	2.2%
50-70	0%	72.7%	27.3%	18.2%	63.6%	18.2%

Table 20

Ideal Qualities of Mentor by Age: Clinical and Research Domain

Age	Clinical Domain			Research Domain		
	Irrelevant	Sometimes Important	Essential	Irrelevant	Sometimes Important	Essential
20-29	14.6%	60.4%	25%	4.2%	52.1%	43.8%
30-39	8.8%	68.1%	23%	3.5%	45.1%	51.3%
40-49	10.9%	82.6%	6.5%	10.9%	50%	39.1%
50-70	0%	72.7%	27.3%	18.2%	18.2%	63.6%

As indicated in Tables 19 and 20, participants across all ages scored the research domain as the most essential quality of an ideal mentor. Participants aged 40-49 proportionately reported the lowest essential quality of an ideal mentor was the career domain (2%). The highest percentage of participants who scored a quality as being essential were the participants who were aged over 50 years and under the research domain (63.6%). Otherwise, scores for essential qualities of a mentor were fairly evenly distributed.

Table 21

Ideal Qualities of Mentor by Race: Clinical and Research Domain

	Clinical Domain			Research Domain		
Race	Irrelevant	Sometimes Important	Essential	Irrelevant	Sometimes Important	Essential
Caucasian	13.3%	75%	11.7%	7%	49.2%	43.8%
Black/African American	3.8%	55.8%	40.4%	0%	32.7%	67.3%
Other	7.9%	71.1%	21.1%	10.5%	55.3%	34.2%

Table 22

Ideal Qualities of Mentor by Race: Psychosocial and Career Domain

Race	Psychosocial Domain			Career Domain		
	Irrelevant	Sometimes Important	Essential	Irrelevant	Sometimes Important	Essential
Caucasian	2.3%	79.7%	18%	8.6%	82%	9.4%
Black/African American	0%	55.8%	44.2%	0%	69.2%	30.8%
Other	2.6%	71.1%	26.3%	5.3%	68.4%	26.3%

As shown in Tables 21 and 22, the proportion of participants who rated the research domain as an essential quality was higher than those who rated it as irrelevant or sometimes important. In particular, Black or African American participants rated research as the most essential quality of all qualities and proportionately higher than participants of any other race. Black or African American participants also rated the psychosocial and clinical aspects of mentorship more essential than other races as well as had the highest scores within the essential category across all four domains than any other race. I will discuss these conclusions in Chapter 5.

Table 23

Ideal Qualities of Mentor by Gender: Career and Clinical Domain

	Career Domain			Clinical Domain		
Gender	Irrelevant	Sometimes Important	Essential	Irrelevant	Sometimes Important	Essential
Male	3%	69.7%	27.3%	9.1%	69.7%	21.2%
Female	6.7%	77.1%	16.2%	10.1%	69.3%	20.7%

Table 24

Ideal Qualities of Mentor by Gender: Psychosocial and Research Domain

	Research Domain			Psychosocial Domain		
Gender	Irrelevant	Sometimes Important	Essential	Irrelevant	Sometimes Important	Essential
Male	9.1%	51.5%	39.4%	6.1%	69.7	24.2%
Female	5%	46.4%	48.6%	1.1%	73.2	25.7%

As shown in Tables 23 and 24, the proportion of female participants who rated research as an essential quality was higher than male participants with the majority of females (48.6%) rating research as an essential attribute of a mentor. Interestingly, females proportionately rated the career domain as the lowest essential quality of an idea mentor (16.2%). Males rated the career domain proportionately more essential than females.

Summary

Total actual scores on the MiCTS cannot predict if a participant enters into a faculty or non-faculty position. Mentees aged 30-39 scored significantly higher on their actual mentorship experiences than mentees aged 40-49. The MiCTS does predict if a person will have a career choice change as the group of people who had a career choice change had higher actual scores on the MiCTs. Research appears to be the attribute people of all ages, races, and genders proportionately rated as a characteristic of an ideal mentor. African Americans rated the psychosocial domain more essential than other races did. Fewer females scored career as an essential attribute of an ideal mentor than any other domain or gender. Sixty percent of participants wanted to obtain a faculty position upon entering their CES program, 70% hoped to enter into a faculty position upon graduating, but only 54% were able to secure a faculty position.

In this chapter I described my pilot study, my sample, and the results of the study. I interpret the findings of the study in Chapter 5. I also provide recommendations, describe limitations, and identify implications of the study in the following chapter.

Chapter 5: Discussion

The purpose of this quantitative study was to explore the perceived quality of participants' mentoring relationships as measured by the MiCTS and whether that score then predicted the participant's career choices or a change in career choice. I also investigated whether students' demographic variables of race, age, or gender influenced their perceived quality of the mentoring relationship. Finally, I described qualities identified as essential qualities of an ideal mentor across the participant's age, gender, and race. My hope in conducting this study was to provide CES program administrators with data they could use to form mentorship programs that would build on the self-efficacy of CES students with the hope of having these graduates fill the strong need for CES faculty positions.

Key findings from this study are that the MiCTS total scores cannot predict whether the participants obtained a full-time faculty position or another career opportunity. However, total scores on the MiCTS were able to predict group membership into the categories of changed career goals or no career change. A second key finding was that participants aged 30-39 years had significantly higher MiCTS ratings compared to those participants aged 40-49 years. Participants who identified as Black or African American had significantly higher MiCTS total actual scores in comparison to Caucasian and other races. Another key finding was that participants across all ages scored the research domain as the most essential quality of an ideal mentor. The lowest essential quality of an ideal mentor for participants aged 40-49 years fell under the career domain (2%). Otherwise, scores for essential qualities of a mentor were fairly evenly distributed.

Interpretation of the Findings

Study participants rated research mentorship as the most essential quality of an ideal mentor. I found this finding to occur across race, age, and gender. The persistent shortage of clinical research within the field of counseling is a significant problem for counselor education as well as other helping professions (Borders et al., 2012; Kaminsky & Behrend, 2015; Lee, 2014). Study results confirmed previous findings that research is the area in which most CES students felt they needed mentorship (Lamar & Helm, 2017; Magnuson et al., 2003; Wilde et al, 2015). This finding may especially relate to CES students who are transitioning into faculty positions, similar to how participants in Milsom and Moran's (2015) study were transitioning into faculty positions and rated research mentoring as being critical to their success in becoming a faculty member. Milsom and Moran's (2015) findings align with the present investigation due to the majority of study participants reporting a desire to obtain a faculty position and 54% reporting already having obtained a faculty position.

My results indicated that Black or African American participants rated all four categories of qualities (clinical, career, psychosocial, and research) as being essential across all four domains compared to all other racial groups. For instance, 40 % of Black or African American participants rated the clinical domain as being essential and only 11 % of Caucasians and 21% of other races rated the clinical domain as being essential. Similarly, 31 % of Black or African American participants rated the career domain as being essential whereas only 9.4 % of Caucasians and 26.3 % of participants from other races scored this category as being essential. It is important to note that the career domain

is the category Caucasians scored as being the least most essential aspect of mentorship. This may lead some people to believe the mentoring requirements of African American or Black students are too high. However, I found participants who identified as Black or African American rated their actual mentoring experiences (not just ideal mentoring experiences) higher than the participants of all other races as well. Therefore, one may conclude Black or African American participants have high expectations of an ideal mentor, but are also having their needs met. This finding also aligns with Montgomery's (2017) conclusion that minority students often report gaining more benefits from mentoring relationships than any other racial group. Therefore, one way to strengthen diversity among the CES field may be to offer mentorship opportunities to Black of African American students and to offer these mentoring relationships during the master's program as a way to recruit for CES programs. Future researchers may also want to qualitatively investigate how mentorship impacted Black or African American CES students in particular and if there was a variable unaccounted for in this study that may influence Black or African American students' choice of non-faculty or faculty positions.

Approximately 25 participants answered the one open-ended question in the survey. About four participants responded to the open-ended question citing they witnessed their mentors express how stressful their position was and that led them to not want to enter into a faculty position. These findings align with Coaston and Cook's (2017) and Ramirez's (2010) findings that students often make career choices based on how their mentor, advisor, or faculty member portrayed the profession (Ramirez, 2010) especially when it comes to levels of burnout. Other respondents (n = 3) stated they did

not become a faculty member due to the potential to make more money in private practice, to have their loans forgiven by working as a school counselor, or that the faculty position was "just not worth the hassle." This finding reiterates Nagel et al.'s (2004), Brooks and Steen's (2010), and Hinkle et al.'s (2017) findings that counselor educators in trainings' perception of the low salary and perceived rigor of academic positions may deter CES graduates from applying for faculty positions.

The open-ended responses (n = 2) from two identified Latina participants who referred to power dynamics in academia as a reason for not entering into a faculty position may reaffirm Ramirez's (2010) other finding that ethnic minority students chose not to enter the field of teaching because they felt there was a lack of respect for the teaching profession, there are too many political underpinnings, and this population has experienced negative events in school. Other minority respondents discussed organizational politics, dealing with "political games in academia, "white supremacy" and "outward racist acts on CESNET as reasons for not entering academia." Preston (2013) brought attention to each of these political and discriminatory reasons for Black faculty not entering into faculty positions. He reported finding 98% of all academic administrative positions in the top ten Universities were held by Caucasian males. Preston suggested empowering new faculty members with ideologies of social justice and information on activism while empowering them with knowledge and mentorship on how to become an administrator. After reviewing these open-ended responses, researchers may want to delve into the phenomenological experiences of these mentees. These

responses bring light to the systemic issues in higher education, society, and the everyday happenings in the world.

Two other female respondents reported not entering a faculty position by discussing familial obligations. For instance, one participant stated, “family responsibilities at the time and I didn’t want to relocate my children” as well as “I did not want to move.” These open-ended responses align with Woo et al.’s (2017) findings that female participants selected geographic location, family need, and work conditions as the critical variables in making a career choice.

My findings that there was a significant difference between participants aged 30-39 and those aged 40-49 was supported by existing literature. Both Boswell et al.’s (2015) and Neale et al.’s (2018) findings also supported previous findings that mentoring needs of counselor educators varied by age. In particular, Nate’s (2015) finding that female counselor educators aged between 40 and 50 reported a stronger alignment with many of the views associated with social advocacy than any other age group may be a way to explain the significant difference between these two age groups.

The MiCTS

Prouty et al. (2015) suggested researchers not use the total score on the MiCTS because they found the research domain was not well represented in their population. However, the research domain was properly represented in my study. This difference between Prouty et al.’s participants and mine is likely due to Prouty et al. conducting their study on LMFT’s who were likely going to enter clinical positions after obtaining

their PhD's whereas CES students are likely to enter into faculty positions which can have more of a research focus.

Quinlan et al. (2019) and Trolia (2019) used the MiCTS and found participants form their study scored the psychosocial functions significantly higher than clinical, career, or research domains. Dissimilarly, the majority of participants in my study rated the research domain as being essential for an ideal mentor. This difference may be explained by all of Quinlan et al.'s and Trolia's participants being psychologists whereas mine were CES students. The difference is the majority (70%) of study participants wanted to become full-time faculty whereas psychologists tend to enter into clinical positions making the clinical and psychosocial domains more critical to their career.

Kram's Theory of Mentorship

The majority of participants in the study rated the psychosocial support domain as being an essential or sometimes essential characteristic of a mentor. Few participants rated this domain as being irrelevant. This emphasis on the psychosocial domain was true across race, age, and gender. Therefore, my study may also affirm Milsom and Moran's and Niles et al. (2001) studies that found mentors should attend to personal factors related to being in a doctoral program. Seeing how the MiCTS (Prouty et al. 2015) aligns with Kram's identified psychosocial components of mentorship that includes enhancing mentees' sense of competence, self-efficacy, and professional and personal development (Kram, 1983), my study reaffirms Kram's theory of mentoring.

