Understanding the Impact of Mentee's Gender in the Development of Informal Mentoring Relationships in the Workplace

Maria Carolina Saffie-Robertson

A Thesis

In the Department

of

Management

John Molson School of Business

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements

For the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy (Business Administration) at

Concordia University, Montreal, QC

July 2016

CONCORDIA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

This is to certify that the thesis prepared

By: Maria Carolina Saffie Robertson

Entitled: Understanding the Impact of Mentee's Gender in the Development of Informal Mentoring Relationships in the Workplace

and submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy in Business Administration

complies with the regulations of the University and meets the accepted standards with respect to originality and quality.

Signed by the final examining committee:

Dr. Mrugank Thakor — Chair

Dr. Silvia Bonaccio — External Examiner

Dr. Ketra Schmitt — External to Program

Dr. Alain Gosselin — Examiner

Dr. Kathleen Boies — Examiner

Dr. Stephane Brutus — Thesis Supervisor

Approved by

Chair of Department or Graduate Program Director

Dean of Faculty

ABSTRACT

Understanding the Impact of Mentee's Gender in the Development of Informal Mentoring Relationships in the Workplace

Maria Carolina Saffie-Robertson, Ph.D.

Concordia University, 2016

Research regarding gender and mentoring suggests that women are mentored less often than their male colleagues, which could have a detrimental effect on women's career development and growth. Although researchers have proposed different explanations and solutions to ease this phenomenon, women continue to report being under-mentored. In an effort to understand this issue in depth, two exploratory qualitative study were conducted. In the first study, twenty women holding tenure track academic positions in seven different business schools in Canada and the United States were interviewed to understand their experiences with mentoring. Through content analysis of the data, the existence of a type of barrier previously unidentified in the literature was unearthed, namely barriers to the development of the mentoring relationship. Two barriers to the development of a mentoring relationship, Need for Fit and Demonstrating Capability, are described and discussed in this study. Given these findings, a second study was designed in order to gain in-depth knowledge on barriers to the development of mentorships. Thirty three men and women from different organizations, industries and professions were invited to participate. The data from this second study supports the existence of barriers to the development of mentorship. The data signal the existence of the two barriers identified in study 1, Need for Fit and Demonstrating Capability, while it also suggests the existence of four other barriers, Commitment of the Mentor, Trust in the Mentor, Need to Share a Goal/Vision and Admiration towards the Mentor. The relevance of these barriers seems to vary by gender and organizational context which would explain why women would be under-mentored when compared to their male colleagues. Implications of these findings for researchers and practitioners are discussed.

Acknowledgments

It has been said that it takes a village to raise a child. I believe it also takes a village to write a dissertation and complete a doctoral degree. I would like to thank all of those in my village, without whom it would have been very difficult (maybe even impossible) to achieve these milestones in my career.

Thank you to my supervisor, Dr. Stéphane Brutus and my committee members, Dr. Kathleen Boies and Dr. Alain Gosselin for all their patience, feedback, hard work, suggestions and support. Thank you to all my friends, but especially to Heather Cluley Bar-Or, John Fiset and Sumi Ramachandran who helped me not only with emotional support but also with some very concrete tasks, such as finding participants for my studies and even babysitting.

Thank you to my families. To my parents and siblings, thank you for your unconditional love and support. Thanks for always being there for me in each and every way possible, even when the path I chose was not the one you would have chosen for me. It has been an honor, a blessing and a privilege to be part of the Saffie Robertson family. To my in-laws, thanks for your patience and support. I could not have wished or dreamed of a better family to be part of. I am extremely grateful you welcomed me and my family with open arms from the very first day and shared with me your Portuguese ways.

Last but not least, thank you to my husband and partner in crime, Zito. Thank you for your support and encouragement, especially in times where I could not see the light at the end of the tunnel. It has been challenging at moments to build our family, raise our amazing daughters, develop our careers and enjoy our lives all at the same time, but I would not change a thing. May the next chapters in our lives together be as happy and successful as these past 12 years. I love you more than words can say.

To Amalia and Olivia,

because nothing would matter without you

Table of Contents

List of Figures

List of Tables

Introduction

Mentoring is not a new or modern concept: It can be traced to Homer's Odyssey, where it was used as a synonym of a wise advisor (Chao, 1997; Gentry, Weber & Sadri, 2008; Russell & Adams, 1997). Russell and Adams (1997, pg. 2) defined mentoring as "an intense interpersonal exchange between a senior experienced colleague (mentor) and a less experienced junior colleague (protégé) in which the mentor provides support, direction, and feedback regarding career plans and personal development." Although the concept of mentoring is not new, the systematic study of mentoring in the workplace has only been formally researched since the mid-1980s, particularly with the seminal work of Kathy Kram.

Mentoring has been identified as a work relationship that has the potential to be extremely influential for the personal and professional growth of employees (Chandler, Kram & Yip, 2011). Studies and meta-analyses have found that having a mentor is associated with a number of positive outcomes for the protégé, including a decrease in family-work conflict and intentions to quit, and an increase in job and career satisfaction, to name a few (Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz & Lima, 2004; Chao, 1997; Dreher & Ash, 1990; Eby, Allen, Evans, Ng & DuBois 2008; Kram, 1983; Kram & Hall, 1986; Nielson, Carlson & Lankau, 2001; Richard, Ismail, Bhuian & Taylor, 2009).

Research on mentoring has suggested that female employees are less mentored than their male colleagues (Linehan & Scullion, 2008; Noe, 1988b; Ragins & Cotton, 1991). While male employees usually report having several mentors throughout their careers, female employees typically report they had no mentors to guide them and help them in the workplace. This lack of mentoring for female employees can have important repercussions, including a detrimental effect on women's career development (Linehan & Scullion, 2008; Noe, 1988b; Ragins & Cotton, 1991).

Research has attempted to understand why female employees would be mentored less often than their male colleagues by using different vantage points. One vantage point has focused on the gender composition of the mentoring dyad, suggesting that women are mentored less often than men because of gender issues between mentor and mentee (Noe, 1988a; Noe, 1988b). However, research has noted that the effects and influence of gender composition in the development and quality of a mentorship is limited at best (Fowler, Gudmundsson & O'Gorman, 2007). A second

vantage point has focused on potential barriers to access to mentoring that female employees in particular face when looking for a mentor (Noe, 1988b). These barriers would act as hurdles for female employees, preventing them from accessing potential mentors. Some of these barriers to access to mentors include lack of access to information networks, socialization practices, tokenism, norms regarding cross-gender relationships, stereotyping and reliance on inappropriate power bases (Noe, 1988b). However, there is limited evidence on both the relevance and pervasiveness of these barriers.

Mentoring research has explored these alternative explanations to the under-mentoring of female employees and suggested ways in which to increase the chances of women to be mentored (mainly through the development of formal mentoring systems in the workplace). However, recent studies have shown that the problem persists and female employees in different industries and professions (including city managers, accountants and global managers) report having no mentors in the workplace (Fox & Schuhmann, 2000; Kaplan, Keinath & Walo, 2001; Linehan & Scullion, 2008).

Given the significant positive consequences of mentoring for employees, identifying the factors that impede women from developing mentorships at work has become increasingly important. This dissertation aims to answer Allen, Eby, O'Brien and Lentz's (2008) call for more complex studies by conducting an in-depth qualitative study in an effort to gain a more profound understanding of the development of informal mentoring relationships in the workplace. By attaining insight in the factors that allow a relationship to grow from initial meetings into a mentorship, concrete suggestions can be made with two goals in mind: first, to help more female employees to develop informal mentoring at their workplace, and second, to develop more effective formal mentoring systems not only for female employees but for all those in need of a mentor.

Chapter 1

Literature Review

Mentoring is defined as "an intense interpersonal exchange between a senior experienced colleague (mentor) and a less experienced junior colleague (protégé) in which the mentor provides support, direction, and feedback regarding career plans and personal development" (Russell & Adams, 1997, pg.2). This relationship is most commonly informal, spontaneously developing from a common interest, admiration or previous friendship shared by mentor and protégé (Noe, 1988a).

According to Haggard, Dougherty, Turban and Wilbanks (2011) mentorships have three attributes that make them unique and different from other influential relationships at work. These attributes are reciprocity, developmental benefits and regular/consistent interaction. Reciprocity refers to the fact that mentorships require a social exchange between mentor and mentee. Although this exchange can take a number of different forms (including face-to face interactions, phone conversations and virtual communication), the interactions in a mentorship are mutual as opposed to unilateral. These mutual interactions distinguish mentorships from other potentially developmental social exchanges such as coaching, supervisory relationships and teacher/student dyads, where the exchange is not primarily mutual in nature (Haggard et al., 2011). The second attribute of a mentorship, developmental benefits, describes how mentoring relationships usually result in lasting benefits for both the mentor and the protégé. For the protégé, the mentoring relationship includes career-related benefits (such as promotions, higher salaries and challenging tasks) as well as benefits that go beyond the workplace (such as the development of the mentee's skills and abilities). For the mentor, the mentorship can develop his/her skills and abilities, can offer a sense of legacy and can increase the status and visibility of the mentor in the workplace (Haggard et al., 2011). The third and last attribute, regular/consistent interaction, describes how the mentoring relationships consist of interactions that are systematic and that extend over time. This attribute differentiates mentorships from coaching relationships, which tend to be bounded to a short period of time (Haggard et al., 2011).

Although mentorships usually extend over a long period of time, these relationships go through four distinct phases (Kram, 1983; Chao, 1997), The first phase, Initiation, refers to the

initial stage of a mentorship, where the relationship between mentor and protégé forms via the first interactions (Chao, 1997). This stage of the mentorship is marked by the mentee expressing respect and admiration towards the mentor, while the mentor identifies the mentee as someone with potential (Chao, 1997). This initial phase of mutual discovery between mentor and mentee usually lasts between 6 to 12 months (Kram, 1983). The second phase, Cultivation, corresponds to the maturation of the relationship, where both mentor and protégé know each other well enough to work together and take advantage of each other's skills and capabilities. During the 2 to 5 years span of the cultivation phase, the benefits of the mentoring relationship are maximized for both mentor and mentee (Kram, 1983; Chao, 1997). Separation corresponds to the third phase of a mentorship. In this stage, the protégé gains independence from the mentor in a process that takes between 6 to 24 months (Chao, 1997). This separation is usually slow and progressive, with little to no stress or emotional anxiety for either mentor or mentee as it is usually a process rather than a traditional break-up. The Redefinition phase is the fourth and last phase, and corresponds to the stage where the relationship usually transforms from a mentorship to a relationship of mutual support (Chao, 1997). In this phase the protégé might still consult with the mentor when confronted to personal and professional issues, but these interactions resemble peer-to-peer rather than mentor-mentee exchanges. This phase effectively constitutes the end of the mentorship and is indefinite in terms of time length (Chao, 1997).

Figure 1: Phases of Mentoring

Throughout these four phases of mentoring, and particularly during the cultivation phase, the senior colleague typically uses two distinct functions to mentor the protégé. The career function corresponds to the first mentoring function which allows a mentor to prepare and groom the protégé for career advancement opportunities. The career function includes 5 specific activities performed by the mentor: sponsorship (nominating the protégé for work opportunities such as promotions or important projects), coaching (developing strategies to help the mentee reach specific goals), protection (shielding the mentee from potentially harmful risks), exposure-and-visibility (providing the mentee with assignments that increase his/her visibility), and challenging work assignments (providing challenging work to develop skills) (Kram, 1983; Noe, 1988a). Through these actions, the mentor actively prepares the protégé for career development and advancement (Noe, 1988a). Through the second function, psychosocial function, the mentor aims to help the protégé develop confidence and a feeling of competence (Kram, 1983). This psychosocial function includes four activities executed by the mentor: role modeling (acting as a role model for acceptable behavior, values and attitudes), acceptance and confirmation (being a source of positive regard), counselling (allowing a space for open discussion), and friendship (developing a personal bond with the protégé) (Kram, 1983; Noe, 1988a). The psychosocial function allows the mentor to develop the protégé's skills and abilities by strengthening his/her self-identity, self-worth and self-esteem (Noe, 1988a).

As commented by Chandler, Kram and Yip (2011), both career-related and psychosocial mentoring functions have consistently shown to be good predictors of outcomes such as salary, promotions and other measures of protégé's career success. In fact, "mentoring has positive, typically small-to-moderate effect sizes on objective (e.g., promotions and salary) and subjective (e.g. career and job satisfaction) outcomes." (Chandler et al., 2011, pg. 523).

Regarding objective outcomes, protégés tend to report higher levels of positive career outcomes such as career planning, career involvement, income and promotions than non-protégés (Allen et al., 2004; Chao, 1997; Dreher & Ash, 1990; Eby et al., 2008). Furthermore, employees with mentors usually present lower levels of negative career related variables such as withdrawal intentions and behaviour, and deviance than those employees with no mentors (Eby et al., 2008).

Having a mentor would also have an impact on a cluster of attitudinal variables (or subjective outcomes) such as job and career satisfaction, and career commitment (Allen et al.,

2004; Eby et al., 2008; Kammeyer-Mueller & Judge, 2008; Richard, Ismail, Bhuian & Taylor, 2009; Wanberg, Kammeyer-Mueller & Marchese, 2006). Protégés also report less psychological stress and strain, less substance abuse and higher self-perceptions than non-protégés (Eby et al., 2008, Kram & Hall, 1989). Research has found that protégés have less work-family conflict than non-protégés (Nielson et al., 2001).

Although mentoring has been found to have positive effects for mentees, the mechanisms through which mentoring affects objective and subjective outcomes have only been studied recently. One variable that helps understand the effects of mentoring on these outcomes is perceived organizational support (POS). Baranik, Roling and Eby (2010) noted that a subset of mentoring functions, namely sponsorship, exposure and visibility, and role modeling, had a positive impact on POS which in turn positively affected job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The authors suggested that "the receipt of mentoring support sets in motion a social exchange process whereby perceptions of organizational support are generated, which in turn predict positive protégé work attitudes." (Baranik et al., 2010, pg. 370). The authors also noted that both career-related functions (sponsorship and exposure and visibility) as well as psychosocial functions (role modeling) of the mentoring relationship have a direct effect on POS, therefore highlighting the relevance of both mentoring functions.

Another mechanism by which mentoring appears to affect outcomes is through role stressors. Lankau, Carlson and Nielson (2006) found that psychosocial support and role modeling, two elements of the mentoring relationship, decrease both role conflict and role ambiguity. Lower levels of role conflict and role ambiguity are, in turn, related to higher job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Lankau et al., 2006). The authors suggested that having a mentor allows mentees access to tools, skills and guidance which permits them to better deal with potentially conflicting demands in the workplace. Therefore, mentees would have more coping mechanisms than employees with no mentors, which in part would explain why protégés would have higher job satisfaction and organizational commitment than non-protégés (Lankau et al., 2006).

Positive outcomes of the mentoring relationship are not only experienced by the protégé but by mentors as well. Eby, Durley, Evans and Ragins (2006) noted that mentors experience an array of benefits which include improved job performance, recognition by others, rewarding

experience and a loyal base of support. Having a protégé would be a source of pride for mentors, giving the mentor bragging rights when a mentee succeeds (Eby et al., 2006). Mentorships would allow mentors to have allies in the workplace, allies that appreciate and value the mentor's knowledge and experience. Mentors would therefore see mentees as their legacy and even their own possible successors (Eby et al., 2006). Furthermore, having a protégé could give the mentor access to different sources of information. Since mentor and mentee are usually part of different social groups within the organization, having a mentee would allow the mentor to tap into information sources that otherwise would be not available to him/her (Mullen and Noe, 1999).

The literature has suggested that although both mentor and protégé can reap the benefits of a mentorship, the magnitude of these benefits might vary according to the formality of the relationship. As described by Chun, Litzky, Sosik, Bechtold and Godshalk (2010, pg. 422), "A formal mentoring program is an organizationally sanctioned and established learning relationship where mentors and protégés are matched with the goals of sharing organizational knowledge and advancing the protégés' careers." Informal mentoring, on the other hand "…is not managed, structured or formally recognized by the organization. As the 'traditional' form of mentoring, it is a spontaneous relationship that occurs without external involvement." (Herrbach, Mignonac & Richebé, 2011, pg. 1555).

According to Wanberg, Kammeyer-Mueller & Marchese (2006) there are at least two main differences between formal and informal mentoring. First, the way in which the mentoring relationship starts is very different (Wanberg et al., 2006). Informal mentoring relationships are usually born from a slow process of mutual discovery that develops into respect and acknowledgement of the potential of both parties (Kram, 1985). Formal mentorships, on the other hand, are organizational programs in which protégés are matched with mentors (Chun et al., 2010; Wanberg et al., 2006). This means that protégés and mentors usually do not know each other until they are matched as part of an employee development process instated by the organization. The way the mentorship initiates has an effect on the attitude with which both the protégé and the mentor approach the mentorship. While in informal mentorships both parties are usually excited and have positive expectations, the initial stages of formal mentorships could be characterized by the anxiety and discomfort felt by both the protégé and the mentor (Chun et al., 2010). The second main difference between formal and informal mentorships is the timing and structure of the

relationship (Wanberg et al., 2006; Weinberg & Lankau, 2011). In the case of informal mentoring, these relationships are more spontaneous and therefore have no specific timelines, governed only by the involved parties and are not determined by external rules (Wanberg et al., 2006). Since formal mentoring relationships are developed by the organization, these mentorships usually work within a specific timeline, (which specifies a particular duration of the relationship), and are directed by a third party in charge of the formal mentoring program.

Organizations have been matching mentors and protégés through formal mentoring programs in an effort to capture the benefits of informal mentoring relationship (Allen, Eby & Lentz, 2006; Noe, 1988a). However, the formality of the mentorship has been noted to affect the prominence of the outcomes usually associated with this relationship. Allen et al. (2006, pg. 567) explained that when comparing the outcomes of formal and informal mentorships, "...formal mentoring is better than no mentoring but not as effective as informal mentoring." There are at least three reasons behind the lesser impact of formal mentoring on outcomes. First, formal mentoring relationships are susceptible to personality conflicts between protégé and mentor (Noe, 1988a). In formal mentorships, mentor and mentee are usually randomly assigned to each other, and the lack of previous personal knowledge can lead to conflicts that erode the relationship as well as the benefits obtained through informal mentoring relationships (Noe, 1988a). Second, formal mentoring relationships need the support of third parties in order to be successful (Noe, 1988a). However, it is common to find that formal mentorships are vulnerable to unsupportive third parties, such as the protégé's supervisor. Formal mentorships might lack the support of those in the vicinity of the dyad which could impact the benefits that arise from the mentorship (Noe, 1988a). Third, lack of commitment to the success of the relationship from either of the involved parties has been signaled as a reason why formal mentoring relationships often do not carry the same level of outcomes as informal mentorships (Noe, 1988a). Informal mentoring relationships are usually born from a mutual desire to be part of this relationship, and this desire might not be present in a formal mentoring relationship, harming the outcomes (Noe, 1988a).

Chapter 2

Women and Mentoring

As previously discussed, research has established that there are substantial benefits for those employees that have a mentor in their workplace (Dreher & Ash, 1990). However, some researchers have suggested that women have more difficulty finding a mentor than their male colleagues. Not having a mentor at work not only would limit the ability of female employees to access the benefits associated with mentoring relationships but could also have a detrimental effect on their career development (Linehan & Scullion, 2008; Noe, 1988b; Ragins & Cotton, 1991). Mentoring has been signaled as a critical factor in aiding employees' career advancement. As commented by Hale (1992, pg.89) "…mentoring is known to influence strongly one's professional career development and upward mobility."

Evidence of the under-mentoring of female employees can be found across professions and industries. Fox and Schuhmann (2000) used data gathered from city managers across the United States to conclude that women are seriously underrepresented in these positions. One of the factors that the authors signaled as affecting the inclusion of women in the public sector is "…a vacuum of professional mentoring opportunities."(Fox & Schuhmann, 2000, pg. 381). The authors conclude that the only way to improve the underrepresentation of women in city management positions is to develop mentoring opportunities for female employees. "In the end, it is critical that we attend to, and facilitate, effective mentoring relationships for women." (Fox & Schuhmann, 2000, pg. 390).

Similar evidence of the under-mentoring of women was found by Kaplan, Keinath and Walo (2001) in accounting firms. As explained by the authors, mentoring is commonly used in large accounting firms as a tool for the development of employees, where mentees are eased into the profession and the organization by their mentors (Kaplan et al., 2001). Female accountants that participated in this study reported having less mentoring opportunities than the male participants. The authors noted that this could be explained in part by the fact that female accountants reported facing higher barriers to access to potential mentors than male employees (Kaplan et al., 2001). The authors suggested that the lack of mentoring could be one of the reasons behind the absence

of women in the top echelons of accounting firms. One way to tackle the under-mentoring of female employees would be through changing the organizational culture. As commented by Kaplan et al. (2001, pg. 281), "An organizational culture that encourages open communication may promote informal communications between potential mentors and potential protégés."

