DIMENSIONS OF MENTORING RELATIONSHIPS IN THE WORKPLACE:

A HOLISTIC PERSPECTIVE

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Abstract

This was an exploratory study to understand the lived experience of those involved in mentoring relationships within a formal mentoring program in a corporate context. The researcher looked for rich detail about the nature of the relationship from the perspective of the mentor and mentee. To achieve a holistic perspective, the experience of organizational managers was deliberately included in the research. Exploration of this triadic relationship of mentor, mentee, and organizational manager has been neglected in the empirical literature. An exploration of where meaning intersected and diverged among the triad relationship members gave depth to the dimensional frame. Findings suggested that the lack of a holistic approach to mentoring in the workplace may be creating counterproductive mentoring participant behaviors. Values misalignment may be creating cultural miscues that potentially misdirect mentoring program design and policies. Findings pointed to the need for increased integration of mentoring, leadership development, cultural transformation, and organizational learning initiatives in order to better serve the aims of the corporation and increase the capacity of the workforce. The qualitative paradigm was followed for this research. Grounded theory dimensional analysis was employed to discover the dimensions of mentoring important to participants. Open-ended interview techniques allowed the participants to express their experiences in their own words. A research team experienced in the tools and techniques of this research approach collaboratively analyzed the data. As theoretical propositions emerged they were explored via a theoretical sampling method. The basic social process of mentoring

among the three members of the mentoring triad and other human and non-human actors was illustrated. Metaphorical and theoretical models were developed that illustrated the participants' perspectives on the interrelated and interdependent parts of the ancient human activity system we call mentoring.

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Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Illustrations

Introduction

Mentoring has become a “chameleon of opportunity” (E. L. Holloway, personal communication, 2005) within the modern workplace. With U.S. businesses spending upwards of $30 billion per year on formal training programs, which only account for five to nine percent of required employee learning (Tannenbaum, 1997), combined with the bulge of retirements looming from the baby-boom generation, businesses are searching for ways to protect their corporate knowledge, grow the knowledge base of new entrants into the workforce, increase capacity, and lower costs. Mentoring seems to be the right answer at the right time. The question to ask is whether corporations really understand this chameleon so they can take full advantage of the opportunity it appears to offer.

Over the last two decades, mentoring programs have been seized upon as learning development solutions by over 77% of the top 100 corporations that excel in human capital development (Training Magazine, 2003). Much like a chameleon, mentoring programs and those involved in mentoring relationships are significantly influenced by environmental conditions (Kram, 1988; Zachary, 2005). In turn, “mentoring can make a significant contribution to the transformation of organizational culture” (Holloway & Shoop, 2006, p. 5). This reciprocal influence relationship between mentoring and the culture of the workplace has not received much attention, and, to some extent, the high-value business case for mentoring is hidden in plain sight. Certainly the role of mentor as transfer agent of the culture (Wilson & Elman, 1990) is not yet broadly acknowledged, while the organizational manager, who still has responsibility for both cultural socialization and career development of employees, is often excluded from mentoring

program designs. An explanation for this paradoxical situation may well rest with the lack of a systemic or holistic perspective relative to mentoring in the workplace.

The remainder of this chapter describes this researcher's attempt to approach the study of mentoring in the workplace more holistically. First, I describe my personal positioning or "stance" relative to the subject of mentoring. I then identify the purpose of the study and address why it is important to study the dimensions of mentoring in a business context from a more holistic perspective. I suggest that a gap in the literature exists that will be filled by this study. I state the specific problem or question to be investigated in the study, and then briefly summarize the content of subsequent chapters.

Situating the Researcher

I have experienced the transformational power of a mentoring relationship. As I began this doctoral research project, I was fortunate to have people in my life who were my mentors and who have worked closely with me, guiding me in this journey. But, as with a first love, my first mentor shines in my memory. What he shared with me, and especially the way he shared, changed my life. When I met him, I was struggling as a single mother in a low paying job in a typing pool in a large engineering and manufacturing corporation in California that built military equipment. He plucked me out of that environment and parachuted me into the profession of engineering technical writer at a time when there were no women that I knew of in the profession. It was a profession that you could not go to school to learn; most engineering writers were former military men who were familiar with the equipment or engineers who had designed or worked on the equipment. My mentor arranged for me to apprentice with him. I worked side-by-side with him on a daily basis for several years. He initiated me into the mysteries of decoding

the signs and symbols on engineering drawings. He taught me to visualize three-dimensional objects from two-dimensional lines on a page. He removed the strange feel and smell of mechanical objects by having me tear apart and rebuild mechanical systems using only engineering drawings and “exploded parts” manuals as guides. In this way, he introduced me to a “user’s experience” of the manuals that I would write in the future. He taught me how to see whole assemblies from component pieces and how to write a technical manual using the rich data that was hidden in plain sight within drawings and technical specifications. He taught me how to manage large technical writing projects, with hundreds of physically disbursed participants, before the technology of “virtual meetings” and computer software enabled this type of collaboration. Most importantly, he shared with me his genius about how to think about dense and complex information, how to absorb it, organize it, maintain it, and repurpose it. He changed my life. In return, I learned deeply, supported him and his work until he retired, cared for him when he became ill, and buried him when he passed on. Our loving and learning relationship spanned less than six years, but I continue to honor his “gift” (Mauss, 1924). What my first mentor shared with me eventually led me to my current life. My relationship with him was the turning point that determined all that came after. There is no doubt that I was transformed by this experience. I was “different afterwards, in ways both [I] and others [could] recognize” (Brown & Posner, 2001, 274).

As I performed my doctoral research into the mentoring relationship, my first mentor was always at my shoulder. His soft, patient voice was always in my ears, his gentle encouragement sustained me, and his high expectations of my work guided my actions. My personal experience of the magic possible in mentoring relationships is a bias

I brought to this research. I "learned the meaning of the term 'professional' by observing [a] professional in action" (Bova & Phillips, 1984, 19). I engaged in what Hardcastle (1988) called a "significant" relationship, and experienced what Parkay (1988) referred to as the "inner aspects" of mentoring. I know its life-changing power.

In recent years, I have also engaged in formal corporate mentoring programs as both a mentor and a mentee, and I have been an organizational manager of mentors and mentees. I understand the value that can be shared despite the absence of a deep and lasting relationship such as I experienced with my first mentor. I acknowledge that a mentoring relationship in the workplace, which often has only skill-building intentions, can hold significant value for the participants. In this sense, I have experienced the distance between the poles of the mentoring relationship. This allowed me to hold a more neutral position somewhere in the center of the broad spectrum of possibilities of mentoring experiences.

What I have not experienced is any negative behavior or outcomes in mentoring, although the literature addresses the "shadow side" of mentoring (Eby, McManus, Simon, & Russell, 2000; Ragins, 1997; Scandura, 1998), and people (all women) have informally shared some of their negative experiences with me. What is more pertinent to this study is that I had not observed supervisors of those in mentoring relationships engage in the process or provide any significant support. Perspectives of managers, relative to the mentoring relationships of their employees, are given little attention in the literature. Even when I was an organizational manager myself, I did not engage with, and only in very inconsequential ways supported the activities of those under my management who were engaging in mentoring relationships. As I reflected on this behavior, I wondered

why. At the time, I encouraged people to engage in available mentoring programs, even shared my personal experiences of mentoring, but never engaged in or supported the relationships once they were initiated. Other than in polite conversation, I never inquired into my employees' experiences or offered assistance or encouragement. I did not know to what extent my actions mirrored the actions of my peer managers, as we never discussed the subject. There was no formal mentoring program offered for managers, either to learn how to become better mentors or to find mentors for themselves. I knew of no managers who had recent experiences of being mentored. I was never able to obtain a mentor while I was in management, despite multiple attempts. Once I left management, however, I sought and found many opportunities for mentoring within the technical ranks both within the formal corporate mentoring program and informally, within my technical community.

These diverse experiences relative to the dynamics of mentoring made me curious about the different dimensions of mentoring relationships. When I looked to the literature, I found few studies that addressed the mentoring relationship in the context of a corporate culture. Kram's (1988) "open system perspective" (p. 15) and Zachary's practical organization's guide (2005) were two standouts. Those researchers that explored the subject of mentoring from the perspectives of both the mentor and mentee (e.g., Dalton, Thompson, & Price, 1977; Kram, 1980, 1983; Kram & Isabella, 1985; Reich, 1985; Willbur, 1987) did not involve the organizational manager's perspective. I found only two studies from the domain of business that engaged managers of those in mentoring relationships in the research design (Nolinske, 1994, and Jinadu, 2006). Nolinske's study was focused more on the value-equation of mentoring than on the

relationship dimensions. Jinadu's study focused on identifying the personal characteristics related to the receipt of mentoring in organizations and explored the extent to which immediate supervisors engaged in developmental mentoring. Neither study explored the experiences of the mentoring triad (mentor, mentee, and organizational manager), nor the intersections of meaning that emerged from the three perspectives, relative to the mentoring relationship.

Organizational culture was addressed in several studies (Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, & McKee, 1978; Kram, 1980, 1983; Noe 1988b; Yeager, 1986), but again, the cultural context explored in these studies did not specifically include the managerial role as a dimension of the mentoring relationship. This apparent lack of holistic study of mentoring relationships in the workplace was interesting to me. The discovery of this apparent gap in the literature and my personal sense that I had failed to support mentoring pairs when I was a manager, ultimately led me to pursue a study that would explore the nature of the mentoring relationship from a more holistic perspective.

My familiarity with the culture of the research participants was gained from over 20 years of shared work experiences. Of those years, I worked 10 years within the Engineering organization, interacting on a daily basis with engineers and information technology professionals as a peer, both in the factory and as a manager in an office environment. For the last 10 years, I have served the engineering community as my direct customer and have engaged with them as users of the information systems I design. As a computing systems architect I work closely with engineers, scientists, and their technical peers and management. These experiences have given me rich perspectives on the

behavior, priorities, expectations, and operating characteristics of this at once diverse and homogeneous community of practice.

An important part of my preparation for this study came from my background in information systems design, which relies on a systems perspective. “A systems approach to design integrates the analytic (or digital) thinking with analogic thinking” (Nelson & Stolterman, 2003, p.19). The requirement of the dimensional analysis method to capture context, processes, attributes, and meaning is exactly the approach for understanding how to design the architecture for an information system within a complex and dynamic business environment. Schatzman’s (1991) overarching question to be addressed by the dimensional analyst in grounded theory research (What all is involved here?) is exactly the question that an information systems architect brings to the context of information systems design. The requirements of systems architecture are to know the business context, the strategies in play, the performance objectives, the key business processes to be supported, the information objects of interest and their attributes and meaning, and the current interrelationships operating between major elements of the environment and how they will change and impact the existing work environment. All contextual issues must be understood, designated or labeled, and then modeled before design commences. Interviews and analysis of interview data is often the only way to obtain this information. The need to discover the meaning of interactions (Schatzman, 1991) is at the heart of design, as it is center stage in grounded theory research.

Statement of the Problem

Mentoring has been called a “holistic and fluid concept that attends to professional, corporate, and personal development” (Stead, 2005, p. 172) but mentoring

in the workplace is often understood and practiced as “off-line help” (Clutterbuck & Megginson, 1999) outside the main stream of daily work. Even within the context of formal corporate mentoring programs, mentoring activities remain informal in the sense that there are few formal structures, little ongoing support for those engaged in mentoring relationships, and, typically, little accountability in terms of metrics or measures of individual outcomes from mentoring.

The focus of my research was to consider the experience of those in mentoring relationships within a formal mentoring program in a specific corporate context. Whereas traditional informal mentoring relationships may involve only the mentor and mentee in the mentoring experience, formal mentoring programs within a corporate context suggest the involvement, to some extent, of the organizational managers of the mentor and mentee, as illustrated in Figure 1.

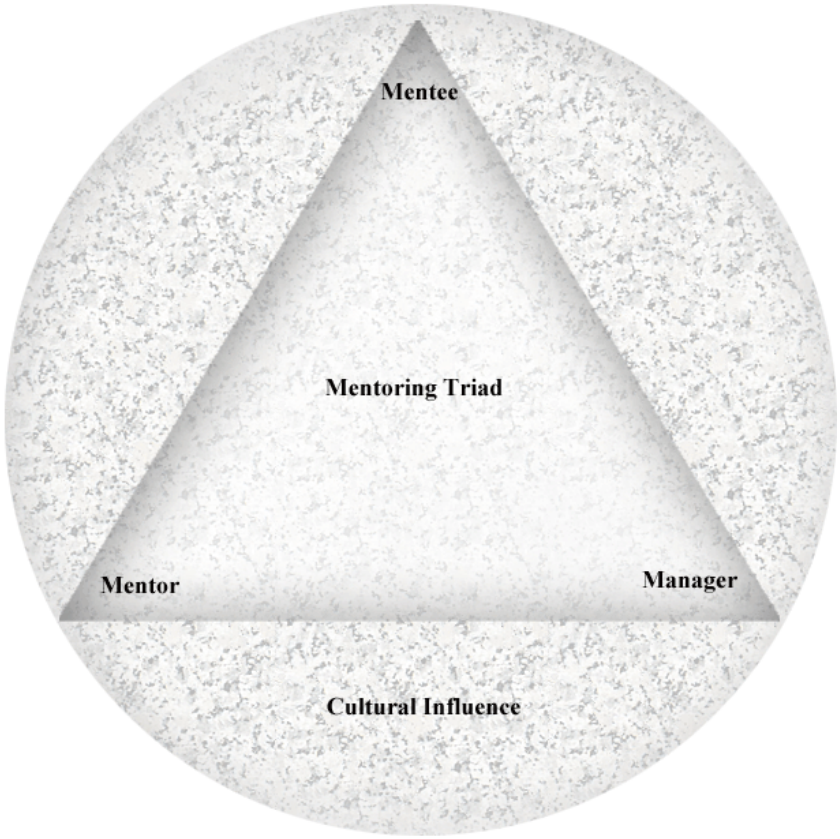


Figure 1.1. The Mentoring Triad in a Corporate Cultural Context

In the mentoring program that is considered in this study, the organizational managers of the mentor and mentee are invited to attend mentoring training classes where they are instructed in the business value of mentoring and the potential time commitment required of mentoring. As time management of employee resources is a major responsibility of supervisors in the business environment, the positioning of the manager relative to the resource investment by either the mentor or mentee in the mentoring relationship is a dynamic that is potentially critical to mentoring outcomes. As well, an understanding, or lack of understanding, of the potential benefits of mentoring relationships to the organization and the corporation by organizational management may be a factor in the mentoring experience. The manager must agree to allow his or her

employee(s) to participate in mentoring and to support the time commitment. As well, employees use formal instruments to map out their career and/or personal development goals that they use in their performance reviews with their managers. The goals they set within the context of their mentoring relationship often correspond to what they include in their personal development plans. The performance evaluation, the main instrument for employee performance appraisal, includes a section on leadership attributes where mentoring experiences are sometimes documented as evidence of the employee's pursuit of or demonstration of leadership.

For all these reasons, the triadic relationship between the mentor, the mentee, and their respective managers may be an important element in the research of mentoring relationships in the business domain. My personal experience as a mentor, mentee, organizational manager, and teacher in a formal mentoring program suggests that the role of managers is important to the mentoring experience and should be included as an element of research.

Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of this study was to explore the experiences of participants in mentoring relationships within formal mentoring programs in a corporate setting. The mentoring relationship, when formalized through corporate mentoring program structures, extends the traditional dyadic form of mentor and mentee relationship to include managers. The purpose of the study was to understand the dimensions of mentoring relationships in the workplace and to deliberately include the perspectives of the organizational managers in the analysis. This triadic relationship and its influence on

the mentoring experiences of participants have remained largely unexplored in the research literature.