Just under half (45%) of participants stated their career goals changed over the course of being enrolled as a CES student. Kram (1983) explained career choice changes

by referring to her findings that mentors often influenced mentees' career possibilities by increasing information about careers, providing career resources, and exposing mentees to a variety of career possibilities (Higgins & Kram, 2001). Therefore, my study reinforces Kram's position because only 20% of participants stated their mentor did not influence their primary career choice and 23% stated their mentor did not influence their secondary career choice.

Gottfredson

Gottfredson (1981) believed mentors often promoted self-insight and career exploration for their mentees which helped prevent or reverse inappropriate circumscription. Therefore, Gottfredson may extrapolate that my findings reiterate her stance that mentors can lessen barriers for mentees which leads them to obtain the career choice they desire and for which they were trained. The majority of study participants (70%) endorsed wanting to enter into a faculty position and 54% stated they had already obtained a faculty position which are higher statistics than previous studies because other studies included participants who had not been mentored (Hinkle et al., 2017; Isaacs & Sabella, 2013; Murdock et al., 2013; Woo et al., 2017).

Gottfredson (1981) believed a person can reverse inappropriate circumscription through insight which other researchers found is a common task performed by mentors (Black et al., 2012; Yob & Crawford, 2012). Gottfredson also found problems arise when an individual's self-assessment is inaccurate which leads them to overemphasize barriers and restrict career options which is why it is critical to examine a person's perception of career opportunities, ability to make career choices, priorities when compromising, and

dysfunctional career thoughts. Gottfredson and other researchers (DeCino, 2019; Harris, 2014; Schneider & Dimito, 2010) have used Gottfredson's theory to support how having a mentor can negate these problems for mentees. For instance, counselors who reported having a mentor stated the most significant ways a mentor helped them was by helping them navigate barriers within their chosen career, increase their view of career opportunities, and by increasing their feelings of support and confidence (Baltrinic et al., 2016; Carpenter et al., 2015; Eaton et al., 2015; Protivnak & Foss, 2009); all items found on the MiCTS. Therefore, my finding that mentees who had a mentor, who almost always engaged in most of the listed benefits of mentoring, were more likely to report a career choice change. This finding supports Gottfredson's claim because it is likely the participant's mentor engaged in most of the aspects of quality mentoring that lead to healthier career choice making.

Social Cognitive Career Theory

My finding that mentees who had mentors who almost always engaged in most of the listed benefits of mentoring were likely to report a career choice change also reaffirms previous findings of SCCT researchers. For instance, many researchers found that mentorship positively influenced self-efficacy and career outcome expectations which in turn predicted career interest and career choice (Briggs & Pehrsson, 2008; Dollarhide et al., 2013; Eaton et al., 2015; Murdock et al., 2013; Nolte et al., 2015). Other researchers attributed this career choice decision to increased feelings of confidence in job tasks (Kaminsky & Beherend, 2015). Therefore, what my finding may be suggesting is that mentors who attend to the majority of tasks associated with being an ideal mentor are

likely to produce mentees who feel confident in their career decisions, and may even change their career choice if they receive quality mentorship, because they have increased their mentors' self-efficacy in job related tasks by role modeling behaviors. Especially since participants in Crowe et al.'s (2013) study identified observing their mentor, receiving feedback from their mentor, and co-leading counseling sessions as the most beneficial to them experiencing increased feelings of competence and confidence.

Approximately 60% of participants in the present study reported wanting to be a full-time faculty member upon entering their CES program versus the 70% who reported that they wanted to become a full-time faculty member upon graduation. Therefore, approximately 10% of study participants had an increased interest in becoming a faculty member over the course of their CES program. Knowing that 77% of participants in my study were mentored by counselor educators but that scores on the MiCTS do not predict if participants entered into faculty or non-faculty positions may contradict Bandura's SCCT. For instance, Bandura (1997) claimed that the self-efficacy rates of mentees would increase as they watched their mentor engage in job tasks and that the mentee would likely feel more confident to engage in these job-related tasks.

Study findings that mentorship can influence a person to have a career choice change and that many CES students experienced a career choice change aligns with previous research that found mentors can influence a mentees career trajectory (Conklin et al., 2013). More specifically, this finding reiterates the research that confirmed most CES students enter their doctoral degree with the intent to become a full-time faculty member, but only between 20% and 43% of CES graduates reported wanting to pursue a

faculty position upon graduation (Hinkle et al., 2017; Isaacs & Sabella, 2013; Murdock et al., 2013; Woo et al., 2017).

More participants in this study reported wanting to obtain a faculty position (70%) than did in Hinkle et al.'s (2017) study. This finding may be because all participants in the present study were mentored whereas mentorship was not a qualifying factor for participation in Hinkle et al.'s study. It is also important to note that Hinkle et al. only had 35 participants in their study. This minor discrepancy between Hinkle et al.'s finding and my findings may also be explained by Lent and Bandura's (1997) SCCT. For instance, CES students with high self-efficacy levels were more likely to persist in their academics (Walsh & Kurpius, 2016), had stronger supervisory skills (Frick& Glosoff, 2014), had more research publications (Kuo et al., 2017), and had higher levels of professional identity (Dollarhide et al., 2013). These positive gains often came from participants being mentored and this led them to enter into CES faculty positions (Briggs & Pehrsson, 2008; Dollarhide et al., 2013; Eaton et al., 2015; Murdock et al., 2013; Nolte et al., 2015). Hinkle et al.'s (2013) main claim that students' perception of the low salary and perceived rigor of academic positions may deter CES graduates from applying for faculty positions may not be true for students who received mentorship because faculty mentors may normalize the rigor of academia (Dollarhide et al., 2013 & Nolte et al., 2015) as well as encourage mentees to obtain a secondary position as found in the current study.

Age and Self-Efficacy

Other researchers have also found similar results to mine regarding participants aged 30-39 reporting higher actual scores on mentoring scales than other participants. For instance, Lam et al. (2013) found counselors between the ages of 30 and 39 years old reported the highest rates of self-efficacy among all age groups. The high self-efficacy rates of this age group are important because many researchers reported self-efficacy levels determine career choice (Conklin et al., 2013; Connolly et al., 2018; Ponnock et al., 2018). Knowing that I also found participants in the age group of 30-39 reported higher scores on the MiCTS than participants aged 40-49 highlights the importance of further exploring the experiences of the 40-49 year-olds because these individuals may not be feeling as confident or competent in their job tasks which can affect their career choice, tenure in positions, as well as productivity (Conklin et al., 2013; Connolly et al., 2018).

Limitations of the Study

Participants self-selected to be a part of this study which may have skewed results if more faculty and administrators responded than practitioners. This study only applies to individuals who have graduated within the past ten years and who had a mentor. I cannot make any inferences about people who did not have a mentor or graduated before 2010. I did not capture any extraneous variables in the assessments. For instance, the above mentioned differences between age groups that may have been influenced by mentors engaging their mentee in social advocacy work was not accounted for (Nate, 2015).

The world is currently experiencing a pandemic. The implications of experiencing a pandemic and collecting data during a pandemic are yet unknown. For instance, I do not know the effects of the pandemic on availability of faculty positions, mentoring, or career choices. Clinicians, students, and faculty were forced to rapidly adapt to the pandemic by changing the way courses and services were delivered (Neuwirth et al., 2020). Researchers have also found that the pandemic has changed the way many counselors provide therapeutic services and many counseling organizations are concerned about counselors and burn-out (ACA, 2020). Neurwirth et al. (2020) found both students and faculty were burdened by the stressors of the pandemic and proposed that higher education may be changed forever. For instance, as stated by Cutri et al. (2020), many faculty were not prepared to transition into teaching online courses and were also faced with having to assist students. Most importantly, students were faced with insurmountable pressure related to juggling various roles; especially Latina students (Morabito, 2020). Feelings associated with lack of preparedness, role extension, and being in a constant state of flux may have influenced career choices of the participants in my study.

Boudreau (2020) found many counselors reported being overworked and without proper resources for how to handle clients during the pandemic. As discussed by Harper (2020), clinicians were among the front-line workers whose health was placed at risk during the pandemic. The Center for Disease Control and Prevention (2020) found the pandemic is resulting in people experiencing changes in sleep quality, difficulty concentrating, and increased use of substances, mental health disorders, and even suicide.

These stressors can lead counselor educators or soon-to-be graduates of CES programs to change their career or to mentors not providing quality mentorship (Coaston & Cook, 2017).

There is an underlying assumption that counselor educators are models of self-care for their mentees (Moate et al. 2016). Unfortunately, during these unprecedented times, counselor educators may struggle balancing their roles as educators, mentors, counselors, or supervisors (Harrichand et al. 2021). Researchers have also found that when counselor educators neglect their own self-care they compromise modeling ethical behaviors and are often unable to be effective at work (Yager & Tovar-Blank, 2007). Therefore, mentorship provided during the pandemic may have not been as strong as prior to the pandemic which produced differing results from those who were mentored prior to the pandemic.

There are currently 40 million Americans who are unemployed in the U.S. (U.S. Bureau of Statistics and Labor, 2020). However, researchers do not know how many of these 40 million unemployed workers are counselors or counselor educators. I also do not know if any of these individuals filled or did not fill out the survey. Results may have been skewed by the economic circumstances the world was facing during my data collection. For instance, participants may have reported having higher actual scores in relation to their mentor because they had a job and had a mentor and are better off than other people they know with PhD's in CES. There is also the possibility that people who are unemployed or attending to the burdens of the pandemic did not complete the survey.

Gottfredson (1981) claimed that a person's environment and life situations influence their career choices. I can only guess that the pandemic influenced people who hold their PhD in CES and CES doctoral students in some way. For instance, being in a pandemic probably altered a person's career choices, perception of faculty positions, and mentoring experiences. It is also likely that the pandemic has affected people of different ages, races, and genders in different ways; and therefore; it may have also impacted their career choices and mentoring relationships.

Some participants had to rely on their long-term memory in order to fill out this survey. Others may have been influenced by the current climate concerning racism. My study did not account for these influences or other extraneous variables. Lastly, I experienced a data breach and had to throw away data. Some of the thrown away data could have been valid which could have changed my results.

Recommendations

Both my study and previous studies have concluded that CES students enter CES programs hoping to obtain a faculty position but many leave the program not wanting to, or not being able to, obtain a faculty position (Hinkle et al., 2017). Considering my study found the MiCTS total scores cannot predict if a participant went into a faculty or non-faculty position, researchers are still left wondering what the variables are that influence a CES students' decision to obtain (or not obtain) a faculty position at the end of their PhD program. As the focus of the study was primarily quantitative in nature, I did not collect much qualitative data. However, future researchers may find it beneficial to interview CES students who are about to graduate about their career choices upon graduation and

ask how they came to choose that career. Researchers should interview CES students who had, and did not have, a mentor and who are entering, and not entering, faculty positions to see if there are differences. Then, researchers could create a quantitative measure using the results from the qualitative study and make their findings more generalizable.

According to the study's findings, participants who identified as Black or African American had significantly higher total scores on the MiCTS compared to groups of all other races. This finding may lead researchers in the direction of qualitatively collecting data from Black or African American CES students about their mentorship experiences and why they perceived their mentor almost always engaged in most mentorship characteristics associated with the MiCTS. In particular, researchers must address the respondents who shared their reasons for not wanting to enter into academia by delving into the tougher topics of racism, white supremacy, and the politics of higher education.