Linehan and Scullion (2008) also found evidence of the under-mentoring of female employees. Interviewing female global managers, the authors noted that the participants shared experiences of difficulties accessing mentors as well as entering influential networks. These difficulties had serious long-term effects on the career development of women (Linehan & Scullion, 2008). "The findings confirm that female managers can miss out on global appointments because they lack mentors, role models, sponsorship, or access to appropriate networks – all of which are commonly available to their male counterparts." (Linehan & Scullion, 2008, pg. 29). The authors commented that even though there has been an increased participation of women in the workforce in the last decades, changes need to be made in order to increase the number of women in senior management positions (Linehan & Scullion, 2008).

Researchers have aimed to explain why women would be under-mentored. There are two main explanations for this phenomenon. The first explanation relies on issues that might arise from the gender composition of the dyad. The second explanation focuses on barriers that female employees and only female employees need to overcome in order to find a mentor. Both areas of research are discussed in the following paragraphs.

Gender Composition of the Dyad

The gender composition of the dyad has been signaled as one reason why women would be under-mentored. Some researchers have proposed that female employees tend to develop mentorships only with female mentors, and since there are few women in the upper echelons of organizations, female employees are destined to be mentor-less (Noe 1988a).

According to Ragins & Cotton (1991) there are three main reasons why gender can impact the development of a mentoring relationship. First, close and intense relationships between men and women in the workplace can be misinterpreted as being of a romantic nature instead of purely work-related. The possibility of misconception and the high likelihood of negative consequences

that can arise from it can lead women to be reluctant to develop a mentorship with a male mentor (Ragins & Cotton, 1991). Second, traditional gender roles regarding the initiation of a relationship dictate that while men can and should be more aggressive and assertive, women should be more passive. This gentler approach used by women could make it harder for female employees to develop mentorships with mentors (Ragins & Cotton, 1991). Third, women have limited access to formal and informal social and informational networks, traditionally integrated mainly by men. This lack of access to networks would impede women from meeting potential male mentors (Ragins & Cotton, 1991).

Several studies have suggested that gender not only plays a role in the creation of a mentorship but also in the type of mentorship that will develop between mentor and mentee. It has been suggested that gender of the mentor has an impact on the type of mentoring that will be offered to the protégé. In particular, female mentors tend to provide more psychosocial functions to their protégés than male mentors (Burke & McKeen, 1990; Ragins & Cotton, 1999; Allen & Eby, 2004). Furthermore, Kram (1983, pg. 623) noted that female protégés lacked the role modelling function when their mentors were male, which "[...] caused young female managers to seek support and guidance from other female peers."

Barriers to Access to Mentors

In 1988(b) Noe proposed that the reason why women are systematically under-mentored in the workplace was that they encounter a number of barriers that make it difficult for female employees to find a mentor. Noe (1988b) suggested that the barriers to access that are confronted by female employees in the workplace include lack of access to information networks, tokenism, stereotyping, socialization practices, norms regarding cross-gender relationships, and reliance on inappropriate power bases.

The first barrier identified by Noe (1988b) was lack of access to information networks. According to Noe (1988b) women would have limited opportunities to meet potential mentors because of a lack of knowledge or access to informal networks within the organization. The author suggested this lack of access to informal networks becomes more salient because of the second barrier to access, socialization practices. Noe (1998b) commented that women may prefer to

socialize with co-workers or others in similar positions of power, which would limit the access that women have to potential mentors. In 1991, Ragins and Cotton found evidence to support the existence of both these barriers, noting that the factors that women consider as the highest barriers to access to mentors are shortage of mentors and lack of opportunities to meet potential mentors. Fox and Schuhmann (2000) found a similar trend in the public sector. These authors found that female employees lacked professional mentoring opportunities because they reported a lack of access to potential mentors, which had a detrimental effect in the inclusion of women in this sector. Furthermore, that same year, Kaplan, Keinath and Walo (2001) found the same trend in public accounting. The authors concluded that women perceive lack of access to mentors as the main barrier to become a protégé (Kaplan et al., 2001).

The lack of women in the upper echelons of the organization is related to three other barriers identified by Noe (1988b). Tokenism, the third barrier identified by Noe (1988b) refers to the experience of individuals who enter an organization where their race or gender has been systematically underrepresented. As commented by the author, women have entered occupations traditionally dominated by men, which creates a token effect, making women in these contexts highly visible. This visibility would dissuade potential mentors from fostering a mentoring relationship with these female employees (Noe, 1988b). In other words, because in some organizational contexts female employees are a minority, they are highly visible, which makes their mentor and possible failures more exposed as well. To be the mentor of a token means to be in the spotlight, visibility that might be uncomfortable for prospective mentors (Noe, 1988b).

Few women in the upper levels of the organization is also related to the fourth barrier that may limit women's access to mentors, which are norms regarding cross-gender relationships. Noe commented in 1988(b) that the lack of women in the upper echelons of organizations could limit the availability of female mentors for younger women. Since there are norms which impact cross-gender relationships, it is possible that male mentors would not be comfortable mentoring a female employee and vice versa. The intensity of a mentoring relationship could be misconstrued in an environment where there are strict norms regarding cross-gender relationships, which would impede female employees from finding senior male colleagues willing to mentor them. The lack of women in upper levels of the organization also has an effect on stereotyping, which was mentioned by Noe (1988b) as a fifth possible barrier. Negative perceptions of the capabilities of

women as managers are one of the ways in which stereotyping can impact the access of women to mentoring relationships (Noe, 1988b). In fact, as commented by De Pillis, Kernochan, Meilich, Prosser and Whiting (2008), although weaker these days than what it used to be, the "think manager = think male" schema is still present in western cultures. Stereotyping and attributions can undermine women's possibilities of establishing a mentoring relationship. Ragins and Cotton (1991) support the existence of these barriers when they concluded that willingness of the mentor to mentor, approval of others of the mentoring relationship, and misinterpretation (mentor or others interpreting a mentoring relationship as a sexual one) were also mentioned by women in their study as barriers that impeded them from finding a mentor.

The sixth and last barrier identified by Noe (1988b) is the reliance on inappropriate power bases. According to Noe (1988b), women tend to rely on power bases that portray them as unfit candidates for mentoring relationships. Noe (1988b) noted that women tend "[...] to emphasize their own weakness or incompetence in order to influence others." (pg.71) Using this characteristic as a way to influence others may be limiting women's access to mentors, since mentors are usually attracted to protégés that present themselves as competent and successful (Singh, Ragins & Tharenou, 2009).

Counterevidence and Meta-analyses

Although there seems to be ample evidence to confirm the under-mentoring experienced by female employees when compared to their male colleagues, some researchers have suggested that women have the same access to mentors as their male colleagues. The study conducted by Dreher and Ash (1990) used a sample of business school graduates to explore whether women were under-mentored. The authors did not find any gender differences with regards to access to mentors or the frequency of mentoring activities. By the same token, gender did not moderate the relationship between mentoring and outcomes (Dreher & Ash, 1990).

Several meta-analyses have been conducted to analyse the relationship between gender and mentoring in an effort to clarify if women are under-mentored when compared to their male colleagues. The results of these studies seem to suggest that women have the same opportunities as men to find a mentor. The research by Kammeyer-Mueller and Judge (2008) as well as that of

O'Brien, Biga, Kessler and Allen (2010) suggest that women are mentored as frequently as men. The difference seems to be on what kind of mentoring both genders receive. As commented by O'Brien et al. (2010), women protégés would receive more psychosocial support than male protégés. However, both studies report small effect sizes, which puts in question the robustness of these findings.

Although these meta-analyses are insightful and relevant, they are not conclusive enough to provide a definite answer to the issue of the effect of gender on access to mentors. There are at least three reasons why these meta-analyses could be averaging out potential difficulties that women have in finding a mentor, difficulties that smaller, tailored, targeted studies can uncovered. First, as commented by Haggard et al. (2011) there are at least 40 different definitions of mentoring. When conducting a meta-analysis, the data are combined without regards to subtle differences in mentoring definitions that each individual particular study might have used. The study by Haggard et al. (2011) shows how different these definitions can be. For example, the definition used by Fagenson in 1989 stresses the position of power of the mentor ("Someone in a position of power who looks out for you, or gives you advice, or brings your accomplishments to the attention of other people who have power in the company."), while the definition by Seibert (1999) focuses on the technical advice given by the mentor to the mentee ("Someone, other than your manager or immediate coworkers, who provides you with technical or career advice, coaching, or information on an informal basis."), and the definition provided by Russell and Adams (1997) describes the intensity of the relationship ("An intense interpersonal exchange between a senior experienced colleague (mentor) and a less experienced junior colleague (protégé) in which the mentor provides support, direction, and feedback regarding career plans and personal development.") (all definitions can be seen in Haggard et al., 2011, pg. 285). According to Haggard et al. (2011, pg. 287) the reason for this diversity in definitions of mentoring is that each study will use a definition that has a different emphasis on four key elements: "(a) the mentor's place within the organizational hierarchy, (b) supervisory versus nonsupervisory mentoring, (c) inside versus outside mentor, and (d) level of relationship intimacy". Since the definitions used across the studies included in a meta-analysis can be radically different from each other, analyzing and comparing the data obtained in different studies might be overlooking discreet yet important divergences.

Second, as discussed by Allen et al. (2008), the vast majority of studies in this field have used similar methods and vantage points. Of the total studies analyzed, Allen et al. (2008) concluded that 83.7% of the published research in mentoring used correlational data, while 90.9% used a cross-sectional approach. Allen et al. (2008) concluded that although this homogeneity in method may be a symptom of the young age of this area of study, different methodologies are needed in order to develop our knowledge of mentoring in the workplace. Allen et al. (2008) suggested that it might be time to develop "…more costly, time-consuming and complex studies" (pg. 355). This homogeneity in methodologies in the mentoring literature implies that the studies included in meta-analyses are supported by very few qualitative studies that have uncovered at least part of the mentoring phenomenon. Unless more research is done to fully reveal the mentoring phenomenon as a whole, the question will remain as to whether knowledge on mentoring is being built on solid ground.

Third, as mentioned by O'Brien et al. (2010) most studies on mentoring neglect to report whether their samples correspond to formal or informal (or both) mentoring relationships. This implies that meta-analyses are not able to separate the data into formal and informal mentorships, making it unclear if the conclusions reached correspond to one, both or neither of these mentoring relationship types. This is not a minor issue. The barriers that female employees might encounter when looking for a mentor are usually present when trying to form an informal mentorship (O'Brien et al., 2010). In fact, as previously discussed, formal mentoring programs were developed in order to allow organizations to assign mentors to those protégés who are believed to have difficulties finding someone on their own to fulfil the mentor role (O'Brien et al., 2010). Therefore, it can then be expected for mentees in formal mentoring relationships to report having no problems finding a mentor, because the mentor was indeed provided to them. Since meta-analyses cannot discriminate between formal and informal mentoring relationships, it is difficult to determine if indeed women face the same difficulties as men when looking for an informal mentor at work.

This Dissertation

The literature dealing with mentoring and women has had difficulty arriving to overarching conclusions in great part because of the plethora of contradictory evidence. There are at least two main issues that remain unclear. First, are female employees under-mentored when compared to their male colleagues? While some researchers suggest that women are under-mentored (including Noe 1988b; Ragins & Cotton, 1991; Fox & Schuhmann, 2000; Kaplan, Keinath & Walo, 2001; Linehan & Scullion, 2008), others suggest that women are mentored just as often as men (including Dreher & Ash, 1990; Kammeyer-Mueller & Judge, 2008; O'Brien, Biga, Kessler & Allen, 2010). Second, if women are in fact under-mentored, what is causing this phenomenon? It has been suggested that the reasons of the under-mentoring of women could be rooted in gender issues as well as barriers to access to mentors experienced only by women (including Noe, 1988a; Noe 1988b; Ragins & Cotton, 1991). However, the pervasiveness of these factors has been questioned, as well as their relevance in the current workplace (Kammeyer-Mueller & Judge, 2008; O'Brien, Biga, Kessler & Allen, 2010).

The contradictory evidence and the gaps in the literature regarding women and mentoring can be explained by two related factors. First, as previously discussed, although mentoring is an old concept, the study of mentoring in the workplace is relatively new. The systematic study of mentoring only started in the 1980s with Kathy Kram's dissertation (Allen, Eby & Lentz, 2006; Chao, 1997; Eby, Allen, Evans, Ng & DuBois, 2008; Gentry, Weber & Sadri, 2008; Kammeyer-Mueller & Judge, 2008, among others). The early stage of this area of research explains in part why many facets of the mentoring relationship, including these issues, have not been resolved yet. Second, the literature on mentoring has relied on research done with similar methodologies and vantage points. As commented by Allen, Eby, O'Brien and Lentz (2008), almost ninety percent of the studies on mentoring use quantitative and cross sectional approaches. As important and relevant as these methods are, the lack of variance in methods in the mentoring literature is troublesome. Different methods could shed light not only on the questions regarding women and mentoring but also on other areas and characteristics of the mentoring relationship.

Given the significant positive consequences of mentoring for employees, mentors and their organizations alike, more research is needed to determine if women are indeed under-mentored as well as the factors that could be causing this phenomenon. This dissertation is inspired by these

two unresolved issues regarding women and mentoring. Although it is very likely that this dissertation will not be able to conclusively decide these issues and for once and for all determine if women are under-mentored and the causes behind this phenomenon, these studies could be a crucial step into untangling these matters. As such, this dissertation aims to answer the call made by Allen et al. (2008) for more complex studies that use more in-depth methodologies, in order to shed some light into the relationship of women and mentoring in the workplace.

Chapter 3

Study 1

Finding the One: Barriers to the Development of Mentoring Relationships

As previously discussed, there are two questions regarding women and mentoring that remain largely unanswered in the literature. First, are female employees under-mentored when compared to their male colleagues? Second, if women are in fact under-mentored, what is causing this phenomenon? Answering these questions is the first step towards improving the access of women to mentoring and all its benefits, including objective and subjective outcomes as well as career development and advancement.

Therefore the aim of this study is to gain insight into the experiences of women with informal mentoring in the workplace. In doing so, the hope is that this study will shed light into the issue of under-mentoring of women and its possible causes. Through the use of a qualitative approach, the goal of this study is to obtain in-depth knowledge on how women in one particular workplace setting have experienced informal mentoring throughout their careers. The research question behind this study is: What are the experiences of women with informal mentoring at work?

The Academic Context

In North America, the academic career usually starts by completing a doctorate degree. During this period, PhD students/candidates usually have a supervisor, who monitors and reviews the progress of the student (Green & Bauer, 1995). After completing the doctoral degree, recent Ph.D. graduates join an academic institution as assistant professors, title they will typically hold for 5 to 7 years, depending on the specific criteria of each institution (Kirchmeyer, 2005). The academic career continues with a tenure review process that leads to a promotion to associate professor. The promotion to full professor usually happens 12 to 14 years after joining the academic institution (Kirchmeyer, 2005). The performance evaluation in the academic setting

primarily relies on publication productivity (which also predicts rank and salary) as opposed to other criteria such as teaching evaluations (Kirchmeyer, 2005).

The academic context is relevant to explore the research question because of the unique characteristics of this setting. First, as discussed by Green and Bauer (1995), the relationship between doctoral students and their supervisors although not necessarily a mentoring relationship, should normally include some aspects of a typical mentorship, which explains why this supervisor-student dynamic usually proves to be particularly significant to the student's professional development. Second, although doctoral students are in fact students, they are also the academicians of the near future (Green & Bauer, 1995). In this aspect, doctoral programs are apprenticeships, where the student learns to develop capabilities and skills that will shape and form his/her career. Therefore, supervisors can provide the necessary tools to survive and succeed in this organizational context. Third, Kirchmeyer (2005) noted that publishing in academic journals (which in most universities is an important measure of academic performance and therefore a significant marker used for career advancement decisions such as tenure) in fact happens outside of the employing organization. In this sense, academicians are very much like entrepreneurs, where a set of specific skills, such as self-management, autonomy, self-discipline and self-motivation are needed in order to succeed. These factors make having a mentor particularly relevant for young academicians making this context very attractive for studying mentoring relationships.

Methodology

Sample

Twenty female university professors were interviewed for this study. At the time of the interviews, all the interviewees were either tenured or held tenure-track positions in business schools of seven different universities in Canada and The United States. Table 1 presents a summary of the main individual characteristics of the women who participated in this study. As it can be noticed, the average time these women had spent in their current organizations was 11 years. At the time of the interview, only six of the interviewees were not tenured. In order to assure confidentiality, the names of the respondents have been changed to fictitious names chosen by the researcher.

Table 1: Summary of Participants' Characteristics – Study 1

	Time in Current Org.	Current Position	Has/Had a Mentor
Diane	27 years	Professor (T)	Yes
Barbara	6 years	Associate Professor (T)	Yes
Heather	5 years	Associate Professor (T)	Yes
Carla	4 years	Assistant Professor (NT)	No
Grace	10 years	Associate Professor (T)	Yes
Laura	20 years	Associate Professor (T)	No
Susan	3 years	Associate Professor (T)	Yes
Wendy	2 years	Assistant Professor (NT)	Yes
Dorothy	1 year	Assistant Professor (NT)	Yes
Sarah	3 years	Assistant Professor (NT)	Yes
Bianca	4 years	Assistant Professor (NT)	No
Cristina	15 years	Associate Professor (T)	Yes
Paula	14 years	Associate Professor (T)	No
Rachel	25 years	Professor (T)	Yes
Veronica	20 years	Associate Professor (T)	Yes
Maria	24 years	Associate Professor (T)	No
Pamela	3 years	Assistant Professor (NT)	Yes
Karen	19 years	Associate Professor (T)	No
Valerie	8 years	Associate Professor (T)	Yes
Lisa	3 years	Associate Professor (T)	Yes

(T): Tenured, (NT): Not tenured

Process and Data Collection

After obtaining the necessary ethics approval from the Concordia University Human Research Ethics Committee, an email was sent requesting involvement in this study to potential female participants using the researcher's personal contacts. Simultaneously, some interviewees were kind enough to provide the contact information of women they deemed would be interested in participating in this study, making this sample a snowball sample.

An interview conducted by the researcher was the primary data source. This interview lasted an average of 45 minutes and was conducted in person at the interviewees' offices or by phone when a face-to-face meeting was not possible. The researcher was guided by a semi-structured protocol which tapped into experiences of the participants with mentoring relationships. Questions asked included: "How would you define a mentor? Do you have a mentor right now within your university? Tell me about your relationship. How did it come about?" (The entire protocol can be found in Appendix 1). The protocol was revised after the fifth interview was conducted in order to ensure that the questions were adequate and allowed the interview to flow properly while gaining insight into the research question.

All interviews were recorded after obtaining the necessary consent from the participant. The researcher also took notes during these interviews, notes that included verbal as well as non-verbal communicational cues. These notes were taken in an effort to record as much information as possible in order to gain insight into the research question. Following the advice by Golden-Biddle and Locke (2007) memoing was used during both data collection and data analysis to capture ideas, patterns and any other information that seemed relevant to this study.

Data Analysis

The data analysis used for this study included simultaneous data collection and analysis, inductive construction of data codes and constant comparison between the literature and the data, all elements consistent with the grounded theory approach (Charmaz, 2006).

All interviews were transcribed verbatim, and texts were read several times to internalize the raw data and visualize possible emergent patterns (Boyatzis, 1998). At this stage of the data analysis preliminary notes, codes, comparisons, and ideas were used (Charmaz, 2006). Open coding was conducted by the author by attaching codes to segments of texts representing information related to the research question of the study as well as themes which were interesting and potentially relevant that might not have been directly linked to the research question (Berg, 2001). A coding table was created by the author with coding theme titles, definitions, characteristics, counts, and examples (Boyatzis, 1998).

Once transcripts were fully coded, a participant matrix was created so that codes and ideas could be compared. Notes were made for each participant based on different themes and ideas which allowed comparison across codes and validation of ideas with the actual data. The aggregate responses to each of the questions were pooled together and analyzed to identify recurring themes, categories, and patterns. As suggested by Patton in 2001, only those experiences mentioned by at least 10% of the sample were retained (in this case, at least two participants). Once a set of themes was determined, the data were systematically coded and the results tabulated (Patton, 2001). An example of the procedures followed to analyze and code the collected data can be seen in Table 2.

Table 2: Example of the coding procedure used to analyse the data

Quote	1st Order Coding	2nd Order Coding
"…unless you have similar values, I don't think that it really takes."	Similarities w/mentor	Need for Fit
"…we had a very common cultural background…"		
"…you feel a connection at an emotional level…"	Connection w/mentor	
"... with fit, the relationship would work better."		
"Attracted to their aura, their energy."		
"…you genuinely have to like the person."		