Since the late 1970s, interest in mentoring in the workplace has steadily increased. When mentoring was first brought into the spotlight, it was predominantly engaged in by men in management for the purposes of succession planning and career development (Russell & Adams, 1997). As women and minorities began entering the workforce in record numbers, the picture began to change.

> As the workforce composition becomes more diversified, organizations need to focus on ways to develop all of their employees and help them advance . . . Since the Office of Federal Contract concluded that organizational barriers, including lack of mentoring, impede women and minorities from obtaining upper management positions, they have become central targets for mentorships in organizations. (Russell & Adams, 1997, p. 6)

Mentoring programs for people with disabilities and the unemployed (Overell, 1996) have also been pioneered. Many of the top-ranking Northern American businesses now include mentoring as an important component of their organizational culture.

> In a recent ranking of the top 100 U.S. organizations that excel in human capital development [it was found that] seventy-seven per cent of the companies in the top 100 have formal mentoring programs. Not surprising when considering that mentoring significantly contributes to career development, retention and leadership succession. (Training Magazine, 2003)

As the U.S. labor force becomes increasingly diverse and the multinational nature of corporations expands, research documenting the changing nature of mentoring relationships becomes more critical (Eby, 1997; Ragins, 1997). “It will be important to understand the factors in these new organizations which facilitate or inhibit the formation and effectiveness of mentoring relationships” (Russell & Adams, 1997, p. 11). The need

to build supportive alliances, such as those experienced in mentoring relationships, may increase

> …for those who are working in stressful and uncertain circumstances. . . . The possibility that the motivation to form mentoring alliances may increase during times of distress is encouraging, given the significant challenges posed by rapid technological change, increasing global competition, restructuring, and downsizing. (Kram & Hall, 1989, p. 499)

My research offers to understand these factors and document the perspectives from those who have participated in mentoring relationships during a time of profound organizational change within their professions and within their business context.

Research Questions

This study researched the mentoring experiences of Information Technology, Engineering, and other technical professionals who had experience as mentors, mentees, and/or organizational managers of mentors and/or mentees in a business domain, in the context of a formal corporate mentoring program. What I wanted to understand was:

RQ1: What all is going on with regard to the relationships of technical professionals who are mentors, mentees, and managers in the context of a formal corporate mentoring program?

RQ2: What are the dimensions of mentoring relationships that are grounded in the experience of the mentor, mentee, and organizational manager?

My main research question put to mentees and mentors was: What was your experience of mentoring? A similar but slightly different perspective was asked of organizational managers: What was your experience of having people who report to you engaged in mentoring relationships?

Literature Review

The purpose of the literature review (Chapter 2) was to provide an overview of the different perspectives on mentoring evidenced in the literature. My intention was to understand the social construction of mentoring by analyzing its multiple dimensions as documented in the textual record across time and in multiple contexts. The trans-disciplinary literature review encompassed empirical and non-empirical literature from the fields of business, education, psychology, sociology, health care, counseling and supervision, management and leadership, anthropology, world history, history of education, and religion and spirituality. This comprehensive exploration of the meaning of mentoring served as foundational knowledge to my narrowed investigation of the experience of mentoring in a business setting within a particular corporation within a subset of employees who engaged in a corporate-sponsored mentoring program.

Methodology

As it was the personal experience and perceived meaning of the mentoring relationship to individual participants that was of prime importance in this research, the qualitative paradigm was followed. A grounded theory model was employed, using dimensional analysis to explore the data. Engineers and technical professionals who had participated in a corporation's formal mentoring program and supervisors of those engaged in mentoring were the participants in this study.

I followed the tenets of the qualitative research paradigm for this study. The generation of grounded theory from the interview data in this study was enriched through the use of dimensional analysis (Schatzman, 1991), which provided "specific analytic processes involved in the definition and interpretation of data that lead to theory

building" (Kools, McCarthy, Durham, & Robrecht, 1996, p. 313). "A dimension is an abstract concept with associated properties that provide quantitative or qualitative parameters or modifiers for the purpose of description" (p. 316). Dimensionalizing of research data attempts to answer the question "What all is involved here?" (Schatzman, 1991).

"The discovery process is central to grounded theory research" (Bowers, 1988, p. 46). In this study, data was gathered from three sets of phenomena: the expressed experiences of mentors, mentees, and managers. Ongoing analysis of the literature, question/concept generation, and data collection and analysis occurred simultaneously and guided the interview questions and sample selection. As data were collected and analyzed, the research team collaboratively analyzed the data, and conceptual development unfolded. This, in turn, led to changes in data collected and subjects sampled. Only formal interviews were used to collect data.

Findings, Conceptual Models, and Theoretical Propositions

Chapter 4 lays out the relevant findings from the research study punctuated by direct quotes from the participants. Chapter 5 offers both metaphorical and theoretical models to illustrate the dimensions of the mentoring experience as described by the research participants. The models represent the theoretical propositions that emerged from the study. They illustrate the core and primary dimensions of mentoring as dynamic and flexible elements of a whole system placed in the context of the culture. The findings detailed in Chapter 4 are situated in the mentoring literature in Chapter 5.

Executive Summary, Limitations, Implications, Conclusions

Chapter 6 offers a high-level overview of the research as performed, the rationale for the study, the critical findings, and implications that are relevant from a business or practitioner perspective. The limitations address the transferability, confirmability, credibility, and trustworthiness of the study. Implications for research are identified and final conclusions drawn.

Summary

It was important to me to approach my research into the experience of people involved in mentoring relationships in the workplace from a holistic perspective. From my personal experiences and from the extensive trans-disciplinary literature review, I understood that although the mentoring literature was extensive, an important element had been left out of the research into mentoring in the workplace. That missing element was the role and experiences of organizational managers. As well, the research on mentoring tended to be largely focused on outcomes and the instrumentalities of what, how, and why. I was more interested in the "nuances of this complex construct" (E. L. Holloway, personal communication, 2004) we call mentoring. I wanted to explore the intersections of meaning among the three major actors in the theatre of mentoring in the workplace: the mentor, the mentee, and the organizational manager. I wanted to understand how these three players interrelate, where the meaning they make from mentoring is shared and where it diverges, and how the corporate culture intervenes in the drama.

The reciprocal influence relationship between mentoring and the culture of the workplace has not received much attention in the mentoring literature, and to some extent

the high-value business case for mentoring is hidden in plain sight. The role of mentor as "transfer agent of the culture" (Wilson & Elman, 1990) is not yet broadly acknowledged while the relationship between mentoring and leadership is an emergent phenomenon. The traditional role of the organizational manager is increasingly one of leader rather than manager of the work. New management paradigms focus more on cultural socialization and career development of employees, tasks that bleed into the expected behavior of mentors. Yet, observation and received knowledge indicated that the manager is subtly excluded from mentoring program designs. These conditions may prove counterproductive to the aims of corporate mentoring programs. The apparent misalignment of values may well rest with the lack of a systemic or holistic perspective relative to mentoring in the workplace.

Ragins, Cotton, and Miller (2000) suggested that mentoring "relationships are far more complex and intriguing than [they] originally hypothesized" (p. 1183). Approaching mentoring research from a holistic paradigm allowed this research to go beyond prior studies to uncover the hidden human dynamics that are in play but not acknowledged in the mentoring literature. This research revealed the organizational manager as a "ghost in the machine" (Ryle, 1949): present, but not acknowledged; visible, but not engaged; influential, but not accountable. The implications for research and practice suggest that the design of mentoring programs may need to be adjusted to ensure values alignment between the individual and the corporation and to understand the influence of the culture on the participants in mentoring relationships in order to reap the promised rewards from mentoring in the workplace.

Review of the Literature

Introduction

The purpose of this literature review was to clarify the meaning of the concept of mentoring as preparation for research into mentoring relationships in a corporate setting. My intention was to understand the social construction of the concept of mentoring by analyzing its multiple dimensions as documented in the textual record across time and in multiple contexts. The trans-disciplinary literature review encompassed empirical and non-empirical literature from the fields of business, education, psychology, sociology, health care, counseling and supervision, management and leadership, anthropology, history, and religion and spirituality. Some books and articles included in this literature review, such as anthropological works, were not written to directly address the practice of mentoring but these were included to expand the scope of what is traditionally thought of as the practice of mentoring and have been important in my personal conceptualization and dimensionalization of this ancient human behavior.

Mentoring Contexts

Daloz (1999) lit an eternal flame in the mentoring literature when he gave voice to the "sacred archetype" of mentoring and named it as a "capacity to illuminate a role of often-hidden yet rare power in the drama of human development" (p. xxiv). "An archetype is the most symbolic, universal psychological image of a character type known to man" (Mitroff, 1983, p. 387). As Daloz argued, there is "something essentially human about this passionate and fertile relationship" (1999, p. xxiv). My research supports this position and offers the argument that Mentor is an archetype that in one form or another is found in all human societies.

As far back as we have tracked the human record, there is evidence that human beings have engaged in the unique practice of knowledge exchange that is at the heart of mentoring behavior. The "oldest book in the world" (Hilliard, Williams, & Damali, 1987) documents the *Instruction of Ptah-Hotep*, the oldest complete example of the Egyptian genre *Instructions of Wisdom,* which records the words from the Vizier Ptah-Hotep to his son (circa 2388 B.C.E. in the 5th Egyptian Dynasty) about being a leader and a man of peace. Among many other instructions, the old man admonished his son, "No one is born wise" (Lichtheim, 1975, p. 63). "This is a matter of teaching a person to speak to posterity" (p. 73). Ptah-Hotep's words "touch upon the most important aspects of human relations and . . . the basic virtues" (p. 62). This ancient manuscript is a testament to the tradition of passing on knowledge from parent to child, from elder to youth, from teacher to student, and represents the earliest extant example of the model of learning we have come to call *mentoring*.

From the priests in the Egyptian temples in the Dynastic Period, to the desert monks of the 3rd and 4th centuries, to the Christian monasteries of Europe, mentoring is at the core of our Western religious systems. From the guilds of the Middle Ages, to apprenticeships of the 18th and 19th centuries, to current day schools and businesses, mentoring is the model for our learning systems. From ancient hunter-gatherer societies to modern indigenous tribes, from the first civilizations to 21st century urban jungles, mentoring has always served as "purposive social action" (Ingold, Riches, & Woodburn, 1988, p. 274). Educational history from the Egyptian civilization indicates that stone masons and other artisans passed on their crafts using the apprenticeship system in much the same way that guild craftsmen of the Middle Ages transferred their knowledge to the

next generation (Eby & Arrowood, 1940). The role of tutor/mentor was essential to ancient learning systems. Learning in the palaces of the Pharaohs was via a system of tutors (called father nurses) who educated future kings via a personal one-on-one learning relationship (Petrie, 1970). In ancient societies, the exchange of information was seen as a "gift" (Mauss, 1924). Gehrke (1988) identified mentoring as a "vehicle for cohesiveness in the culture" (p. 191) through his studies of Hyde (1979) and Mauss (1924) who described systems of exchange within social groups. The concept of "sharing one another" (Ingold et al., 1988, p. 285) that is basic survival behavior in hunter-gatherer societies can be seen as a metaphor for mentoring. "History is replete with examples of great mentor/protégé relationships" (Bushardt, Fretwell, & Holdnak, 1991, p. 618). "Ancient Indian history from 300 B.C.E. tells of Kautilya Chanaka who guided young Chandrugupta, an exiled nobleman, to become one of the most romantic figures in Indian history" (p. 619). Greek history's most famous mentoring story is that of Aristotle's guidance of Alexander the Great. Mythology tells of "Merlyn, the magician who mentored young King Arthur, heralding the significance of this [mentoring] relationship and its impact on civilization" (p. 620). Records from the Renaissance period indicate that mentoring was the most commonly accepted method of educating young people (Wickman, 1997). Hollywood's love affair with the mentor-archetype is well known. Obi-Wan Kenobi and Yoda, arguably the most famous mentors of the 20th century, guided Luke Skywalker "through his transition into adulthood, confirming his value, challenging his ability, and reminding him of his destiny" (Daloz, 1999, p. 204).

Mentoring behavior forms a cultural bridge within and between our diverse social and cultural systems and has been an instrument of human learning and development

since the earliest recorded history (Eby & Arrowood, 1940). This *steady state* of mentoring form and function continues to be practiced today much as it was thousands of years ago. Yet, like all things human, mentoring has morphed over time, taking on dimensions and adapting to changing circumstances in the dance of life. There is some suggestion in the literature that a fundamental change in mentoring behavior over time came with the introduction of literacy into culture (Eby & Arrowood, 1940; Greenfield, Maynard, & Childs, 1997; Morell, 1985; Pannabecker, 1989). This suggestion of a relationship between mentoring as a self-conscious act and the written word allows us to consider why one form of mentoring may be more relevant to one era or set of constraints, while a different time and place may evolve a different model of mentoring. This may allow us to say something useful about how these differing forms may apply differentially in our time (L. A. Daloz, personal communication, 2004).

The empirical mentoring literature attests to the new dimensions of mentoring that emerged beginning in the early 20th century to meet the accelerated learning needs of the modern worker. The first documented corporate mentoring program was initiated by J. C. Penney to enable management development and corporate growth.

> In 1901, [James Cash Penney] and his backers evolved a system in which the manager-partner of each dry goods store in the chain selected and trained a man who could then be sent out to found another store. Penney believed that the manager who trained good men would profit commercially from the protégé's success and spiritually by guiding others to a good and useful life. (Roche, 1979, p. 24)

Odiorne (1985) suggested that formal one-on-one mentoring is an "American innovation" (p. 63) created to bring more equity to the leadership ranks as more women and minorities graduated from college and entered the workforce. Traditions of sponsorship and management succession planning were expressions more of favoritism than

developmental opportunities. Kanter (1977) was one of the first to bring to light the use of sponsorship to allow favored protégés to obtain inside information and get around the organizational bureaucracy in their rise to the top. This “power by association” (Campion & Goldfinch, 1983) ran up against increasing focus on equity in hiring decisions and laws against favoritism in the placement of employees within the workplace. By 1978, Shapiro, Haseltine, and Rowe were arguing that mentors generally had more organizational power than sponsors and that sponsoring was beginning to be seen as a sub-function of mentoring.

Because mentoring is often deeply embedded in workplace culture, shifts in mentoring practices occurred right along with changes in workplace demographics, organizational restructuring, and work redesign. By the mid to late 20th century, mentoring had become institutionalized as an organizational and workplace cultural process (Cox, 1994), supported at the highest levels of management. By the 1990s, the traditional concept of mentoring broadened and interest in other forms of mentoring relationships, such as peer and team mentoring increased (Eby, 1997) where “horizontal ties between peers [replaced] vertical ties as channels of activity and communication” (Kanter, 1989, p. 85). This interest in lateral rather than hierarchical mentoring may have also been driven by the flattening of the organizational hierarchy that came with efforts to re-engineer corporate business processes and lean out the enterprise, which had the effect of reducing the number of senior managers available for developmental roles.