While there were few respondents who had the courage to bring attention to these topics, these voices deserve attention and may even be thoughts of other respondents who chose not to answer the open-ended question. Much more education and research is needed in the area of racism and white supremacy in higher education; especially since accrediting boards, colleges and universities, and society in general is making it be known that students want faculty who look like them. However, this research demonstrates it is more than just hiring faculty who represent minority students and that the issue is more about creating a climate in which faculty of color can thrive and possibly become administrators who can affect change. These findings also suggest an overhaul of how we deliver education and the need to focus on training CES leaders to

become aware of the systemic influences, combat racism ,and become agents of social change.

I also suggest investigating if there are differences between Black or African American CES students who were mentored by someone within their own race or someone of a different race. For instance, Randel found cross-race mentorship in the form of sponsorship can increase the African American mentee's chances of earning an administrative position in higher education because the mentor is invested in the mentee's success and exposes the mentee to various people as well as teaches the mentee how to navigate the politics of academia. While some researchers found same-race mentorship highly benefits underrepresented groups almost all researchers point out that it is the quality of mentorship, rather than race, that matters most (Spalter-Roth et al., 2013). This is a need for research on the effects of cross-race mentoring within the field of CES.

Creating a list of tasks mentors engaged in may provide counselor educators with a task list of positive ways to significantly influence a CES student's mentorship experiences. Having this statistic may help program administrators assign mentors. Lastly, it may prove helpful to find out what tasks mentors were engaging in that lead the mentee to feel they mattered.

Also according to my findings, participants in the 30-39 age group had significantly higher total scores on the MiCTS compared to those participants in the 40-49 age group. This finding may suggest that counselor educators need to strengthen mentoring to CES students aged 40-49. It is plausible that mentors mentoring CES students aged 40-49 years thought CES students in this age group did not need as much

mentorship or career guidance due to them being older and possibly more settled in their career. However, my findings suggest this group desires more mentorship. I suggest future researchers analyze the intricate details of this age group. For instance, which of the four domains on the MiCTS did participants 40-49 years old score low on when filling out the survey on their actual mentorship experience.

I also suggest future researchers explore how social justice work influences mentoring because Nate (2015) found female counselor educator mentees aged between 40 and 50 reported a stronger alignment with many of the views associated with social advocacy than any other age group. Similarly, Brooks and Steen (2010) found the most significant reason why Black males reported remaining within the field of counselor education was due to their engagement in social advocacy projects. Therefore, involvement in social advocacy work may be influencing a CES students' view of their ideal mentor.

Social justice and advocacy work is another variable worthy of consideration. Brooks and Steen (2010) found the most significant reason why Black males reported remaining within the field of counselor education was due to their engagement in social advocacy projects. Washington and Henfield (2019) found similar results and offered ways for counselor educators to infuse the AMCD multicultural and social justice counseling competencies into the classroom as a way to address the Black Lives Matter movement and other initiatives designed to bring attention to the current climate. Washington and Henfield's suggestions are not only good for CES programs to adapt, but CES faculty and administrators must also find ways to empower their students to carry on

these discussions in the classrooms they serve in. Therefore, it may be beneficial for researchers to examine the effects of mentors who engaged in social justice advocacy work across race, age, or gender.

My findings that the higher the total actual score on the MiCTS predicted a career choice change may be related to Ramirez's (2010) findings that students often make career choices based on how their mentor, advisor, or faculty member portrayed the profession. Therefore, my recommendation would be to have counselor educators who are serving as mentors understand how they portray the field of academia, and that they may be influencing their mentee's change in career choice. Another recommendation may be to have program administrators explore a mentor's satisfaction with the aspects of their job prior to taking on the responsibilities of mentoring. Lastly, program administrators may want to hold a mentorship orientation in which they discuss this finding related to how counselor educators portray the profession is discussed may also benefit mentorship programs.

The finding that the research domain is the area that the majority of participants identified as being the most essential aspect of a mentor, deserves attention. Briggs and Pehrsson (2008) found the best way to increase research productivity among recently hired counselor educators was to provide these individuals with a research mentor who focused on research methodology, data analysis, and scientific integrity. Administrators in CES programs must heed the suggestions of previous researchers as well as the findings of this study and begin to include research mentoring opportunities into their curriculum as much as possible. As indicated from the individual items on the MiCTS,

mentors can role-model how to build a research agenda, collaborate with mentees on research or a publication, and actively encourage mentees to publish.

Researchers must also attend to current issues in future research. For instance, it may be noteworthy to investigate how the pandemic influenced the career choice of CES students and mentors. It may also be worthwhile to examine how the current racial and political climate influenced a CES students and counselor educators' career choices.

Implications

The CACREP urges counselor education programs to make systemic efforts to attract and retain diverse faculty (CACREP, 2016). One way to strengthen systemic efforts in attracting and retaining diverse faculty is to increase the pool and success of CES students who want to enter into faculty positions. Knowing faculty often influence students' career decisions through mentoring relationships (Conklin et al., 2013), that minority students often gain the most benefits from mentoring relationships (Montgomery, 2017), and as demonstrated by the results from this study, when mentored, African American participants rated their mentorship experiences higher than any other racial group highlights the importance of creating mentorship programs; Especially for underrepresented populations. Therefore, program administrators must begin to set up mentoring programs focused on all four domains of the MiCTS.

Only 24% of study participants identified as Black or African American and 59% of participants reported their mentor was Caucasian. As previously stated, Miller and Stone (2011) found Black males were inspired to enter the field of counselor education if they were exposed to a faculty member of color. Respondents in Miller and Stone's study

also reported that their mentor was often the person who initiated contact with a Black counselor educator. Therefore, when Caucasian mentors are mentoring CES students who do not share the same race, it may be beneficial to, at a minimum, expose their mentee to a counselor educator of color.

Black or African American participants rated the psychosocial and clinical domains of ideal mentorship more essential than other races as well as had the highest scores within the essential category across all four domains than any other race. This finding reminds researchers of the crucial and varying needs Black or African American CES students place on their mentor. The significant need of CES students is likely due to their previous missed opportunities to have a mentor during their undergraduate or master's education. It appears that when a CES student is provided with a mentor that mentor has to make up for that student not having had a mentor prior to them entering a doctoral program. Only 13% of participants stated their mentor was associated with their master's program. Therefore, one recommendation is to start the mentoring programs earlier than in a CES program by matching master's level students with mentors especially Black or African American students.

Study data revealed Black or African American CES students' perception that their mentor almost always engaged in the benefits of mentoring. Black or African American CES students' perception of their mentor was higher than Caucasians' perception of their mentor. Seventy one percent of African American participants in my study reported having an African American mentor. Therefore, I conclude that having a Black or African American CES student mentored by someone who shares their same

race may result in the African American CES student reporting higher benefits from being mentored or that there may be other variables influencing the mentee. These results would be similar to Smith et al.'s (2020) findings that HBCU students mentored by faculty who looked like them resulted in increased student success and social mobility. This finding could lead CES program administrators to want to hire more diverse faculty which again stresses the importance of needing a stronger pipeline of CES students from counselor education master's programs and psychology undergraduate programs.

Quality mentorship opportunities must focus on research. Borders et al. (2012) issued research mentoring guidelines and made a call to the profession to address the research gap and lack of researcher self-efficacy, however it appears little progress has been made in this area. Program administrators who are dedicated to increasing the pool of applicants for faculty positions should create research mentoring programs. These quality mentoring programs should also involve the psychosocial aspects such as building trust and safety, providing emotional support and counseling, as well as increasing the mentees self-image. These mentorship opportunities may increase CES students' overall self-efficacy levels which may lead to CES students applying for faculty positions which could address the demand on the profession.

One way in which I am using the results of this study is that I have started collaborating with the North Atlantic Region Association of Counselor Education and Supervision (NARACES) which is my regional chapter of ACES and I am helping create a mentoring program. I am hoping to use active NARACES members to mentor newer NARACES members. I, along with a few other researchers, piloted a research mentoring

program this past Spring of 2020 and are using data from that experience to form a mentoring program. It is my plan for the NARACES mentorship program to cover all four domains of the MiCTS and have a specific research mentorship component and training day.

Ramsey et al. (2002) argued that counselor educators conduct quite a bit of scholarly activities by presenting at workshops or trainings, working on departmental initiatives, undergoing accreditation processes, and reviewing publications. This broader view of faculty research requirements appears to be a trend among many institutions and especially for faculty serving in the social sciences (Schimanski & Alperin, 2018). Therefore, I will use the results of this study to conduct workshops and presentations. In particular, I submitted a proposal for the ACES conference this Fall 2021. My hope is to share the results of my study with other counselor educators. I will also commit to collaboratively writing a journal article with my committee members for a peer-reviewed journal.

Conclusion

My purpose for this quantitative study was to explore the influence of mentoring relationships with participants who had their PhD in CES. In particular I wanted to see if mentoring influenced either participants' career choices or a change in career choice, if demographic variables influenced participants' perceived quality of the mentoring relationship, and what qualities participants deemed were essential for an ideal mentor across participants' age, gender, and race. I used Bandura's self-efficacy theory, Kram's theory of mentorship, and Gottfredson's theory of circumscription to describe the

relationship between my variables. The results indicated the MiCTS total score cannot predict whether a participant became a faculty member or not, but could predict if they had a career choice change. Results also pointed to differences in mentorship among participant race and age. Lastly, counselor educators are reminded of the significant need for research mentorship and that future researchers need to conduct studies on mentorship and career choice. Therefore, the critical importance of having a mentor within the field of counselor education is vital to the sustainability of the profession.

References

Adkison-Bradley, C. (2013). Counselor education and supervision: The development of the CACREP doctoral standards. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 91*(1), 44-49. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1556-6676.2013.00069.x.

Abbott-Anderson, K., Gilmore-Bykovskyi, A., & Lyles, A. A. (2016). The value of preparing PhD students as research mentors: Application of Kram's temporal mentoring model. *Journal of Professional Nursing*, *32*(6), 421–429. https://doi.org/10.1016.2016.02.004

Allan, B. A., Owens, R. L., & Duffy, R. D. (2017). Generation me or meaning? Exploring meaningful work in college students and career counselors. *Journal of Career Development, 44*(6), 502–515. https://doi.org/10.1177/0894845316667599

Altbach, P. G., & Reisberg, L. (2018). Global trends and future uncertainties. *Change, 50*(3/4), 63–67. https://doi.org/10.1080/00091383.2018.1509601

Althubaiti A. (2016). Information bias in health research: definition, pitfalls, and adjustment methods. *Journal of Multidisciplinary Healthcare*, *9*(1), 211–217. National Institute of Health. https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC4862344/

Alves, P., Oliveira, A., & Paro, E. (2019). Quality of life and burnout among faculty members: How much does the field of knowledge matter? *PLoS ONE*, *14*(3), 1-12. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0214217

Amundson, N. E., Borgen, W. A., laquinta, M., Butterfield, L. D., & Koert, E. (2010). Career decisions from the decider's perspective. *Career Development Quarterly, 58*(4), 336–351. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.2161-0045.2010.tb00182.x

Anekstein, A. M., & Vereen, L. G. (2018). Research mentoring: A study of Doctoral student experiences and research productivity. *Journal of Counselor Preparation & Supervision*, *11*(1), 1–27. https://repository.wcsu.edu/jcps/vol11/iss1/5

Arcuri, N. (2016). Different CES doctoral student experiences endorsed by CACREP program flexibility: Implications for monitoring supervisor effectiveness. *American Counseling Association: Vistas*, *69*, 1-9. Counseling Today. https://www.counseling.org/docs/default-source/vistas/article_69_2016.pdf

Aronson, P. (2017). 'I've learned to love what's going to pay me': A culture of despair in higher education during a time of insecurity. *Critical Sociology*, *43*(3), 389–403. https://doi.org/10.1177/0896920516633276

Austin, A. E., & Hill, L. B. (2014). *University faculty roles and responsibilities in the United States*. Oxford University Press.