After the data from the interviews were analysed, interviewees were contacted for a discussion of the results, conversation that was possible with 15 of the initial 20 interviewees. The purpose of this conversation was to have a discussion regarding the initial findings and how these findings represented the interviewees' experiences. This conversation lasted an average of 20 minutes. It is important to notice that these conversations were not recorded, transcribed or coded and therefore were not included in the dataset built with the first interviews.

Findings

Although the reasons for pursuing a doctoral degree were different for each interviewed woman, once they were accepted in a doctoral program their experiences regarding mentoring were quite similar. As doctoral students, the interviewees were able to establish a relationship with their Ph.D. supervisors that would usually and spontaneously develop into a mentorship (this was the case for 12 of the 14 interviewees that reported having had a mentor at some point in their career). Heather discussed how mentorships would usually develop between student and advisor.

> *"I think it is very frequent. I think is the nature of, I think is part of the nature of academia. I think doing a Ph.D. is sort of an apprenticeship kind of thing when you work really closely with someone and although sometimes those relationships go poorly, if you work with somebody for 5 years, chances are they are going to have a big influence in your career, because it is kind of embedded in the system."* Heather

These mentoring relationships would normally grow from an admiration that the doctoral student felt for the supervisor as well as an inclination to share similar research interests. This was discussed in length by Barbara, when she described the relationship she had with her Ph.D. supervisor and mentor.

> *"She really is a charismatic leader actually, so she is just you sort of want to be around her, because she has so much energy, and joy, you know. […]Professionally she really helped me shape the way I work, she opened up my perspectives in terms of qualitative research because she always does both and I wouldn't in psychology, she was in a business school so it was nice, you know, the new perspective. She got me involved on projects, I got also different opportunities to meet people, to work on things, to publish, so I really feel that she was quite, she really gave me, provided the ladder, the first ladder for my career."* Barbara

In most cases these mentoring relationships continued to develop long after the students graduated and the formal student-supervisor dynamic ended. The mentor would not only help the protégé find a tenure track position in a different university but the protégé would also use the mentor as a resource for guidance and information once she was at a different school as an assistant professor. Although the frequency of the contact between protégés and mentors would decrease with time (following the pattern described in the literature as the separation phase), the interviewees would still reach out to their supervisors/mentors to collaborate in research or when in need of an objective, outsider's perspective on issues occurring at their workplace. Grace still kept in touch with her Ph.D. supervisor and mentor long after she finished her degree. At the time the interview was conducted, Grace had been tenured for almost 5 years, and had been in her university for more than 10 years.

> *"But I'm still in touch with him. I saw him again last year and it was really great. Like we were very happy to see each other, but in terms of mentorship now, he doesn't really play a big role. But at least he still does. We still communicate a lot, I ask him for feedback in the things I do in my research and what he thinks and we see each other about once every 2 years or 3 years in conferences, places like that. And I often talk to him about the projects we're doing and seeing what he thinks about all of it."*
> Grace

Women who did not perceive their Ph.D. supervisors as mentors described a lack of compatibility as one reason that impeded the relationship to develop into a mentorship. In the case of Carla, she identified several people as influential and important for her career, but she mentioned that there was something missing from these relationships that did not enable her to describe any of them as mentorships. *"So, so, it's hard sometimes to put your finger on what makes a person a good fit or not for you. For me, there was something missing."* For Laura, her supervisor did not become a mentor because, *"Him and I did not see eye-to-eye on many things. We had very different views and values."*

As similar as the experiences were with mentoring in the early stages of their careers, the interviewees also had very similar stories regarding mentoring occurring in their workplaces. The

interviewed women narrated a lack of mentoring at their place of work which they described as an important and useful relationship they wished they had. Interestingly, there seems to be an acknowledgement of this lack of mentoring for young female faculty members in few business schools: two of the interviewees commented that in order to provide young faculty members with mentors, their business schools had implemented formal mentoring systems, with mixed results. Dorothy explained that she was part of a formal mentoring system for which she was grateful. As she explained, although she would not consider this senior colleague as a mentor per se, she did appreciate having this system that had allowed her to be paired with someone that "*...is giving me not only the big picture but also kind of more day to day advice"*. Sarah, on the other hand, although part of a formal mentoring system, explained that her experience had not been a successful one. *"Formally I have a mentor in the program. He isn't very helpful. [...] He is not really a mentor."*

Furthermore, Rachel discussed how this lack of mentors in the workplace for young female faculty has created a serious problem at her school. In fact, her school is in the process of implementing a formal mentoring system to help these young female faculty members get integrated and find the advice and guidance they need.

> *"There are some people who have some big, if you want to call them, holes in their network, where they don't really have people who can check, read their grant proposal, they are not sure who to... they don't show it to anyone before they send it in. It would be good if they had somebody just to show it to, get a little feedback."*
> Rachel

When the interviewees were asked to think of some of the factors that would make it difficult for them to find a mentor at their place of work, none of the women identified access to mentors as a problem. As explained by Barbara, she has met potential mentors at her workplace, yet she does not have a mentor: *"There are several people I go for advice. I haven't really found a person who could sort of fulfill all these functions at the same time, so I sort of get these things from different people. I can think of three or four people I go for advice but I don't consider them my mentors."*

The interviewees were asked directly about Noe's six barriers to access and how these had an impact (if any) in their access to mentors. The participants described Noe's barriers as being outdated and not reflective of their experiences.

> *"When were those barriers discussed? In 1988? That might be it… I don't think any of those barriers are relevant now, at least not for me. I have met people that could have been very good mentors but it just hasn't happened, I'm not sure why it hasn't happened but I don't think it has had anything to do with those barriers."* Pamela

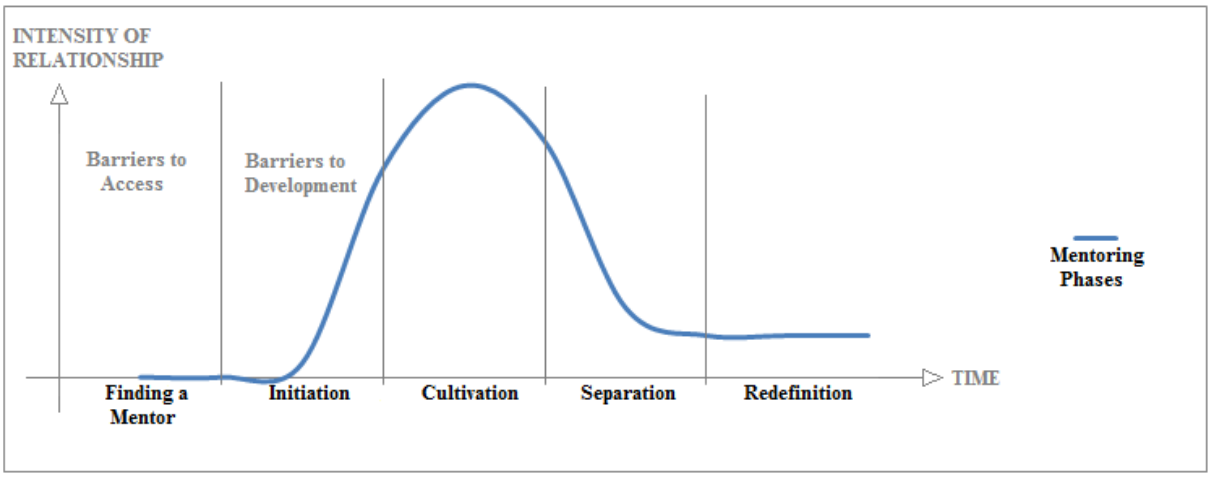
During the interviews it was noted that there was a factor that was frequently and recurrently mentioned by the participants as a key element in a mentorship. This factor was a connection between mentor and mentee, sometimes described as a fit or even a friendship. When describing the mentoring relationship, women would discuss activities usually included in the mentoring dimensions of career-related and psychosocial functions. However, they would also comment on the importance of a personal relationship to exist between mentor and mentee. Unlike career-related and psychosocial functions, this connection between mentor and mentee seems to cross the workplace boundary into the personal life of both the mentor and protégé. The analysis of the interviews later suggested that there are some elements not included in the mentoring functions that women in this study described as an essential part of a mentorship. These elements, here named Barriers to Development of Mentoring, would explain why some relationships turn into mentorships while others never do. The following section describes this new construct in detail.

Emergence of a New Construct: Barriers to Development of Mentoring

Meeting potential mentors at the workplace does not seem to be a significant hurdle for the female academicians looking for mentors. While the data analysis did not provide support for the existence of the barriers that would impede access to mentors, the data do suggest the existence of a different type of barriers, namely Barriers to the Development of a Mentoring Relationship. These barriers to development differ from the barriers to access described by Noe (1988) in one

key aspect. While the barriers to access stop the relationship even before the initiation stage of the mentorship, the barriers to development appear to manifest themselves during the initiation phase. Figure 1 graphically shows the difference between the barriers described by Noe (1988) and the ones found in this study.

Figure 2: Barriers to Mentoring and Mentoring Phases



In particular, this study found evidence to support the existence of two barriers to development: Need for Fit and Demonstrating Capability. Both these barriers manifest themselves early in the careers of the interviewees, as early as during their doctoral studies. In fact, these barriers were mentioned as the main reasons why eight of the interviewees did not develop a mentoring relationship with their Ph.D. supervisors. These barriers are also the main reasons why in spite of meeting potential mentors, most of the interviewees did not have a mentor at their workplace. Need for Fit and Demonstrating Capability are described in detail in the next pages.

Need for Fit

Need for Fit is a barrier to the development of the mentoring relationship, and it is defined as the mentee's need for a personal relationship, fit or connection to develop and exist between mentee and mentor. The data suggest that participants consider the development of a close personal relationship as a necessary component of a mentoring relationship.

The content analysis revealed that the interviewed women consider a fit between themselves and their mentors as a necessary condition that needs to be fulfilled in order for them to consider someone as a mentor. When the participants were asked to think of people that had been influential in their careers, usually several people were mentioned effortlessly. However, when asked if they had mentors, the participants usually took a couple of seconds to think about their answer, and only one or at the most two names were mentioned. Participants were asked what would differentiate someone merely influential from a mentor, and the answer would usually include the importance of the relationship to develop and to grow into a dynamic where they felt comfortable and authentic. This need for a personal connection was described as a fit that is necessary in order for a true mentoring relationship to develop. As Karen commented, *"Either you find someone you click with, someone you have a relationship with or you don't. There needs to be a personal connection, communalities in careers, difficulties. Some gravitational pull, if you will. That is why I'm very skeptical of formal mentoring."*

The interviews revealed that the participants would not consider a relationship, even if it was influential or beneficial, as a mentorship if it did not have that fit between the mentor and the protégé that seems to take the relationship one step beyond. It is important to underline, however, that for these women fit did not mean having the same personality as their mentors: fit meant having personalities that did not clash while having similar approaches to work. According to the interviewees, fit between protégé and mentor meant having similar values and cultural backgrounds, a similar "view of the world", a personal connection; in other words, a relationship that would go beyond the boundaries of the workplace to establish a personal compatibility between mentor and protégé.

"I do not consider [person X] as my mentor because there was no personal relationship. Our relationship was strictly professional." Lisa's quote illustrates how important this fit seemed

to be for the interviewees: when the personal connection between protégé and mentor was missing, this lack of fit would act as a barrier, impeding the development of a work relationship into an informal mentorship. The existence or lack of fit would be identified in the initiation phase of the mentoring, a stage in which both parties of the mentoring relationship have an opportunity to get to know each other, and recognize each other's potential and competences through a series of formal and informal meetings and interactions (Kram, 1983). The results of this study suggest that fit at this stage is a key component for the development of a mentoring relationship. It is during this initial phase that the personal connection or fit can develop, allowing the relationship to grow into a mentorship. If and when the personal connection or fit does not develop between the protégé and the mentor, it is very likely that this would impede the emerging relationship from advancing to the cultivation phase of a mentoring relationship.

This barrier to development of mentoring was present for fourteen of the twenty interviewees. Examples of the times Need for Fit was discussed by the participants can be seen in the quotes presented in Table 3. An interesting finding regarding Need for Fit is that the intensity of this fit was specific to each interviewee. As it can be seen in Table 3, for Cristina and Paula the fit between mentor and mentee need to be quite intense, where the mentorship becomes a friendship and there is a deep emotional connection (Paula even describes it as a non-romantic "love"). On the other hand, Diane and Barbara describe a fit that is less intense, where commonalities are shared and there is a fit between mentor and mentee yet the mentorship stays closer to its traditional work boundaries.

Table 3: Quotes - Need for Fit

Name	Quote
Diane	"You can't feel that the person is different from you in terms of values in any way, because then you censor the things that you want to say, and I think that if it's not sort of honest and spontaneous and that sort of thing, then you can never feel comfortable enough or confident enough. I suppose the mentor is, the mentor has to say or do things or introduce the protégé to experiences that are good for that person."
Barbara	"I guess mentoring is a one on one relationship so you really have to feel that the relationship is somewhat special in a sense and like you are, not special in the sense that 'Oh my God this person thinks about you all the time' but special in the sense that the person, you know, does care for your welfare in a way."
Heather	"My speculation would be it was the fact that we had a very common cultural background. We shared many characteristics, not just one. So I guess that contributed to developing a somewhat close relationship."
Carla	"I do think selection is really important because sometimes you know, no matter how much good mentoring is thrown at a person, if they're not a good fit it won't work."
Grace	"In a more involving type of mentorship where it involves several aspects of the development, then I need to enjoy interacting with them. It's fun when you can go to work and have fun with people, and enjoy talking with them and chatting."
Wendy	"I think often the people that we work with, we have a work relationship with a lot of people, for me, that is a business connection or a business relationship, which tends to be more- it's day to day but it's polite and somewhat distant. You know, you have kind of boundaries, certain boundaries that you set. The next step would be friendship, if you have somebody that you feel close to, who you do things outside of work with, go for a coffee with and go hiking on the weekend or spend Thanksgiving dinner or something together. And for me a mentor is even a step beyond that. You know, it's someone that you build that emotional connection with, that you can share a life view, you probably have similar points of view about things that are important to you, values, core values."

Sarah	" [A mentor is] Someone who is gonna think about what's the right thing to do here, who understands you, your personality, what you are trying to achieve and what kind of a person you are, and be able to sense the situation, understand the situation and guide you through. So it's about you and them relating at a personal level and understanding the situation and helping you find a way out."
Bianca	"I don't know if there's alignment but I know that absolutely there's a fit [between mentor and mentee]. So we don't resemble each other but for sure we get along well and we laugh a lot together. I think we, we share some traits maybe but we don't have the same personality."
Cristina	"What makes a mentor? Trust, both ways. Respect. Chemistry. You have to have fun. Friendship. Attracted to their aura, their energy."
Paula	"What's important to me [in a mentorship] is generosity- respect and generosity and a lot of love. I find these days people do not have a lot of love for themselves and for others. They're running after the wrong things, the wrong… and people are nasty with others, not even knowing why they're nasty. They don't realize that they're nasty. They just have a hard time. They are suffering. They're emotionally suffering. So you need love and concern for one another to have a good mentoring relationship."
Maria	"I've discovered it [what makes a mentorship work]. So that's it. Just caring. I think you don't force it. Sometimes a match will be good between the mentor and the mentee, but sometimes it won't. There could be a distance. It just happens spontaneously. There are some organized mentoring systems but to me, that's not my style. For me, it's one-to-one. If it clicks, it clicks."
Karen	"Either you find someone you click with, someone you have a relationship with or you don't. There needs to be a personal connection, communalities in careers, difficulties. Some gravitational pull, if you will. That is why I'm very skeptical of formal mentoring."
Valerie	"A mentor is someone who gives me support, someone I can learn from. It is a different quality of relationship."
Lisa	"I do not consider [person X] as my mentor because there was no personal relationship. Our relationship was strictly professional."

Demonstrating Capability

A second barrier to the development of mentoring relationships is Demonstrating Capability and it is defined as the need of the employee to be perceived by her colleagues as capable and competent by remaining independent and not developing mentoring relationships at work.

This barrier to the development of mentorships was manifested by three of the twenty interviewees. These faculty members did not report issues with access to mentors, but instead mentioned they would purposefully limit their workplace relationships to influential and beneficial relationships instead of aiming to develop a stronger, longer-lasting mentoring relationship with senior colleagues. The reason for this self-imposed limitation was the need to appear to colleagues and senior faculty as capable and independent. As explained by Rachel, *"I guess there's an expectation that you're at a career stage and you want to be independent and you should be independent."*

Demonstrating Capability as a barrier to the development of mentoring relationships was present at the beginning of the career of young female professors, being more salient at the initial stages of their first tenure-track position, and slowly decreasing in importance once tenure was reached. Both Rachel and Laura described Demonstrating Capability as being very important to them when they were first hired as assistant professors and slowly decreasing in relevance once tenured was achieved. For Lisa, who had being recently hired as an assistant professor, Demonstrating Capability was very relevant. *"I feel that autonomy is very valued here… I have good relationships but nobody I can say is a mentor to me, and I think that is the way it should be."*

Demonstrating Capability seems to run opposite to what the mentoring literature suggests, that is at the early stages of an employee's career where having a mentor could be most beneficial to the mentee. In the case of young professors, having a mentor to help them gain experience in their newly acquired academic positions could prove extremely important not only to get tenure but also to ease the transition from doctoral student to professor. However, the data suggests that young female professors want to give a good impression not only to the selection committee that hired them, but also to colleagues, by remaining independent and detached from mentors in the

workplace. Having a mentor at the school that hired them could be perceived as a sign that they were not confident or competent enough to be strong academicians and this perception could potentially hurt them during the tenure review process. Laura, a senior faculty member commented that if a junior faculty *"...asked me to talk through advice, and they're supposed to be at this independent stage, I would worry about why they need someone's guidance."*

There are two interesting aspects of Demonstrating Capability as a barrier to the development of the mentoring relationship. First, this barrier seems to be active only during a very particular career stage, basically the early years as assistant professor. In Linda's case, she reported having a mentor during her doctoral studies and she was open to the idea of having a mentor after she got tenure. Rachel's experience is very similar; she commented that she had had mentors throughout her career but that she chose to remain independent in the years previous to her tenure appointment.

Second, Demonstrating Capability seems to be a perception rather than a concrete and explicit practice in these universities. It is the employee who believes that she will be perceived as less capable and skilled if she becomes a mentee: there is no indication that her colleagues actually feel this way as well. Rachel talked about the importance of being independent during the assistant professor stage, yet she also discussed that her school is developing a formal mentoring system to help junior academics, system that she is helping to develop.

> *"Our university is interested in improving the mentoring, particularly the female faculty and faculty of colour, but all faculty members. And so the university came out and said we will have mentoring. And then the department says we will have mentoring programs for junior faculty as well. And so I'm actually working on- we're calling it a pilot program."* Rachel

The interviewees that discussed Demonstrating Capability as a barrier did not discuss any specific reason or experience that led them to believe than having a mentor could hurt their tenure process.

Discussion

The research question that guided this study was: what are the experiences of women with informal mentoring at work? The content analysis of the data collected suggests that for women in academia, mentoring is an elusive experience. During the confines of the Ph.D. degree, women are able to develop mentoring relationships with their advisors. This mentorship is a resource that not only helps them to complete their degree, but also is there for them long after their degrees are completed and throughout their academic careers. However, once the student becomes a professor, the opportunities to develop a mentorship in the workplace seem to reduce drastically to slim to none. Women know the benefits of having a mentor and actually would be happy to have one, yet they do not seem able to develop these relationships in their new work environment.

Although the academic world could be perceived to be a fertile ground for the development of mentorships, female professors seem to have a similar experience vis-a-vis women working as city managers (Fox & Schuhmann, 2000), public accountants (Kaplan, Keinath & Walo, 2001) and global managers (Linehan & Scullion, 2008): women know the benefits of having a mentor, wished they had one and yet do not have a mentor in their workplace. At least in the academic setting, the biggest hurdle to overcome is not access to potential mentors as previously believed, but barriers to the development of mentorships. This study found two barriers to the development of mentoring (Need for Fit and Demonstrating Capability), barriers that limit the ability of a mentorship in its initiation phase from growing into a full mentorship.

Research on barriers to mentoring has relied heavily on the findings by Noe (1988b). Although many of these barriers to access were salient at the time Noe's study was published, the workplace and the role of women in that workplace have changed noticeably since then. The Department of Labour of the United States estimated in 2007 that women represented 46% of the total workforce in this country, while Statistics Canada estimated that in 2004 women represented the 47% of the workforce in Canada. The inclusion of more women in the workforce and the presence of more women in the top echelons of organizations may have rendered many of the barriers to access identified by Noe (1988b) as outdated and less relevant for today's female employees. The barriers to development found in this study (Need for Fit and Demonstrating Capability) seem to propose that finding a mentor for women is almost like falling in love: it is not enough to find someone, you need to find THE one. Therefore, this study suggests that future

research should change the focus from barriers that limit the access to mentors, to focus on barriers that would impede employees from developing a mentoring relationship with potential mentors.