Human connections formed in the workplace have a significant effect on people’s ways of thinking and being because of the large amount of time people spend in the modern workplace. The mentoring literature reveals that researchers have noticed this

phenomenon. Alternative descriptions to traditional mentoring relationships have multiplied (Levy, 2003) and researchers have sought to rename the phenomenon of mentoring in order to uniquely identify the set of behaviors being observed and experienced in work situations. In 1996, Thibodeaux and Lowe drew parallels between Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory (Graen, 1976) in regard to the "in-group" and mentoring, while Scandura and Schriesheim (1994) saw mentoring and in-group relationships as forms of transformational leadership. In 2003, Dutton and Heaphy introduced the term "high-quality connection" (HQC), which they described as "connective tissue between individuals . . . that allows the transfer of vital nutrients" (p. 263). They described this connection as involving mutual awareness and social interaction where there is both a temporal (short-term or long-term) and an emotional dimension to the interaction. The researchers note that these interactions are often characterized by feelings of vitality and aliveness, positive regard, and felt mutuality (p. 267). Higgins and Kram (2001) had earlier offered a broader construct that they had termed "developmental networks," which they found to be characterized by emotional effect, reciprocity, mutuality, interdependence, and mutual motivation to be responsive (p. 268). Another more recent construct was offered in 2005 by Ensher and Murphy, which they called "power mentoring." They differentiated this construct from traditional mentoring on several fronts, including discussions of "polygamous" relationships, relationships that span organizations and often blow through boundaries to encompass whole professions, and the idea that "lineages" of mentors can be tapped into through a "founding" mentor (p. 4).

Although these new forms are often called *mentoring*, researchers have suggested, "changes in the workplace have necessitated an evaluation of the conceptualization of mentoring" (Levy, 2003, p. 3). For example, Kram and Hall (1997) suggested that new forms of mentoring were emerging to fit the needs of these changing organizations. Increasing use of team-based approaches to work design has increased the requirement for collaboration and created interdependent work relationships (Mohrman, Cohen, & Mohrman, 1995). Given the trend toward flatter organizations (Howard, 1999) and more dynamic and changing work environments, traditional, hierarchical mentoring relationships may be increasingly difficult to establish and maintain (Kram & Hall, 1997). The result of flatter organizations is that more decision making has been passed down in the organization to the point of work, often creating more concentration of job knowledge at the peer-to-peer level, rather than in the management ranks. This may be creating more opportunities for peers to serve as mentors. Additionally, there has been an increase in the number of companies that have developed formal mentoring programs where mentees are matched to mentors by a Human Resources consultant or other external source (Tyler, 1998). These changes have implications for the way mentoring is conceptualized.

One confounding element of studying the mentoring relationship is that there is conceptual confusion around the construct. It is important to note that most mentoring that was going on in the mid 20th century was still very much what is referred to as "supervisory mentoring" (Gibb & Megginson, 1993), that is mentoring of an employee who has a direct reporting relationship to the mentor. It is important to this study to understand that the "original theorizing of organizational mentoring, in large part,

resulted from the examination of informal, intraorganizational mentorships" (Friday, Friday, & Green, 2004, p. 638), that is, managers mentoring other managers within their own organizations. Only within the last two decades of the 20th century did this situation begin to change "when formal mentoring programs began to surface…to provide mentoring for 'more than just a lucky few' (Forret, Turban, & Dougherty, 1996, p. 6) in an effort to replicate and capitalize on the perceived benefits of informal mentoring" (Friday et al., 2004, p. 630). However, a key benefit of informal mentoring relationships of the past would have trouble in translation to more recent formalized mentoring schemes. The ability of a manager to single out an individual for career advancement, such as was typical in the early to mid 20th century, increasingly came under fire as a form of favoritism. Friday and Green's work to distinguish the two phenomena of mentorship and sponsorship highlighted the leftovers from the age where a powerful manager could select someone for promotion, at will, and make it stick. The vestiges of this practice still are affecting mentoring relationships today and are seen in the expectations of mentees for career advancement as a result of having a mentor, even though mentoring programs such as the one in this study proclaim that mentees should not expect to be promoted as a result of being mentored.

D'Abate, Eddy, and Tannenbaum (2003) found 13 types of what they referred to as "developmental interactions" that describe exchanges between two or more people with the intention of development (either career-, task-, or personally relevant development): action learning, apprenticeship, coaching, distance mentoring, executive coaching, formal/structured mentoring, group mentoring, informal/unstructured mentoring, multiple mentors/developers, peer coaching, peer mentoring,

traditional/classic mentoring, and tutoring. Of particular interest was their finding that only 30% of the characteristics linked to traditional mentoring were consistently used and that explicit contradictions exist between researchers as to the construct's description. They recommended using the generic terms "developer" and "learner" to substitute for mentor and mentee or protégé in order to lessen the conceptual confusion. The implications of their findings are directly applicable to this research.

Conceptual confusion can translate into developmental needs not being clear or remaining unmet, despite repeated attempts at resolving the learning gaps. Tannenbaum's (1997) research revealed the woefully small percentage of learning that is attributable to formal training programs in today's corporate environments. This situation is, in part, what is putting mentoring center stage in the corporate learning equation. Confusion around what mentoring is, what to expect from a mentoring relationship, how to obtain mentoring, when to seek a mentor, how to appropriately engage in a mentoring relationship, and a host of other questions surfaced in the interviews conducted in this research. Kram (1988) had previously argued that the word *mentor* had a variety of connotations, suggested the term "developmental relationship," and referred to "senior person" and "junior person" rather than using the traditional terms *mentor* and *protégé* or *mentee*. Chao (1998) suggested that researching mentoring without defining it and naming it for participants created doubt as to what, in fact, was being researched.

The question whether what is referred to as *mentoring* in modern corporate environments differs fundamentally from mentoring behavior as it has traditionally been defined was an area of attention for my research. The shift from personal growth and career guidance that was the hallmark of workplace mentoring throughout most of the

20th century, to employing mentoring principles and practices to the problem of satisfying the need to constantly expand one's skill base is potentially impacting the way mentoring is practiced at work. What my research is intended to inform is an understanding of the dimensions of mentoring relationships that have emerged in response to learning needs within the highly interconnected knowledge worker and collaborative team environment of the 21st century workplace. The increasing trend toward renaming what have been referred to as mentoring relationships in the past, begs us to inquire deeper and ask why. As Holloway (1987) asked the question of developmental models of supervision, so one could ask of corporate developmental models of mentoring: Is it development? Is it mentoring?

Inquiry Process

Churchman (1971) argued that the methodology of studying archetypes must be as trans-disciplinary as the nature of archetypes themselves. My inquiry into the literature followed this methodological instruction. A comprehensive trans-disciplinary literature review was conducted that focused on mentoring behavior (whether it was named so or not) within the domains of anthropology, sociology, psychology, ancient and educational history, religion, and spirituality. Both the scholarly and trade literature that addressed the mentoring relationship within the domain of business were explored. The purpose of this research was to identify dimensions of mentoring in order to clarify the meaning of mentoring, especially as it relates to current and emerging practice within the modern workplace.

In addition to the contextual articles from the fields of anthropology, history, sociology, psychology, and religion and spirituality that formed the container for my

targeted inquiry, business-focused peer reviewed and trade journals between the years 1956 (the earliest article found) and 2007 were researched. Selected out were those articles that documented empirical work or were written by researchers who were "foundational" to the domain of interest judging by the frequency of citations in follow-on studies (e.g., Levinson et al., 1978; Kram, 1983, 1988; Noe, 1988a; Phillips, 1977; Ragins, 1997; Roche, 1979). Approximately 400 studies were found that focused directly or indirectly on mentoring. Indirectly related studies, for example, focused on the "buddy system" (Nadler, 1970), socialization practices (Louis, Posner, & Powell, 1983), masculinity/femininity (Epstein, 1970; Rand, 1968), stratification in society (Zuckerman, 1970), tokenism (Kanter, 1977; Spangler, Gordon, & Pipkin, 1978), or leader-member exchange (Graen & Schiemann, 1978). I specifically looked for any studies that explored the triadic relationship among the manager, the mentor, and the mentee or protégé.

Increasing numbers of studies were published on the subject of mentoring in the last years of the 20th century and as we entered the 21st century. Approximately 117,000 dissertations were published through the ProQuest/UMI system in the years 1990 to 1991. Of these, 541 had the term *leadership* in the title, and 89 had *mentor* or *mentoring* in the title. In the years 1991 through 2004 there were 3328 dissertations written with the word *leadership* in the title, while 700 were written with *mentor* or *mentoring* in the title. In the years 2005 to 2007 there were 1200 dissertations written with the term *leadership* in the title. Of the 245 dissertations with *mentor* or *mentoring* in the title written in that same period, only 18 performed their research within a business context. What these statistics tend to suggest is that research on mentoring has kept pace at roughly one-quarter the number of dissertations researching the phenomenon of leadership. Research

on mentoring within a business context continues to remain a small portion of the overall inquiry space.

Gap in the Literature

My analysis into the general body of literature on mentoring indicated that research has consistently been gathered more often from the perspective of the mentee rather than from the perspective of the mentor, with little evidence that the perspective of the organizational manager of either the mentor or mentee has been considered**.** No studies were found that engaged the managers in the research design, prior to 1990. Only two studies between 1990 and 2007, Nolinske, (1994) and Jinadu (2006), included the "boss" or organizational manager. Nolinske's study was limited to interview data from the supervisor of the mentee and looked at the value proposition of mentoring from the three perspectives (mentor, mentee, and manager of mentee). Jinadu explored the extent to which supervisors engaged in developmental mentoring relationships with their subordinates. I found no studies that inquired into the dimensions of experience of mentors, mentees, and organizational managers or that addressed aggregate meaning across the triadic role perspectives. No studies explored the perspective of the manager on the relationships of their direct reports, or explored the perspectives of mentors and mentees on the engagement or lack of engagement of their immediate management in their mentoring experiences. Since the organizational manager is a key player in the world of business, and mentoring relationships are increasingly being seen as an accepted instrument of informal learning within the corporation, this represents a significant gap in the literature.

Culture of Inquiry in the Business Domain

Tables 2.1 and 2.2 show the occurrence of research-based and theoretical articles that were from the domains of business (prime focus) and other domains (where they addressed the mentoring relationship) published in scholarly and trade journals over the 50+ years that this literature review covered.

Table 2.1. Journal Articles on Mentoring by Time Period

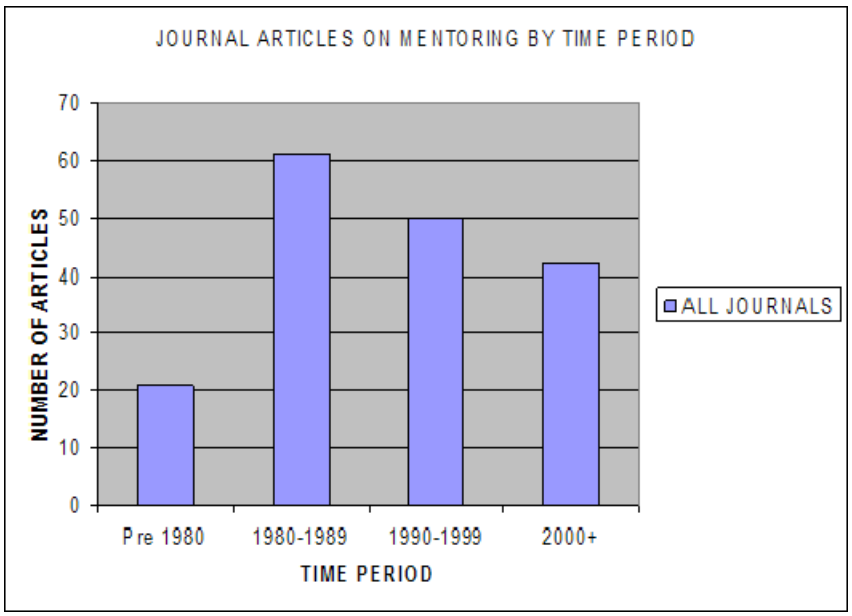
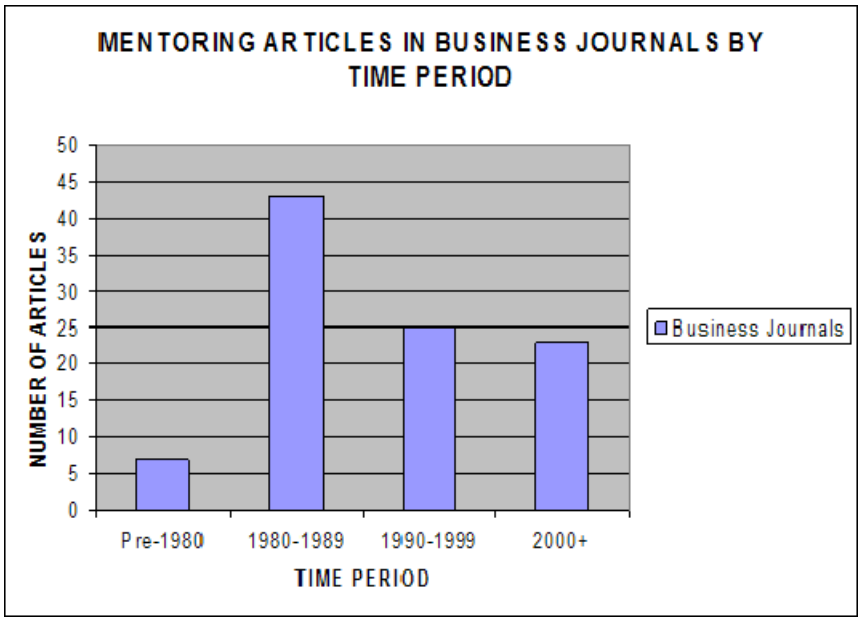


Table 2.2. Mentoring Articles in Business Journals by Time Period



There is clearly a "spike" in interest in mentoring over the decade between 1980 and 1990, when popular press books like *Seasons of a Man's Life* (Levinson et al., 1978) and *Passages* (Sheehy, 1979) were becoming best sellers. There appears to have been, and continues to be, a disproportionate number of dissertations, studies, and scholarly journal articles on mentoring in the education sector, led by higher education and followed by articles addressing youth mentoring. The dearth of articles on mentoring that were found in leadership focused journals suggests that the relationship between mentoring and leadership has yet to be fully explored.

Generally, in the domain of business research, in the years between 1977 and 1989 researchers asked questions related to characteristics of the relationship (reasons why people were attracted to one another, patterns of contact, what was learned, quality, amount of time spent, formal vs. informal structures); characteristics of the mentor (and sometimes the mentee); the predictors of or factors that might lead to career success; the

impact of mentoring on job satisfaction, longevity and income; benefits received (mainly by the mentee); and whether mentoring is related to perceptions of power.

Where the interest of the researchers was centered on the mentoring relationship itself, there was an emphasis on developmental, organizational, and psychological factors. Intrapersonal, interpersonal, and organizational levels of analysis (Kram, 1980) were frequent. Questions regarding the nature of the relationship were: What was essential to the relationship? What was particularly important in the relationship? Areas explored were organizational influences, patterns of interactions, relationship stages, tracing the relationship over time, emotions involved, and complementarity vs. mutuality (Clawson, 1980). Characteristics of the mentor/mentee were inquired about in broader contexts, such as the different roles that people played throughout their careers or the set of expectations they held in regard to their careers. During this period statistical analyses were generally correlation or comparative. Fagenson's (1988) study employed instruments that had been developed to measure factors of power relationships. MANOVA was used to analyze the data relative to the independent variables of power (organizational policy influence, access to important people, and resource power), sex/gender, and management level within the organization and their interrelationships. Alleman, Cochran, Doverspike, and Newman (1984) used instruments that were directly related to mentoring factors and theory. They employed the Leadership Development Questionnaire (LDQ) (Alleman, 1983), and the Jackson Personality Inventory (JPI) (Jackson, 1976), as well as an Adjective Checklist (Gough & Heilbrun, 1965) in their experimental study.