Austin, R. K., Dahl, A. D., & Wagner, B. D. (2010). The roles of negative career thoughts and sense of coherence in predicting career decision status. *Canadian Journal of Counselling and Psychotherapy*, *44*(1), 65–77. https://cjc-rcc.ucalgary.ca/article/view/58798

Bachem, R., Mikulincer, M., & Solomon, Z. (2020). Interpersonal manifestations of attachment avoidance: The moderating role of impostorism. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *154*(1), 1-6. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2019.109669

Baglama, B., & Uzunboylu, H. (2017). The relationship between career decision-making self-efficacy and vocational outcome expectations of preservice special education teachers. *South African Journal of Education*, *37*(4), 1-11. https://doi.org/10.15700/saje.v37n4a1520

Bailey, S. F., Voyles, E. C., Finkelstein, L., & Matarazzo, K. (2016). Who is your ideal mentor? An exploratory study of mentor prototypes. *Career Development International, 21*(2), 160–175. https://doi.org/10.1108/CDI-08-2014-0116

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-Efficacy: The exercise of control*. Donnelly & Sons.

Baltrinic, E. R., Jencius, M., & McGlothlin, J. (2016). Co-teaching in counselor education: Preparing doctoral students for future teaching. *Counselor Education and Supervision*, *55*, 31–45. https://doi.org/10.1002/ceas.12031

Barth, J. M., Guadagno, R. E., Rice, L., Eno, C. A., & Minney, J. A. (2015). Untangling life goals and occupational stereotypes in men's and women's career interest. *Sex Roles: A Journal of Research, 73*(11), 502–518. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-015-0537-2

Bauer, G., Braimoh, J., Scheim, A., Dharma, C. (2017) National Institute of Health (NIH) transgender-inclusive measures of sex/gender for population surveys: Mixed-methods evaluation and recommendations. National Institute of Health. https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28542498

Benishek, L. A., Bieschke, K. J., Park, J., & Slattery, S. M. (2004). A multicultural feminist model of mentoring. *Journal of Multicultural Counseling and*

Development, *32*, 428–442. Retrieved from SOCIndex Database. (Accession No. 15515456).

Bennett-Garraway, J. M. (2014). Are parenting styles a significant factor in the academic and career development of African American high school students? *Journal of Counseling & Professional Psychology, 3*(1), 33-47. Complementary Index Database (Accession No. 100831848)

Bersola, S. H., Stolzenberg, E. B., Love, J., & Fosnacht, K. (2014). Understanding admitted doctoral students' institutional choices: Student experiences versus faculty and staff perceptions. *American Journal of Education*, *120*(4), 515–543. https://doi.org/10.1086/676923

Brown, E., & Grothaus, T. (2019). Experiences of cross-racial trust in mentoring relationships between black doctoral counseling students and white counselor educators and supervisors. *Professional Counselor*, *9*(3), 211–225. https://doi.org/10.15241/emb.9.3.211

Black, L.L., Suarez, E.C. and Medina, S. (2004), Helping students help themselves: Strategies for successful mentoring relationships. *Counselor Education and Supervision*, *44*(1), 44-55. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1556-6978.2004.tb01859.x

Black, M. M., Arteaga, S. S., Sanders, J., Hager, E. R., Anliker, J. A., Gittelsohn, J., & Wang, Y. (2012). College mentors: a view from the inside of an intervention to promote health behaviors and prevent obesity among low-income, urban, African American adolescents. *Health Promotion Practice, 13*(2), 238–244. https://doi.org/10.1177/1524839910385899

Blood, E. A., Ullrich, N. J., Hirshfeld-Becker, D. R., Seely, E. W., Connelly, M. T., Warfield, C. A., & Emans, S. J. (2011). Academic women faculty: Are they finding the mentoring they need? *Journal of Women's Health*, *21*(11), 1201–1208. https://doi.org/10.1089/jwh.2012.3529

Bodenhorn, N., Hartig, N., Ghoston, M. R., Graham, J., Lile, J. J., Sackett, C., & Farmer, L. B. (2014). Counselor education faculty positions: Requirements and preferences in CESNET announcements 2005-2009. *The Journal of Counselor Preparation and Supervision, 6*(1), 1-16. https://doi.org/10.7729/51.1087

Borders, L. D., Wester, K. L., Granello, D. H., Chang, C. Y., Hays, D. G., Pepperell, J., & Spurgeon, S. L. (2012). Association for counselor education and supervision guidelines for research mentorship: Development and implementation. *Counselor Education and Supervision*, *51*(3), 162–175. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1556-6978.2012.00012.x

Boswell, J. N., Wilson, A. D., Stark, M. D., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2015). The role of mentoring relationships in counseling programs. *International Journal of Mentoring and Coaching in Education*, *4*(3), 168-183. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJMCE-03-2015-0007

Bradley, C., & Holcomb-McCoy, C. (2004). African American counselor educators: Their experiences, challenges, and recommendations. *Counselor Education & Supervision*, *43*(4), 258–273. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1556-6978.2004.tb01851.x

Bray, B. (2014). ACA's first counselor compensation study reports varied pay, good benefits. *Counseling Today*, Online Exclusive. https://ct.counseling.org/2014/09/acas-first-counselor-compensation-study-reports-varied-pay-good-benefits

Briggs, C. A., & Pehrsson, D. E. (2008). Research mentorship in counselor education. *Counselor Education and Supervision*, *48*(2), 101–113. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1556-6978.2008.tb00066.x

Brinson, J. A., & Kottler, J. A. (1993). Cross-cultural mentoring in counselor education: a strategy for retaining minority faculty. *Counselor Education & Supervision*, *32*, 241–253. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1556-6978.1993.tb00252.x

Brooks M., & Steen S. (2010). "Brother where art thou?" African American male instructors' perceptions of the counselor education profession. *Journal of Multicultural Counseling & Development*, *38*(3), 142–153. http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/j.2161-1912.2010.tb00122.x

Brown, E. M., & Grothaus, T. (2019). Experiences of cross-racial trust in mentoring relationships between black doctoral counseling students and White counselor educators and supervisors. *The Professional Counselor*, (3), 211-226. https://doi.org/10.15241/emb.9.3.211

Buckman, J., & Barker, C. (2010). Therapeutic orientation preferences in trainee clinical psychologists: Personality or training? *Psychotherapy Research*, *20*(3), 247–258. https://doi.org/10.1080/10503300903352693

Bujang M., Sa'at N., Tg A., Lim C. (2018). Sample size guidelines for logistic regression from observational studies with large population: emphasis on the accuracy between statistics and parameters based on real life clinical data. *Malays J Med Sci. 25*(4),122–130. https://doi.org/10.21315/mjms2018.25.4.12

Burgess, K. (2007). Mentoring as holistic online instruction. *New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education. 113*(1), 49-56. https://doi.org/10.1002/ace.246

Carpenter, S., Makhadmeh, N., & Thornton, L.-J. (2015). Mentorship on the doctoral level: An examination of communication faculty mentors' traits and functions. *Communication Education*, *64*(3), 366–384. https://doi.org/10.1080/03634523.2015.1041997

Carpenter, D., Young, D. K., McLeod, A., & Maasberg, M. (2018). IT career counseling: Are occupational congruence and the job characteristics model effective at predicting IT job Satisfaction? *Journal of Information Systems Education*, 29(4), 225–238. Retrieved from Education Source Database. (Accession No. 136698715)

Chang, J. (2005). Faculty-student interaction at the community college: A focus on students of color. *Research in Higher Education*, *46*(7), 769-802. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11162-004-6225-7

Coaston, S. C., & Cook, E. P. (2017). Burnout in Counselor Education: The Role of Cynicism and Fit in Predicting Turnover Intention. *Journal of Counselor Preparation & Supervision*, 10(1), 1–27. https://repository.wcsu.edu/jcps/vol10/iss1/8

Coetzee, M., & Harry, N. (2014). Emotional intelligence as a predictor of employees' career adaptability. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *84*(2), 90-97. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2013.09.001

Conklin, A. M., Dahling, J. J., & Garcia, P. A. (2013). Linking affective commitment, career self-efficacy, and outcome expectations: A test of social cognitive career theory. *Journal of Career Development*, *40*(1), 68–83. https://doi.org/10.1177/0894845311423534

Connolly, M. R., Lee, Y., & Savoy, J. N. (2018). The effects of doctoral teaching development on early-career STEM scholars' college teaching self-efficacy. *CBE - Life Sciences Education*, *17*(1), 1-15. https://doi.org/10.1187/cbe.17-02-0039

Constantine, M. G. (2002). Predictors of satisfaction with counseling: Racial and ethnic minority clients' attitudes toward counseling and ratings of their counselors' general and multicultural counseling competence. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, *49*(2), 255–263. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0167.49.2.255

Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs. (2016). *CACREP 2016 standards*. Alexandria, VA: Author. https://www.cacrep.org/for-programs/2016-cacrep-standards/

Conteh, J. A., Mariska, M. A., & Huber, M. J. (2018). An examination and validation of personal counseling and its impact on self-efficacy for counselors-in-training. *Journal of Counselor Practice*, *9*(2), 109-138. https://doi.org/10.10299-0167.2355

Crowe, T. P., Kelly, P., Pepper, J., McLennan, R., Deane, F. P., & Buckingham, M. (2013). Service based internship training to prepare workers to support the

recovery of people with co-occurring substance abuse and mental health disorders. *International Journal of Mental Health and Addiction*, *11*(2), 269–280. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11469-012-9419-9

Curtin, N., Malley, J., & Stewart, A. J. (2016). Mentoring the next generation of faculty: Supporting academic career aspirations among doctoral students. *Research in Higher Education, 57*(6), 714–738. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11162-015-9403-x

Danzer, A. M. (2019). Can secondary jobs smooth consumption? Evidence from unanticipated wage arrears. *Economic Development & Cultural Change, 67*(3), 571–594. https://doi.org/10.1086/698313

Davis, D. (2007). Access to academe: The importance of mentoring to black students. *Negro Educational Review*, *58*(3), 217-231. ERIC databases. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ789090

Dean, C., Stewart-Spencer, S. E., Cabanilla, A., Wayman, D. V., & Heher, M. (2018). Collaborative gatekeeping between site supervisors and mental health counseling faculty. *Journal of Counselor Preparation & Supervision*, *11*(2), 1-26. https://repository.wcsu.edu/jcps/vol11/iss2/1

DeCino, D. A. (2019). The power of experience: Narratives that promote critical transformation and identity development. *Journal of Counselor Practice*, *10*(1), 76-97. https://doi.org/10.22229/tpo1012019

De Haro García, J., & Castejón Costa, J. (2014). Does trait emotional intelligence predict unique variance in early career success beyond IQ and personality? *Journal of Career Assessment*, *22*(2), 715-725. https://doi.org/10.1177/1069072713515971

Denault, A.-S., Ratelle, C. F., Duchesne, S., & Guay, F. (2019). Extracurricular activities and career indecision: A look at the mediating role of vocational exploration. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *110*(Part A), 43–53. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2018.11.006

Desimone, L. M., Hochberg, E. D., Porter, A. C., Polikoff, M. S., Schwartz, R., & Johnson, L. J. (2014). Formal and informal mentoring: Complementary, compensatory, or consistent? *Journal of Teacher Education*, *2*(2), 88-111. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022487113511643

Díaz de Rada, V. (2015). Quality of data from matrix questions in face-to-face surveys: A compared study using paper and electronic questionnaires. *Revista Española de Investigaciones Sociologicas, 152*, 167–178. https://doi.org/10.5477/cis/reis.152.167