The barriers to development uncovered in this study suggest that since the problem of the under-mentoring of women is not caused by lack of access to mentors per se, then this should have an impact on how formal mentoring systems are designed and managed. Formal mentoring systems were developed in an effort to provide access to mentors for those employees believed to have trouble finding mentors on their own, employees such as women and minorities (Allen et al., 2006). Usually formal mentoring programs work by randomly pairing senior and junior employees without much thought or care into any other factors than to solve the problem of access. The findings of this study suggest that pairing protégé and mentor without consideration for who the protégé and the mentor are, and therefore not considering their fit, does not provide fertile grounds in which mentorships can develop and grow. Given the barrier Need for Fit, formal mentoring systems would increase their chances of success by taking a "matchmaking" approach, forgetting about pairing random protégés and mentors to focus on matching protégés and mentors with similar interests and approaches to work.

As interesting as the new construct of barriers to development of mentoring is, this study is only a first step into in-depth research of these factors. A second study is needed to tackle three important issues that this first study could not address. First, the sample used in this study only allowed the analysis of the responses of female employees and therefore cannot analyse the relevance of barriers to development for their male colleagues. A second study with participants of both genders would allow comparing and contrasting the relevance and pervasiveness of barriers to the development of mentoring for both genders. Second, since this was an exploratory study and the focus was not on barriers to development per se, but on experiences with mentoring in general, it is possible that there are more barriers to development than the two identified in this study. Therefore, a second study is needed to both validate the existence of Need for Fit and Demonstrating Capability, as well as to explore the existence of other barriers to development. Third, the data were collected in one workplace setting. Although academia is an interesting setting, a second study with a sample from a different organizational context would allow for a discussion regarding the generalizability of barriers to development of mentoring.

Chapter 4

Study 2

Barriers to Development of Mentoring Relationships

Although much has been said about some facets of mentorships (such as the benefits for mentor, mentee and organization, the phases of mentoring, and the functions of mentoring, to name a few), other aspects of this relationship remain largely unstudied. One of the areas that have not been researched in detail is how a work relationship transforms from a casual initial meeting into a mentorship. Perhaps because of the spontaneous nature of informal mentorships, the development of these relationships has been mostly ignored by the literature. Beyond very general ideas of what makes or break a mentorship, there is no in-depth understanding of the specific factors that aid or impede the development of a mentoring relationship. In fact, the literature seems to imply that once the mentor and mentee meet, the mentorship will develop seamlessly.

The findings of Study 1 reveal that more is needed for a relationship to develop and grow into a mentorship than mentor and mentee simply meeting. Study 1 suggests that in the case of women, there are two barriers that an incipient relationship needs to overcome in order to develop into a mentorship, Need for Fit and Demonstrating Capability. These two barriers to development shed some light into the factors that make or break a mentorship for female mentees. However, Study 1 was only the first step into an in-depth understanding of the factors that can either aid or impede the progress of a mentorship. There are three areas that were unexplored in Study 1 which need to be investigated to further our knowledge on barriers to development of mentorships. First, since the research question of Study 1 centered on the experiences of women with mentoring, the participants were all women. On one hand, this sample allowed gaining in-depth knowledge that lead to a response to that research question. On the other hand, the fact that all participants were women did not allow for an examination of whether barriers to development of mentoring are relevant for male employees as well. Therefore, the first aim of Study 2 is to investigate whether or not and the extent to which these barriers to development for male employees. Second, the focus of Study 1 was on mentoring experiences in general and not on barriers to development in particular. It is possible that there are more than the two barriers to development identified on

Study 1. Therefore, the second aim of Study 2 is to explore the existence of other barriers to development of mentorship. Third, the sample used in Study 1 was context specific. All the participants were female professors of business schools in North American universities. It is possible that the results are also context specific and therefore do not generalize to employees in other organizations and industries. The third aim of Study 2 is to analyse the generalizability of the barriers to development of mentorships in organizational contexts other than academia.

Therefore, the research question that guides this second study is: What are the factors that aid/impede the development of an informal mentoring relationship at work for men and women?

Literature Review: Development of the Mentoring Relationship

As previously discussed, the first stage of the mentoring relationship is labelled Initiation (Kram, 1983; Chao, 1997). Through the first 6 to 12 months of the mentoring relationship, the mentor and the protégé engage in their first interactions and get to know each other (Kram, 1983; Chao, 1997). According to Kram (1983), the very first sparks of a mentoring relationship correspond to an admiration and respect that the junior employee professes for the senior colleague for his/her competence and capacity to provide guidance. The senior employee's actions reaffirm this impression over time, allowing the junior employee to feel supported and respected by someone that has the potential to benefit his/her career development (Kram, 1983). Also during this period, the senior employee recognizes the potential of the junior colleague to become someone that can be coached to eventually share values and vantage points (Kram, 1983). Wanberg et al. (2006) also describe that the initial stages of an informal mentoring are marked by a mutual identification as well as interpersonal comfort. Some of the factors that make a junior colleague a potential protégé are the protégé's willingness to learn (Allen, 2004), his/her promotional history (the promotions and career advancements that the employee has already had), advancement expectations and proactive career behaviors (Singh, Ragins & Tharenou, 2008). These perspectives allow for both mentor and mentee to perceive that there can be mutual gains from a more stable work relationship, and very underdeveloped relationship transforms into a mentoring relationship through both formal and informal meetings and interactions in the workplace (Kram, 1983).

Wanberg et al. (2006) referenced Asendorpf (2002) to argue that the personality of both the protégé and the mentor can affect the initial stages of an informal mentoring relationship. The three primary mechanisms by which personality affects this relationship are: "selection (who one selects as a relationship partner), evocation (the responses that are evoked from others), and manipulation (how individuals shape the course of their relationship)." (Wanberg et al., 2006, pg. 412)

Other than this very general idea of what a mentee is looking for in a mentor, there is no research on the factors that aid or impede the initial meetings between employee and potential mentor to transform into a mentorship. The results reached by Study 1 suggest the broad factors previously identified in the mentoring literature are not the only factors that affect the relationship but that there are other elements that are very influential in the early stages of a mentoring relationship. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to gain in-depth knowledge on the factors that aid/impede the development of an informal mentoring relationship for female and male employees.

Methodology

Sample

Thirty three employees (16 women and 17 men) currently working in organizations from various industries in Canada and the United States were invited to participate in this study. In order to be an interviewee for this study, participants needed to have worked at the same organization for at least 4 years, time that would allow them to not only understand their jobs and their company but also to have a chance to identify and meet potential mentors within their workplace. The participants were all white collar professionals and their ages ranged from early-thirties to mid-forties. Table 4 presents a summary of the professions and industries of the participants, while Table 5 presents some personal characteristics of the interviewees. In order to protect the participants, all names have been changed.

Table 4: Participants' Name and Industries

Name	Industry	Name	Industry
Mary	Airline Executive	**Peter**	Canadian Government
Monica	Investment Company	**Boris**	Personal Trainer
Lidia	Canadian Government	**Eric**	Canadian Government
Sabrina	US Military	**Greg**	Recycling Company
Myriam	Auditing	**Fernando**	University Professor
Beth	Telecommunications	**Benjamin**	Surgeon
Cony	Diplomat	**Larry**	Dentist
Anna	Auditing	**Samuel**	Space Engineer
Chloe	Mental Health Institution	**Gabriel**	Pharmaceutical Company
Lilian	Consulting	**Victor**	Head Hunting Company
Valerie	Financial Institution	**Liam**	Entrepreneur
Harriet	Lawyer	**Ryan**	Real Estate Agent
Fanny	Engineer	**William**	Accountant
Ruth	Family Doctor	**Bob**	Doctor
Bella	Financial Institution	**Charles**	Clinical Admin
Margaret	Financial Institution	**Brian**	Investment Company
		Frank	Investment Company

Table 5: Participants' Personal Characteristics

Int. #	Name	Current Position	Age	Marital Status	Children
1	Mary	Mid-management	Mid 30s	Married	No
2	Pablo	Mid-management	Late 30s	Single	No
3	Monica	Mid-management	Early 30s	Married	No
4	Lidia	Lower management	Early 30s	Single	No
5	Sabrina	Mid-level US Military	Late 30s	Married	Yes (2)
6	Boris	Lower management	Late 30s	Married	No
7	Eric	Mid-management	Late 30s	Single	No
8	Myriam	Mid-management	Late 30s	Married	Yes (4)
9	Greg	Mid-management	Early 40s	Married	Yes (2)
10	Beth	Upper management	Early 40s	Married	Yes (1)
11	Cony	Mid-level diplomat	Late 30s	Married	No
12	Fernando	Tenure-track position	Mid 30s	Married	No
13	Benjamin	Surgeon	Mid 30s	Married	No
14	Larry	Dentist	Early 30s	Single	No
15	Anna	Mid-management	Early 30s	Single	Yes (1)
16	Sam	Upper management	Early 40s	Single	No
17	Chloe	Mid-management	Early 30s	Married	No
18	Gabriel	Upper management	Late 30s	Common law partner	No
19	Victor	Lower management	Late 30s	Single	No
20	Lilian	Entrepreneur	Early 40s	Single	No
21	Liam	Entrepreneur	Early 40s	Single	No
22	Ryan	Lower management	Early 40s	Single	No
23	William	Mid management	Mid 40s	Single	No
24	Valerie	Upper management	Mid 40s	Married	Yes (2)
25	Harriet	Mid management	Early 40s	Married	Yes (3)
26	Fanny	Mid management	Early 30s	Married	No
27	Bob	Doctor	Mid 40s	Married	Yes (1)
28	Ruth	Family doctor	Early 40s	Married	Yes (3)

Int. #	Name	Current Position	Age	Marital Status	Children
29	Charles	Lower management	Mid 30s	Single	No
30	Bella	Mid management	Mid 30s	Single	No
31	Brian	Mid management	Mid 30s	Married	No
32	Frank	Upper management	Late 30s	Married	No
33	Margaret	Mid management	Mid 30s	Single	No

The sample for this study also was a snowball sample. After obtaining ethics approval from the Concordia University Human Research Ethics Committee, emails were sent and phone calls were made to some of the researcher's personal contacts, requesting participation in this study. Simultaneously, several interviewees provided the contact information of people they thought fulfilled the described criteria and would be interested in participating.

Data Collection

This study followed a similar data collection than the procedure followed in Study 1, where interviews were the primary data source. The interview was guided by a semi-structured protocol and was conducted by the researcher. Questions asked included: "Think about your relationship with mentors. Do you have a mentor right now within your organization? Tell me about this relationship. How did it come about? What about past mentorships? What factors have helped you develop these mentorships?" (The entire protocol can be seen in Appendix 2). These interviews lasted an average of 45 minutes and they were conducted in person or by phone when a face-to-face meeting was not possible.

All interviews were recorded after obtaining the necessary consent from the participant. Notes were taken during these interviews which included verbal as well as non-verbal communicational cues. Memoing was used during data collection and analysis as suggested by Golden-Biddle and Locke (2007). Notes and memoing allowed to record ideas, patterns and any other information that seemed relevant to this study.

Interviewees were contacted for a conversation regarding the results after an initial analysis of the data was concluded. Thirty of the participants were available for this discussion. The purpose of this interview was to discuss the initial findings and it lasted an average of 20 minutes. These conversations were not recorded, transcribed or coded and therefore were not analysed. However, one interviewee had a suggestion regarding the name of one barrier and this suggestion led to a change in the name of this barrier (from "Need to Appear Competent" to the current "Demonstrating Capability").

Data Analysis

Simultaneous data collection and analysis was conducted for this study. The data analysis included elements of the grounded theory approach such as inductive construction of data codes and constant comparison between the literature and the data (Charmaz, 2006).

All interviews were transcribed verbatim. Texts were then read several times to internalize the raw data and visualize possible emergent patterns (Boyatzis, 1998). Preliminary notes, codes, comparisons, and ideas were used at this stage of the data analysis following the suggestions made by Charmaz (2006). Open coding was conducted by the author by attaching codes to segments of texts representing information related to the research question of the study as well as themes which were interesting and potentially relevant that might not have been directly linked to the research question (Berg, 2001). A coding table was created with coding theme titles, definitions, characteristics, counts, and examples (Boyatzis, 1998).

A matrix was created using the fully coded transcripts allowing comparisons of codes, definitions and ideas. The aggregate responses to each of the questions were pooled together and analyzed to identify recurring themes, categories, and patterns. For the purpose of this study, only those experiences mentioned by at least 3 participants (or 10% of the sample. Patton, 2001) were kept. Once a set of themes was determined, the data were systematically coded and the results tabulated (Patton, 2001).

Findings

The diversity of the participants in this study allowed for an in-depth conversation regarding mentoring experiences in the workplace with people from different backgrounds, professions, industries and overall work experiences. However diverse the sample was, there were significant common threads among the participants' answers and comments regarding mentoring. In particular, four interesting and revealing common threads were found in the data, and the following sections discuss these themes in detail.

The first common theme found in the data was the relevance that employees give to mentoring in the workplace. Most interviewees, regardless of their gender, profession, industry and experiences regarding mentoring (including never having a mentor) agreed that having a mentor in the workplace was of great importance. So important is to have a mentor that Beth went to great lengths to make sure she would have one when she accepted a job at a different company.

> *"When I was moving into a company called X, I actually made that part of the negotiation of my contract. I wasn't going to accept the job unless someone came forward and said they would be my mentor and the COO decided to be my mentor because it was a condition of my employment, really… of my accepting the employment."* Beth

Participants felt that just having a mentor was important in itself. As Boris explained, the relationship does not need to be too time-consuming or too focused on micro-management to be effective. On the contrary, the mentee only has to know that the mentor will help out when needed.

> *"I think mentoring is really important and it'd be great if more people were open to doing some informal mentoring with people. I know people think their time is super busy and they can't spare any time or energy to a lot of people but it can be very informal, it can be as short as you know, a lunch or 20 minute phone conversation."* Boris

Having a mentor was considered by the participants as especially crucial at the beginning of the employee's career or when the employee first starts at a new organization. Cony explained how important it was for her to have a mentor when she first started working for her current organization.

> "*But when I first arrived there, how do you even begin to set up that sort of thing, you know? So having a mentor was really important for me then. I'm not sure how I would have learned as much as I did without his help and guidance. After about a year, a year and a half, I started doing most things on my own because I had the network and everything, thanks to my mentor."* Cony

The second interesting common thread was related to how mentoring relationships first start and there appears to be a marked difference between genders. For women, mentorships grow organically, almost spontaneously from a previous friendly work-relationship. Usually this development from friendship to mentorships happens seamlessly by spending time with their mentor and finding common interests as well as developing efficient and successful ways to work together. As explained by Lidia, she had been working with a senior colleague for some time and the relationship had become friendly, but it was only after they became aware that they shared a similar upbringing that the relationship became a mentorship. "W*e noticed maybe 6 months later that we came from the same little town back down in the north east of Quebec. After that we started really talking about our careers and where I wanted to be and my ambitions."*

For men, on the other hand, mentoring relationships tend to more conscious and deliberate. Several men discussed how they approached specific people and asked to be mentored by them. One case that was especially methodical was a mentorship experienced by Samuel. He identified someone at work that he believed could have a significant impact as his mentor, but because of internal politics he did not feel comfortable approaching this person right away. Instead, he patiently waited for the right time. *"So I courted her, the vice president of supply chain at my firm and after 2, maybe 3 years of courting her, I finally asked her if she wanted to be my mentor and I've been regularly meeting with her every 6 weeks since then."*

The third common theme found in the data was related to formal mentoring systems. In terms of participation, men did not feel they needed a formal mentor, even when they did not have an informal mentor at work. As explained by Peter, even though there was a formal mentoring system in place and he had access to it, *"I feel like I can do it on my own and I have people I can go to for advice if I need it, so no* [I have never been part of a formal mentoring system] *and it doesn't really interest me."* Women, on the other hand, had been frequently exposed to formal mentoring systems. They usually entered this relationship looking for support and for someone who they could trust and that would help them develop their skills and advance in their careers. Beth explained why she asked for a formal mentorship before accepting a job offer.

> *"I think I was very bold in asking for it* [a mentor] *in a very formal way. You know like this is a condition for me. I'm not gonna move, I don't need a job; I need growth, I need a career path- not another job. So unless that's gonna happen, I don't want to move. And I think I was the first one that was bold enough to state that outright- that I'm not coming for a salary and a job; I'm coming for a career and I need a path and I need someone to help me develop."* Beth

However, in most cases, experiences with formal mentoring systems were quite unsatisfactory. Valerie described in detail her disappointing experience with the formal mentoring system at her workplace.

> *"So it was a program through work. There was a call letter that went out, looking for… you could either put your name forward to be a mentor or a mentee, and I desperately wanted a formalized mentor relationship, so I put my name forward. I was given… you got to kind of pick through… there was a list of people with their CVs and you got to look through and select. My first choice already had mentees under her guidance, so my second choice agreed, and the process is such that it was up to the mentee to make contact with the mentor, which I did. And this was like before Christmas. And we agreed that we would you know, we wouldn't meet before Christmas because we were both busy, but that we would meet after Christmas so then just I followed up again and nothing ever came of it, so I'm sort*

of... I'm technically this person's mentee but we've never actually met even though it is June now." Valerie

The overall feeling of women regarding formal mentoring systems was skepticism. Myriam commented, *"I mean I never really participated in those. I don't know how well they work. I think that sometimes I don't know if I like the forcing of it* [the mentoring relationship]." This skepticism was mirrored by other interviewees, including Cony. "*How could a formal* [mentorship] *be successful? If the system was flexible enough so that you can find this combination for the mentorship to work, then maybe. I'm not sure if a system that assigned mentors would work. I'm not sure*."

The combination of unsuccessful formal mentoring experiences and the need felt by women to be part of a mentorship has led some of them to think of ways in which these systems could be improved or tailored in order to make them more effective. Talking about an unsuccessful formal mentoring relationship, Monica commented that she actually contacted her HR department hoping to better the formal mentoring system she was a part of.

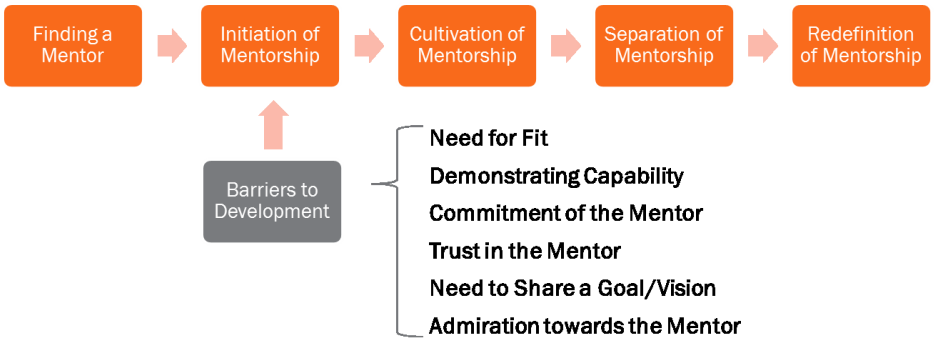
"I felt like the Human Resources department sort of sponsored it, organized it. They could have maybe provided some activities to do or something. I mean I think it is valuable to just have a conversation about what's going on but maybe provide some questions to ask each other or topics to go through or some exercise or something. I think maybe that would have been useful and I did ask for that but they didn't really do anything. The program that they developed was more for people who were in the same physical location and they could you know go to lunch together, or they could attend a meeting together, there are many more options for a mentor there, but when you are long distance, I was kind of hoping that they had more sort of structured activities to do to develop our relationship."
Monica

Valerie also discussed ways in which formal mentoring programs could be improved.

> *"I would say maybe more information about expectations and what that relationship looks like, what it is, or what it can be, because there probably is no neat little box that here's what a mentor-mentee relationship looks like. It is what you need it to be. Maybe some kind of like a speed dating type thing would be very useful too, where you could meet potential mentors… cause you know pretty much within the first short while of a conversation whether you click with somebody or not."* Valerie

The fourth common theme found in this study was related to the factors that aid or impede a relationship to grow and develop from initial meetings to a mentorship. This study found evidence to support not only the existence of the two barriers to development identified in Study 1 (Need for Fit and Demonstrating Capability) but also evidence of the existence of four other barriers: "Commitment of the Mentor", "Trust in the Mentor", "Need to Share a Goal/Vision" and "Admiration towards the Mentor". All of these six barriers to development are described in detail in the following pages.

Figure 3: Barriers to the Development of Mentoring



Need for Fit

Need for Fit is a barrier to the development of the mentoring relationship, and it is defined as the mentee's need for a personal relationship, fit or connection to develop and exist between mentee and mentor. The data collected in this study supports the existence of this barrier found and defined in Study 1. This barrier is very salient for women, while it is practically undetectable for men. In fact, thirteen of the sixteen women interviewed for this study mentioned fit or connection as a necessary element of the mentoring relationship, while no men described it as relevant for mentorships. The data also suggest that this barrier to development is not only present in the academic setting, but it can be traced across industries and professions. Monica, an executive for an investment firm commented that *"I think it's important to have a very personal relationship where you can talk anything."* Lidia, who works for the Canadian Government had a similar take on the place of friendship in a mentoring relationship.