Generally, the method for gathering information in the qualitative studies was biographical interviews. No single interview technique dominated. Several researchers used the same schedule of questions for all participants and several used an open ended questioning approach. All used some form of thematic analysis. Kram's (1983, 1988) grounded theory approach used an inductive process where tentative hypotheses were conducted. She employed a constant comparative method (Glaser, 1965) that allowed her to adjust her hypotheses based on the themes and categories that emerged from the data. These themes and categories were then used as the basis for her conceptual modeling. Her research to this day remains foundational to the field of inquiry.

There were crossovers between research in the business sector and research in the education sector relative to the study of relationships within the practice of mentoring. More researchers operating in the educational sector referenced business-focused studies than the reverse. Due to this cross-fertilization between the domains of inquiry, both the education and the business domains were included in the detailed empirical literature review offered later in this chapter.

Trends in Mentoring Research

Definite trends were noted over the more than 60 years covered by this literature review. Research in the decade from 1977 (when the first dissertation focused on mentoring in the business domain was published) to 1987 focused mainly on the what (definitional and descriptive), why (benefits), how (process), and who (people–their characteristics, positions, and roles). In general, mentoring research and accompanying trade journal articles and popular press books got their start from a focus on gender issues in the workplace. Gender has remained a dominant focus of inquiry, supplemented in the

decade 1988 - 1998 with racial and cultural issues as globalization and diversity challenges came more to the center of the corporate stage (Grace & Holloway, 2004). Table 2.3 shows that approximately 50% of the dissertations written on the subject of mentoring since 1977 have focused on gender and diversity issues.

Table 2.3. Empirical Studies on Race and Gender Issues in Mentoring by Time Period

Year	Number of Studies on Mentoring	Number of Studies Focused on Race and Gender Issues in Mentoring
1977	1	1
1978	2	0
1979	1	1
1980	3	3
1981	2	1
1982	5	4
1983	3	1
1984	5	3
1985	2	2
1986	3	2
1987	7	4
1988	5	1
1989	10	5
1990	5	2
1991	2	2
1992	6	5
1993	2	1
1994	6	6
1995	6	5
1996	6	4
1997	8	4
1998	6	2

Year	Number of Studies on Mentoring	Number of Studies Focused on Race and Gender Issues in Mentoring
1999	9	3
2000	8	1
2001	16	6
2002	9	5
2003	12	3
2004	3	3

As we moved into the 21st century, the literature shows greater diversity in the structure of mentoring relationships. The literature suggests that this change was partially driven by the differing needs of women and minorities (Ragins, 1988; Thomas, 1990, 1993). Increasingly, formalized mentoring programs emerged in corporations. The focus of these programs on self-managed learning and "knowledge transfer" reflected the recognition that knowledge workers required a constant refreshing of their knowledge base. This "learning organization" (Senge, 1990) paradigm may have driven the emergence of peer mentoring and other learning relationships that are "aligned with the perspective that employees are increasingly concerned with career mobility rather than hierarchical advancement" (Ragins, 1997, p. 484). Another example of the increasing diversity in the structure of mentoring relationships is seen in the phenomenon of what is referred to as "e-mentoring" relationships (Hamilton & Scandura, 2003). Of the 18 dissertations that were focused on mentoring research within the business sector in the years 2005 - 2007, five addressed this relatively new form of "virtual" or technology-enhanced mentoring, which is often driven by the increasingly global nature of work.

Lastly, a dominant trend in the mentoring literature is the fuzziness about what it actually means to be in a mentoring relationship, how the concept of mentoring is defined in the empirical research and in practice, and how mentoring behavior differs from other forms of developmental relationships. “The changing nature of organizational structures affects the sources from which individuals receive developmental assistance. . . and from the mentor’s perspective, offering advice may be increasingly difficult as the nature of work . . . constantly changes” (Higgins & Kram, 2001, p. 267). What is clear is that a lack of consensus on the definitions of mentoring and mentor has been articulated in the literature and research on organizational mentoring has been criticized for not being conceptually well grounded (Friday et al., 2004). Studies that discuss the lack of definitional consensus on mentoring (Chao, 1998; Kelly, 2001; Lawson, 1996; Minter & Thomas, 2000; Noe, 1988a) and those that suggest that it needs to be reconceptualized (Gibb, 1994; Friday et al., 2004; Higgins & Kram, 2001) represent an ongoing trend in the research literature. Friday et al. (2004) asked the question: “Has mentoring been used as a ‘catch-all’ term? [and answered] Yes!” (p. 629). To underscore this assumption, the following terms were found to describe a mentor in the organizational literature: guide, host advisor, sponsor, role model, teacher, protector, invisible godparent, friend, coach, counselor, patron, exemplar, benefactor, and advocate (Kelly, 2001; Friday et al., 2004).

In summary, trends that this literature search revealed indicate that participants in developmental relationships are increasingly multicultural and cross-gender; the purpose of the relationship is increasingly on transformative learning, the structure of the relationship is increasingly diverse (peer-to-peer, multiple mentors, group mentoring, e-mentoring), and there is a lack of clarity in regard to the meaning of mentoring in

organizational contexts. Examples of emerging patterns are the recognition of the need for connection in an increasingly global work environment; inclusion of racial and diversity factors in an increasingly global business climate; recognition that the intellectual capital of a corporation is a vital corporate asset and it is no longer reserved to the executive suite; the increasing use of mentoring, job shadowing, and apprenticeships as more effective knowledge transfer tools than classroom experiences; and the explosion of technical career paths based on “know-how” not “know-who.”

Mentoring as Relationship

“In the beginning is relation” (Buber, 1970, p. 18). Buber’s idea of relationship was an encounter between individuals that is mutual, non-possessive, and non-manipulative, and one in which each person is authentic, trusting, and self-revealing. This could, as well, be a description of some of the most important characteristics of traditional mentoring relationships. Clarkson and Shaw (1992) argued, “One of the first needs of the human being is for relationship . . . without it adults cannot thrive. . . . It is to organizational life as water is to a fish” (p. 18). They hypothesized, “the human need for relationships is, after physiological survival, the primary motivation of the person” (p. 19). Daloz (1999) argued, “In relationship, we both form and heal what we come again and again to name our self” (p. 244).

Distinctions have been made between modern, more instrumental forms of mentoring relationship, and more traditional forms of mentoring where the *whole person* is engaged. Characterizations of friendship, romantic love, and parental love have been attributed to mentoring relationships, but, as well, distinguished from these in the areas of equity, passion, and length of association (Gehrke, 1988; Stratton & Owens, 1993).

Gehrke (1988) used the term “classical,” Hardcastle’s (1988) word was “significant,” and Stratton and Owens (1993) referred to these types of relationships as “intentional.” Clearly, traditional mentoring can be seen as “one form of love relationship” (Daloz, 1986; Gehrke, 1988). Carl Rogers (1990) identified the core conditions of empathy, congruence, and unconditional positive regard as essential for any situation in which the development of the person is the goal. Powell (1999) suggested that “the true encounter” was “absolutely essential for growth as a person” (p. 42). Gehrke’s (1988) conception of an “authentic” mentoring relationship where we “offer ourselves as we really are, and seek and accept the other person as he or she is” (p. 44) clearly draws the line between what is identified as *mentoring* in many of the emerging formal mentoring programs in corporations and the traditional form that is more mythical, more heroic, more important to our whole person, living “somewhere between a lover and parent” (Daloz, 1999, p. 18). The classic mentor is involved in the profoundly human provision of care as well as the use of teaching skills and the transmission of knowledge between adult learners (Daloz, 1986). The metaphor of a developmental journey, consciously undertaken by an adult learner, is described by Daloz as “a complex and evolving process of *interconnectedness* [italics mine] with another human being. Mentoring in this paradigm is a partnership; in the nurture of that partnership lies the mentor’s art” (p. 244). In the workplace, interconnectedness can be understood as one dimensionalization of mentoring. This and other dimensions of mentoring will be explored in Chapter 4 in the context of the study findings. What is important to notice here is the multifaceted nature of mentoring and the additional facets that are exposed when we consider mentoring in a modern work context.

Clarkson (1995) developed a relationship framework "for describing what goes on between people when they work together" (Nuttall, 2004, p. 17). Clarkson's framework consisted of five dimensions that, she argued, are present in all relationships: (a) the working alliance, (b) the transferential, (c) the developmentally-needed, (d) the person-to-person, and (e) the transpersonal (p. 323). Gleick (1988) agreed and argued that these modes or dimensions describe an underlying dynamic in all human relationships. These and similar qualities have been identified as elements of relationship-based styles of leadership (Greenleaf, 1970; Spears, 1995). Parallels to mentoring can be drawn.

The working alliance (Bordin, 1983) is manifested in the "written expression of the objectives and conditions of the alliance" (Nuttall, 2004, p. 18). Clarkson and Shaw (1992) argued, "A healthy form of the developmental relationship is characterized by being based on explicit, consciously chosen, contractual agreements between the parties which spell out their mutual responsibilities" (p. 24). A mentoring agreement is an example of such an artifact. The importance of the working alliance/relationship was brought into focus in the counseling supervision literature by Holloway (1987). Efstation, Paton, and Kardash (1990) built on the work of Holloway and others by constructing a measure of a supervisor's and trainee's perceptions of their relationship and defined a "working alliance" as "that set of actions interactively used by supervisors and trainees to facilitate the learning of the trainee . . . a set of alliance building and maintaining activities" (p. 323). A parallel situation exists between a supervisor and a subordinate in the corporate context, especially where the supervisor sees their role as mentor to those who report to them (Manikutty, 2005; Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994; Yukl, 1989).

The transferential mode of relationship is a two-way pattern of behavior that transfers prior experiences and feelings onto people in a relationship. Although Clarkson (1995) suggested that this can interfere with the working alliance, transference in mentoring can carry forward previous positive mentoring experiences of parental mentoring or mentoring outside the family circle to current relationships or can influence a person to engage in mentoring activities in the workplace (Mokros, Erkut, & Spichiger, 1981).

Developmentally-needed or reparative relationships are clearly one purpose for engaging in mentoring, from a mentee's perspective. The role of mentor can be compared to a good parent or empathetic therapist, and although the idea of a therapeutic relationship in the context of work may be looked upon as inappropriate, increasingly, a state of "mutual authenticity" (Nuttall, 2004, p. 19) is expected between people who work together either as peers or in the supervisor-subordinate model. This "genuine relationship" is the model for traditional mentoring, characterized by openness, self-awareness, and self-disclosure (Schein, 1988).

The transpersonal quality of relationships is the element of surprise that occurs when people let loose their individualism and reach out to others. The emergent creativity and capacity generated from such a relationship is one reason corporations have increasingly supported mentoring at work to try to capitalize on this phenomenon, because "creativity flows from relationship" (Jones, 1997, p. 61). The deep interpersonal processes that occur between people who work together are brought to the foreground in mentoring relationships. Thus, studying the mentoring relationship can shed light on the

other, less obvious and often unconscious behavior that characterizes work in the modern corporation.

Focused Literature Review

The following detailed reviews of research in the field of mentoring have been grouped according to a categorization scheme that emerged from a content and concept analysis of the research. The broad grouping of the studies was within two domains of practice and knowledge (education and business) due to the cross-fertilization between the two domains of inquiry as previously discussed. A fine-grained categorization scheme is offered that centers on the people, processes, or structures (Parker, 1998) of the mentoring relationship as researched.

The studies were grouped within the following framework:

Tier 1:	Business or Education.
Tier 2:	People (perceptions, emotions, age/gender/ethnicity factors), Processes (relationship initiation, termination; instructional focus: job performance or career development), Structures (formal/informal, hierarchical, peer-to-peer).
Tier 3:	Perspective: Individual (from the perspective of either the mentor or mentee) or Dyadic (from the perspectives of both the mentor and mentee). I could find no studies that provided direct perspective about their role from organizational managers.

Research in the Education Sector

Eight studies from the empirical literature relating to mentoring within the education sector were selected. These studies were selected because their main focus was on the mentoring relationship. Four studies were quantitative and four qualitative. For each study, the research paradigm and rationale were analyzed to understand the approach and purpose the researchers had for engaging in the study. These were important for understanding why the researchers chose a particular design for the study. The way the researchers defined mentoring and the main questions that guided their research were noted, and the procedures and instruments used to address those questions were studied. The pertinent findings relative to the research questions were analyzed. The understanding obtained from these analyses is summarized in the following paragraphs. The data is presented within the categorizing scheme described in the previous sub-section.

People focused studies. One study that was focused mainly on the characteristics of the people involved in the mentoring relationship was that of Mokros et al. (1981), which focused on gender issues within the mentoring relationship. The research paradigm for this study was a qualitative naturalistic inquiry to "describe the detail and depth of professors' [mentors'] experiences with mentoring" (p. 3) with the aim of capturing "participants in their own terms" (Lofland, 1971). The researchers were particularly interested in "comparing the mentoring processes of men and women, as well as in describing differences related to the sex of the mentee" (Mokros et al., 1981, p. 2). They wanted to understand whether "mentoring processes among women [were] somehow different from more traditional male patterns of mentoring" (p. 2). Additionally, they

wanted to “examine patterns of mentoring in conjunction with patterns of being mentored” (p. 2). This study referenced the Levinson et al. (1978) definition of mentoring for their guiding definition.

The research questions were open-ended but generally addressed (a) “characteristics of students who were selected as mentees; (b) qualities of the relationship between professor and mentee; and (c) qualities of the relationship between professors and their own mentors” (Mokros et al., 1981, p. 4). The research findings revealed “There were major differences between men and women with respect to the ‘directiveness’ of the mentoring that was described” (p. 10) as well as with the extent of personal involvement with the mentee. The researchers contended “that women are more likely than men to bring their caring, interpersonally-oriented selves into the work setting” (pp. 11 - 12). “Male professors, especially those with male mentees, maintained ongoing relationships with both mentees and mentors” (p. 13). The significance of this study was that it explored a “second-generation” mentoring experience where the mentor had been a mentee before becoming a mentor within the researched relationship. The research suggested that mentoring begets mentoring (Mokros et al., 1981).

Process focused studies. The studies discussed in this section are focused on the process of mentoring from the perspective of the mentee. The quantitative, survey descriptive research by Bova and Phillips (1984) focused on the learning component of the mentoring relationship, and specifically what the mentee learned from the mentor and how they learned. Fagan and Walter (1982) also designed their research using a quantitative survey approach, focused on teachers as mentees in mentoring relationships. They inquired into the frequency of mentoring experiences by teachers, the nature of their

relationship, the benefits accrued, and various demographics regarding differences in perspectives by gender and for various age groups. Gehrke and Kay (1984) used a qualitative, phenomenological approach to explore the experiences of teachers and their perceptions about the nature of their mentoring relationships, but they also explored how the relationships were initiated and the mentees' perspectives of benefits for both themselves and their mentors. Hardcastle (1988) used a qualitative, grounded theory approach to look into the question of longevity of mentoring relationships. Although this was not a longitudinal study, Hardcastle explored, via participant retrospection, what might have attracted the mentor and mentee to one another, and took a long view by asking questions about what difference mentoring had made in mentees' lives. Hardcastle introduced the idea of "significant mentoring" as a unique form. Parkay's (1988) qualitative phenomenological and autobiographical treatment of mentoring traced his personal experience with one mentoring relationship over time and self-reflected about the significance of this relationship to his own life. Busch (1985) used a quantitative survey descriptive approach to inquire into the parameters of interaction in the mentoring relationship and explored aspects of mutuality, comprehensiveness, and reciprocity.