Di Fabio, A., & Kenny, M. (2015). The contributions of emotional intelligence and social support for adaptive career progress among Italian youth. *Journal of Career Development*, 42(1) 48-59. https://doi.org/10.1177/0894845314533420

Dollarhide, C. M. (2013). Professional identity development of counselor education doctoral students. *Counselor Education & Supervision*, *52*(2), 137-150. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1556-6978.2013.00034.x

Dollarhide, C. T., Gibson, D. M., & Moss, J. M. (2013). Professional identity development of counselor education doctoral students. *Counselor Education & Supervision*, *52*(2), 137–150. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1556-6978.2013.00034.x

Donald, W. E., Ashleigh, M. J., & Baruch, Y. (2018). Students' perceptions of education and employability: Facilitating career transition from higher education into the labor market. *Career Development International*, *23*(5), 513–540. https://doi.org/10.1108/CDI-09-2017-0171

Duffy, R. D., Dik, B. J., & Steger, M. F. (2011). Calling and work-related outcomes: Career commitment as a mediator. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *78*(2), 210–218. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2010.09.013

Early, S. L. (2017). Race and gender mentor-protégé pairings of resident assistants: An exploration on leadership capacity. *Journal of Leadership Education*, *16*(1), 1–17. ERIC databases. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1130378

Eaton, C. K., Osgood, A. K., Cigrand, D. L., & Dunbar, A.-M. L. (2015). Faculty perception of support to do their job well. InSight*: A Journal of Scholarly Teaching*, *10*, 35–42. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1074049

Eisenhower, A., Suyemoto, K., Lucchese, F., & Canenguez, K. (2014). 'Which box should I 83 check?': Examining standard check box approaches to measuring race and ethnicity. *Health Services Research, 49*(3), 1034-1055. https://doi.org/10.1111/1475-6773.12132

Ellis, J. M., Rowley, L. L., Nellum, C. J., & Smith, C. D. (2018). From Alienation to Efficacy: An Examination of Racial Identity and Racial Academic Stereotypes among Black Male Adolescents. *Urban Education*, 53(7), 899–928. https://doi.org/10.1177/0042085915602538

Ensher, E. A., Thomas, C., Murphy, S. E., Ensher, E. A., Thomas, C., & Murphy, S. E. (2001). Mentor demographics measure. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 15, 419–438. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2010.11.008

Evans, J., & Mathur, A. (2005). The value of online surveys. *Internet Research*, 15, 195-219. https://doi.org/10.1108/10662240510590360

Faul, F., Erdfelder, E., Buchner, A., & Lang, A.-G. (n.d.). Statistical power analyses using G*Power 3.1: Tests for correlation and regression analyses. *Behavior Research Methods, 41*(4), 1149–1160. https://doi.org/10.3758/BRM.41.4.1149

Farmer, L. B., Sackett, C. R., Lile, J. J., Bodenhorn, N., Hartig, N., Graham, J., & Ghoston, M. (2017). An exploration of the perceived impact of post-master's experience on doctoral study in counselor education and supervision. *Professional Counselor*, *7*(1), 15-32. https://doi.org/10.15241/lbf.7.1.15

Fidalgo-Blancoa, A., Martinez-Nuñez, M., Borrás-Genec, O., Sanchez-Medinad, J. (2017). Micro flip teaching: An innovative model to promote the active involvement of students. *Computers in Human Behavior*. *72*, 713-723. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2016.07.060

Finkelstein, L. M., & Poteet, M. L. (2010). Best practices in workplace formal mentoring programs. In Allen, T. & Eby, L. (Eds.), The Blackwell handbook of mentoring: A multiple perspectives approach (pp. 345–372). Wiley-Blackwell.

Fix, R. L., Silverstein, M. W., Nuhu, N., & Gray, W. N. (2020). Scholars committed to opportunities in psychological education: a training and mentoring program for future psychologists of color. *Mentoring & Tutoring: Partnership in Learning,*

28(1), 44–59. https://doiorg.ezp.waldenulibrary.org/10.1080/13611267.2020.1736776

Fowler, F. (2014). *Survey Research Methods (5th edition)*. Sage Publications.

Frankfort-Nachmias, C. & Nachmias, A. (2000). *Social statistics for a diverse society*. SAGE Publications.

Frick, M. H., & Glosoff, H. L. (2014). Becoming a supervisor: Qualitative findings on self-efficacy beliefs of doctoral student supervisors-in-training. *Professional Counselor*, *4*(1), 35-48. https://doi.org/10.15241/mhr.4.1.35

Gadbois, S. & Graham, E. (2012). New faculty perceptions of supervision and mentoring: The influence of graduate school experiences. *Collected Essays on Learning and Teaching*. *5*(1), 44-49. https://doi.org/10.22329/celt.v5i0.3416

Gardner, L. L. (2013). Teaching Teachers about Supply Chain Management to Influence Students' Career and Education Choices. *Decision Sciences Journal of Innovative Education*, 11(2), 185–192. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4609.2013.00372.x

Gaubatz, M. D., & Vera, E. M. (2006). Trainee competence in master's-level counseling programs: A comparison of counselor educators' and students' views. *Counselor Education & Supervision, 46*(1), 32–43. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1556-6978.2006.tb00010.x

Gambrell, C. E., Rehfuss, M. C., Suarez, E. C., & Meyer, D. (2011). Counselors' job satisfaction across education levels and specialties. *Journal of Counselor Preparation & Supervision*, *3*(1), 34-49. https://doi.org/10.7729/31.1024

Golde, C. (2011). Should I stay or should I go? Student descriptions of the doctoral attrition process. *Johns Hopkins University Press. 23*(2), 199–227. https://doi.org/10.1353/rhe.2000.0004

Gottfredson, L. S. (1981). Circumscription and compromise: A developmental theory of occupational aspirations [Monograph]. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, *28*(1), 545-579. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0167.28.6.545

Green, S. B. (1991). How many subjects does it take to do a regression analysis? *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, *26*(1), 499-510. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327906mbr2603_7

Guramatunhu-Mudiwa, P., & Angel, R. B. (2017). Women mentoring in the academe: A faculty cross-racial and cross-cultural experience. *Mentoring & Tutoring: Partnership in Learning*, *25*(1), 97-188. https://doi.org/10.1080/13611267.2017.1308095

Hagemeier, N. E., Murawski, M. M., & Popovich, N. G. (2013). The influence of faculty mentors on junior pharmacy faculty members' career decisions. *American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education*, *77*(3), 51-69. https://doi.org/0.5688/ajpe77351

Hardie, J. H. (2015). Women's work? Predictors of young men's aspirations for entering traditionally female-dominated occupations. *Sex Roles*, 72(7), 349–362. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-015-0449-1

Hardre, P. L., & Hackett, S. (2015). Defining the graduate college experience: What it 'should' versus 'does' include. *International Journal of Doctoral Studies*, *10*(1),

57-77. International Journal of Doctoral Studies. http://ijds.org/Volume10/IJDSv10p057-077Hardre0665.pdf

Harper, S., (2020). COVID-19 and the racial equity implications of reopening college and university campuses. *American Journal of Education. 127*(1), 153-162. https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/pdf/10.1086/711095

Harrichand, J., Litam, A., & Ausloos, D. (2021). Infusing self-care and wellness into CACREP curricula: Pedagogical recommendations for counselor educators and counselors during COVID-19. *International Journal for the Advancement of Counselling*, 1-14. https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s10447-021-09423-3

Harris, P. A., Taylor, R., Minor, B. L., Elliott, V., Fernandez, M., O'Neal, L., McLeod, L., Delacqua, G., Delacqua, F., Kirby, J., & Duda, S. N. (2019). The REDCap consortium: Building an international community of software platform partners. *Journal of Biomedical Informatics, 95*(1), 1-10. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbi.2019.103208

Harrison, M., Dunbar, D., Ratmansky, L., Boyd, K., & Lopatto, D. (2011). Classroom-based science research at the introductory level: Changes in career choices and attitude. *CBE-Life Sciences Education, 10*(3), 279–286. https://doi.org/10.1187/cbe.10-12-0151

Hartwig, E. K., & Van Overschelde, J. P. (2016). Most likely to succeed: Exploring predictor variables for the counselor preparation comprehensive examination. *Counselor Education & Supervision*, *55*(4), 294–309. https://doi.org/10.1002/ceas.12055

Hayes, J. A., McAleavey, A. A., Castonguay, L. G., & Locke, B. D. (2016). Psychotherapists' outcomes with White and racial/ethnic minority clients: First, the good news. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, *63*(3), 261–268. https://doi.org/10.1037/cou0000098

Hilbe, J. (2015). Practical Guide to Logistic Regression. Taylor & Francis. ISBN:13:978-1-4987-0958-3

Higgins, M. C., & Kram, K. E. (2001). Reconceptualizing mentoring at work: A developmental network perspective. *Academy of Management Review*, *26*(2), 264-288. https://doi.org/10.2307/259122

Hill, N. R. (2009). An empirical exploration of the occupational satisfaction of counselor educators: The influence of gender, tenure status, and minority status. *Journal of Counseling & Development*, 87, 55-61. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1556-6678.2009.tb00549.x

Hill, N. R., Leinbaugh, T., Bradley, C., & Hazler, R. (2005). Female counselor educators: Encouraging and discouraging factors in academia. *Journal of Counseling & Development*, *83*(3), 374–380. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1556-6678.2005.tb00358.x

Hinkle, M., Iarussi, M., Schermer, T., & Yensel, J. (2017). Motivations to pursue the doctoral degree in counselor education and supervision. *Journal of Counselor Preparation & Supervision*, *6*(1), 1-19. https://doi.org/10.7729/51.1069

Hipolito-Delgado, C. P., Estrada, D., & Garcia, M. (2017). Diversifying counsellor education: A case study of US students of colour. *British Journal of Guidance & Counseling*, *45*(5), 473–488. https://doi.org/10.1080/03069885.2017.1379597

Holliday, C., Peacock, F., & Lewoski, C. (2018). Student motivations for undertaking a child and adolescent psychotherapeutic counselling course. *British Journal of Guidance & Counselling*, *46*(6), 647–657. https://doi.org/10.1080/03069885.2017.1309519

Hollingsworth, M. A., & Fassinger, R. E. (2002). The role of faculty mentors in the research training of counseling psychology doctoral students. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, *49*(3), 324-330. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0167.49.3.324

Holt, D. T., Markova, G., Dhaenens, A. J., Marler, L. E., & Heilmann, S. G. (2016). Formal or informal mentoring: What drives employees to seek informal mentors? *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 28(1), 67-84. Retrieved from Semantic Scholar Database. (Accession No. 115357781) http://unsworks.unsw.edu.au/fapi/datastream/unsworks:59601/binae4c4dbf-7f00-4b40-81d3-78cc2e1bfc3a?view=true&xy=01

Hunt, B., & Gilmore, G. W. (2011). Learning to teach: Teaching internships in counselor education and supervision. *Professional Counselor*, *1*(2), 143–151. https://doi.org/10.15241/bhh.1.2.143

Isaacs, M. L., & Sabella, R. A. (2013). Counselor educator compensation, work patterns, and career outlook. *Journal of International Counselor and Education, 5*, 32-49.