> *"The friendship is really important in our relationship. We think the same. I don't find that it's often that people can understand us speaking because we see the picture the same way. So we start from the top then with the ideas, then all of the other elements come together. We understand each other the way we think, so that helps. She listens to me when I need to vent and she can give me advice, even if it has nothing to do with work. B and I think the same so usually we seek for each other's advice of work and personal stuff."* Lidia

Need for Fit was also present for Myriam, who works for an auditing company. In her words, *"I think your personalities to a certain extent have to mesh well. You have to be able to get along. That doesn't mean you have to in any ways be the same. In my experience, friendship has been a factor on some level.*" Thinking on the relationship she had with her mentor, Chloe noted *"I felt like I could really open up and share where I wanted to go and I was much more free to really say what I wanted because there was a level of friendship."*

Although this barrier to development is constant across industries, it appears to be gender specific, being present predominantly in women and mostly absent in men. As commented by Eric, *"I don't need any personal relationship with my mentor. I don't need anything outside of work. I*

don't need them to be like oh congratulations we reached a good milestone, let's go for drinks and celebrate. I don't need that. I don't expect to be friends with these people." Furthermore, several men described friendship or connection between them and their mentors as a factor that would impede mentoring from being effective or successful, basically becoming a barrier when present. This is interesting because friendship or fit for men seems to impede mentorship, which is the exact opposite phenomenon expressed by female employees. As commented by Peter, *"I don't want him as my mentor… it would feel weird because it would kind of put our friendship aside almost, and I wouldn't want it to affect our friendship, so… I mean the thing is, he's still a guy that I can get advice from but he is not my mentor".* Liam had a similar take on the relationship between friendship and mentoring.

> *"There are problems when having friends as mentors, you know? Because if it was a perfectly unknown guy, I wouldn't have the same emotional bonding. I would say okay mentorship and this is the goal and you have to achieve it and that's it, that's all. And you're doing it? You're good. And if you're not doing it, you're in trouble. No filters, no emotional obligations, no personal commitments."* Liam

Therefore, Need for Fit seems to be a barrier for both genders, although it acts in opposite ways. For women, a connection or fit between mentor and mentee is absolutely essential for a mentorship to be successful. For men, on the other hand, the existence of a friendship between mentor and mentee can impede the relationship from being as productive as it could be because it can prevent mentor or mentee from being blunt and direct when they need to be.

Demonstrating Capability

A second barrier to the development of mentoring relationships is Demonstrating Capability and it is defined as the need of the employee to be perceived by others (such as colleagues and supervisors) as capable and competent by remaining independent and not developing mentoring relationships at work. This barrier was present only for women in this study. Sabrina explained that she considered not having a mentor as an important way to demonstrate that she was competent.

> *"Early in my career it's not like I had someone who's accomplished much more professionally who I can look up to and is a female role model. Maybe it has been for the better. I was able to prove that I'm capable of doing this job."* Sabrina

This barrier to development follows the same pattern found in Study 1. This barrier is present in the early stages of the career, when the employee believes that being independent and autonomous is perceived as an important and desired quality in a recent hire. As the employee feels more comfortable in the new environment and experience is gained, the need to appear competent by remaining independent dissipates and employees are open to developing a mentorship. This blueprint was followed by Sabrina, who stayed independent at the beginning of her career and later developed a mentorship with a senior supervisor.

> *It's organic, like it just grew as we spent more time together. And working on projects and I think it has to do with time, at least for me. I think getting to know myself and the core group and he offered career advice and shared a lot of experiences. I don't know if I can define a particular point, but probably 6 months or a year is when maybe that transitional shift happens and I was open to the idea* [of mentoring]." Sabrina

There are two significant characteristics of this barrier to development that need to be highlighted. The first characteristic is that Demonstrating Capability was found in only one work environment, the military. Participants in other industries and contexts, including the government,

did not report this barrier. It is very possible that Demonstrating Capability is strongly related to the work environment and that therefore is context specific. In Study 1, this barrier was found in the academic context, while in this study it was found in the military: it is possible that Demonstrating Capability is present in workplaces where a high degree proficiency and skill is extremely valued and probably even expected. Therefore, in these contexts, new employees feel the need to establish themselves as valuable additions to the workplace, validating their worth through an independence from mentors.

The second characteristic of this barrier is that it was only mentioned by one female participant. This fact has two implications. First, this barrier could potentially be gender specific and therefore only present in female employees. However, since Study 1 only analyzed the data of female professors, while this study only had one female participant working in the military, it is possible that this barrier is context specific and not gender specific. The nature of the sample of this study did not allow investigating the existence of this barrier in male employees in the military. Second, since this barrier was mentioned only by one participant, it did not comply with the suggestion made by Patton (2001) to retain those categories mentioned by no less than 10% of the sample (or three participants in the case of this study). However, it was decided to keep this barrier to development because of the support found in Study 1 and because of the fact that this barrier might be gender and context specific and therefore not present in the other work environments represented in this sample.

Commitment of the Mentor

Commitment of the Mentor, the third barrier to development of mentorship, is defined as the mentee's need to perceive that the mentor is truly and wholeheartedly committed to the development of the mentoring relationship. This barrier to the development of mentorship was found across industries and was present in both genders, being described as a crucial element for the success of a mentorship.

One way in which the mentor can show his/her commitment to the developing mentorship is by being available for the mentee. Several participants discussed how important it was to know that the mentor was available when they needed guidance or support. As commented by Harriet, *"For a mentorship to work, true availability is key. By that I don't mean just having an open door policy but actually making a commitment to the relationship. I need the mentor to want to mentor me."* Boris also explained the importance of availability of the mentor by saying, *"Be available to um… I wouldn't necessarily say 24/7, but definitely be available to help."*

The commitment of the mentor appears to be particularly relevant at the beginning of the relationship, when mentor and mentee are getting to know each other. A committed mentor allows the initial meetings between employee and mentor to cement into a mentorship.

> *"A commitment. I think she took our relationship very seriously and we scheduled meetings way ahead of time and even though it seemed strange that 'oh we'll get together in 2 months', 'oh we'll plan this', and I felt like maybe she was too structured and I wouldn't get along with her, but I think it's just this routine of getting together and generating discussion that allowed us to find common interests and develop our relationship."* Ruth

Participants felt that because of the difference in experience and position within the hierarchy of the organization between mentor and mentee, the commitment of the mentor towards the development and success of the mentorship was something that the mentee could not influence or control. Interviewees felt that the future of the relationship in its initial stage was left at the mercy of the mentor, and his/her level of commitment. Therefore, lack of commitment from the

mentor was mentioned as an extremely significant factor that impeded mentorships from developing. As explained by Ruth when describing a relationship that never grew into a mentorship, *"She kind of zoomed into her own close, personal friends and probably wasn't able to be available to new people and new friends and new mentees."* Ryan described in detail an embryonic mentorship that never developed because of a lack of commitment from the mentor.

> *"The MBA created a mentorship program where alumni would become mentors to the current students. I figured, why not? This is an important thing. Mentorship is so important for people's growth, and especially now with baby boomers retiring and their knowledge has to be transferred—the knowledge and the experience and the history has to be transferred down to us. So that's why I believe so much in mentorship, but this one just didn't work out. He seemed nice and all but the only thing is that he was always so busy that it was so hard to meet up. We had to meet downtown, which was not convenient for me, so it just made it hard to connect and meet up and chat. So I mean I would be working and then he would be like 'I have some time now, do you want to meet up?' And I would be like oh my God, it's 7pm, I've been at work since 8am. I have to drive all the way downtown Montreal then drive back home after that. Like it just didn't… it just didn't work out. So I mean, it seemed like he had more important priorities at that moment rather than that mentorship."* Ryan

Trust in the Mentor

Trust in the Mentor is defined as the degree to which the mentee feels that he/she can trust his/her mentor. Trust in the mentor was found to be an important element of a mentorship regardless of industry or gender of the mentee. As explained by Samuel, a space engineer, trust in the mentor is vital for a mentorship to develop, because it allows the mentee to embrace the mentor and the mentorship.

> *"You have to trust the mentor and know that this person doesn't have any ulterior motives, that his values and his core are strong. If you want to really grow -in my personal opinion- if you want to grow, you have to be able to expose your weaknesses so that someone can help you strengthen them and work on them. And you can only do that if you trust your mentor."* Samuel

When asked which factors are essential for a mentorship to work, Cony described how important it is to trust your mentor. *"They have to know their things. You have to look up to them. You have to trust their judgement. I think that trust is number one."*

Although trust in the mentor was found to be relevant for both genders, it is interesting to note that the way trust is built seems to vary by gender. For women, trust in the mentor grows naturally from the personal connection that they built with their mentors. In other words, it appears that two of the barriers to development identified in this study, Need for Fit and Trust in the Mentor, are intertwined for female mentees. The fit or connection between the mentor and mentee allows for trust to develop and as the trust in the dyad grows, the fit/connection grows as well. Mary described this process, *"I think that trust is really important, but it's something that happens over time. It's not like oh, let's have a trusting relationship. That's kind of something that's built and I don't know how you could just have that off the bat. And I think it starts from liking and it builds from there."* Furthermore, Myriam explained that there needs to be a close connection between mentor and mentee in order for trust to exist in the dyad, otherwise *"how can you trust someone's advice when you don't have a close personal relationship with that person?"*

On the other hand, trust in the mentor for male mentees does not arise from personal connection but rather from admiration and respect for the mentor. For men, trust develops from believing that the mentor has an appropriate and even impressive skillset that allows him/her to be a proper and useful mentor to the mentee. Similar to what was seen in the case of female mentees, for male mentees it also appears that two barriers to development are interconnected. However, in the case of male mentees, Trust in the Mentor seems to be related to the barrier Mentor's Expertise (barrier that will be described and discussed shortly). The abilities revealed by the mentor allow the mentee to trust the judgement, opinion, advice and guidance given by the mentor. As described by Greg, *"People that usually have experience or probably because they're very smart, they always have a solution […] and like I said, that is how you develop that trust."* William also commented on how trust had developed between him and his mentor and how important that trust was for the mentoring relationship.

> *"I think it was really just trust. I trusted him and he trusted me and I valued his opinion also. I respect his opinion. He was extremely bright and also he was successful, so you know he wasn't just talking and bullshitting me. He's a guy who is in the top you know, he's probably in the top 1% of this field… he's probably one of the most successful people I know."* William

Table 6 presents quotes that illustrate how trust is built from the mentees' vantage point. As it can be seen in this table, there is a clear difference on how male and female mentees perceive that trust is developed in the dyad. Female mentees focus on the connection or personal relationship (even friendship) that they have with their mentors while male mentees tend to discuss the admiration and respect they have towards their mentors as the generator of trust.

Table 6: Quotes on how trust is built for male and female mentees

Trust growing from fit/connection between mentor and mentee	
Name	**Quote**
Mary	"I guess with that liking comes a degree of trust, that you're willing to be vulnerable around that person."
Sabrina	"You're compatible and that affects whether you trust each other."
Myriam	"Having built a friendship allowed maybe more for the mentorship to happen because I trusted and valued her opinion and I also knew that she could give me good, honest advice."
Cony	"It's not the mentorship and the friendship that are directly related, but I think that there's a trust that feeds both. You know, that trust that, that kind of feeling of being comfortable with that I would not be able to be friends if I didn't have that and the mentorship would not work if I didn't have that
Lillian	"I trust being exposed on that level and saying this is where I'm at and I need your help, so for me, trust comes from friendship."
Fanny	"I think trust. She trusted me, I trusted her. I think respect, mutual respect. I think just generally trust each other."
Trust developing from expertise demonstrated by the mentor	
Name	**Quote**
Peter	"He was a subject matter expert. Um… yeah so I think I was able to respect him more, yeah. And he was able to gain my trust."
Victor	"It is how you build trust, I guess. Sort of an admiration also. Like you're willing to listen to what this person has to say. And you know, generally a willingness to seek for other people's advice- people who have already done the things that you do and you know you can jump the curb if you have a mentor, you know."

Gabriel	"I would say trust as well and so based on that, that kind of took a turn and so I mean in these companies, you first need to be identified as talent within the company and then often times they'll unofficially assign a mentor to some of the top talents of the company or if there is some sort of relationship that develops over time then that person becomes your mentor."
Ryan	"Well the trust is there, personality, the um… the mentor has to be an impressive individual."
Frank	"He is very smart and very well respected as well. And I trust and respect him a great deal for that."

Need to Share a Goal/Vision

Need to Share a Goal/Vision is the fifth barrier to the development of the mentoring relationship found in this study. It is defined as the mentee's need to perceive that his/her vision and work-related goals are the same as the mentor's. This barrier was found across industries but was only salient for male participants. Men described a need to share goals and visions of the future with their mentor in order for the mentorship to work. As commented by Peter, *"I think there's got to be a common goal, for instance if the mentor sees the mentee as a potential candidate for management for instance, the mentee, must also want to become management and kind of have the same goals."* Eric also discussed the importance of having common goals with his mentor.

> *"To be a good mentor, you have to agree on what the ultimate objective is that you're trying to achieve. You know, if you don't have the same vision then it's very hard for someone to be a mentor to you because you don't agree with their ultimate end goal and you know, they won't trust you. So yeah, I'd say same vision is very important in a mentoring relationship."* Eric

Some participants discussed how having different goals or vision would impede the mentorship to develop and grow. Samuel explained this in detail by expressing that *"I've heard and seen other people recommend different ways of doing things, which to me would be completely… show no integrity, no ethics. So the people that I choose to listen to have to honestly have a very similar goal to me."*

Admiration towards the Mentor

Admiration for the Mentor was the sixth and last barrier to the development of the mentoring relationship identified in this study. This barrier is defined as the mentee's need to admire the mentor, because of his/her expertise, experience or personal qualities in general. The data suggest that only male participants across industries consider it particularly relevant to feel some degree of admiration towards the mentor for the mentorship to be successful.

This admiration that the mentee feels for the mentor can take different forms. For some participants, admiring the skillset of a mentor was of vital importance for the establishment of a mentorship. As discussed by Ryan, *"Someone let's say assigns me a mentor and I accomplished more than him, I have a hard time wanting to work with him. He's gotta be impressive, he's gotta have accomplishments, he's gotta have composure, he's gotta have, you know… everything that you want to be and more."* (Ryan). Liam had a similar take on the importance of having a mentor with an impressive skillset, which included knowledge and experience.

> *"I would say basically good knowledge. If you are really good in relationship but the knowledge is bad, you will only transmit that knowledge so the success won't count. So good knowledge really for me is one of the most important things I think. Knowledge and the way the mentor allows the mentee to grasp it and use it, is also really important. Because at the end of the day, the mentor need to know when to teach and when to let the person try by himself. The mentor has to say 'I'm only here to suggest things, to present you with options', you know? But if you want to try, try then you'll see the result but find a way to get it done, you know? But you know, at the end of the day… it comes down to setting goals, giving guidance and transferring knowledge."* Liam

Bob had a similar take on the importance of having a mentor with expertise. As he explains it, having a mentor with an appropriate skillset allows for a transfer of knowledge that makes the mentorship not only successful but relevant in the mentee's career.

> *"Obviously the level of expertise, in other words, the assumption is the mentor has something to offer the mentee in terms of knowledge or guidance or insight*

or a combination of the above. And so again, there has to be something meaningful that the mentor can impart to the mentee for it to be a successful mentorship and that tends to also feed into the level of respect and appreciation that the mentee would have towards the mentor so you know, back to that very important ingredient that's the mutual respect issue, the mentor is sufficiently respected by the mentee and the mentee is someone the mentor feels is kind of worth the investment, is promising. That helps because if that's not the case, it tends to diminish from the commitment and the success of the mentoring relationship." Bob

For Brian, on the other hand, it was important to admire a mentor as a whole, not only his/her abilities and talents, but also the way he/she behaved outside of work. As he explained *"I need to feel a professional and a personal admiration for my mentor. I have to be able to respect him not only for how well he does his job, but for the person he is in general."* Benjamin and Greg had similar perceptions regarding the relevance of admiring a mentor not only for his/her capabilities and expertise.

"I related to them the most. It wasn't only the job they did; it was more what kind of people they were. Like I saw myself… like I wanted to be like them and it was their family life, how they took their vacations and what they valued and the emphasis they put on their relationships, what kind of personalities and temperament—like I really wanted to be like them. So I think that that's when I realized I like the job, like what they were doing, I think I would be happy being like them. So if I look back, I think my mentoring relationships have all started from an admiration I felt towards them, like a professional and personal admiration I guess you could say." Benjamin

"I just admired him. He was very smart and his ethical position was always very, very high and it seemed that he always had the right answer and those kinds of things that you think oh, maybe someday I'll be like that so it would be nice to… and I also saw that he was very influential to other people too. So it's those kinds

of things that when you're growing up and when you're going through college and when you're starting to work, you would like to be at some point. Like oh I'd like to be respected by so many people and I'd like to feel that I'm influential to so many people." Greg

Table 7 provides a summary of the barriers to development unearthed in this study. As it can be seen, Need for Fit was mentioned by 81% of the female participants, while Demonstrating Capability was mentioned by only one female participant. Commitment of the Mentor and Trust in the Mentor where mentioned as a key element of a successful mentoring relationship by 48% and 58% of the sample respectively. Need to Share Goal/Vision was discussed by 35% of the male participants while Admiration for the Mentor was argued as relevant to mentorships by 53% of the male participants.

Table 7: Summary of Barriers to Development

Barrier to Development	Gender	# of Participants	Notes
Need for Fit	Female	Mentioned by 13 out of 16	Mentioned by 14 out of 20 in S1
Demonstrating Capability	Female	Mentioned by 1 out of 16	Context Specific. Mentioned by 3 out of 20 in S1
Commitment of the Mentor	Female Male	Mentioned by 9 out of 16 Mentioned by 8 out of 17	
Trust in the Mentor	Female Male	Mentioned by 10 out of 16 Mentioned by 9 out of 17	Female: Via Fit/connection Male: Via Mentor's expertise
Need to Share Goal/Vision	Male	Mentioned by 6 out of 17	
Admiration for the Mentor	Male	Mentioned by 9 out of 17	

Chapter 5

Discussion

While it is true that mentoring is an old concept, it is also true that the study of mentoring in the work place is a very young area of research (Allen et al., 2008). Although there is in-depth literature on several aspects of the mentoring relationship including mentoring phases, mentoring functions and outcomes of mentoring, other very significant areas of mentorships remain largely under-studied (Chandler, Kram and Yip, 2011). The literature has yet to shed light on several key aspects of mentorships, such as the relationship between mentoring and national culture (as discussed by Gentry, Weber and Sadri in 2008), the effects of technological advances on mentorships, or the influence of the social context on mentoring relationships (as noted by Chandler et al., 2011). One area where the research is limited is on the relationship between mentoring and gender.

The research on gender and mentoring has focused mainly on the kind of mentoring given according to the gender of the mentor and mentee. As discussed by Chandler et al. (2011, pg. 525) "Consistent with the field's evolution to date, most of the reviews focus on what we know about ontogenic individual-level (e.g., personality, gender, and race) and microsystem dyadic-level (e.g., amount of mentoring support provided in the relationship, formal vs. informal relationships, type of relationship) factors and mentoring." Although these are important issues to investigate, there are still several areas of the influence of gender on a mentoring relationship that have not been explored in detail. Chandler et al. (2011, pg. 530) noted that "Although we know that many women and minorities engage in cross-gender and cross-race relationships with white men, we know little about what makes diversified relationships successful." Therefore, the aim of this dissertation was to contribute to the literature on gender and mentoring through an in-depth analysis of the mentoring experiences of female employees (Study 1) and by comparing and contrasting those experiences with the experiences of male employees (Study 2).

One overarching important lesson was learned in this process: when comparing the experiences of male and female mentees, mentoring relationships are not exactly the same phenomenon for both genders. The mentorships that men and women mentees develop do have

some similarities, but also some differences that are crucial when attempting to understand how female employees approach and develop mentoring relationships. The following paragraphs will explore and discuss the similarities and differences found in mentoring relationships according to the gender of the mentee.