Guiding definitions for two of the studies in this section (Bova & Phillips, 1984; Fagan & Walter, 1982) followed the Levinson et al. (1978) model of the expert adult who befriends and guides a less experienced adult. Gehrke and Kay (1984) defined mentoring in terms of the relationship: "Mentors and protégés are very much involved in working together in a wide variety of professional or career concerns. The relationships are open, informal, and have a high frequency of interaction" (p. 21) and like Hardcastle (1988) relied on Clawson's 1980 work that focused on the quality and intensity of the

relationship. Hardcastle introduced the concept of “significant” mentoring relationships, a theme that also emerged from Parkay’s (1988) study that explored the “inner aspects” of mentoring. Busch’s (1985) study brought forward O’Neil’s (1981) work to define the mentoring relationship in terms of congruence, mutuality, comprehensiveness, and reciprocity.

Findings from these studies within the sector of education and the category of process generally supported the rationale for the studies, although the lack of a balanced inquiry that involved both participants in the mentoring relationship was mentioned as a limitation in several studies. Bova and Phillips (1984) suggested that mentees obtained learning in five major areas: risk-taking behaviors, communication skills, political skills, or skills specific to their profession (e.g., technical skills) and “protégés . . . learned the meaning of the term ‘professional’ by observing professionals in action” (p. 19).

Fagan and Walter (1982) suggested that a process of identification with the mentor was suggested to be at work in the relationship. Their conclusion that “mentoring cannot be forced or contrived” (p. 5) did not appear to be supported by the data and seemed to be in conflict with their recommendation that “formal mentoring programs may be worth trying” (p. 5). Gehrke’s and Kay’s (1984) desire to explore mentoring from the perspective of the “ideal student-teacher relationship” in the hopes that it might provide “some direction to the development of teacher education programs” (p. 21) was generally satisfied. The findings indicated that teachers felt that mentors were influential in many of their decisions.

Hardcastle (1988) found that mentors contributed to the lives of mentees in four essential ways: (a) they offered mentees unique visions of themselves, (b) they motivated

them to grow professionally, (c) they showed them new ways to be, and (d) they were spiritual support. The importance of the ”persona” of the mentor, especially related to their interpersonal skills, seemed to me to be the key learning to come out of this study. Clearly, the mentees were drawn to mentors who had exceptional capabilities and depth of both spiritual and professional nature. Again, the idea that mentoring begets mentoring (Mokros et al., 1981) was supported.

Parkay’s (1988) findings, as the sole instrument of his study, were in the form of personal realizations about the developmental role the mentor plays as a guide that assists the mentee to move from a dependent parent-child social dynamic to an independent adult-peer dynamic over the course of the mentoring relationship. The results of this study were that the researcher ultimately role-modeled the behavior of his mentor and used the mentoring experience to enrich his own professional life. The experience made him sensitive to the “tradition of professional inquiry” (Parkay, 1988, p. 200) and made him determined to give the gift of mentoring to others at the same level of quality that he had received.

Busch’s (1985) inquiry into the parameters of interaction between mentors and mentees revealed that age was a significant predictor of mentoring score, while sex and professorial rank were not. Busch’s study suggested that gender sensitivity and congruence could not be analyzed based on data from only one member of the mentoring pair, a theme that was repeated in other studies. The findings from the survey suggested that “younger mentors reported greater mutuality (depth) and less comprehensiveness (breadth) in their relationships; older mentors reported greater comprehensiveness and less mutuality” (p. 263). As with previous research, “professors who had had mentors of

their own were significantly more likely to have mentees" (p. 263). No sex differences were indicated, which was a change from previous business research that suggested that fewer women were engaged in the mentoring process than their male counterparts. Positive benefits of mentoring focused on "seeing the career and intellectual growth of the mentee," and negative aspects were "the amount of time needed for a successful relationship and students becoming overly dependent on the mentor" (p. 264).

Structure focused studies. Noe's (1988a) study focused on the structure of mentoring relationships, specifically those mentoring relationships that were assigned or formally arranged within a "development program designed to facilitate personal and career development of educators" (p. 457). Noe's (1988a) research paradigm was quantitative, quasi-experimental, and he used comparative, correlational, and regression analysis techniques. The purpose of his study was to investigate the influence of mentee job and career attitudes, the gender composition of the mentoring dyad, the amount of time spent with the mentor, and the quality of the interaction with the mentor. Noe's (1988a) study addressed the impact of these factors on the psychosocial and career benefits mentees gain from participation in assigned mentoring relationships. A measure to assess the various types of functions provided by mentors was developed as a part of his research. Noe gave Kram and her associates (1983, 1988) full credit for being a benchmark in the field of mentoring studies. His inquiry also addressed the individual and organizational factors that influenced the success of mentoring relationships. Noe's study was one of the few studies found in the literature that focused on the impact of the mentoring relationship on organizational culture. He attempted to uncover data that pointed to whether mentees would receive "career and psychosocial benefits similar to

those reported in studies of informal mentoring relationships" (p. 460). He wanted to know: What factors influenced the development of successful, assigned mentoring relationships?

Noe's (1988a) study represented "one of the first attempts to develop a measure of mentoring functions and theory regarding the types of functions provided by mentors" (p. 467). Noe differentiated the mentoring relationship found in his study from what he referred to as "primary" types of relationships characterized in the works of Clawson (1980), Kram (1983), and Phillips-Jones (1982). From the description Noe provided (p. 473), I would include Hardcastle's (1988) "significant mentoring relationships" in this group. Noe admitted, "Results of this study suggest that organizations should not expect protégés to obtain the same type of benefits from an assigned mentoring relationship as they would receive from an informally established, primary mentoring relationship" (p. 473). Clearly, the amount of time mentors spent with mentees was an indication of the relative lack of importance of the relationship as compared to other job responsibilities. However, this study did somewhat debunk concerns "regarding the possible negative reactions of individuals to assigned mentoring relationships" (p. 473). This may have been due to what appeared to be some effort at selection and training of mentors who were predisposed to creating successful mentoring experiences. Noe suggested that perhaps a program requirement of weekly meetings between mentor and mentee would mitigate the effects of infrequent contact.

Noe's study was one of the most complete of those I analyzed from this time period. I reviewed studies from the period after 1989 and found that Noe's work did have an impact on the field of mentoring research. Many of the better-known researchers in the

late 20th century cited Noe's (1988a) work. Donaldson, Ensher, and Grant-Vallone (2000) adapted their work on instrumental and psychosocial functions from Noe. Ragins (1997) cited Noe (1988a, b) for his work on the effects of gender in the mentoring relationship. Eby et al. (2000) cited Noe (1988a) for his work on the mentee's perspective regarding negative mentoring experiences. Ensher and Murphy (1997) and Ensher, Thomas, and Murphy (2001) based their work on the effects of race, gender, and perceived similarity and contact within the mentoring relationship on Noe's (1988a, b) work. Scandura (1998) cited Noe (1988a) for his discussion of participants' preference for informal mentoring relationships.

Noe (1988a) cited Phillips-Jones (1982) to support the popular assumption that "the majority of mentoring relationships are informal" (p. 458). He cited Klauss (1981) and Kram (1983) who agreed with Noe's suggestion that

> …assigned mentoring relationships may not be as beneficial as mentoring relationships that develop informally, due to 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 of either the mentor or the protégé to the relationship because it was not formed on their initiative. (p. 458)

Other researchers were looking into assigned or formal relationships that were beginning to be used for employee socialization, training, and personal and professional development (e.g., Fagan & Ayres, 1985; Shelton, 1982; Willbur, 1987). Noe (1988a) hypothesized that "protégés in mentoring relationships with members of the opposite sex work harder to make the relationship successful because of an awareness of the possible negative outcomes that are believed to result from cross-gender relationships at work" (1988b, p. 475). Noe also noted, "females more effectively utilized the relationship than males" (p. 475).

Summary. The following paragraphs serve as a textual description of the studies within the educational sector that focused on some aspect of the mentoring relationship. Highlighted data include the paradigm; whether the researchers performed their research from the perspectives of the mentor, the mentee, or both; and the structure of the relationship. Four of the cited studies were qualitative, informal, and all from the perspective of the mentee. Of the four quantitative studies, three were informal and researched the mentee's perspective; one was formal and considered the perspectives of the mentor and mentee, with some consideration of the influence of organizational management.

The qualitative study by Mokros et al. (1981) covered the primary relationship between the mentor and mentee from the mentee's perspective, and then described the mentee's experiences of becoming a mentor as a result of the primary mentoring relationship. The relationship was informal. The quantitative study by Bova and Phillips (1984) covered the primary relationship between the mentor and mentee from the mentee's perspective. The relationship was informal. The quantitative study by Fagan and Walter (1982) covered the primary relationship between the mentor and mentee from the mentees' perspective. The relationship was informal. The qualitative study by Gehrke and Kay (1984) covered the primary relationship between the mentor and mentee from the mentees' perspective. The relationship was informal. The qualitative study by Hardcastle (1988) covered the primary relationship between the mentor and mentee from the mentees' perspective. The relationship was informal. The qualitative study by Parkay (1988) covered the primary relationship between the mentor and mentee from the mentees' perspective. The relationship was informal. The quantitative study by Busch

(1985) covered the primary relationship between the mentor and mentee from the mentor's perspective. The relationship was informal. The quantitative study by Noe (1988a) covered the relationship between the mentor and mentee from primarily the mentee's perspective, with some research input from the mentor and taking into consideration the organizational context within which the relationship occurred. The relationship was formal and assigned.

The following section takes the same broad swath across the empirical literature in the business sector. As in the previous section, the studies were addressed in groups according to the categorization scheme of people, processes, and structures as developed by Parker (1998).

Research in the Business Sector

Fifteen studies from the empirical literature relating to mentoring within the business sector were selected due to their focus on the mentoring relationship. Ten of the studies were quantitative and five qualitative. The studies in the business sector were not as amenable to clear categorization as those in the education sector and tended to be more complex. For example, two studies researched both characteristics of people in the mentoring pair and the process of mentoring (Roche, 1979; Burke, 1984). For those studies that did not clearly fit one of the categories, a separate subsection was created. Six studies explored the process of the mentoring relationship from the perspectives of both the mentor and the mentee. A separate subsection was created for these more balanced viewpoint studies within the "process" category.

For each study in this section, the research paradigm and rationale for the study were analyzed to understand the approach and purpose the researchers had for engaging

in the study. These were important for understanding why the researchers chose a particular design for the study. The way the researchers defined mentoring and the main questions that guided their research were noted, and the procedures and instruments used to address those questions were studied. The pertinent findings relative to the research questions were analyzed. The understanding obtained from these analyses is summarized in the following paragraphs.

People focused studies. Two studies within the business sector were focused on the characteristics of the people involved in the mentoring relationship. Alleman et al. (1984) researched the perspective of the mentor, while Fagenson (1988), and Olian Carroll, Giannantonio, and Feren (1988) researched the perspective of the mentee. The research paradigm for the Alleman et al. (1984) study was a quasi-experimental inquiry that used a biographical information questionnaire to explore the differences between those who mentored others and "non-mentors," as regards behavior, rather than personality characteristics. Fagenson's (1988) correlational study investigated employees' work actions, experiences, and backgrounds. Fagenson also explored the correlation between three major sources of power in organizations and mentee and non-mentee perceptions of their own power status. Olian et al. (1988) used randomly distributed descriptions of managers and mentor-mentee interactions in an experimental design to explore "the determinants of potential protégé attraction into a relationship with a mentor" (p. 15). These studies generally asked questions about the differences between those who engaged in mentoring relationships and those who didn't and what factors brought mentoring pairs together. The definitions used to describe the mentoring relationship were similar and generally followed the form that Levinson et al. (1978)

introduced. Alleman et al. (1984) defined the mentor as “a person of greater rank or expertise who teaches, guides, and develops a novice” (p. 329). Fagenson (1988) suggested “mentors teach and help individuals . . . with approval, prestige, and backing” (p. 182). Olian et al. (1988) described a mentor as “a seasoned senior executive who can offer the wisdom of years of experience from which to counsel and guide younger individuals” (p. 16).

The research findings reveal: (a) “The difference between mentors and non-mentors is found in what they do, not who they are” and that “behavior patterns in mentoring relationships did not vary with sex” (Alleman et al., 1984, p. 331); (b) “Mentored individuals reported having more organizational policy influence, greater access to important people, and greater resource power than non-mentored individuals (Fagenson, 1988, pp. 189-190); and (c) “Managers with higher levels of interpersonal competence were preferred over their less-skilled counterparts as potential mentors, even when differences between the managers’ skill levels were relatively small” (Alleman et al., 1984, p. 34).

The significance of the Alleman et al. (1984) study was both in their research design and in their findings. They used control groups and the Jackson Personality Inventory (JPI), two Adjective Checklists (AC), and the Leadership Development Questionnaire (LDQ) (Alleman, 1983) as instruments to describe mentoring behavior and personality characteristics within the two groups (mentored and non-mentored). They employed multiple linear regression analyses involving an iterative solution. Their findings suggested that mentoring was about behavior (which did not vary with sex of the participants). They suggested that if mentoring behavior was better understood, it could

be taught. Fagenson's (1988) study suggested that mentoring could be seen as a potential "cure for feelings of powerlessness" (p. 184) such as those experienced by women and other minorities within the white male-dominated hierarchical corporate structures of the 1980s. Olian et al. (1988) aggregated data from three prior studies they had conducted (1985a, 1985b, 1986). Their research was the only study found in this literature review that explored the dynamics of interpersonal attraction in the mentoring dyad.

People and process focused studies. Two studies within the business sector researched both the characteristics of the people involved in the mentoring relationship and the process of mentoring within the context of the mentoring relationship. Roche (1979) conducted one of the earliest of the empirical studies on mentoring by interviewing executives from the "Who's News" section of the *Wall Street Journal* to discover if mentoring had an impact on job satisfaction and the success of top executives in North America's major corporations. He also wanted to understand how the work environment might encourage formation of mentoring relationships and whether all successful executives had experienced a mentoring relationship. This was an early study that asked the question as to whether, as in the arts, a young person "learns the trade best when studying with a master" (p. 14). Burke (1984), who researched five years after Roche's work, wrote of the "leadership vacuum" (p. 369) and how mentoring might fill that vacuum and might be seen as a "mini-course in leadership" (p. 355). He wanted to obtain data about the prevalence of mentors, the sex and age of mentors and mentees, career stages of when mentoring relationships occurred, how mentors and mentees were or were not organizationally aligned, how the relationships had initiated, what influence

the mentor had had on the mentee's career, what mentees had learned from their mentors, functions served by mentors, and what the mentors got in return.

Both Roche (1979) and Burke (1984) used a traditional guiding definition of mentoring based on the Levinson et al. (1978) research that described mentoring as one of the most complex and developmentally important a man can have in early adulthood. The mentor has been described traditionally as ordinarily several years older and a person of greater experience and seniority in the world the young man is entering (Burke, 1984).

The research paradigm for Roche's (1979) study was quantitative and used a survey instrument. Burke (1984) also used a quantitative methodology but he employed a questionnaire instrument that asked both qualitative (open-ended) and quantitative questions. In Burke's study a description of a mentoring relationship was provided, which respondents then used to answer the questionnaire items.

The research findings described by Roche (1979) suggested that the number of mentoring relationships was on the rise (two-thirds of those interviewed had had mentors), that executives that had a mentor were better educated, and (a somewhat dated finding) that "father-like sponsors [were] necessary for women without family connections to reach top management positions" (p. 18). Burke's (1984) findings suggested that mentoring might be seen as a "socialization" function for young leaders, and noted that his findings supported the idea that female mentors provided greater psychosocial support than male mentors, and that compatibility was a key ingredient to successful mentoring relationships. An interesting finding was that "protégés were unaware of the deeper psychological and emotional needs of their mentors that were being met through mentoring" (p. 369) and that mentees were generally unaware of or at

least not focused on the benefits of mentoring that might accrue to the mentor in the relationship.