Journal of International Counselor and Education. https://digitalscholarship.unlv.edu/jice/

Jackson, Z. V., Wright, S. L., & Perrone-McGovern, K. M. (2010). Work-family interface for men in nontraditional careers. *Journal of Employment Counseling*, *47*(4), 157–166. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.2161-1920.2010.tb00100.x

Jeffrey, L., Oiman, K., Yu-pei, C., Bonny W., C., & Yu-Chen, Y. (2014). Parental autonomy support predicts academic achievement through emotion-related self-regulation and adaptive skills in Chinese American adolescents. *Asian American Journal of Psychology, 3*(1)*,* 214-222. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0034787

Jeong, J., & Choi, M. (2017). The expected job satisfaction affecting entrepreneurial intention as career choice in the cultural and artistic industry. *Sustainability*, *9*(10), 1-16. https://doi.org/10.3390/su9101689

Johnson, P. D., Bradley, C. R., Knight, D. E., & Bradshaw, E, S, (2007), Preparing African American counselor education students for the professorate. *College Student Journal, 41*(1), 886-89. (Accession No. 0146-3934)

Johnson, H. L. (2016). Pipelines, pathways, and institutional leadership: An update on the status of women in higher education. Washington, DC: American Council on Education. https://www.acenet.edu/Documents/Higher-Ed-Spotlight-Pipelines-Pathways-and-Institutional-Leadership-Status-of-Women.pdf

Johnson, A., & Jackson Williams, D. (2015). White racial identity, color-blind racial attitudes, and multicultural counseling competence. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology*, *21*(3), 440–449. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0037533

Jung, J. Y., & McCormick, J. (2011). The occupational decision: A cultural and motivational perspective. *Journal of Career Assessment, 19*(1), 75–91. https://doi.org/10.1177/1069072710382616

Kaminsky, S. & Behrend, T. (2015). Career choice and calling: Integrating calling and social cognitive career theory. *Journal of Career Assessment*, *23*(3), 383–398. https://doi.org/10.1177/1069072714547167

Kara, M., Erdoğdu, F., Kokoç, M., & Cagiltay, K. (2019). Challenges faced by adult learners in online distance education: A literature review. *Open Praxis, 11*(1), 5-22. https://doi.org/10.5944/openpraxis.11.1.929

Karaoulani, I., Rodgers, B., & Hunt, N. (2017). How volunteer person-centered counselors feel they have been affected by not finding work. *Person-Centered & Experiential Psychotherapies, 16*(1), 68-85. https://doi.org/10.1080/14779757.2017.1298047

Karazsia, B. T., & Smith, L. (2016). Preparing for graduate-level training in professional psychology: Comparisons across clinical PhD, counseling PhD, and clinical PsyD programs. *Teaching of Psychology*, *43*(4), 305–313. https://doi.org/10.1177/0098628316662760

Kern, L., Harrison, J. R., Custer, B. E., & Mehta, P. D. (2019). Factors that enhance the quality of relationships between mentors and mentees during check and connect. *Behavioral Disorders*, *44*(3), 148–161. https://doi.org/10.1177/0198742918779791

Kidd, J. C., Colley, S., & Dennis, S. (2019). Surveying allied health professionals within a public health service: What works best, paper or online? *Evaluation & The Health Professions*, *10*(2), 302-318. https://doi.org/10.1177/0163278719870568

Kost, R. G., Mervin-Blake, S., Hallarn, R., Rathmann, C., Kolb, H. R., Himmelfarb, C. D., & ... Schuff, K. G. (2014). Accrual and recruitment practices at clinical and translational science award (CTSA) institutions: A call for expectations, expertise, and evaluation. *Academic Medicine*, *89*(8), 1180-1189. https://doi.org/10.10000308

Kram, K. E. (1983). Phases of the mentor relationship. *Academy of Management Journal, 26*(4), 608-625. https://doi.org/10.2307/255910

Kuo, P. B., Woo, H., & Bang, N. M. (2017). Advisory relationship as a moderator between research self-efficacy, motivation, and productivity among counselor education doctoral students. *Counselor Education and Supervision, 56*(2), 130-144. https://doi.org/10.1002/ceas.12067

Lam, S., Tracz, S., & Lucey, C. (2013). Age, gender, and ethnicity of counsellor trainees and corresponding counselling self-efficacy: Research findings and implications for counsellor educators. *International Journal for the Advancement of Counselling, 35*(3), 172–187. Retrieved from ERIC database (Accession No. EJ1037294)

Lambie, G. W., & Vaccaro, N. (2011). Doctoral counselor education students' levels of research self-efficacy, perceptions of the research training environment, and

interest in research. *Counselor Education and Supervision*, *50*(4), 243-258. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1556-6978.2011.tb00122.x

Lamar, M. R., & Helm, H. M. (2017). Understanding the researcher identity development of counselor education and supervision doctoral students. *Counselor Education & Supervision, 56*(1), 2-18. https://doi.org/10.1002/ceas.12056

Lane, J. A. (2015). The imposter phenomenon among emerging adults transitioning into professional life: Developing a grounded theory. *Adultspan Journal*, *14*(2), 114 - 128. https://doi.org/10.1002/adsp.12009

Lauver L., Swan B., West M. (2011). Kids into health careers: a rural initiative. The *Journal of Rural Health, 27*(1), 114-121. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1748-0361.2010.00316.x.

Latashia, J. (2012) *The impact of family influence and involvement on career development.* [Unpublished Dissertation]. Electronic Theses & Dissertations. University of Central Florida. ProQuest Dissertations and Theses Global.

Law, J. D. (2012). Counselor preparation: Programs, faculty, trends, 13th edition. *Counseling Today*, *55*(1), 25-27. https://doi.org/10.1002/adsp.12009

Lazovsky, R., & Shimoni, A. (2007). The on-site mentor of counseling interns: perceptions of ideal role and actual role performance. *Journal of Counseling and Development*, *85*(3), 303-316. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1556-6678.2007.tb00479.x

Lejonberg, E & Knut-Andreas, C. (2015). School-based mentors' affective commitment to the mentor role: Role clarity, self-efficacy, mentor education and mentor

experience as antecedents. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring, 13*(2), 45–63. (Accession No. 1741-8305)

Lent, R. W., Hackett, G., & Brown, S. D. (1998). Extending social cognitive theory to counselor training: Problems and prospects. *The Counseling Psychologist*, *26*(2), 295-307. https://doi.org/10.1037//0022-0167.47.1.36

Levitt, D. H., & Hermon, D. A. (2009). Career experiences of counselor educators: Early and near-tenure experiences. *Journal of Counselor Preparation & Supervision*, *1*(1), 10–22. https://doi.org/10.7729/11.0105

Lloyd-Jones, B. (2014). African-American women in the professoriate: Addressing social exclusion and scholarly marginalization through mentoring. *Mentoring & Tutoring: Partnership in Learning*, *22*(4), 269-283. https://doi.org/10.1080/13611267.2014.945737

Lockard III, F. W., Laux, J. M., Ritchie, M., Piazza, N., & Haefner, J. (2014). Perceived leadership preparation in counselor education doctoral students who are members of the American Counseling Association in CACREP-accredited programs. *Clinical Supervisor, 33*(2), 228–242. https://doi.org/10.1080/07325223.2014.992270

Lustig, D. C., Xu, Y. J., & Strauser, D. R. (2017). The influence of family of origin relationships on career thoughts. *Journal of Career Development, 44*(1), 49–61. https://doi.org/10.1177/0894845316633791

Magnuson, S., Norem, K., & Lonneman-Doroff, T. (2009). The 2000 cohort of new assistant professors of counselor education: Reflecting at the culmination of six

years. *Counselor Education and Supervision*, 49, 54–71. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1556-6978.2009.tb00086.x

MacLeod, B., & McMullen, J. (2016). Raising public awareness of the counseling profession. *Counseling Today*, *59*(6), 74-78. Counseling Today. https://ct.counseling.org/2016/06/raising-counselors-awareness-microaggressions/

Maples, M. F. (1989). The counselor educator crunch: Anatomy of a faculty search. *Counselor Education and Supervision, 29*(1), 94-101. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1556-6978.1989.tb01141.x

Maples, M. F., Altekruse, M., & Testa, A. M. (1993). Counselor education 2000: extinction or distinction? *Counselor Education & Supervision*, *33*, 47–52. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1556-6978.1993.tb00267

McConnell, S. C., Westerman, E. L., Pierre, J. F., Heckler, E. J., & Schwartz, N. B. (2018). United States national postdoc survey results and the interaction of gender, career choice and mentor impact. *ELIFE*, *7*(1), 1-15. https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.40189

Metheny, J., McWhirter, E. H., & O'Neil, M. E. (2008). Measuring perceived teacher support and its influence on adolescent career development. *Journal of Career Assessment*, *16*(2), 218–237. https://doi.org/10.1177/1069072707313198

Menard, S. (2002). *Quantitative applications in the social sciences: Applied logistic regression analysis*. SAGE Publications, Inc.

Michel, R., Hays, D., & Runyan, H. (2015). Faculty member attitudes and behaviors toward male counselors-in-training: A social cognitive career theory perspective. *Sex Roles*, *72*(7–8), 308–320. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-015-0473-1

Michel, R. E., Hall, S. B., Hays, D. G., & Runyan, H. I. (2013). A mixed methods study of male recruitment in the counseling profession. *Journal of Counseling & Development*, 91(4), 475–482. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1556-6676.2013.00120.x

Miller, J. K., & Stone, D. J. (2011). Voices of family therapy doctoral students of color: Aspirations and factors influencing careers in academia. *Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development*, *39*(2), 101–113. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.2161-1912.2011.tb00144.x

Milsom, A., & Moran, K. (2015). From school counselor to counselor educator: A phenomenological study. *Counselor Education and Supervision*, *54*(3), 203–220. https://doi.org/10.1002/ceas.12014

Montgomery, B. L. (2017). Mapping a mentoring roadmap and developing a supportive network for strategic career advancement. *SAGE Open*. 7(2), 1-13. https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244017710288

Morabito, A. (2020). The crossroads of COVID: Class, race and gender. Inside Higher Ed. https://www.insidehighered.com/advice/2020/11/13/colleges-should-especially-support-low-income-women-color-during-pandemic-opinion

Moss-Racusin, C. A., Dovidio, J. F., Brescoll, V. L., Graham, M. J., & Handelsman, J. (2012). Science faculty's subtle gender biases favor male students. *Proceedings of*

the National Academy of Sciences of the United States, 41, 16474-16480. http://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1211286109

Murdock, J., Stipanovic, N. & Lucas, K. (*2013*). Fostering connections between graduate students and strengthening professional identity through co-mentoring, *British Journal of Guidance & Counselling*, *41*(5), 487-503. https://doi.org/10.1080/03069885.2012.756972

Myers, L. (2017). Making the counseling profession more diverse. *Counseling Today*. https://ct.counseling.org/2017/10/making-counseling-profession-diverse

Nagle, R., Suldo, S., Christenson, S., Hansen, A. (2004). Graduate students' perspectives of academic positions in school psychology. *School Psychology Quarterly*. *19*(4), 311-326. https://doi.org/10.1521/scpq.19.4.311.53501

Nate, R. D. (2015). *Predicting the perceived importance of professional advocacy among counselor educators*. [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Walden University, Minneapolis, MN.

Neale, M. C., Eckart, E., Hermann, M., Haskins, N., & Ziomek, D. J. (2018). Counselor educator mothers: A Quantitative analysis of job satisfaction. *Counselor Education & Supervision*, *57*(2), 147-159. https://doi.org/10.1002/ceas.12099

Niles, S. G., Akos, P., & Cutler, H. (2001). Counselor educators' strategies for success. *Counselor Education & Supervision*, *40*(4), 276–291. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1556-6978.2001.tb01260.x

Nolte, M. C., Bruce, M. A., & Becker, K. W. (2015). Building a community of researchers using the research mentoring model. *Journal of Counselor Preparation & Supervision*, *7*(2), 7-37. https://doi.org/10.7729/72.1070

Okubo, Y., Yeh, C. J., Lin, P.-Y., Fujita, K., & Shea, J. M.-Y. (2007). The career decision-making process of Chinese American youth. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 85*(4), 440–449. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1556-6678.2007.tb00612.x

Ong, A. D., Bergeman, C. S., & Boker, S. M. (2009). Resilience comes of age: Defining features in later adulthood. *Journal of personality, 77*(6), 1777-1804. https://doi.org/10.1162/089892903321208123.