Mentee's Gender and Similarities in Mentoring Relationships

The main similarity found in this study when comparing the experiences of male and female employees is the importance given to mentoring. Employees of both genders and across industries described how relevant it is to have a mentor within the organization for career development, access to information networks and even to establish future career goals. The importance given to mentorships in the workplace found in this dissertation has two important contributions to the mentoring literature. First, having a mentor is considered as very important regardless of the gender of the employee. Some studies (e.g., Gibson 2004; Washington, 2011) have suggested that women consider mentoring as important for their career development but have not compared these findings with the experiences of male protégés. Second, this dissertation noted that having a mentor is perceived as very important for mentees as well as for those who do not have a mentor. The literature on mentoring has suggested that having a mentor has a number of positive outcomes for the protégé when compared to non-protégés (e.g., Allen et al., 2004; Kammeyer-Mueller & Judge, 2008). However, there are no studies that have analysed if both protégés and non-protégés consider mentoring in the workplace as influential for career development and overall personal growth. The fact that men, women, protégés and non-protégés included in the studies of this dissertation agree that mentoring has a significant positive impact on their lives and careers is an important contribution of this literature.

Although the participants in this dissertation concur that mentoring is significant for career development and personal growth, this is the only similarity that was found in this research when comparing the mentoring experiences of male and female employees. There are three important differences regarding mentoring relationships between men and women that were uncovered in this dissertation: how the mentorship is approached, formal mentorship and barriers to the development of the mentoring relationship.

Mentee's Gender and Differences in Mentoring Relationships

The first difference found in this dissertation between men and women relates to how the mentoring relationship is formed. As discussed in the findings of Study 2, men approach the mentoring relationship with a tactical attitude, targeting mentors that they believe will help them achieve their goals and develop their careers. Women, on the other hand, enter mentorships more spontaneously, allowing mentorships to grow organically. This finding suggests that while men tend to be more assertive and intentional about their career development, using mentors as a tool or resource to achieve their career goals, women tend to be more unstructured and instinctive, allowing mentoring to come to them rather than actively seeking these relationships. This difference in gender regarding how mentorships begin could be rooted in socialization practices that are socially enforced since childhood. As commented by Aukett, Ritchie & Mills (1988, pg.58), "…boys more than girls are reinforced for aggressive, forthright, independent behaviors, whereas girls more than boys are treated more delicately, encouraged to engage in more passive activities, and to be less forthright than boys." These socialization practices affect relationship development later in life, in such a way that relationships for men tend to be more instrumental while for women relationships are more emotional in nature (Aukett et al., 1988). These differences in how the mentoring relationships are approached could explain why some studies have suggested that women are under-mentored when compared to their male colleagues. Since women handle mentorships in a more unstructured and gradual fashion, it is possible that even though they meet potential mentors, they do not ask to be mentored in the straightforward and emphatic way that mentors (that are mostly male as noted by Noe (1988a) and Ragins & Cotton (1991)) expect from their relationship counterparts. This finding suggests that women allow time and space for their mentorships to develop, while their male mentors might be expecting them to be less spontaneous and more aggressively pursue mentorships, attitude that they do get from male mentees.

The second difference between men and women found in this research has to do with formal mentoring relationships. The findings of this dissertation suggest that men are aware of the existence of formal mentoring systems yet mostly uninterested in them. Women, however, report being interested in these formal relationships, and attempt developing mentorships via these programs. This finding should not be a surprise, since formal mentoring systems have been

designed in an effort to provide mentors to those employees that are under-mentored, mainly women and minorities (Allen et al., 2006; Nemanick, 20000; Noe, 1988b).

What should be of interest is how negative the experiences of women tend to be when formal mentorships are discussed. Noe (1988b, pg. 458) commented that the lack of success of formal mentorships could be explained in part by "…personality conflicts between parties, perceptions of the protégé's supervisors that their ability to influence the subordinate is eroded by the presence of the mentor, and the lack of true personal commitment to either the mentor or the protégé to the relationship…" Women in both studies of this dissertation discussed two of these reasons as causes for their negative experiences regarding formal mentorships. First and more significant was the lack of commitment shown by the mentor. In several cases it was openly discussed how mentor had no willingness to meet with the mentee even several months after the formal relationship had been set up. Second, women commented on a lack of compatibility with the assigned mentor. This lack of compatibility was explained by clashing personalities that usually led to an inability to work with the mentor and eventually to irreconcilable differences. Although the experiences were mainly negative, the participants were still hopeful regarding the future of the formal mentoring system.

Furthermore, several women had very concrete suggestions of how to improve such systems, suggestions that were discussed with their Human Resources departments. The fact that formal mentoring systems have an extremely low success rate is quite troublesome because of all the resources that people and organizations invest in these systems (Allen et al., 2006; Nemanick, 20000). In terms of the people involved, unsuccessful formal mentorships not only fail at matching mentor with mentee, but also leave frustration and cynicism in the mentee which could compromise the future development of mentorships. In terms of the organizations, these invest not only financial resources but also human capital towards the development of these formal mentoring systems. As discussed by Nemanick (2000, pg.136), "…over a third of the major U.S. corporations have established formal mentoring programs, and the number appears to be growing." The resources spent by organizations in these formal mentoring systems are therefore quite significant. Improving formal mentoring systems would not only have an impact on the careers and lives of mentees that use these programs but would also allow for a more efficient and successful use of organizational resources. Allen, Eby and Lentz noted in 2006 that formal mentoring systems were

designed by practitioners with little to no empirical testing and evidence. The findings of this dissertation suggest that it is critical for researchers to design formal mentoring programs that can better serve mentees, mentors and organizations alike.

This dissertation found a third difference between men and women regarding mentoring relationships. This third difference is related to the factors that allow or impede work relationships to transition from cordial but average, regular initial work-centered meetings to inspiring, influential mentorships. These factors, labeled barriers to the development of mentorships, do not allow this transition to happen, actively blocking the formation of mentorships. This dissertation found evidence to support the existence of six of these barriers that effectively impact the development of a mentoring relationship. The six barriers to the development of mentoring relationships unearthed in this dissertation are Need for Fit, Demonstrating Capability, Commitment of the Mentor, Trust in the Mentor, Need to Share a Goal/Vision and Admiration for the Mentor.

Barriers to the Development of Mentorships

Need for Fit is the first barrier to the development of the mentoring relationship found in this dissertation. It is defined as the mentee's need for a personal relationship, fit or connection to develop and exist between mentee and mentor. As discussed in the findings of Studies 1 and 2, this barrier appears to be particularly salient for female protégés. The existence and nature of this barrier implies that female employees may look for a personal connection to exist between them and their mentors, while their male colleagues are more comfortable with a work-centered mentorship. The relevance that female employees place on having a connection with their mentors could be explained in part by gender differences regarding the degree of intimacy in relationships. Male relationships tend to be more instrumental, while female relationships tend to be more emotional in nature (Aukett, Ritchie & Mills, 1988; Felmlee, Sweet & Sinclair, 2012). In general men have more difficulty dealing with emotional intimacy, expressiveness and disclosing personal information, while women tend to enjoy the expression of feelings (Aukett et al., 1988). These factors affect relationship development in such a way that "Women, in contrast to men, form close one-to-one relationships with others that involve affection, love and acceptance [...] and the

trusting of others with worries, joys, dreams and fears." (Aukett et al., 1988, pg. 59). Furthermore, women would place a higher importance on intimate, close and emotional relationships, reporting greater degrees of intimacy in their interpersonal relationships than men (Aukett et al., 1988; Felmlee, et al., 2012; Gaia, 2002). While men will focus on numerous but less intimate relationships based on the sharing of activities, women will develop few but more intimate relationships where there is emotional sharing and discussion of personal problems (Aukett et al., 1988). Thus, it should not be surprising or revolutionary to note that women will also prefer to have a level of intimacy in important work relationships, such as mentorships. Ibarra (1992) noted that this pattern is also present in relationships built in the workplace, where women tend to establish networks that provide them with social support and friendship while their male colleagues have networks that are more instrumental in nature. This barrier to development is quite significant for both men and women but for opposite reasons. While women would not consider as a mentor someone with whom they do not share a personal connection, men would not develop a mentorship with someone with whom they have a non-work relationship.

The idea of a mentoring relationship having a degree of intimacy beyond the realm of work and the workplace has been explicitly analyzed only by a limited number of researchers (Haggard et al., 2011). In fact, Haggard et al. (2011) suggested that the "closeness" of the mentoring relationship needs to be addressed in future research. Perhaps the lack of research regarding intimacy as part of the mentoring relationship is due to the finding that while intimacy in a mentorship does not seem to be of importance for male employees, it is particularly relevant for female employees. Since most of the literature has relied on data collected from Caucasian middle-aged North American men (O'Brien et al., 2010), this could explain why intimacy as a component of the mentoring relationship has been largely overlooked.

A second barrier to the development of mentoring relationships found in this dissertation is Demonstrating Capability. This barrier is defined as the need of the employee to be perceived by others (such as colleagues and supervisors) as capable and competent by remaining independent and not developing mentoring relationships at work, and was present only for female participants. The barrier Demonstrating Capability is interesting because of two elements. First, it seems counterintuitive for female employees to purposefully stay away from mentors during one of the most crucial stages of their careers, the beginning. Having a mentor could have a very significant

positive impact for women who are trying to understand their surroundings and develop their careers. As commented by Nemanick (2000, pg. 136), a mentor can be a very valuable tool for career development, because mentors not only "…provide their protégés with important career advice and emotional support, but they can also open doors that might otherwise remain shut." However, some female employees seem to believe that having a mentor in the early stages of their careers could do more harm than good. Researchers have studied the effects on mentees of negative mentorships (which include less learning, lower job satisfaction and higher levels of stress; Burk & Eby, 2010) but there is no research suggesting that non-protégés can experience more positive outcomes than protégés. On the contrary: from small, tailored studies to meta-analyses, research on the effects of mentorships all conclude that having a mentor has several positive outcomes for protégés (including the meta-analysis by Eby et al., 2008). It is then unexpected to find that some women in this study consider it more beneficial for their career advancements to remain mentor-less rather than to develop a mentorship at the workplace.

One possible explanation behind the barrier Demonstrating Capability is that this barrier might be present in specific organizational contexts. This barrier was seen in academia and the military, both contexts where capability and ability to perform are highly regarded and expected. In these contexts, female employees might feel that proving their skillset and abilities through independence will pay more dividends in the long run than having a mentor. Several researchers have commented that the influence of the organizational context has been largely ignored, particularly when discussing the relationship between mentoring and gender (Ely & Padavic, 2007; Ramaswami, Dreher, Bretz & Wiethoff, 2010). Ely and Padavic (2007) suggested that organizational context needs to be included in the analysis if researchers want to understand the impact of gender in organizations. In fact, Ramaswami et al. (2010) noted that the organizational context had an effect on the outcomes of the mentoring relationship. Ramaswami et al. (2010) noted that cash compensation and career progress were highest for female mentees with senior and male mentors, working in male-dominated industries (where males represent 75% or more of the industry, such as energy, transportation and utilities industries). The authors concluded that "…excluding business or organizational context characteristics from research designs is likely to obscure the size and directionality of a variety of important relationships in mentoring research." (Ramaswami et al., 2010, pg. 403). Although the organizational context was not directly investigated in this dissertation, the barrier Demonstrating Capability highlights how crucial

organizational context can be when the aim is to understand mentoring relationships of female employees.

Commitment of the Mentor, the third barrier to development of mentorship, is defined as the mentee's need to perceive that the mentor is truly and wholeheartedly committed to the development of the mentoring relationship. This barrier to the development of mentorship was found across industries and was present in both genders, being described as a crucial element for the success of a mentorship. This third barrier to the development of mentorships taps into an issue that is vital for any relationship to work, the pledge made by both parties stating that they will work towards the growth and development of the mentorship. This has been an issue largely ignored by the mentoring literature because too often commitment is considered to be a given: the mentee is committed to the mentorship because of all the benefits that this relationship will bring, while the mentor is committed because of his/her altruism and will to help younger, talented and skilled employees succeed and become the mentor's successors and legacy. Ortiz-Walters & Gilson (2005, pg. 464) discussed that "Commitment represents a willingness to remain in a relationship despite interpersonal challenges and has been found to contribute to the well-being of each partner." Although commitment has only been considered as part of the mentoring relationship by a handful of studies (including Allen & Eby, 2008; Ortiz-Walters & Gilson, 2005; and Poteat, Shockley & Allen, 2009), the literature on commitment in interpersonal relationships is much more vast. Commitment has been signaled as a crucial component of relationships (Finkel, Rusbult, Kumashiro & Hannon, 2002), and can predict the stability and longevity of several relationships, including marriages and friendships (Allen & Eby, 2008).

According to Poteat et al. (2009), commitment in a relationship has three components: intent to persist, long-term orientation and psychological attachment. Although limited, there is evidence of the importance of mentor commitment for the success of a mentorship. As commented by Allen and Eby in 2008, protégés in formal mentoring relationships that report high mentor commitment also report higher levels of mentorship quality. The authors noted that commitment of the mentor to the mentorship was important for both female and male mentees (Allen & Eby, 2008). Poteat et al. (2009) measured the commitment level of both mentor and protégé and noted that when both mentor and mentee are more committed to the relationship, both parties display higher levels of satisfaction with the mentorship. The findings of these previous studies along with

the findings of this dissertation suggest that mentor commitment to the mentorship is not only significant for the satisfaction of both mentor and mentee, but actually plays a vital role in the development of a mentoring relationship for mentees of both genders.

Trust in the mentor was the fourth barrier to the development of mentorships found in this dissertation, and this barrier was significant for protégés of both genders across industries. Trust in the Mentor is defined as the degree to which the mentee feels that he/she can trust his/her mentor. According to Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt and Camerer (1998, pg. 395), "Trust is a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behavior of another." Furthermore, Richard, Ismail, Bhuian, and Taylor (2009) noted that trust allows parties in a relationship to co-operate and work together through the reduction of self-opportunism. The literature on interpersonal relationships has determined that trust is a key element of social exchange and is usually a consequence of a good behavior enacted by the partners, who will put the relationship first and in front of self-interest (Finkel et al., 2002). Rousseau et al. (1998) noted that trust arises when two necessary conditions are present: risk (trust is not needed when the outcome is certain), and interdependence (the goals cannot be achieved without relying on another person).

Trust has been signaled by several authors as being a key component of a mentoring relationship (Kram, 1985; Fletcher & Ragins, 2007), yet has received very little empirical attention (Fleig-Palmer & Schoorman, 2011). Fleig-Palmer and Schoorman (2011) analyzed trust as a moderator between mentoring and knowledge transfer while Chun, Litzky, Sosik, Bechtold and Godshalk (2010) investigated trust in a mentorship as being affected by emotional intelligence. However, trust as a fundamental element of the mentorship remains largely unstudied. This dissertation not only signals the relevance of trust for the mentoring relationship but also sheds light into how trust is built within a mentorship.

As it was discussed in the findings of Study 2 and according to the data collected, the way trust is built seems to be different for male and female mentees. Women appear to build trust in their mentors through the development of a personal relationship while for men trust is built through the expertise demonstrated by the mentor. In other words, although trust in the mentor is a key element for a mentorship to develop for both female and male mentees, the way this trust is built varies significantly depending on the gender of the mentee. Trust development as described

in this dissertation mirrors the findings of McAllister (1995), who noted that there are two forms of interpersonal trust, affect-based and cognition-based trust. Based on the data collected, it appears that women tend to develop trust through affect while men tend to develop trust through cognition. Furthermore, Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995) suggested that trustworthiness depended on three main factors, ability, benevolence and integrity. The data propose that the ability of the mentor is a key element for male mentees, while women focus more on the mentor's integrity and benevolence. These findings also seem to coincide with the way both genders develop relationships in general, relying on emotional connection in the case of women and relying on instrumentality in the case of men (Aukett et al., 1988).

These findings regarding trust development in mentees are in line with findings in applied economics, marketing and psychology that suggest that men trust more than women: while men tend to build trust quickly and be very confident about that trust, women tend to build trust more slowly and be more hesitant about judging others as trustworthy (Chaudhuri, Paichayontvijit, & Shen, 2013; Dittrich, 2015; Ertz, 2015). In a recent study, Ertz (2015) noted that when it comes to building trust, women tend to use their intuition and rely in consensus, while men use numbers and objective measures. Chaudhuri et al. (2013) also noted that while these differences between men and women are salient at the beginning of the relationship, the differences tend to dissipate as trust between the parties solidifies.

The fifth barrier found in this dissertation regarding the development of mentoring relationships was Need to Share a Goal/Vision. It is defined as the mentee's need to perceive that his/her vision and work-related goals are the same as those of the mentor. This barrier was found across industries but was particularly salient for male participants. This barrier speaks to the instrumentality that male protégés look for in a mentoring relationship. Male mentees described sharing a goal or a vision with their mentors as a necessary element for a mentorship to be successful. This barrier suggests that male mentees look for a mentor that will help them advance in their career, not by any means but by achieving the goals and the milestones that are important for the mentee. Finding this barrier in this study should not be unexpected: Kram (1985) noted that one of the main purposes of a mentorship is for mentors to help protégés achieve their long-term career goals. Therefore, the findings of this study suggest that for male protégés, the objectives of a mentorship are very close to what the literature on mentoring has suggested, basically to help the

protégé's career development (Kram, 1985; Noe, 1988b). What is surprising about this barrier, however, is the fact that while it was very salient for men, it was not present for women. There is some evidence in the literature that suggests that female mentees expect and receive more psychosocial support than male protégés (Allen & Eby, 2004; Burke & McKeen, 1990; Ragins & Cotton, 1999), which could indicate that female mentees go into a mentorship looking for counselling, role-modeling, friendship and acceptance-and-confirmation rather than help with career development as such. Therefore, this barrier strongly suggests that what male protégés seeks in a mentor and a mentoring relationship (career advancement) is markedly different from what a female mentee looks for (support and guidance).

The sixth and last barrier to development of mentorship found in this study was Admiration for the Mentor. This barrier is defined as the mentee's need to admire the mentor, because of his/her expertise, experience or personal qualities in general, and although it was present across industries, it was only relevant for male participants. The data suggest that only male participants consider it particularly relevant to feel some degree of admiration towards the mentor for the mentorship to be successful. This barrier is also in line with what the literature proposes are some of the qualities that a mentee looks for in a mentor. Admiration for the mentor was reported as key to a mentoring relationship by several researchers including Kram (1985), Allen et al. (2006), Lankau et al. (2006) and Gentry et al. (2008). For men in this study, career goals and visions can only be shared and pursued with a mentor that is considered as worthy because of his/her impressive set of skills, abilities and experience. A male mentee needs to feel that the mentor has the tools that will allow him/her to guide the mentee towards the goals and visions that have been determined. As it happened with the barrier Need to Share a Goal/Vision, Admiration for the Mentor was not present for women in this study. While male mentees prefer mentors they believe have the skillset needed to help develop the mentee's career, women mentees gave preference to mentors with whom they could develop intimacy and who could provide the appropriate guidance for them.

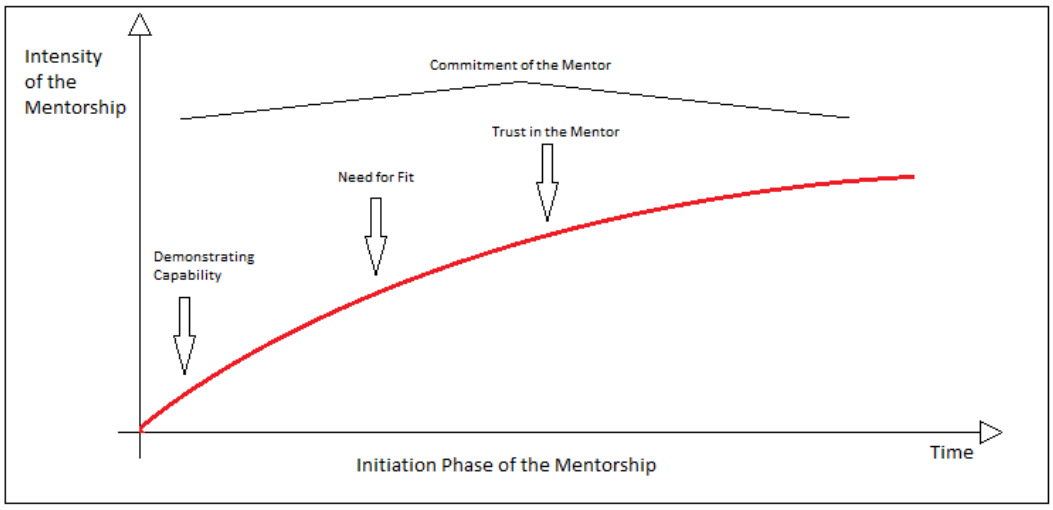
Barriers to Development of Mentorships: Timelines, Interactions and Pervasiveness

The data collected in Studies 1 and 2 not only provided evidence to support the existence of the six barriers to the development of mentorships previously described, but also shed some light into three areas: the timeline or chronology in which these barriers present themselves, how these barriers interact with one another and the pervasiveness of the barriers.

In terms of the timeline or chronology of the barriers to development, although the data do not allow strong conclusions regarding the order in which barriers manifest themselves, the data provide some hints regarding when these barriers become more salient to the developing relationship. The data also allow to suggest that even though all six barriers appear during the initiation phase of the mentorship, there seems to be some gender differences regarding the timeline in which these barriers appear and impede the development of mentorships.