The significance of these studies was that Roche's (1979) study became a benchmark for future studies, regardless of the field of inquiry. Burke's (1984) study introduced the tie between mentoring and leadership and looked at mentoring as a socialization practice. Burke's research also suggested that "role models do not facilitate access to power or influence" (p. 371) and that role modeling is a passive activity that does not provide the benefits of a mentoring relationship. This may have been the first study that suggested, "Mentoring may also have a place in the successful implementation of affirmative action programs" (p. 371).

Process focused studies: Dyadic perspective. Six studies in the business sector considered the subject of the mentoring relationship from the perspectives of both the mentor and mentee (Dalton et al., 1977; Kram, 1980, 1983; Kram & Isabella, 1985; Reich, 1985; Willbur, 1987). Dalton et al. (1977) used a qualitative case study approach that was originally intended to discover the characteristics of high-performing individuals in professional careers. In a thorough and interesting discussion of career models, the researchers described a phenomenon that is still very much in place today, almost 30 years later: the problem of the persistence of the "pyramidal model of organizations (and of careers)" (p. 21) and the weakness of continuing education programs required to avoid "obsolescence" (p. 21). But, the researchers indicated, "studies have . . . shown repeatedly that the high performers [were] no more likely to have taken continuing education courses than the low performers" (p. 22). So, the question of the research became: "If the high performers are not taking more courses than their peers, how are

they different?" (p. 22). When the researchers looked at the effects of time, they saw a pattern that suggested people performed different roles at different times in their careers. The complexity of role, time, personal characteristics, and context came to the forefront. Kram (1980), Reich (1985), and Kram and Isabella (1985) picked up the ball from there.

Kram (1980) used a qualitative grounded theory approach and biographical interviews to explore "the nature of relationships between young managers and more experienced senior managers that enhance individual development" (p. i). Like Dalton et al. (1977), Kram looked at how the "hierarchical structure and promotional system influence . . . a developmental relationship over time" (p. ii). In her 1983 study Kram again used a qualitative grounded theory approach and biographical interviews to explore the dynamics of the mentoring relationship. She built on the work of Phillips (1977) and Missirian (1982), who had delineated phases of the mentor relationship. However, where Phillips and Missirian had used retrospective accounts, Kram (1983) explored developmental relationships as they were occurring. She described how the "mentoring relationship unfolds over time as well as how each individual influences and is influenced by the relationship at each successive phase" (p. 610). Reich (1985) used a quantitative survey descriptive approach to explore "the kind of aid given by mentors, benefits and drawbacks of the mentor relationship, its typical characteristics, and contributions that mentors made to executive careers" (p. 42). His focus was on "what happened and how it happened rather than on why mentors took certain actions" (p. 42). Kram and Isabella (1985) used a qualitative grounded theory and biographical interview approach to explore "a wider range of developmental relationships" (p. 111) by asking participants to identify "significant relationships . . . reconstructing the history of the relationship, the

participant's emergent thoughts and feelings at different times about the relationship, and the role that the relationship was perceived to have in career growth" (p. 114).

Willbur (1987) used a quantitative experimental approach to investigate "the extent to which mentoring and achievement motivation could predict a manager's career success" (p. 39). Willbur looked at "the relationship of both mentoring given and received, and . . . examined both steady-track and fast track success" (p. 40). Willbur's rationale for the study was to attempt to link mentoring and achievement motivation to career success to understand if leaders should include mentoring and achievement motivation in their leadership strategies. Willbur (1987) was the only researcher in this literature review that linked mentoring to the "apprenticeships typical of the craft trades" (p. 38). He was also careful to point out that "mentoring, as viewed today, doesn't concern formal roles as much as it does relationships" (p. 38).

In terms of definitional foundations, Kram and Isabella (1985) followed the definition used in Kram's earlier work (1980, 1983). Their research findings suggested that "mentors provide young adults with career-enhancing functions, such as sponsorship, coaching, facilitating exposure and visibility, and offering challenging work or protection" (p. 111). Reich (1985) brought forward the Levinson et al. (1978) idea about supporting the dreams of mentees in his definition of mentoring. He suggested, "Mentors can guide, help, sponsor, serve as friends and role models, and care about and believe in the dreams of protégés" (p. 42). Reich was also explicit in his assumption that "Mentors pick top performers as mentees and often help shape their careers" (p. 42). Dalton et al. (1977) defined the roles of both mentor and mentee (or apprentice) in his four-stage career model and suggested that the "subordinate's" or apprentice's "skill in managing

that relationship [stage of career development] may be a critical factor in building an effective career" (p. 24). Reich suggested that at this first stage in career development the apprentice "works closely with the mentor, learning from observation and from trial and correction the approaches, the organizational savvy, and the judgment that no one has yet been able to incorporate into textbooks" (p. 24). Reich suggested the apprentice was motivated to do this to obtain "the sponsorship of his mentor" (p. 24). Reich's model addressed the "colleague" stage where "peer relationships take on greater importance" (p. 27) and the "mentor" stage where a professional "learns to take care of others, to assume some form of responsibility for their work" (p. 30) and "has responsibilities downward as well as upward" (p. 31). Although Reich's model might not be applicable in today's dynamic knowledge-worker environment of quick-forming teams and rapid shifts of responsibilities, its value was in the thorough descriptions of the various related roles that must be considered when looking at mentoring. Dalton, Swigert, VanVelsor, Bunker, and Wachholz (1999) argued that "75 percent of the events that individuals report as critical to their careers comes from a combination of learning from the work itself and learning from others" (p. 275). Kram (1988) explored this perspective in her study of peer relationships that engaged with the broader context of work relationships beyond mentoring.

Schein (1971) gave us the organizational definition of a career as "The set of expectations held by individuals inside the organization which guide their decisions about who to move, when, how, and at what speed" (p. 401). The Dalton et al. (1977) work on career stages "provided us with a way of describing that set of expectations" (p. 38) and suggested the idea of "an organization as a setting in which careers are lived" (p. 38).

This was an early foreshadowing of the work of Wheatley (1992) and other systems scientists who described the organization as an organic living system.

Kram (1983) evolved a theory of phases of the mentoring relationship. Kram and Isabella (1985) expanded the frame to include consideration of peer relationships. Dalton et al. (1977) explored career stages and expanded the thinking of the time beyond the intense focus on the mentoring relationship. Willbur (1987) also brought an expansive perspective to the exploration of mentoring relationships. He linked the activity of a mentor with top achievers and leaders by creating the relationship between effective leadership and mentoring given and received (p. 41).

Reich (1985) explored the critical incidents in a mentoring relationship that increased the self confidence of mentees. He described them, in the order of their importance, as “early transfer to more challenging jobs, opening up new positions, and assignment to special projects” (p. 43). He suggested that sponsorship activity was the most critical assistance a mentor provided. Reich’s study was one of the first to discuss the drawbacks of the mentoring relationship. He indicated that mentees felt “marked” if their mentor lost favor in the corporation. Reich’s study also provided data on the desirability of formal mentoring programs, which were not in favor at the time. However, Reich did indicate that formal programs were beginning to appear and cited one firm’s action to assign “mentors only to minorities and females” (p. 45).

One lesson that surfaced from this group of studies was the vast difference in the value of the results between the quantitative studies and the qualitative studies. The work of Dalton et al. (1977) and Kram (1980, 1983) and Kram and Isabella (1985), who all used qualitative methods for their inquiries, were able to evolve valuable concepts and

theories from the data obtained that moved the field forward. The Dalton et al. (1977) research on career stages, Kram's (1980) work on the phases of the mentoring relationship, and Kram's later work with Isabella (1985) on peer relationships gave a grounding to the field of inquiry into mentoring practice that provided other researchers a firm foundation to build upon. It seems paradoxical that quantitative studies appear to be more respected by the community of scholars within the academy, yet qualitative inquiry appears more able to get to the heart of meaning, and therefore perhaps, yield more value for the time and resources expended. The fact that these qualitative studies included the perspectives of both the mentor and the mentee (or both peers in a peer-to-peer relationship) may have, as well, been a factor in the apparent increased value proposition experienced from these studies. It is interesting to note that only one of the studies from the education sector (Noe, 1988a) approached their research from the perspectives of both the mentor and mentee.

Process focused studies: Individual perspective. Four studies in the business sector approached the exploration of mentoring from an individual perspective, from one side or the other of the mentoring dyad. Davis (1979), Bowen (1985), and Riley and Wrench (1985) explored mentoring relationships from the single perspective of the mentee. Torrance (1983) explored mentoring from the perspective of the mentor.

Davis (1979) used a qualitative case study approach to his inquiry into the "essential characteristics of the relationship between mentor and protégé [in order to] construct a taxonomy which cataloged those characteristics" (p. 12). Torrance (1983) performed a longitudinal quantitative, quasi-experimental study into the "characteristics, functions, development, termination, and persistence of mentor relationships" (p. 3).

Bowen (1985) used a quantitative descriptive survey technique supplemented with interviews to explore the area of cross-gender mentoring. Although the researcher discussed interviewing both mentees and mentors, most of the data presented was from the perspective of the mentee, so this study was included in this "individual perspective" section. The only data that appeared to have been gathered from the mentors was in regard to the "hanky-panky and hassles" (p. 32) issues that the mentoring pair had to deal with from friends, co-workers, and spouses. Mentors provided information on "whether sexuality creates insuperable barriers to males mentoring females" (p. 32).

Riley and Wrench (1985) used a quantitative ex post-facto research design. They created a Career Support Scale to describe what the researchers called the "characteristics of a 'true' mentoring relationship" (p. 375). The researchers intended to understand if "true mentoring" was indeed seen as more effective than other forms of mentoring. They intended to understand what factors led to success or failure in mentoring relationships.

Definitions of mentoring used in these research studies followed traditional lines. Riley and Wrench (1985) saw a mentor as an "older professional who gives the protégé advice, help, and emotional support" (p. 374) and "teaches the ropes" (p. 374). Bowen (1985) developed a working definition of mentoring:

> Mentoring occurs when a senior person in terms of age and experience undertakes to provide information, advice, and emotional support for a junior person in a relationship lasting over an extended period of time and marked by substantial emotional commitment by both parties. (p. 31)

Torrance (1983) saw the mentor role as being filled "by a non-member of the mentee's peer group who possesses prestige and power in the same social system" (p. 2). Torrance also saw the mentor encouraging and supporting, protecting and guarding, as well as giving the mentee space to make mistakes and learn from them. Davis (1979)

used Schein's (1978) framework of mentor roles as his working definition, and upon that built his taxonomy of mentor characteristics.

Findings from these studies were not as rich as those obtained from the studies in the previous section where both mentor and mentee perspectives were sought. However, Riley and Wrench's (1985) woman-centered study was important work around the concept of "true" mentoring. It was the only study in the business sector that created a value discussion about the level of mentoring intensity. This focus was seen in two studies from the education sector of this paper (Hardcastle, 1982; Noe, 1988a). Riley and Wrench's (1985) work also suggested that the assumption of increased value received from "group mentoring relationships" (p. 385) over traditional mentoring relationships might be erroneous.

Bowen's (1985) study on cross-gender mentoring found that there was evidence of "sex-related problems unique to cross-sex mentoring as they affect relationships at work and at home" (p. 33). Yet Bowen also suggested that this problem was exaggerated in the popular press at that time. Davis's (1979) taxonomy of mentoring characteristics appears elementary now, but was important foundational work and was cited in Kram (1983). Torrance's longitudinal study was unique in that it followed participants from the elementary school years through young adulthood. It attempted to measure the relationship between mentoring experiences and creativity.

Summary. The following paragraphs serve as a summary of research in the business domain. The chosen paradigm is identified, followed by a brief description of how the researchers focused the attention of their inquiry within empirical studies in the

business sector. Whether the mentoring pair operated within a formal or informal structure is noted where it was identified as a part of the research.

The quantitative study by Olian et al. (1988) covered the primary relationship between the mentor and mentee from the mentees' perspective, and then explored what attracts a mentee to a mentor. The relationship was simulated via use of transcripts. The quantitative study by Willbur (1987) explored the "two-way" value proposition between the mentor and mentee and how the mentoring relationship might lead the mentee toward the mentoring of others. The relationship was informal. The quantitative study by Riley and Wrench (1985) was a "woman-centered" study that explored how prevalent mentoring is among women professionals, and explored the frequency of "true" mentoring relationships. Relationships explored were informal. The qualitative study by Davis (1979) focused on the essential characteristics of the mentoring relationship from the mentee's perspective. The relationship was informal. The quantitative study by Burke (1984) covered the primary relationship between the mentor and mentee from the mentee's perspective and mainly researched content and demographic data, with an emphasis on functions served. The relationship was informal. The qualitative study of Dalton et al. (1977) explored career developmental relationship stages and described both apprenticeship and mentoring relationships as developmental stages in a person's journey within a workplace context. The relationships described were informal. The quantitative study by Roche (1979) covered the primary relationship between the mentor and mentee from the mentees' perspective. The relationship was informal. The quantitative study by Fagenson (1988) covered the primary relationship between the mentor and mentee from the mentee's perspective. The relationship was informal. The qualitative study by Kram

(1980) covered the primary relationship between the mentor and mentee from both the mentee's and the mentor's perspectives and taking into consideration the organizational context within which the relationship occurred. The relationship was informal. The qualitative study by Kram (1983) covered the benefits of the primary relationship between the mentor and mentee from both the mentee's and the mentor's perspectives. Organizational development factors were considered. The relationship was informal. The qualitative study by Bowen (1985) covered the benefits of the primary relationship between the mentor and mentee from the mentee's perspectives over time. The relationship was informal. The qualitative study by Reich (1985) covered the benefits of the primary relationship between the mentor and mentee from the mentee's perspectives. The relationship was informal. The qualitative study by Kram and Isabella (1985) introduced the "peer mentoring" relationship, which they describe as a "two-way" relationship. The relationship was informal.

The quantitative study by Alleman et al. (1984) explored the differences between those who considered themselves mentors and peers who were "non-mentors" to determine if there were any differences in their behaviors relative to teaching and sharing information. This study was unusual in that the Leadership Development Questionnaire (LDQ) was used to measure behaviors of mentors toward mentees and control group supervisors toward control subordinates. Results supported the popular notion that, indeed, mentors and non-mentors behaved decidedly differently but results also indicated that there was no significant difference in personality characteristics between mentors and their non-mentoring peers. Thus, the researchers concluded that "the difference

between mentors and non-mentors [was] found in what they [did] not in who they [were]" (p. 331).

Although the qualitative case study by Yeager (1986) was not included in the detailed analysis, it is included in this section because of the unusual nature of the study. Yeager described the mentoring relationship in the context of a culture of participation. The expert participants in this study reflected on mentoring practice and the impact that participatory management practices might have on the mentoring pair. I also did not discuss the Levinson et al. (1978) benchmark study because it was so often discussed and cited by the other studies. However, I include it here because it is important to see that Levinson and his associates (like Kram and her associates) thought it important to include the organizational context in the mentoring relationship equation. The Levinson et al. quantitative study described mentoring as one of the most complex and valuable of human relationships and suggested that this relationship involved emotions of altruism and service that were profoundly different from any other behaviors that were found in the workplace. They described a value proposition that was equally beneficial for the mentor and the mentee. The relationships Levinson and his associates studied were informal as there were few formal mentoring programs in place in the business sector when they conducted their study.