Ooms, W., Werker, C., & Hopp, C. (2019). Moving up the ladder: Heterogeneity influencing academic careers through research orientation, gender, and mentors. *Studies in Higher Education*, *44*(7), 1268–1289. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2018.1434617

Pace Jr, R. L. (2016). *Relationship of Institutional Characteristics to CACREP Accreditation of Doctoral Counselor Education Programs* (Publication No. 2097) [Doctoral dissertation, Walden University]. ScholarWorks https://scholarworks.waldenu.edu/dissertations/2097

Pam, N. (2013). Career choice. *Psychology Dictionary*. Retrieved from https://psychologydictionary.org/career-choice (accessed March 3, 2020).

Park, J., Park, W., & Morse, A. (2017). Exploring the roles of mentoring relationship on female student-athletes' career development. *Journal of Issues in Intercollegiate Athletics*, *24*(5), 168-182. http://csri-jiia.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/12/RA_2017_10.pdf

Poidevant, J. M., Loesch, L. C., & Wittmer, J. (1991). Vocational aspirations and perceived self-efficacy of doctoral students in the counseling professions. *Counselor Education & Supervision*, *30*(1), 289–300. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1556

Ponnock, A. R., Torsney, B. M., & Lombardi, D. (2018). Motivational differences throughout teachers' preparation and career. *New Waves-Educational Research and Development Journal*, *21*(2), 26–45. ERIC databases. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1211293

Prawitasari, G. (2018). The influence of generations on career choice (Social Cognitive Career Theory Perspective). *Konselor, 7*(1), 15–20. https://doi.org/10.24036/02018718464-0-00

Preston, J. (2013). Whiteness in academia : Counter-stories of betrayal and resistance. Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Prouty, A., Helmeke, K., & Fischer, J. (2016). Development of the "Mentorship in Clinical Training Scale" (MiCTS). *Contemporary Family Therapy: An International Journal*, *38*(2), 140–158. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10591-015-9351-9

Protivnak, J., & Foss, L. (2009). An exploration of themes that influence the counselor education doctoral student experience. *Counselor Education and Supervision*, *48*(4), 239-256. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1556-6978.2009.tb00078.x

Quinlan, E., Crowe, T., Deane, F. and Whittington, M. (2019). Functions of peer mentoring, satisfaction and the "real" relationship in postgraduate psychology education. *International Journal of Mentoring and Coaching in Education*, *8*(1), 52-68. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJMCE-06-2018-0033

Ramirez, A. Y. (2010). Why Teach? Ethnic Minority College Students' Views on Teaching. Multicultural Education, *17*(3), 29–35. Retrieved from ERIC database https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ902696.pdf

Ramsey, M., Cavallaro, M., & Kiselica, M. S. (2002). Scholarly productivity redefined in counselor education. *Counselor Education & Supervision, 42*(1), 40–57. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1556-6978.2002.tb01302.x

Randel, A. E., Galvin, B. M., Gibson, C. B., & Batts, S. I. (2021). Increasing career advancement opportunities through sponsorship: An identity-based model with illustrative application to cross-race mentorship of African Americans. *Group & Organization Management*, *46*(1), 105–142. https://doi-org.ezp.waldenulibrary.org/10.1177/1059601120978003

Reed, C. A., Reardon, R. C., & Lenz, J. G. (2001). A cognitive career course: from theory to practice. *Career Development Quarterly*, *50*(2), 158–167. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.2161-0045.2001.tb00980

Reeve, C., Woolley, T., Ross, S. J., Mohammadi, L., Halili, S. B., Jr, Cristobal, F., … Neusy, A.-J. (2017). The impact of socially-accountable health professional education: A systematic review of the literature. *Medical Teacher*, *39*(1), 67–73. https://doi.org/10.1080/0142159X.2016.1231914

Renbarger, R., & Davis, B. K. (2019). Mentors, self-efficacy, or professional development: Which mediate job satisfaction for new teachers? A regression examination. *Journal of Teacher Education and Educators*, *8*(1), 21–34.Retrieved from ERIC database. (Accession No. EJ1214939)

Ridley RT. (2009). Assuring ethical treatment of students as research participants. *Journal of Nursing Education, 48*(10), 537–541. https://doi.org/10.3928/01484834-20090610-08

Rubin, O. (2014). Perceptions of educational counseling as a profession: The role of education. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *116*, 3646-3648. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.01.817

Sackett, C. R., Hartig, N., Bodenhorn, N., Farmer, L. B., Ghoston, M. R., Graham, J., & Lile, J. (2015). Advising master's students pursuing doctoral study: A survey of counselor educators and supervisors. *Professional Counselor*, *5*(4), 473–485. https://doi.org/10.15241/crs.5.4.473

Sanderson, A., Phua, V.C., & Herda, D. (2000). *The American faculty poll* (2000). National Opinion Research Center. https://www.norc.org/PDFs/publications/SandersonA_Amer_Faculty_Poll_2000

Sangganjanavanich, V. F., & Balkin, R. S. (2013). Burnout and job satisfaction among counselor educators. *Journal of Humanistic Counseling*, *52*(1), 67–79. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.2161-1939.2013.00033.x

Schimanski, L., & Alperin, J. (2018). The evaluation of scholarship in academic promotion and tenure processes: Past, present, and future. *F1000Research*. Advance online publication. https://f1000research.com/articles/7-1605

Schlossberg, N. K. (1989). Marginality and mattering: Key issues in building community. In D.C. Roberts (Ed.), Designing campus activities to foster a sense of community. (pp. 5-15). New Directions for Student Services, no. 48. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Schneider, M., & Dimito, A. (2010). Factors influencing the career and academic choices of lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender People. *Journal of Homosexuality*, *57*(10), 1355–1369. https://doi.org/10.1080/00918369.2010.517080

Schuermann, H., Avent Harris, J. R., & Lloyd, H. J. (2018). Academic role and perceptions of gatekeeping in counselor education. *Counselor Education & Supervision*, *57*(1), 51–65. https://doi.org/10.1002/ceas.12093

Schwartz, J. (2012). Faculty as undergraduate research mentors for students of color: Taking into account the costs. Science Education, *96*(3), 527–542. https://doi.org/10.1002/sce.21004

Seongho Kim, Heath, E., Heilbrun, L., & Kim, S. (2017). Sample size determination for logistic regression on a logit-normal distribution. *Statistical Methods in Medical Research*, *26*(3), 1237–1247. https://doi.org/10.1177/0962280215572407

Sheldon, K. M., Holliday, G., Titova, L., & Benson, C. (2020). Comparing Holland and self-determination theory measures of career preference as predictors of career choice. *Journal of Career Assessment, 28*(1), 28–42. https://doi.org/10.1177/1069072718823003

Sheperis, C., Young, J., & Daniels, M. (2017). *Counseling Research: Quantitative, Qualitative, and Mixed Methods (2nd Edition).* Pearson.

Sidiropoulou-Dimakakou, D., Mylonas, K., Argyropoulou, K., & Tampouri, S. (2012). Career decision-making difficulties, dysfunctional thinking and generalized self-efficacy of University students in Greece. *World Journal of Education*, *2*(1), 117–130. https://doi.org/10.5430/wje.v2n1p117

Sleeter, C., Hughes, B., Meador, E., Whang, P., Rogers, L., Blackwell, K., … Peralta-Nash, C. (2005). Working an academically rigorous, multicultural program. *Equity & Excellence in Education*, *38*(4), 290–298. https://doi.org/10.1080/19404476.2015.1115322

Smith, K., Davis, M. and Malone, C. and Owens-Jackson, L. (2020). Faculty that look like me: An examination of HBCU accounting faculty motivation and job satisfaction. SSRN. https://ssrn.com/abstract=3744399 or http://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.3744399

Smith, T. R. (2019). *Using the identity capital model to understand master's counseling students' program retention* (Publication No. 7339) [Doctoral dissertation, Walden University] Scholar Works.

Smith, R. L., Maroney, K., & Nelson, K. W. (2006). Doctoral programs: Changing high rates of attrition. *Journal of Humanistic Counseling, Education & Development*, *45*(1), 17–31. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.2161-1939.2006.tb00002

Spalter-Roth, R., Shin, J. H., Mayorova, O. V., & White, P. E. (2013). The impact of cross-race mentoring for "ideal" Phd careers in sociology. *Sociological Spectrum*, *33*(6), 484–509. https://doiorg.ezp.waldenulibrary.org/10.1080/02732173.2013.836141

Stebleton, M. J., Diamond, K. K., & Rost-Banik, C. (2019). Experiences of foreign-born immigrant, undergraduate women at a U.S. institution and influences on career life planning. *Journal of Career Development, 46*(4), 410–427. https://doi.org/10.1177/0894845318763924

Strapp, C. M., Drapela, D. J., Henderson, C. I., Nasciemento, E., & Roscoe, L. J. (2018). Psychology students' expectations regarding educational requirements and salary for desired careers. *Teaching of Psychology*, *45*(1), 6–13. https://doi.org/10.1080/19404476.2015.1115322

Stark, M. D., Boswell, J. N., Cartwright, A. D., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2019). Determining mentoring needs in counselor education programs. *Journal of Counselor Preparation & Supervision*, *12*(1), 1–30. Advanced online publication. https://repository.wcsu.edu/jcps/vol12/iss1/9

Stojmenovska, D., Bol, T., & Leopold, T. (2017). Does diversity pay? A replication of herring (2009). *American Sociological Review*, *82*(4), 857-867. https://doi.org/10.1177/0003122417714422

Swank, J. M., & Smith, A. S. (2014). Gatekeeping during admissions: A survey of counselor education programs. *Counselor Education & Supervision, 53*(1), 47–61. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1556-6978.2014.00048.x

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2012). *Using multivariate statistics* (*6th ed.*). Pearson.

Taylor, L., Beck, M., Lahey, J., & Froyd, J. (2017). Reducing inequality in higher education: The link between faculty empowerment and climate and retention. *Innovative Higher Education, 42*(5/6), 391-405. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10755-017-9391-1

Teitcher, J., Bockting, O., Bauermeister, A., Hoefer, J., Miner, H., & Klitzman, L. (2015). Detecting, preventing, and responding to "fraudsters" in internet research: Ethics and tradeoffs. *Journal of Law, Medicine & Ethics, 43*(1), 116–133. https://doi.org/10.1111/jlme.12200

Thomas, D. M., Love, K. M., Roan-Belle, C., Tyler, K. M., Brown, C., & Garriott, P. O. (2009). Self-efficacy, motivation, and academic adjustment among African American women attending institutions of Higher Education. *Journal of Negro Education*, *78*(2), 159-171. http://www.jstor.org/stable/25608732

Tinto, V. (2017). Through the eyes of students. *Journal of College Student Retention: Research, Theory and Practice*, *19*(3), 254–269. https://doi.org/10.1177/1521025115621917

Torres Bernal, A., Le, K., West, A. M., & Brown, K. S. (2017). An examination of rates, rank, advancement, and salary of women faculty in COAMFTE-accredited

training programs. *Journal of Feminist Family Therapy*, *29*(2), 88-101. https://doi.org/10.1080/08952833.2016.1268449

Trolia, M. (2019). *Perceived supervision style and trainee experiences of mentor functions* (Publication No. 22619243) [Doctoral dissertation, Rutgers University]. ProQuest Dissertations and Theses Global.