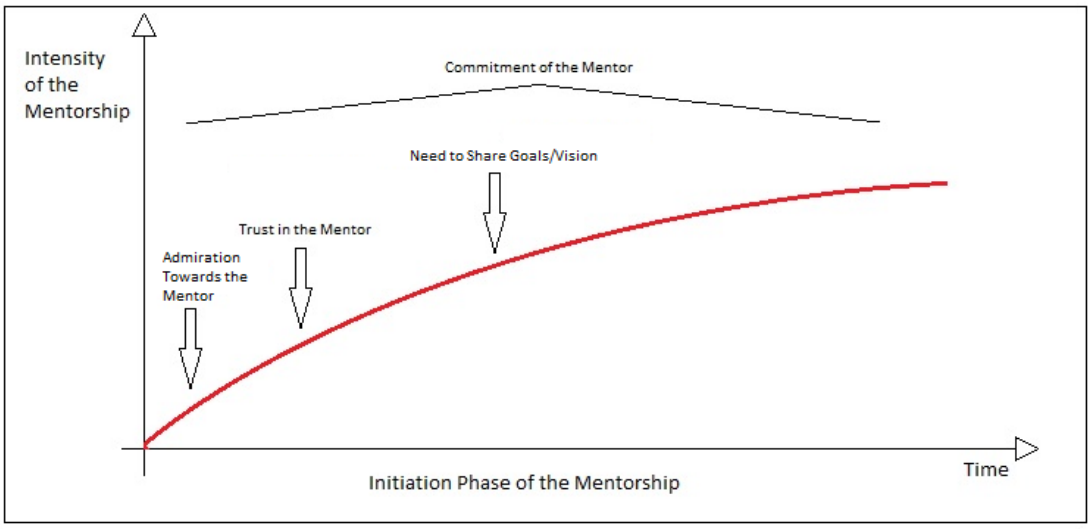
For female employees, Demonstrating Capability manifests at the very beginning of the initiation phase, when women meet potential mentors and have to decide if their careers are better served by staying independent and mentor-less. This barrier therefore blocks any relationship from turning into a mentorship the moment it arises. When this barrier is not present anymore (either because it was not present to begin with or because the mentee's career has developed, allowing this barrier to dissipate), Need for Fit manifests itself. Fit between mentor and mentee usually comes after there have been some interactions between mentor and mentee, interactions that provide clues into the possibility of a connection to develop between parties. Trust in the Mentor comes after there has been some connection established between mentor and mentee, which has allowed the mentee to build trust in the mentor. Commitment of the Mentor is slightly different from the other three barriers since it is constantly being evaluated by the protégé during the entire initiation phase of the mentorship. Therefore, commitment of the mentor could potentially undermine the developing mentorship at any point, as early as before any other barriers have manifested themselves or as late as after all other barriers have been overcome. Figure 4 presents a visual representation of the chronology of barriers to the development of mentorships as experienced by female protégés. Future research should consider empirically testing this chronology.

Figure 4: Chronology of Barriers to Development of Mentorships for Women



For men, the chronology of the barriers for development of mentorships is slightly different. The first barrier to present itself is Admiration towards the Mentor. Men will not consider approaching someone to become their mentor if they do not believe that this person has the right set of skills and abilities to help the mentee develop his career. Once the mentee admires the mentor the relationship can begin to build. Trust in the Mentor comes right after there is an admiration of the mentee towards the mentor, and therefore in mentorships with male mentees trust appears earlier than in relationships where the mentee is a woman. Need to Share a Goal/Vision presents itself as the mentor and mentee have time and space to meet and discuss the career goals of the mentee. As is the case for female mentees, Commitment of the Mentor is evaluated during the whole length of the initiation phase of the mentorship. The chronology of these barriers for male protégés is presented in Figure 5. Future research should consider empirically testing this chronology as well.

Figure 5: Chronology of Barriers to Development of Mentorships for Men



The barriers to development act together to impede an initial relationship to develop into a mentorship closely following the timelines previously described. For protégés of both genders, barriers need to be conquered one at the time in the sequential order described in the timelines. If one of those barriers cannot be overcome, then the relationship will not turn into a mentorship.

In terms of interactions between the barriers, the analyses did not find any interactions between barriers. In other words, when one barrier was present, it does not imply that another barrier would also be present. There seems to be a slight correlation for women between the barriers Need for Fit and Trust in the Mentor, and for men between Admirations towards the Mentor and Trust in the Mentor, such that when one of these is present, the other one tends to be present as well. However, the data suggest that this is a correlation and not an interaction between these barriers.

Analyses were also conducted in order to determine whether the barriers would interact with personal characteristics of the participants other than their gender. The results suggest that the barriers do not interact with industry or profession, age, marital status of respondent or the fact that the respondent had or did not have children at the time of the interview. The only interaction found was the one between career stage and Demonstrating Capability, as previously discussed.

This interaction makes Demonstrating Capability more relevant or salient in the early stages of the career and dissipates as the career advances.

Table 8 provides an overview of the barriers mentioned by the participants. The shaded spaces correspond to the discussion of that barrier by the participant. This table shows the lack of direct interaction between barriers as well as the existence of the correlations previously discussed.

Table 8: Barriers to Development by Participant

Name	Need for Fit	Demonst. Capability	Commit. of the Mentor	Trust in the Mentor	Need to Share Goal	Admiration to Mentor
Mary	■			■		
Pablo				■	■	
Monica	■					
Lidia	■					
Sabrina	■	■		■		
Boris			■		■	
Eric			■		■	
Myriam	■		■	■		
Greg				■		■
Beth			■			
Cony	■		■	■		
Fernando			■		■	
Benjamin						■
Larry			■			■
Anna	■		■	■		
Sam				■	■	
Chloe	■			■		
Gabriel			■	■		
Victor				■	■	■
Lilian	■			■		

Liam						
Ryan						
William						
Valerie						
Harriet						
Fanny						
Bob						
Ruth						
Charles						
Bella						
Brian						
Frank						
Margaret						

Although all barriers are significant and can individually sentence the demise of the emergent mentorship, there is some variance in the degree of importance of the barriers according to the gender of the mentee. For female mentees, the most significant barrier seems to be Need for Fit. Female protégés need to have fit with their mentors not only to surpass this barrier but also to develop trust in the mentor and overcome that barrier as well. Fit is so important that it also acts as a buffer for the barrier Commitment of the Mentor. Women who have a connection or fit with their mentors will be slightly more lenient with the level of commitment of the mentor. In other words, the mentor might not be as committed as he/she should be ideally, but if there is a fit between mentor and mentee the relationship may still develop into a mentorship. In the case of male mentees, the most significant barrier seems to be Admiration towards the Mentor. This is not only the first hurdle the relationship needs to overcome but it also will influence the other three barriers. Male mentees who admire their mentors will be able to develop trust in their mentor and this admiration and trust will allow for some negotiation and margin to exist when discussing the goals and visions of the mentorship. The admiration that the mentee professes towards the mentor will also permit to mitigate the effects of the commitment of the mentor in such a way that male

mentees who admire their mentors will develop mentorships with mentors even if the mentor is not completely and fully committed to the relationship.

Another interesting implication of the data corresponds to the pervasiveness of the barriers. Five of the six barriers need to be fully surmounted for the relationship to develop into a mentorship. Female mentees need to share a connection with their mentors and to trust them in order for the mentorship to pass the initiation phase. Similarly, male mentees need to admire and trust their mentors and to share goals and visions in order for the relationship to move on to the cultivation phase. The only exception seems to be the barrier Commitment of the Mentor. This barrier will impede the relationship from becoming a mentorship when mentees of both genders perceive that the mentor is not committed to the relationship. However, the mentorship may still develop with a minimum level of commitment from the mentor. After the minimum level of commitment of the mentor is achieved, higher levels of commitment will not affect the development of the mentorship but will only affect the quality of the mentorship. Commitment is the only barrier identified in this dissertation that does not need to be fully overcome for a mentorship to continue to the cultivation phase. Once the minimum commitment is attained, the mentorship will develop in such a way that higher commitment will lead to higher quality mentorships.

Implications of the Findings of this Dissertation

When all of these factors and findings are considered together, the results of this dissertation suggest that mentoring is not exactly the same phenomenon for female and male employees. As commented by O'Brien et al. (2010) the literature on mentoring has relied on data provided by middle-aged white men, which in part explains why we know so little about the mentoring relationships of women. The barriers to the development that are more salient for men describe a mentoring relationship that very closely resembles the mentorships commonly discussed in the literature. These mentorships are centered on work, and are focused on work-related tasks, accomplishments, challenges and outcomes. However, the barriers to the development of mentorships that are more salient for women describe a different kind of mentoring relationships altogether. These mentorships have the work-oriented components of traditional mentorships but

they also have components that go beyond the realm of work, to include aspects that bear a resemblance to a more personal relationship or even friendship.

As discussed at the beginning of this dissertation, there are two questions that the mentoring literature has not been able to conclusively answer. The findings of this dissertation allow to, however cautiously and tentatively, shed some light into possible answers. The first un-answered question was, are female employees under-mentored when compared to their male colleagues? The data obtained in Study 1 suggest that women in academia are under-mentored, not as Ph.D. students but as professors. It appears that when women are part of a system that supports the development of mentorships in the workplace (such as being in an apprenticeship during doctoral studies), these relationships develop with ease. However, when women enter organizations that do not have these supportive systems in place, mentorships are difficult to establish. Given these results, it is very possible that the contradictory findings in the literature regarding the under-mentoring of women are due to the lack of analysis of the organizational context of the samples used (as suggested by Ramaswami et al., 2008). Studies that have suggested that women are under-mentored have gathered their sample from organizational contexts that are male-dominated and that have very little support for mentoring relationships (including city managers, accountants and global managers; Fox & Schuhmann, 2000; Kaplan, Keinath & Walo, 2001; Linehan & Scullion, 2008). On the other hand, studies concluding that women are not under-mentored have used student samples, as the case of the study by Dreher and Ash (1990). The university setting is more balanced in terms of gender distribution and may be more supportive of mentoring relationships between professor and student. The findings of this dissertation suggest that to truly understand the experiences of women with mentoring relationships, the organizational context has to be carefully considered. The lack of consideration for the organizational context of the sample could also explain why meta-analyses arrive to different conclusions than smaller, more tailored studies.

The second unanswered question discussed in the literature review regarding women and mentoring was if women are in fact under-mentored, what is causing this phenomenon? The findings of this dissertation suggest that the answer to this question is a complex one, for there are several causes to this phenomenon. This research does not support barriers to access to mentors (as suggested by Noe, 1988b) nor gender issues (as proposed by Ragins & Cotton, 1991) as causes for the under-mentoring of women. The findings of this study propose the existence of two causes

previously unexamined in the literature. First, as previously discussed, the organizational context, and in particular, the lack of support for the development of mentorships found in some organizational contexts is one of the causes of the under-mentoring of women. Second, the barriers to development of mentorships unearthed in this study also explain why women are under-mentored when compared to their male colleagues. The barriers to the development of mentorship portray very different mentors for female and male employees. Men look for someone with an impressive set of skills, abilities and level of experience that can propel them to higher organizational echelons. Women look for a mentor that can guide them not only through their organization and career but also support and direct them through life as a woman (sometimes wife, sometimes mother) in the workforce.

The findings of this dissertation also allow providing suggestions for the development of both informal and formal mentorships in the workplace. Organizations that wish to foster and promote the development of informal mentorships need to be explicitly supportive towards the development of these relationships. This dissertation has suggested that the lack of support is one of the reasons behind the under-mentoring of women. It is particularly relevant for organizations to openly support and bless informal mentorships, especially among those who have recently entered the workplace (this in order to eradicate the barrier Demonstrating Capability). Organizations should emphasise the importance of mentoring by actively limiting any suspicions that having a mentor could harm the career advancement of young employees. There are at least two ways in which organizations can promote the development of informal mentorships. One way is to make mentorships part of the organizational culture. Organizations that want to foster informal mentorships should organize opportunities where junior employees can meet senior employees through social events. Organizations can also coordinate workshops on mentoring for anyone interested in developing a mentorship as a mentor or as a mentee. These workshops would serve two purposes: to allow mentees to meet potential mentors and to manage both mentees and mentors' expectations regarding the mentorship's outcomes. A second way to foster the development of informal mentorships in the workplace is to allow and promote the development of networking groups. As commented by Allen and Finkelstein (2003), these networking groups might allow the creation of developmental relationships. Although the support found in developmental relationships is more limited when comparing these to mentorships, the members of a developmental relationships do receive support and even some of the functions traditionally

associated with mentorships (Allen & Finkelstein, 2003; Chandler et al., 2011; Higgins & Kram, 2001).

This study also has significant implications for organizations that rely on formal mentoring programs. The findings of this research suggest that formal mentoring systems need to be tailored at least according to the organizational context and to the gender of the mentee. The days of random matching of mentor and mentee should be over; systems should now morph to resemble a match-making service if they want to be efficient and successful. This means that future formal mentoring systems should include the following steps. First, potential mentor and mentee should be allowed to go through people's profiles (which should include professional accomplishments, skills and even interests beyond the workplace) and identify people they would like to meet. Allen et al. (2006, pg. 576) noticed that one of the most important elements to develop successful formal mentoring programs "…is to ensure that mentors and protégés perceive that they have input into the matching process." Rose (2003) also suggests that mentees should complete mentoring scales such as the Ideal Mentor Scale, so that they can identify the qualities that they are looking for in a mentor. All these tools would allow for the mentee to evaluate the possible fit between mentor and mentee even before they meet, which could help overcome two barriers: Need for Fit for female protégés and Admiration towards the Mentor for male mentees. Second, potential mentor and mentee should be able to meet and interact freely which would allow them to get to know each other (and other potential counterparts) before committing to the mentorship. Third, once mentor and mentee are matched, a list of goals with deadlines should be established by mutual agreement. This list could help ease the impact of the barrier Need to Share Goal/Vision particularly for male protégés. Determining goals in advance also allows to manage expectations of both mentor and mentee and it helps clarifying the role of both parties (Allen et al., 2006). This list of mutually agreed upon goals should also include specific meeting dates to enable mentor and mentee to meet regularly. Set dates for meeting can allow both parties to commit to the mentorship, therefore increasing the chances of success by decreasing the effects of the barrier Commitment of the Mentor (Allen et al., 2006). Last but not least, formal mentoring relationships usually have an end date: this should be reconsidered. Deadlines or expiry dates may erode the commitment of the parties by signaling that the relationship has an end in sight instead of a long-term intention. Mentor and mentee should be allowed to continue the relationship for as long as they want to. These four suggestions could significantly improve formal mentoring programs by giving a voice

to both mentor and mentee in the matching process, by stimulating the creation of commitment to the relationship and by easing the impact of the barriers to development found in this study.

Limitations and Future Research

Unfortunately, this study does have its limitations, the most salient one being the generalization of the findings. The sample used was North American and white collar, which could limit the generalization of the conclusions reached in this dissertation. However, this limitation opens several very interesting avenues for future research. First, future research could develop scales for each of the six barriers to development in order to test these barriers with larger and more diverse samples. Second, given that some researchers such as Chandler et al. (2011) have suggested that culture could affect the mentoring relationship, this variable should be included in future research and studied in more detail. Third, although the sample used in this dissertation came from different industries, the organizational context was not analysed. As commented by Ramaswami et al. (2010) the organizational context has an effect on the development and outcomes of mentoring, so future research should include organizational context as a central variable. Fourth, regarding organizational context, one interesting venue for future research on gender and mentoring would be to analyse organizations that are male-dominated, such as the military. This would allow to gain insight on the barrier Demonstrating Capability, possibly determining if in fact this barrier is gender and context specific.

Another potential limitation of this dissertation refers to the fact that the coding of the data was performed by the researcher and not by an independent coder. Although some researchers might question the objectivity of the results obtained in this dissertation because the analysis of the data was done by the researcher alone, qualitative researchers code their own data in an effort to make sense of the massive volume of information obtained during the data collection while being true to the participants' voices. As commented by Patton (2001, pg. 433), qualitative researchers are involved in every aspect of their studies "Because qualitative inquiry depends, at every stage, on the skills, training, insights and capabilities of the inquirer, qualitative analysis ultimately depends on the analytical intellect and style of the analyst." Although this practice common in qualitative research might call into question the objectivity of qualitative results in

general, it is important to remember that the purpose of qualitative research is to give insight into people's experiences and not to generate objective data. In other words, qualitative "research cannot provide the mirror reflection of the social world that positivists strive for, but it may provide access to meanings people attribute to their experiences and social worlds." (Miller and Glassner, 2002, pg. 100)

A third potential limitation is the related to the sampling technique used in this dissertation. As discussed by Patton (2001, pg. 237), snowball sampling "…is an approach for locating information-rich key informants…". The critics of this sampling technique argue that snowball sampling could lead to the self-selection of the participants. However, the sample used in this dissertation was very diverse, with participants from different age groups, gender, industry, occupation, career stage, marital status, having or not having children and even experiences with mentoring in the workplace. In fact, the only commonality of the participants was that they were all white collar employees. Therefore, this diversity of the sample significantly diminishes any concerns regarding the self-selection of participants. One interesting avenue for future research would be to test the presence and salience of the barriers to the development of mentoring with a blue collar sample.

Conclusion

It is very possible that this is only the start of an academic and practitioner-oriented discussion on how both formal and informal mentoring relationships at work can be nurtured and encouraged, in order for mentors and mentees to reap all the benefits that successful mentorships have to offer.

This dissertation makes several contributions to the mentoring literature. First, this study compared and contrasted the experiences of female and male protégés, noticing that mentorship is not exactly the same phenomenon for men and women. Second, this dissertation unearthed the existence of barriers to the development of the mentoring relationship. Until now it was widely believed that the only significant barriers that a mentorship had to overcome where those that limited the access of mentees to potential mentors. Although barriers to access might still be relevant in some contexts (for example, when an employee first arrives to an organization and

therefore has very limited network within the organization), barriers to development impact the mentorship for mentees of both genders, across industries and at different stages of career development. Future research that focuses on barriers to development could allow us to gain a deeper understanding of mentoring relationships in the workplace. Second, although until now some of these barriers had received some attention individually, only now there is evidence to suggest that all six of these elements are not only preferable in a mentorship but actually act as hurdles that might impede the development of a mentoring relationship. Third, the salience of these barriers seems to vary by mentee's gender and organizational environment, which has important implications both for organizations as well as for future research. Not all mentees and mentors are created equal and therefore not all mentorships are created equal either. The six barriers to development are macro-level rules of what makes or breaks a mentorship, but it is important to keep in mind that these relationships are embedded in an organizational context that influences the dyad as well as the mentorship.

This dissertation started with one aim: to gain a deeper understanding of the experiences of women with informal mentoring at work. The findings of Study 1 not only lead to insights regarding these experiences but also uncovered the existence of a barrier to mentoring previously unknown in the mentoring literature, namely barriers to development. Study 2 was therefore conceived as a way to deepen the knowledge gathered in Study 1 by focusing on the factors that aid/impede the development of informal mentoring relationships at work for both men and women mentees. The data collected and analyzed in both studies allowed to grasp and define the six barriers to development of mentorships at work. Through this process and the lessons gathered regarding the success and failure of informal mentorships, it has become apparent that current formal mentoring systems need to be improved by the tailoring these systems according to the mentee's gender and organizational context.

References

Adams, R.G. & Blieszner, R. (1994) An integrative conceptual framework for friendship research. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*. Vol. 11, Issue 2, pp. 163-184.

Allen, T.D. (2004) Protégé selection by mentors: Contributing individual and organizational factors. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*. Vol. 65, Issue 3, pp. 469.

Allen, T.D. & Eby, L.T. (2004) Factors related to mentor reports of mentoring functions provided: Gender and relational characteristics. *Sex Roles*. Vol. 50, Issue 1/2, pp. 129

Allen, T.D. & Eby, L.T. (2008) Mentor commitment in formal mentoring relationships. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*. Vol. 72, Issue 3, pp. 159–167.

Allen, T.D., Eby, L.T. & Lentz, E. (2006) Mentorship behaviours and mentorship quality associated with formal mentoring programs: closing the gap between research and practice. *Journal of Applied Psychology*. Vol. 91, Issue 3, pp. 567.

Allen, T.D., Eby, L.T., O'Brien, K.E. & Lentz, E. (2008) The state of mentoring research: A qualitative review of current research methods and future research implications. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*. Vol. 73, Issue 3, pg. 343.

Allen, T.D., Eby, L.T., Poteet, M.L., Lentz, E. & Lima, L. (2004) Career benefits associated with mentoring for protégés: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*. Vol. 89, Issue 1, pp. 127.