Summary of Literature Review

This extensive literature review fleshed out the body of significant empirical literature on mentoring relationships. The cross-disciplinary and historical literature review was included to ensure that the subject was approached from a holistic perspective. The intention was to understand the social construction of the concept of

mentoring by analyzing its multiple dimensions as documented in the textual record across time and in multiple contexts. This literature review encompassed empirical and non-empirical literature from the fields of business, education, psychology, sociology, health care, counseling and supervision, management and leadership, anthropology, history, religion, and spirituality. Some books and articles included in this literature review were not written to directly address the practice of mentoring, such as anthropological works, but these were included to expand the scope of what is traditionally thought of as the practice of mentoring and were important in forming a personal conceptualization and dimensionalization of this ancient human behavior.

Methodology

Introduction

The primary purpose of this study was to explore the experiences of participants in mentoring relationships within formal mentoring programs in a corporate setting. The mentoring relationship, when formalized through corporate mentoring program structures, extends the traditional dyadic form of mentor and mentee relationship to include managers. This triadic relationship and its influence on the mentoring experiences of participants have remained largely unexplored in the research literature.

As it is the personal experience and perceived meaning of the mentoring relationship to individual participants that is of prime importance in this research, the qualitative paradigm was followed. A grounded theory model was employed, using dimensional analysis to explore the interview data. Engineers and technical professionals within a corporate context who participated in a formal mentoring program, as well as organizational managers of mentors and mentees, were the participants in this study.

"In the qualitative method, clusters of information, rather than the number(s) of occurrences of bits of information are analyzed" (Grant, 1998, p. 46). Open-ended, broad-based interview questions were used to allow the participants to freely articulate their "lived experience" (Barrett, 2002) of mentoring. An increasingly specific focus evolved from a concurrent analysis-and-interview process. According to Grant (1998) this "search and discover" approach, with an ongoing adjustment to evolving concepts "allow[s] the data itself to guide theoretical construction" and enables new knowledge to be constructed (p. 46).

Type of Qualitative Design Chosen: Grounded Theory

In 2004, Glaser argued (with a tinge of irritability) that

> Grounded theory is simply a set of integrated conceptual hypotheses systematically generated to produce an inductive theory about a substantive area. . . . Its data collection and analysis procedures are explicit and the pacing of these procedures is, at once, simultaneous, sequential, subsequent, scheduled, and serendipitous, forming an integrated methodological ”whole” that enables the emergence of conceptual theory as distinct from the thematic analysis characteristic of qualitative data analysis research. (p. 2)

His irritability was generated by what he saw as the ”remodeling” of the grounded theory methodology as a result of the “cherry picking” (p. 2) of selective aspects of grounded theory and subsuming them within the qualitative data analysis research methodology. While allowing that qualitative data analysis remains a “worthy, respectable, and acceptable” (p. 3) method for qualitative research, Glaser differentiated the two approaches by arguing that there is a clear

> …difference between received concepts, problems, and frameworks imposed on data by qualitative data analysis methods and grounded theory’s focus on the generation and emergence of concepts, problems and theoretical codes. . . . The goal of grounded theory is to generate a conceptual theory that accounts for a pattern of behavior which is relevant and problematic for those involved. (p. 3)

The “substantive area” area chosen for this study was the social process known as *mentoring*. Specifically explored was the “pattern of behavior” or “symbolic interaction” that expressed the “character of interaction as it [took] place between human beings” (Blumer, 1937, p. 180) in a specific context, as it was directly described by those engaged in the interactions. The process of mentoring is a phenomenon that is wholly constructed by the participants involved and yet is clearly influenced by contextual elements. As Shibutani (1961) put it:

> . . . behavior is not regarded merely as a response to environmental stimuli, an expression of inner organic needs, nor a manifestation of cultural patterns. The importance of sensory cues, organic drives, and culture is certainly recognized, but the direction taken by a person's conduct is seen as something that is constructed in the reciprocal give and take of interdependent [people] who are adjusting to one another. (p. 30)

"Social interactionism is a series of processes which take place in the context of the social world and among individuals who are continually designating symbols to each other and to the self" (Bowers, 1988, p. 41) through means such as language. According to Blumer (1969), symbolic interactionism is a complex series of social processes involving the "fitting together of lines of behavior of the separate participants" (in Bowers, 1988, p. 42). "Symbolic interactionism focuses on [inherent] meanings as they are part of social interaction [within a particular context]. . . . Social interactionists regard reality as something that is developed socially, by the construction of perspectives that are developed in interactions with one another" (Grant, 1998, p. 48).

Mentoring relationships are developed socially by the construction of the perceptions and the perspectives of the participants in the relationship that occur over time through the interactions of the participants with one another. How the mentoring participants communicate to one another, the meaning derived from "the reciprocal give and take" (Shibutani, 1961, p. 30) of their interrelationship, how they understand their experiences within the context of a large, hierarchical organizational culture and formalized corporate mentoring structures are central to this study. In particular, the focus is on the meaning derived from the experiences of the participants in this triadic relationship, the interrelationships formed from the derived meaning, and the intersections of meaning across the three perspectives. The "operationalizing method"

called grounded theory, as defined by Glaser (1978, p. 2), with its deep roots in symbolic interactionism (Bowers, 1988), is well suited for the research purpose.

Research Questions

The questions of the research addressed the experiences of mentoring by mentors, mentees, and managers within the context of a formal corporate mentoring program. The main "authentic" research question was: What was your experience of mentoring? In accordance with a grounded theory approach, the interviews of participants were initiated with this very general question. For organizational managers, the initial question was: What was your experience of having people who report to you engaged in mentoring relationships?

As researcher in this study, I explored participants' perspectives of others, but also their personal self-reflections. I allowed them to "define the situation [they were] in" (Charon, 1992, p. 24). I endeavored to

> …provide an opportunity for [participants] to describe and define the variables that [were] most salient and important to them in [mentoring] situations and to understand how their unique and individual reasoning and thinking processes contribute to the social interactions in [mentoring]. (Grant, 1998, p. 49)

As well, I asked participants to reflect on their partner in the learning relationship (either mentor or mentee) as well as to share their reflections on the role of their organizational manager in their mentoring experience(s). In interviews with organizational managers, I asked them to reflect on their experience of having their employees involved in mentoring relationships.

Research Design

According to Bowers (1988), "Interactionists begin in the empirical world and build their theories from there" (p. 36). This theory-from-empirical research approach

requires an iterative design for studies in this paradigm and an evolutionary process of meaning making derived through the analysis of people's subjective experience as related through the interview process. The generation of grounded theory from the interview data in this study was enriched through the use of "dimensional analysis" (Schatzman, 1991), which provided "specific analytic processes involved in the definition and interpretation of data that lead to theory building" (Kools et al., 1996, p. 313).

"A dimension is an abstract concept with associated properties that provide quantitative or qualitative parameters or modifiers for the purpose of description" (Kools et al., 1996, p. 316). Dimensionalizing of research data attempted to answer the question "What *all* is involved here?" (Schatzman, 1991). The fundamental question of the grounded theory approach to qualitative research is: "What is the *basic social process* that underlies the phenomenon of interest?" (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The fundamental difference between these two questions is one of scope. The holistic perspective offered by Schatzman "encourages the researcher to expand the realm of conceptual possibilities [and] discover the meanings of interactions" (Kools et al., 1996, p. 316).

Dimensional analysis, or dimensionality, is a process that allows for the derivation of meaning by understanding the wholeness of a phenomenon or situation. Dimensional analysis is based on a theory of "natural analysis," which Schatzman (1991) conceptualized as a

> …normative cognitive process generally used by people to interpret and understand problematic experiences or phenomena . . . learned through early socialization [that] provides individuals with a schema that they can then subsequently use to structure and analyze the intricacies of phenomena of ordinary life." (Kools et al., 1996, p. 314)

Schatzman (1991) described dimensionality as "a property and variety of human thinking that turns language towards interrogative and analytic processes in the face of cognitive

problems with phenomena, that is, when recognition and recall fail to provide situationally sufficient understanding" (p. 309).

Dimensional analysis, in the context of qualitative research, extends a natural human cognitive ability to apply to the complex problematic situations addressed in empirical research. Thus, analysis in the context of research intended to generate theory is linked with the interpretive actions that one naturally and commonly employs every day (Schatzman, 1991, in Kools et al., 1996, p. 314). In this way, research becomes a clear extension of naturally occurring human behavior. The specific operation of dimensionalizing "entails the designation or naming of data bits and the expansion of those data into their various attributes including dimensions and their properties" (p. 316).

The foundations for this unique approach to empirical research emerged from the embedding of dimensional analysis in symbolic interactionism philosophy (Blumer, 1969; Dewey, 1938; Mead, 1934). According to Blumer (1969), "human beings act toward things on the basis of the meanings that things have for them" (p. 2). "Therefore, symbolic interactionists examine both the emergence of meaning and the way meaning functions in the context of social interaction. The meaning of 'meaning' is a question of critical importance" (Stryker & Statham, 1985, p. 320). Symbolic interactionism was "an approach designed to yield verifiable knowledge of human group life and human conduct" (Blumer, 1969, p. 21) by exploring the meaning that people attribute to relationships, activities, events, and other elements of everyday life. "Schatzman elaborated on this premise by conceptualizing the construct of dimensionality" (Kools et al., 1996, p. 315), which refers to an individual's ability to address the complexity of a

phenomenon by noting its parts, attributes, interconnections, context, processes, implications, and meaning (Schatzman, 1991, p. 309).

From my post-graduate studies in Whole Systems Design, I had internalized the concept of "systemic thought" as the consideration of everything existing in an environment and within a particular context (space, time, and interactions and interdependencies of elements). The discipline of Whole Systems Design holds that elements or parts compose wholes with the parts being interdependent and interconnected in profound and often unseen and subtle ways. "Such assemblies of functional relationships lead to the emergence of phenomena that transcend the attributes and qualities of the things themselves" (Nelson & Stolterman, 2003, p. 73). Attention to this phenomenon of emergent qualities is inherent in life and in relationships, and is a foundational element of both the discipline of design and the grounded theory dimensional analysis approach to research.

At least one other arena was important to consider as foundational to this research: role theory in the context of symbolic interactionism.

> Role is viewed as a construct to examine better the cooperative behavior, communication, and general relationships that exist among individuals and groups. The notion of role suggests that social interaction may be looked upon as a drama with actors playing multiple roles, moving from one to another as they become involved with new social situations or encounter other actors. (Abrell & Hanna, 1978, p. 440)

Symbolic interactionists apply the term *role* "to any socially recognized category of actors, [which includes positions or] the kinds of people it is possible to be in a given society" (Stryker & Statham, 1985, p. 323).

> Like any category, a positional term can serve as a cue to or predictor of the behavior of persons to whom the term is attached. Doing so, the term organizes behavior with reference to these persons. When a positional label is attached to an actor, we expect behaviors from the actor, and we behave toward that actor on the premise of these expectations. It is these expectations that the *role* designates. . . . To use the term role is necessarily to refer to interaction. (Stryker & Statham, 1985, p. 323)

An understanding of role theory in the context of symbolic interaction was important to this research because mentor, mentee, and organizational manager can be considered to be both *roles* and *positions*. In the context of mentoring relationships, people typically play multiple roles concurrently and can take multiple positions, which, in turn, can have "contradictory expectations" (p. 324). "The concept of *role-taking*, defined as the process of anticipating the responses of others with whom one is implicated in social interaction" (p. 324), was of critical importance to this research. The expectations of the mentee relative to the mentor and/or manager, and vice versa, in many ways determined the experience of the relationship.

> Role may be thought of as a complex system of guided behavior that is defined by the expectations of others, but always in a state of flux and changing according to the situation and interpretation of such by the actors involved. (Abrell & Hanna, 1978, p. 440)

The roles of mentor, mentee, and manager involve anticipating the responses of the other, determined to a large extent by the power of the historical role types, the overhead of cultural pressures, and the dynamics of the common contextual symbols and meanings that impact the triadic relationship. What confounded research into the experiences of these role participants was that any one informant was likely to have played more than one role, or may have been concurrently involved in multiple roles and/or positions, and thus their relating of their experience came inherently from multiple perspectives but through one voice. Stryker and Statham (1985) argued,

> Implicit in the conceptualization of groups as structures of positions and roles is the fact that usually persons are members of many groups. . . . [meaning] that norms applying in one group to which persons belong may either conflict with or reinforce the norms applying to another. (p. 331)

To some extent, people "act out scripts written by the culture [for a particular role or position]" (p. 331). When multiple roles are engaged in simultaneously and the cultural message has confusing role expectations, confusing symbolic interactions can occur. The research findings relative to this point will be shared in Chapter 4.

Description of the Study

In this study, only formal interviews were used to collect data, and data were gathered from three sets of phenomena: the expressed experiences of mentors, mentees, and managers. Ongoing analysis of the literature, question/hypothesis generation, and data collection and analysis occurred simultaneously and guided the interview questions and sample selection. Grant (1998) suggested, "Dimensionalizing is similar to open coding, except that all codes are considered dimensions of experience, no matter how they first appear" (p. 69). Grant agreed with Schatzman's (1991) argument that "assembly, and configuration or patterning of situational components, conceived dimensionally, *is* analysis. The definition of a constructed situation is a theory of it" (from Grant, 1998, pp. 68-69).

The process of inquiry in this research followed three stages of analysis: (a) dimensionalizing/designation, (b) differentiation, and (c) integration/reintegration as outlined in Kools et al. (1996, pp. 322-328). Following this general process, dimensional analysis "rigorously delineates the processes involved in deriving theory from data" (p.

328). This method, as previously discussed, has many parallels to the Whole Systems Design process with which I am both academically and professionally familiar.

"Memoing is a crucial process for the grounded theory researcher" (Bowers, 1988, p. 51). Reflective and theoretical memoing was a critical part of making visible the unseen or unspoken reality. Data in this research consisted of field notes, verbatim transcriptions of digitally captured interviews, theoretical memos, and extensive modeling. Memos and models provided an ongoing record of conceptual development and recorded important decisions and shifts in focus as they emerged.

A team of researchers participated in this study to "expand the interpretive circle for theory development" (Benson & Holloway, 2005 p. 12) and functioned to eliminate error and verify data (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). The research team consisted of doctoral students, who were all skilled in grounded theory dimensional analysis, and a senior researcher. The team participated in both the open-coding and axial coding processes of the research and "serve[d] an important rhetorical role in creating the grounded theory" (Benson & Holloway, 2005 p. 12).

Role Considerations of the Researcher

I was the researcher and the primary instrument of the study (Creswell, 1994; Merriam, 1983).

> Researchers do not enter into the realm of grounded theory analysis as a blank slate: we enter into the study of others with all of who we are (our experiences and how they have formed us) and what we know (from our experiences and how we have constructed them into our own reality). (Grant, 1998, p. 51)

I came to this study with an interest in mentoring from my personal and professional experiences of this human phenomenon. As Bowers (1984) stated:

> There is much that the researcher brings "to the field" and to the conceptualization of the problem. There is usually prior knowledge or experience in the same or a similar substantive area, which "arrives" with the researcher. The grounded theorist/dimensional analyst uses this prior knowledge as comparative data, conjuring variations and conditions that stimulate research questions and inquiry. (p. 72, from Grant, 1998, p. 51)

I came to this study with years of experience within the context where this study was conducted. I worked closely with many engineers and technical professionals within the same corporation where this research took place. During the research, I watched myself constantly to ensure I maintained the "marginality . . . necessary to raise analytical questions" (Bowers, 1988, p. 44). I continually compared the accounts of research subjects with each other, with the literature, with my research team, and with my acknowledged received theory. This approach resulted in an iterative design and followed a model with which I am quite familiar, that of modern engineering and manufacturing processes that are now largely accomplished as concurrent, iterative design activities.