Turner, S. (2003). Incorporation and marginalization in the academy from border toward center for faculty of color? *Journal of Black Studies*, *34*(1), 112-125. https://doi.org/10.1177/0021934703253689

U.S. Census Bureau. (2019, March). *About race.* https://www.census.gov/topics/population/race/about.html

U.S. Census Bureau. (2017). *U.S. Census reports: Income and Poverty In the United States 2017*. http://census.gov/content/dam/Census/library/publications/2018/demo/p60-263.pdf

U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2017). Counselor. *Occupational outlook handbook*, 2016-17. http://www.bls.gov/ooh/education-training-and-counselor/counselor.htm

Untanu, M., & Dempsey, R. (2018). Reported factors for practitioners working with diverse ethnic minority clients to support positive therapeutic outcomes: An Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis. *Counselling Psychology Review*, *33*(2), 37–46. Academic Search Complete (Accession No. 133130636)

Vishnevsky, T., Cann, A., Calhoun, L. G., Tedeschi, R. G., & Demakis, G. J. (2010). Gender differences in self-reported posttraumatic growth: A meta-analysis. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, *34*(1), 110–120. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1471-6402.2009.01546.x

Walker, J. V., III, & Peterson, G. W. (2012). Career thoughts, indecision, and depression: Implications for mental health assessment in career counseling. *Journal of Career Assessment*, *20*(4), 497–506. https://doi.org/10.1177/1069072712450010

Walsh, K. J., & Kurpius, S. E. (2016). Parental, residential, and self-belief factors influencing academic persistence decisions of college freshmen. *Journal of College Student Retention: Research, Theory & Practice*, *18*(1), 49-67. https://doi.org/10.1177/1521025115579672

Wambu, G., Hutchison, B., & Pietrantoni, Z. (2017). Career decision-making and college and career access among recent African immigrant students. *Journal of College Access*, *3*(2), 62–77. ERIC databases. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1167406.pdf

Warnke, M. A., Bethany, R. L., & Hedstrom, S. M. (1999). Advising doctoral students seeking counselor education faculty positions. *Counselor Education & Supervision*, *38*(3), 177–190. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1556-6978.1999.tb00569.x

Webster, B. D., & Edwards, B. D. (2019). Does holding a second job viewed as a calling impact one's work at the primary job? *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *114*(1), 112-125. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2019.02.010

World Health Organization (WHO). (2017, February). *What do we mean by gender?* https://web.archive.org/web/20170130022356/http://apps.who.int/gender/whatisgender

World Health Organization (WHO). (2020, February). *Vulnerable groups.* https://www.who.int/environmental_health_emergencies/vulnerable_groups/en/

Whiston, S. C., Li, Y., Goodrich Mitts, N., & Wright, L. (2017). Effectiveness of career choice interventions: A meta-analytic replication and extension. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *100*(1), 175–184. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2017.03.010

Wilde, B. J., Feit, S. S., Harrawood, L. K., & Kleist, D. M. (2015). A phenomenological exploration of beginning counselor educators' experiences developing a research agenda. *Qualitative Report*, *20*(7), 996-1008. NOVA. https://nsuworks.nova.edu/tqr/vol20/iss7/4

Wilson, T. A., Knezevic, B., Kibugi, B., Peterson, P., & Polacek, E. (2018). Experiences and retention among rural mental health counselors. *Journal of Mental Health Counseling*, *40*(3), 240-248. https://doi.org/10.17744/mehc.40.3.05

Woo, H., Lu, J., Henfield, M. S., & Bang, N. (2017). An exploratory study of career intentions in academia: Doctoral students in counselor education programs in the U.S. *Journal of Asia Pacific Counseling*, *7*(1), 79-93. https://doi.org/10.18401/2017.7.1.7.

Yahanpath N., Neal, M., & McCormack, S. (2013). Valuing flexibility in career training decisions. *Education & Training*, *55*(3), 291–305. https://doi.org/10.1108/00400911311309332

Yehia, B. R., Cronholm, P. F., Wilson, N., Palmer, S. C., Sisson, S. D., Guilliames, C. E., … Sánchez, J.-P. (2014). Mentorship and pursuit of academic medicine careers: a mixed methods study of residents from diverse backgrounds. *BioMed Central Medical Education*, *14*(26), 1472-6920. https://doi.org/10.1186/1472-6920-14-26

Yob, I. M., & Crawford, L. (2012). Conceptual framework for mentoring doctoral students. *Higher Learning Research Communications*, *2*(2), 34-47. https://doi.org/10.18870/hlrc.v2i2.66

You, D., Maeda, Y., & Bebeau, M. (2011). Gender differences in moral sensitivity: A meta-analysis. *Ethics & Behavior, 21*(4), 263–282. https://doi.org/10.1080/10508422.2011.585591

Zhang, Y.-P., Huang, X., Xu, S.-Y., Xu, C.-J., Feng, X.-Q., & Jin, J.-F. (2019). Can a one-on-one mentorship program reduce the turnover rate of new graduate nurses in China? A longitudinal study. *Nurse Education in Practice, 40*, 102616. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nepr.2019.08.010

Zopiatis, A., Theocharous, A. L., & Constanti, P. (2017). Adult vocational decision, career satisfaction and future intention. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *28*(12), 2696. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-03-2015-0099

Appendix A Demographic Questionnaire

Qualifying Questions:

1. Did you graduate after 2010 or are about to graduate (will graduate before May 2021) from a CES doctoral program that is CACREP accredited?

   ___ Yes ___ No

2. For the purpose of this study, a mentor is defined as a person who is more experienced than you and who is engaged in a relationship with you for the purpose of helping you and developing your career. Keeping the following definition of mentor in mind, did you have a mentor while attending your CES program?

   ___ Yes ___ No

CES Student Demographics

1. What is your age? _____
2. How would you describe yourself?

   ___ Caucasian

   ___Black or African American

   ___ Hispanic, Latino, or of Spanish origin

   ___ American Indian or Alaska Native

   ___Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander

   ___Asian

   ___ Multi-ethnic

   ___ Other

___ Prefer not to answer

3. What is your current gender identity?

___ Male

___ Female

___ Trans male or Trans man

___ Trans female or Trans woman

___ Gender queer or Gender non-conforming

___ Prefer not to answer

___ other _____

Attributes of the Mentor Relationship

If you have had multiple mentors, please choose one of them and respond to the questions regarding that specific mentor.

4. How does your mentor describe themself (choose all that apply)?

___ Caucasian

___Black or African American

___ Hispanic, Latino, or of Spanish origin

___ American Indian or Alaska Native

___Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander

___Asian

___ Multi-ethnic

___ Other

___ I am unsure

5. To which gender identity does your mentor most identify?

___ Male

___ Female

___ Trans male or Trans man

___ Trans female or Trans woman

___ Gender queer or Gender non-conforming

___ or Different identity; please identify _____

___ I am unsure

6. Was or is your mentor affiliated with your:

___ Current Place of Employment

___ Former Place of Employment

___ Professional Organization

___ University (Your Current CES program)

___ School: Your Master's program

___ School: Your Undergraduate Program

___ Provided supervision for my license

Other: _____

7. Did your mentor influence you to pursue the current position that is your primary career?

_____ No, my mentor did not influence my primary career choice.

_____ Yes, my mentor reinforced that I should pursue the primary career that I identified as I entered my CES program.

_____ Yes, my mentor provided guidance that led me to change the primary career choice that I had identified when I entered my CES program.

_____ I am unsure

8. Did your mentor influence you to pursue the current position that is your secondary career?

_____ Yes, my mentor encouraged me to pursue the secondary career choice that I identified when I entered my CES program

_____ Yes, my mentor provided guidance that changed the secondary career choice that I identified when I entered my CES program

_____ Yes, my mentor suggested that I pursue a secondary career choice that I had not considered upon entering my CES program

_____ No, my mentor did not influence me to pursue my secondary career

_____ I do not have a secondary career

____ I am unsure

9. What is your mentor's main occupation?

___ Counselor Educator

___ Counselor

___ Clinical Supervisor

___ Other Educator

___ Clinical Director

___ Other: _____

10. Is your mentor's main occupation the same position you identified as the position you wanted to obtain when you entered your CES program?

_____ Yes

_____ No

11. Is your mentor's main occupation the same position you entered (or hope to enter) upon graduation?

_____ Yes

_____ No

Career Choice of CES student

12. Did your career goals change over the course of being enrolled as a CES student?

___ Yes

___ No

13. Think back to when you entered your CES program. What was the primary position you hoped to obtain when you entered your CES doctoral program?

___ Full-time faculty

___ Adjunct

___ Clinical leader or Administrator (private practice)

___ Clinical leader or NOT Private Practice

___ Clinical or Counselor (NOT private practice)

___ Clinical or Counselor in Private Practice

___ Supervisor for licensure

___ Researcher

___ Post-Doctoral Opportunities

___ Advocacy

Other: ____

___ I was unsure of my career goals

14. Think back to when you entered your CES program. What was the secondary position you were hoping to obtain when you entered your CES doctoral program?

___ Full-time faculty

___ Clinical leadership or Administrator

___ Clinical or Counselor (NOT private practice)

___ Adjunct faculty

___ Clinical or Counselor in Private Practice

___ Supervision for licensure

___ Research

___ Advocacy

___ Post-Doctoral Opportunities

Other: _____

___ I did not plan on obtaining a secondary position

15. What was the primary position you wanted to obtain upon graduating from the CES doctoral program (choose one)? Or, for those of you who have not yet graduated, what is the primary position you want to obtain upon graduating the CES doctoral program (choose one)?

___ Full-time faculty

___ Adjunct

___ Clinical leader or Administrator (private practice)

___ Clinical leader or NOT Private Practice

___ Clinical or Counselor (NOT private practice)

___ Clinical or Counselor in Private Practice

___ Supervisor for licensure

___ Researcher

Other: _____

___ Post-Doctoral Opportunities

___ Advocacy

___ I am unsure of my career trajectory

16. What is the primary position you were able to obtain upon graduating from the CES doctoral program (choose one)?

___ Full-time faculty

___ Adjunct

___ Clinical leader or Administrator (private practice)

___ Clinical leader or NOT Private Practice

___ Clinical or Counselor (NOT private practice)

___ Clinical or Counselor in Private Practice

___ Supervisor for licensure

___ Researcher

___ Post-Doctoral Opportunities

___ Advocacy

Other: _____

___ I have not yet graduated

17. What is the secondary position you were able to obtain upon graduating from the CES doctoral program (choose one)?

___ Full-time faculty

___ Adjunct

___ Clinical leader or Administrator (private practice)

___ Clinical leader or NOT Private Practice

___ Clinical or Counselor (NOT private practice)

___ Clinical or Counselor in Private Practice

___ Supervisor for licensure

___ Researcher

___ Post-Doctoral Opportunities

___ I have not yet graduated

___ I do not have a secondary position and do not want a secondary position

___ I am exploring secondary positions

Other: _____

18. For those of you who did not enter academia, please describe why you chose not to enter into a faculty position:

Appendix B: Pilot Study Results

Reader	Comment
1	Looks okay; thorough
2	Is there a way for participants to fill in the blanks for the gender identity and how they describe themselves? I would add this
3	Keep hos does your mentor describe themselves
4	Should you write, “how does your mentor describe themselves (choose all that apply)?
5	Thorough; I like that you have so many career options
6	Looks good to me. I can not add anything.
7	You have my blessing. This is well thought out.
8	I can not think of anything to add.
9	Thorough. Maybe too many career options; but, lets see what you find out.
10	Well done. No changes.

Appendix C: Race Condensed

Race	Frequency	Percent
Caucasian	128	58.7
Black or African American	52	23.9
Other	38	17.5
Total	218	100