Allen, T.D. & Finkelstein, L.M. (2003) Beyond mentoring: Alternative sources and functions of developmental support. *The Career Development Quarterly*. Vol. 51, Issue 4, pp. 346

Allen, T.D., Shockley, K.M. & Poteat, L. (2010) Protégé anxiety attachment and feedback in mentoring relationships. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*. Vol. 77, Issue 1, pp. 73.

Arnold, J. (1997) Mentoring in early career. *Human Resource Management Journal*. Vol. 7, Issue 4, pp. 61

Aukett, R., Ritchie, J. & Mill, K. (1998) Gender Differences in Friendship Patterns. *Sex Roles.* Vol. 19, Issue 1/2, pp.57

Baranik, L.E., Roling, E.A. & Eby, L.T. (2010) Why does mentoring work? The role of perceived organizational support. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*. Vol. 76, Issue 3, pp. 366.

Berg, B. (2001). *Qualitative Research Methods for the Social Sciences*. Toronto: Allyn & Bacon.

Berman, E.M., West, J.P. & Richter, M.N. Jr. (2002) Workplace relations: Friendship patterns and consequences (according to managers). *Public Administration Review*. Vol. 62, Issue 2, pp. 217

Blake-Beard, S.D. (2001) Taking a hard look at formal mentoring programs. A consideration of potential challenges facing women. *The Journal of Management Development.* Vol. 20, Issue 4, pp. 331

Boyatzis, R.E. (1998). *Transforming Qualitative Data*. Thousand Oaks, Sage.

Boyd, N.G. & Taylor, R.R. (1998) A developmental approach to the examination of friendship in leader-follower relationships. Leadership Quarterly. Vol. 9. Issue 1, pp. 1-25.

Burke, R.J. & McKeen, C.A. (1990) Mentoring in organizations: Implications for women. *Journal of Business Ethics.* Vol. 9, Issue 4-5, pp.317

Casto, C., Caldwell, C. & Salazar, C.F. (2005) Creating mentoring relationships between female faculty and students in counsellor education: Guidelines for potential mentees and mentors. *Journal of Counselling and Development*. Vol. 83, Issue 3, pp. 331

Chandler, D.E. (2011) The maven of mentoring speaks: Kathy E. Kram reflects on her career and the field. *Journal of Management Inquiry*. Vol. 20, Issue 1, pp. 24-33

Chandler, D.E., Kram, K.E. & Yip, J. (2011) An ecological systems perspective on mentoring at work. *The Academy of Management Annals*. Vol. 5, Issue 1, pp. 519-570

Chao, G. (1997) Mentoring phases and outcomes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*. Vol. 51, Issue 1, pp. 15.

Charmaz, K. (2006). *Constructing Grounded Theory*. Thousand Oaks, Sage.

Chaudhuri, A., Paichayontvijit, T., & Shen, L. (2013) Gender differences in trust and trustworthiness: Individuals, single sex and mixed sex groups. *Journal of Economic Psychology*. Vol. 34, pp. 181-194.

Chun, J.U., Litzky, B.E., Sosik, J.J., Bechtold, D.C. & Godshalk, V.M. (2010) Emotional intelligence and trust in formal mentoring programs. *Group & Organization Management*. Vol. 35, Issue 4, pp. 421.

Clarke, M. (2011) Advancing women's careers through leadership development programs. *Employee Relations*. Vol. 33, Issue 5, pp. 498.

De Pillis, E., Kernochan, R., Meilich, O., Prosser, E., & Whiting, V. (2008). Are managerial gender stereotypes universal? The case of Hawai'i. *Cross Cultural Management*. Vol. 15, Issue 1, pp. 94-102.

Dittrich, M. (2015) Gender differences in trust and reciprocity: evidence from a large-scale experiment with heterogeneous subjects. *Applied Economics*. Vol. 47, Issue 36, pp. 3825-3838.

Dreher, G.F. & Ash, R.A. (1990) A comparative study of mentoring among men and women in managerial, professional and technical positions. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* Vol. 75, Issue 5, pp. 539

Eby, L.T. & Allen, T.D. (2008) Moving toward interdisciplinary dialogue in mentoring scholarship: An introduction to the Special Issue. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*. Vol. 72, Issue 2, pp. 159.

Eby, L.T., Allen, T.D., Evans, S.C., Ng, T. & DuBois, D.L. (2008) Does mentoring matter? A multidisciplinary meta-analysis comparing mentored and non-mentored individuals. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*. Vol. 72, Issue 2, pp. 254.

Eby, L.T., Butts, M.M., Durley, J. & Ragins, B.R. (2010) Are bad experiences stronger than good ones in mentoring relationships? Evidence from the protégé and the mentor perspective. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*. Vol. 77, Issue 1, pp. 81.

Eby, L.T., Durley, J.R., Evans, S.C. & Ragins, B.R. (2006) The relationship between short-term mentoring benefits and long-term mentor outcomes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*. Vol. 69, Issue 3, pp. 424.

Ehrich, L.C. (2008) Mentoring and women managers: Another look at the field. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*. Vol. 23, Issue 7, pp. 469.

Ely, R., & Padavic, I. (2007). A feminist analysis of organizational research on sex differences. *Academy of Management Review.* Vol. 32, Issue 4, pp. 1121-1143.

Ensher, E.A. & Murphy, S.E. (2011) The mentoring relationship challenges scale: The impact of mentoring stage, type and gender. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*. Vol. 79, Issue 1, pp. 253.

Ertz, M. (2015) Women trust others and consensus; Men trust numbers and their own judgment: A conceptual analysis of the impact of the self-construal mechanism on the relationship between online feedback mechanisms and online trust. *International Journal of Business and Information*. Vol. 10, Issue 3, pp. 387.

Feingold, A. (1994) Gender differences in personality: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*. Vol. 116, No. 3, pp. 429-456

Felmlee, D., Sweet, E. & Sinclair, H.C. (2012) Gender rules: Same- and cross-gender friendships norms. *Sex Roles* Vol. 66, Issue 7-8, pp. 518–529

Finkel, E.J., Rusbult, C.E., Kumashiro, M. & Hannon, P.A. (2002) Dealing with betrayal in close relationships: does commitment promote forgiveness? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. Vol. 82, Issue 6, pg. 956.

Fleig-Palmer, M.M. & Shoorman, F.D. (2011) Trust as a moderator of the relationship between mentoring and knowledge transfer. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*. Vol. 18, Issue 3, pg. 334

Fletcher, J.K. & Ragins, B.R. (2007) Stone center relational cultural theory: A window on relational mentoring. In B. R. Ragins & K. E. Kram (Eds.) *The handbook of mentoring at work: Theory, research, and practice* (pp. 373-399). Thousand Oaks, CA. Sage.

Fowler, J.F., Gudmundsson, A.J. & O'Gorman, J.G. (2007) The relationship between mentee-mentor gender combination and the provision of distinct mentoring functions. *Women in Management Review*. Vol. 22, Issue 8, pp. 666

Fox, R.L. & Schuhmann, R.A. (2000) Mentoring experiences of women city managers. Are women disadvantaged? American Review of Public Administration. Vol. 31, Issue 4, pp. 381-392

Gaia, A.C. (2002) Understanding emotional intimacy: A review of conceptualization, assessment and role of gender. International Social Science Review. Vol. 77, Issue 3-4, pp. 151

Gentry, W.A., Weber, T.J. & Sadri, G. (2008) Examining career-related mentoring and managerial performance across cultures: A multilevel analysis. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*. Vol. 72, Issue 2, pp. 241.

Gibson, S.K. (2004) Being mentored: The experience of women faculty. *Journal of Career Development*. Vol. 30, Issue 3, pp. 173

Golden-Biddle, K. & Locke, K. (2007) *Composing Qualitative Research*. Second edition. Sage Publications, California.

Green, S.G. & Bauer, T.N. (1995) Supervisory mentoring by advisers: Relationships with doctoral student potential, productivity, and commitment. *Personnel Psychology*. Vol. 48, Issue 3, pp. 537

Grey, C. & Sturdy, A. Friendship and organizational analysis. Toward a research agenda. *Journal of Management Inquiry.* Vol. 16, Issue 2, pp. 157-172.

Haggard, D.L., Dougherty, T.W., Turban, D.B. & Wilbanks, J.E. (2011) Who is a mentor? A review of evolving definitions and implications for research. *Journal of Management*. Vol. 37, Issue 1, pp. 280-304

Hale, M.M. (1992) Mentoring. In Guy, M.E. & Sharpe. M.E. (Eds.) *Women and men of the States: Public administrators at the state level*. Armonk, NY: M. E. Sharpe.

Hays, R. (1985). A longitudinal study of friendship development. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. Vol. 48, Issue 4, pp. 909–924.

Herrbach, O., Mignonac, K. & Richebé, N. (2011) Undesired side effect? The promotion of non-commitment in formal vs. informal mentorships. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*. Vol. 22, Issue 7, pp. 1554-1569

Higgins, M.C. & Kram, K.E. (2001) Reconceptualising mentoring at work: A developmental network perspective. *Academy of Management Review*. Vol. 26, Issue 2, pp. 264-288.

Ibarra, H. (1992) Homophily and differential returns: Sex differences in network structure and access in an advertising firm. *Administrative Science Quarterly*. Vol. 37, pp. 422-447

Kammeyer-Mueller, J.D. & Judge, T.A. (2008) A quantitative review of mentoring research: Test of a model. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*. Vol. 72, Issue 3, pp. 269.

Kaplan, S.E., Keinath, A.K. & Walo, J.C. (2001) An examination of perceived barriers to mentoring in public accounting. *Behavioral Research in Accounting*. Vol. 13, Issue 1, pp. 195

Kirchmeyer, C. (2005) The effects of mentoring in academic careers over time: Testing performance and political perspectives. *Human Relations.* Vol. 58, Issue 5, pp. 637-660.

Kram, K.E. (1983) Phases of the mentor relationship. *Academy of Management Journal*. Vol. 26, Issue 4, pp. 608-625

Kram, K.E. (1985) *Mentoring at work: Developmental relationships in organizational life*. Glenview, IL. Scott, Foresman.

Kram, K.E & Hall, D.T. (1986) Mentoring as an antidote to stress during corporate trauma. *Human Resource Management*. Vol. 28, Issue 4, pp. 493.

Lankau, M.J., Carlson, D.S. & Nielson, T.R. (2006) The mediating influence of role stressors in the relationship between mentoring and job attitudes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*. Vol. 68, Issue 2, pp. 308.

Le Feuvre, N. (2009) Exploring women's academic careers in cross-national perspective. Lessons for equal opportunities policies. *Equal Opportunities International.* Vol. 28, Issue 1, pp. 9.

Levesque, L.L., O'Neill, R.M., Nelson, T. & Dumas, C. (2005) Sex differences in the perceived importance of mentoring functions. *Career Development International*. Vol. 10, Issue 6/7, pp. 429

Linehan, M. & Scullion, H. (2008) The development of female global managers: The role of mentoring and networking. *Journal of Business Ethics*. Vol. 83, Issue 1, pp. 29.

Mayer. R.C., & Davis, J.H. & Schoorman, F.D. (1995) An integrative model of organizational trust. *Academy of Management Review*. Vol. 20, Issue 3, pp. 709-734.

McAllister, D.J. (1995) Affect- and cognition-based trust as foundations for interpersonal cooperation in organizations. *Academy of Management Journal*. Vol. 38, Issue 1, pp. 24-59

Miller, J. & Glassner, B. (2002) The 'inside' and the 'outside'. Finding realities in interviews. In *Qualitative Research. Theory, Method and Practice*. Ed. D. Silverman. Sage Publications

Monroe, K.R. & Chiu, W.F. (2010) Gender equality in the academy: The pipeline problem. *PS: Political Science & Politics*. Vol. 43, Issue 2, pp. 303-308.

Monserrat, S.I., Duffy, J.A., Olivas-Lujan, M.R., Miller, J.M., Gregory, A., Fox, S., Lituchy, T.R., Punnett, B.J. & Bastos F. Santos, N.M. (2009) Mentoring experiences of successful women across the Americas. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*. Vol. 24, Issue. 6, pp. 455-476

Morrison, R.L. (2009) Are women tending and befriending in the workplace? Gender differences in the relationship between workplace friendships and organizational outcomes. *Sex Roles*: *A Journal of Research.* Vol. 60, Issue 1-2, pp. 1-13.

Mullen, E.J. & Noe, R.A. (1999) The mentoring information exchange: when do mentors seek information from their protégés? *Journal of Organizational Behavior*. Vol. 20, pp. 233.

Nahum-Shani, I. & Bamberger, P.A. (2011) Work hours, retirement, and supportive relations among older adults. *Journal of Organizational Behavior. Vol*. 32, Issue 2, pp. 345.

Nemanick, R.C. (2000). Comparing formal and informal mentors: Does type make a difference? *The Academy of Management Executive*. Vol. 14, Issue 3, pp.136-138.

Nielson, T.R., Carlson, D.S. & Lankau, M.J. (2001) The supportive mentor as a means of reducing work-family conflict. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*. Vol. 59, Issue 3, pp. 364.

Noe, R.A. (1988a) An investigation of the determinants of successful assigned mentoring relationships. *Personnel Psychology*. Vol. 41, Issue 3, pp. 457

Noe, R.A. (1988b) Women and mentoring: A review and research agenda. *Academy of Management Review*. Vol. 13, Issue 1, pp. 65.

O'Brien, K.E., Biga, A., Kessler, S.R. & Allen, T.D. (2010) A meta-analytic investigation of gender differences in mentoring. *Journal of Management.* Vol. 36, Issue 2, pp. 537

Ortiz-Walters, R., & Gilson, L.L. (2005) Mentoring in academia: An examination of the experiences of protégés of color. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*. Vol. 67, Issue 3, pp. 459-475.

Patton, M. (2001) *Qualitative Research & Evaluation Methods*. 3rd edition, Sage.

Poteat, L.F., Shockley, K.M. & Allen, T.D. (2009) Mentor-protégé commitment fit and relationship satisfaction in academic mentoring. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*. Vol. 74, Issue 3, pp. 332–337.

Ragins, B.R. & Cotton, J.L. (1991) Easier said than done: Gender differences in perceived barriers to gaining a mentor. *Academy of Management Journal.* Vol. 34, Issue 4, pp. 939

Ragins, B.R. & Cotton, J.L. (1993) Gender and willingness to mentor in organizations. *Journal of Management*. Vol. 19, Issue 1, pp. 97-111.

Ragins, B.R. & Cotton, J.L. (1999) Mentor functions and outcomes: A comparison of men and women in formal and informal mentoring relationships. Journal of Applied Psychology. Vol. 84, Issue 4, pp. 529-550

Ragins, B.R. & Scandura, T.A. (1994) Gender differences in expected outcomes of mentoring relationships. *Academy of Management Journal.* Vol. 37, Issue 4, pp. 957

Ramaswami, A., Dreher, G.F., Bretz, R., & Wiethoff, C. (2010) Gender, mentoring, and career success: The importance of organizational context. *Personnel Psychology*. Vol. 63, Issue 2, pp. 385-405.

Richard, O.C., Ismail, K.M., Bhuian, S.N. & Taylor, E.C. (2009) Mentoring in supervisor-subordinate dyads: Antecedents, consequences and test of mediation model of mentorship. *Journal of Business Research*. Vol. 62, Issue 11, pp. 1110

Rose, G.L. (2003) Enhancement of mentor selection using the Ideal Mentor Scale. *Research in Higher Education.* Vol. 44, Issue 4, pp. 473-494

Rousseau, D.M., Sitkin, S.B., Burt, R.S. and Camerer, C. (1998) Not so different after all: A cross-discipline view of trust. *Academy of Management Review*. Vol. 23, Issue 3, pp. 383-404.

Russell, J.E.A. & Adams, D.M. (1997) The changing nature of mentoring in organizations: An introduction to the special issue on mentoring in organizations. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*. Vol. 51, Issue 1, pp. 1-14.

Scandura, T.A. & Ragins, B.R. (1993) The effects of sex and gender role orientations on mentoring in male-dominated occupations. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*. Vol. 43, Issue 3, pp. 251-265

Scott, K.A. & Brown, D.J. (2006) Female first, leader second? Gender bias in the encoding of leadership behaviour. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processe*s. Vol. 101, Issue 2, pp. 230–242

Shelton, J.N., Trail, T.E., West, T.V. & Bergsieker H.B. (2010) From strangers to friends: The interpersonal process model of intimacy in developing interracial friendships. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*. Vol. 27, Issue 1, pp. 71

Singh, R., Ragins, B.R. & Tharenou, P. (2009) Who gets a mentor? A longitudinal assessment of the rising star hypothesis. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*. Vol. 74, Issue 1, pp. 11

Stevens, N.L. & Van Tilburg, T.G. (2011) Cohort differences in having and retaining friends in personal networks in later life. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*. Vol. 28, Issue 1, pp. 24-43.

Todd, P. & Bird, D. (2000) Gender and promotion in academia. *Equal Opportunities International.* Vol. 19, Issue 8, pp. 1.

Van Emmerik, H.I.J. (2008) It is not only mentoring. The combined influences of individual-level and team-level support on job performance. *Career Development International.* Vol. 13, Issue 7, pp. 575

Wanberg, C.R., Kammeyer-Mueller, J. & Marchese, M. (2006) Mentor and protégé predictors and outcomes of mentoring in a formal mentoring program. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*. Vol. 69, Issue 3, pp. 410.

Washington, C.E. (2011) Mentoring, organizational rank, and women's perceptions of advancement opportunities in the workplace. *International Journal of Business and Social Science.* Vol. 2, Issue 9, pp. 162-178

Weinberg, F.J. & Lankau, M.J. (2011) Formal mentoring programs: A mentor-centric and longitudinal analysis. *Journal of Management.* Vol. 37, Issue 6, pp. 1527-1557

Whitley, B. (2002). *Principles of research in behavioral science*. Second edition, Mountain View, CA: Mayfield.

Yukl, G. (2006). *Leadership in Organizations* (6th ed.). Chapter 13: Developing leadership skills. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Appendix 1

Interview Protocol Study 1

Thank you for participating in my research interview. The purpose of my research is to understand mentoring relationships in academia. Therefore, the questions in this interview will focus on your experiences and perceptions regarding being a mentor and/or a protégé. This interview should take approximately 1 hour.

Introduction

- If you had to think of someone who has had an influence in your career, who would come to mind? How has he/she made an impact? Can you think of somebody else that has been important for your professional development?
- How would you define a mentor?

Being a Protégé

- Do you have a mentor right now within your organization? Outside the organization? Tell me about your relationship. How did it come about? What kinds of things do you do together, what does he/she do for you?
- Have you had a mentor previously during your career as an academician? Tell me about that relationship, how it came about, what that person did for you, what kinds of things you did together?
- How do you think having/not having a mentor has had an influence in your career?
- Can you talk about the pros and/or cons that having/not having a mentor has had in your career development?

Being a Mentor

- What about experiences you've had as a mentor to someone else? Are you mentoring someone right now within the organization? Outside the organization? Tell me about that relationship, how it came about, what you do for that person, what kinds of things you do together?

- What about other experiences of being a mentor?
- What, in your opinion, does it take to mentor someone? What are the positives and negatives of being a mentor to someone?
- Have you ever considered why you do/don't have protégés?
- Do you think some of your students could see you as a mentor even if you don't see them as protégés?

Conclusion

- Do you know of colleagues who have (or have had) a mentor? How do you think having a mentor has had an impact in their careers?
- Do you know of colleagues who have (or have had) a protégé? What are your impressions of what that experience was like?
- If you could have a mentor who provided you with exactly what you think you need/want in your career, what would he or she be like or do, what would the relationship be like?

Appendix 2

Interview Protocol Study 2

Thank you for participating in this study. The purpose of this research is to understand mentoring relationships in the workplace. Therefore, the questions in this interview will focus on your experiences as a protégé. This interview should take less than one hour.

Introduction

- How long have you worked for the company? What are the main advantages and disadvantages of working for this company? Can you tell me about your previous positions in the company? Can you describe current your job? Which are your responsibilities? How long have you been in this position?
- If you had to think of someone who has had an influence in your career in this company, who would come to mind? How has he/she made an impact? Can you think of somebody else that has been important for your professional development?
- How would you define a mentor?

Successful Experiences with Mentors

- Think about your relationships with mentors. Do you have a mentor right now within your organization? Tell me about this relationship. How did it come about? What about past mentorships?
- What factors have helped you develop these mentorships?

Unsuccessful Experiences with Mentors

- Now think about relationships that you wish had but did not develop into mentorships. Do any come to mind? Tell me about this experience. Why did you want this person to become your mentor? At what point did you notice that the relationship was not developing into a mentorship?

- What factors impeded you from developing a mentorship with these people?

Conclusion

- Can you talk about the pros and/or cons that having/not having a mentor has had in your career development?
- What factors do you think are needed for a mentorship to develop?
- If you could have a mentor who provided you with exactly what you think you need/want in your career, what would he or she be like or do, what would the relationship be like?
- Is there anything else about mentoring that we haven't discussed and that you would like to mention?