A critical component of my background was mentioned earlier in this chapter, but is important to highlight. The study of design as a discipline, through my master's work at Antioch University's Whole Systems Design graduate program at Seattle, Washington, taught me to focus first on the *whole system* when performing design activities and to look from the whole to the parts, rather than from the parts to the whole as is typical of empirical analysis. The process of whole systems design consists of stages of design activities: immersion, divergence, convergence, integration, and composition. The process of dimensional analysis as conceptualized by Schatzman (1991) and elaborated by Kools et al. (1996) describes the stages of analysis in research as dimensionalization/designation, differentiation, and integration/reintegration. When one considers the requisite immersion in the data required by any researcher, the parallels

between the two processes stand out. They are fundamentally sister processes for understanding the fullness of experience. Both result in a product that has never existed before and both consider how that product is both influenced by and influences the context in which it lives. My internalization of Whole Systems Design as a lifelong learning pursuit enabled me to bring dimensional analysis into my repertoire with comfort and a vivid appreciation of its core values.

Participant Pool

The participant sample was drawn from a pool of approximately 500 engineering and technical professionals, at various levels of experience and job classification, who participated in a formal mentoring program within the subject corporation over the last 5 years (since January, 2002). Organizational managers were included in the pool. The demographics of the pool were obtained from data provided from a survey conducted by Moore Research in 2001 and are shown in Tables 3.1 and 3.2. No educational characteristics were obtained, but analysis of the employment requirements for the engineering and technical categories within the corporate job classification system showed that a bachelor's degree was a minimum requirement for these job classifications, and many of the participants were likely to have advanced degrees. No racial demographics were available for the pool.

Table 3.1. Pool Demographics

Professional Group	Male	Female
Engineer/Technical	83%	14%
Supervisors	85%	12%

Table 3.2. Length of Service Data

Years of Service	Engr/Tech	Supervisors
Fewer than 6 years	22%	3%
6 to 15 years	33%	23%
16 to 30 years	38%	60%
More than 30years	6%	12%

Research Goals and Procedures

I completed and submitted the Human Subjects Form for approval by the departmental representative on the Antioch Institutional Review Board (IRB). Upon receipt of approval to proceed, the proposal review meeting was held with my dissertation committee. Following approval of my proposal, my study commenced. Email letters requesting participation in the research (Appendix B) were drafted and forwarded to participants requesting volunteers and completion of a demographics questionnaire (Appendix C). Respondents were given two weeks to reply.

Sampling Procedures

In its approach to sampling, grounded theory is similar to ethnography and phenomenology. Patton (1990) prescribes that “informants be selected in a purposeful manner, not by random assignment to the participant group” (p. 182). The two types of sampling I employed in this study were defined by Patton as “stratified purposeful sampling” to illustrate “characteristics of interest” and “theory-based or operational construct sampling” intended to illustrate a “theoretical construct of interest so as to elaborate and examine the construct” (pp. 182-183).

Because this was an exploratory study, with the intent of understanding the nature of the mentoring relationship as experienced by participants, it was important to ensure the research sampling was inclusive and that data was collected from representatives from all groups in the general pool. At the same time, with so large a pool of possible participants, purposeful sampling was used to restrict the dataset. Members of the sample population were asked to volunteer for participation in this research by responding to an email inquiry. As previously mentioned, a questionnaire to assist in purposeful sampling (Appendix C) was included with the email. Participants were asked to identify their role as having been a mentor, mentee, or manager, their ethnicity, gender, and age range. If they responded that their role was as a manager, they were asked to identify if they were the manager of a mentor or a mentee. Additional questions helped to filter the participant population of 93 that responded to my email. Informants were selected into the interview population if they met the following criteria: (a) at least a portion of their mentoring experience was as a participant in the formal corporate mentoring program, (b) their mentoring experience occurred in the years 2002 - 2006, (c) they completed the training classes provided by the corporate program, and (d) the mentoring relationship lasted more than 6 months. Demographic data from the questionnaire was used to ensure inclusiveness in the final group of informants. There was no attempt to interview matched pairs or to interview the specific organizational managers of those interviewed, although in some cases this did occur. Table 3.3 lists the participant demographics. The average age range was 45 - 55.

Table 3.3. Diversity of Participants

Actual Job Role	Ethnicity	Gender	Number in Role	**Total Number**
Technical Professional	Caucasian	Female		**5**
Mentee			3	
Mentor			2	
Technical Professional	Caucasian	Male		**1**
Mentor			1	
Technical Professional	Asian	Female		**1**
Mentee			1	
Technical Professional	Asian	Male		**2**
Mentee			2	
Technical Professional	African American	Female		**1**
Mentor			1	
Technical Professional	African American	Male		**2**
Mentee			1	
Mentor			1	
Manager	Caucasian	Female	3	**3**
	Caucasian	Male	4	**4**
	African American	Female	1	**1**
Executive Manager	Caucasian	Female	4	**4**
	Caucasian	Male	2	**2**
	African American	Female	1	**1**
	Hispanic	Female	1	**1**
		TOTAL	28	**28**

Sequence of Research Activities

The iterative nature of grounded theory research and the resultant recursive analysis results in findings being discovered and "auditioned" (Schatzman, 1991) throughout the process. Therefore, an explanation of the procedures in grounded theory research necessarily will reveal some findings. In order to make the process that was followed as transparent as possible, a chronological description of researcher actions,

analyses, and results is provided here. Fully revealing the ongoing process of data collection and iterations in the interviewing and analysis are necessarily a part of both the procedures and the preliminary findings within the interviewing and coding process that guide the procedures. Transparency of process adds to the trustworthiness of the research. Inclusion of conceptual and exploratory graphics helps to illustrate emergent thinking. A full analysis and findings are presented in Chapter 4.

March 1 to March 30, 2007: When I began my field research, I considered myself "knowledgeable in the topic to be investigated" (Kvale, 1996, p. 147) from my extensive personal experiences, opportunities I had in teaching the subject, and from the extensive literature review conducted. My main area of challenge in this part of the research I considered to be my lack of experience with interviewing. I studied Kvale (1996) and Rubin and Rubin (2005), watched interviews on television, and thought deeply about the purpose of my inquiry. I followed Kvale's recommendation and conducted several pilot interviews that prepared me to adjust in process, address my fear of interviewing, and mature my interview style through considering the constructive feedback I received.

April 1 to April 30, 2007: I conducted one interview with a research informant from each of the three perspectives, selecting them randomly from the available pool of those who had volunteered to participate in the research. I took care to inform each person about the purpose of both my research and the interview itself, the procedures I would follow during and after the interview, and to obtain their signature on the consent form (Appendix B). I emphasized the confidentiality of the interview and explained how their anonymity would be protected through my use of numbered

transcripts and my personal pledge to keep their identities private. I let them know that they could have a copy of the transcript if they wished.

Before I began the interviews, I asked if they had any questions. I told them the question I would be asking them, and I explained that the general nature of the question and its "open-endedness" was intended to ensure that I allowed their personal experience to be the focus; that it was not the purpose of my study to "prove anything" but to record their lived experience. I alerted them when I was about to turn on the recording device, ensured their readiness, turned on the recording device, introduced the interview without mentioning any information that would identify them, and asked my research question.

During the interviews, I allowed the person to answer fully without interruption, was careful to keep my body language neutral or used positive gestures such as nods, retained eye contact as much as possible, and made encouraging sounds. I chose not to take notes during the interviews as I felt that would be distracting both for me and the informant. I asked clarifying questions and doubled back on items of interest as they occurred. These first three interviewees had long monologues about personal experiences. I encouraged them to talk about their relationships, the challenges they may have faced, any emotions that came up for them, and asked them to share a story from the experience. I asked about whether their immediate manager was aware of their mentoring relationship, and if they were, whether the manager had been instrumental or how they might have engaged in the relationship. I inquired how the participant had experienced that engagement (or lack of engagement) by the manager. Before the interview concluded, I asked if they had any final comments, thanked them for their participation, and notified them when I was turning off the recording device.

Immediately after each interview, I memoed about the interview. In each memo I described the context of the interview, briefly described the physical environment, any challenges I felt during the interview, what came up for me as a result of the interview, anything I noticed before, during, or after the interview about the person, their behavior, or content that was particularly interesting. I created a matrix that gave each informant an identifying number and used that number in all future memos or journals, in the software, and throughout the research process.

Once the interviews were transcribed, my research team and I conducted a line-by-line open coding process. We collaboratively analyzed the coding to help in the refinement of my interview style and to open my awareness to multiple perspectives on the interview content. Figure 3.1 was one of the first models I created to express the relationship perspectives of the triad. It shows a simplistic understanding of the relationships among the participants with a "single role" view--that is, each participant having only one role perspective.

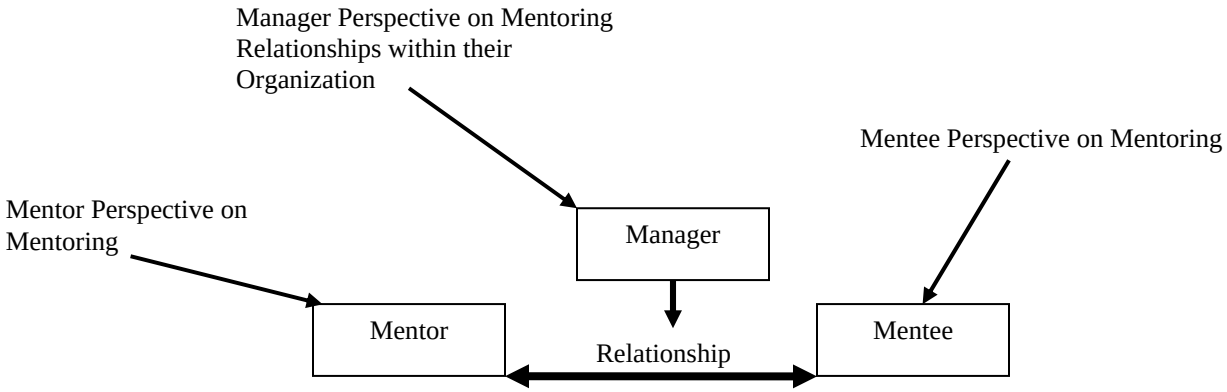


Figure 3.1. First Conceptual Model of Perspectives of Triad Relationship

May 1 to June 15, 2007: I then conducted another set of interviews, selecting the informants from the sample to ensure diversity in ethnicity, age, length of time in the relationship, and professional position for each of the three perspectives: mentor, mentee, and manager, and using the open-ended interview approach previously discussed. I coded these interviews by myself and reviewed my interview style and questions, participant responses, and coding outcomes with my research team. Obtaining their perspectives and hearing them discuss the interviews was extremely helpful. They saw things in the words of the informants that I hadn't seen. I began to see how to "look" at these interviews, in terms of content. Not just what the informants said, but what implications their statements might have on my research.

The senior researcher matched me with a research “buddy” from the research team who was well versed in the method and shared an interest in the general area I was researching. Thereafter, weekly sessions were held with the research team and/or my research “buddy” to discuss my research and my very early conceptualizations. I was journaling frequently, documenting what I was thinking about and what I saw as patterns emerging from the data.

A number of dimensions were generated from the first two sets of analyzed interviews. At this point, I created my first exploratory model from the free nodes (Figure 3.2). I was working to not conceptually “clump” the nodes, trying to keep them as singular entities at this point in the research process. But they did tend to hang together around areas like communications, learning, giving back, bonding or making connections, emotions like fear, and cultural issues like the management hierarchy and issues of gender and ethnicity.

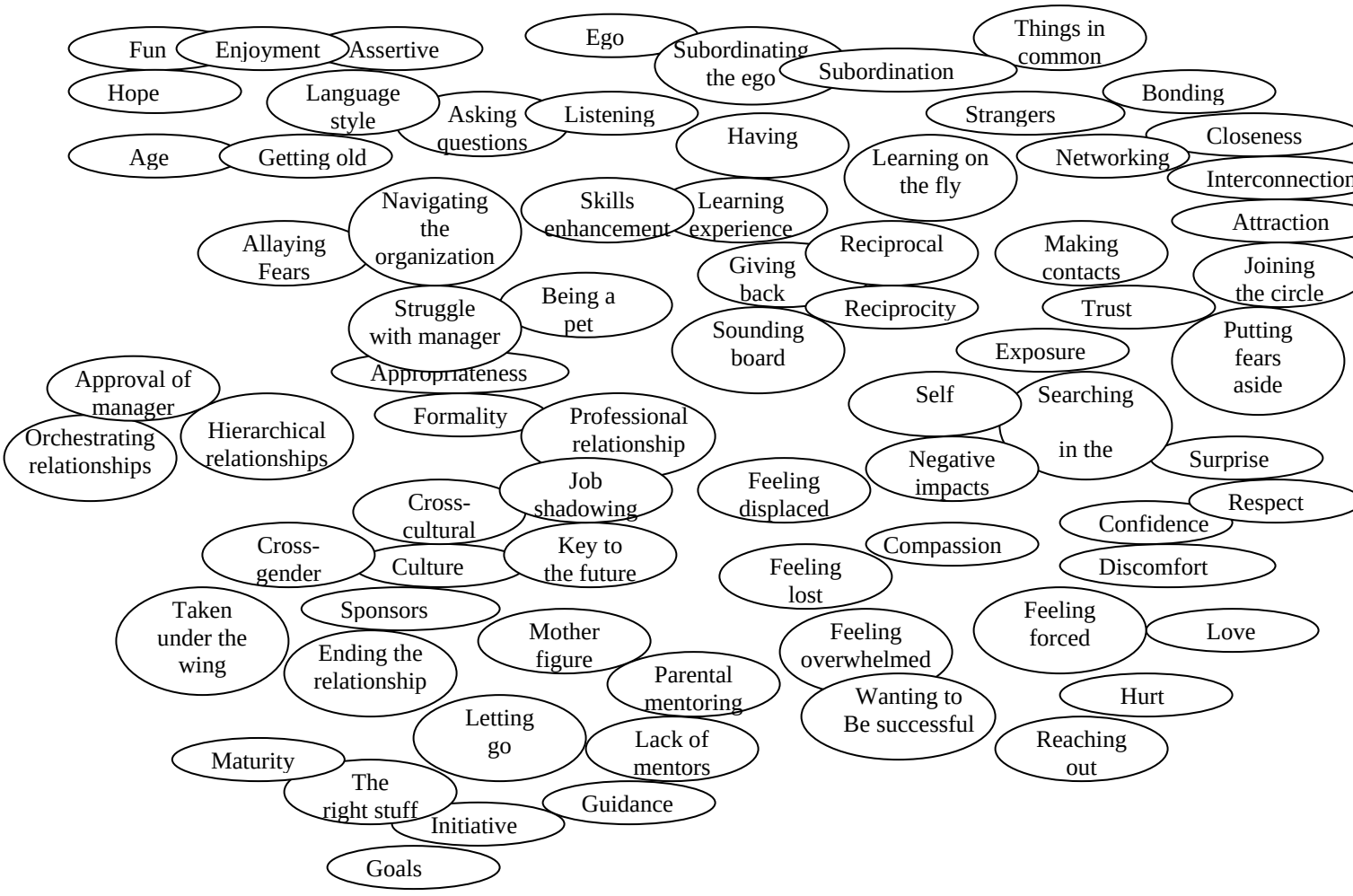


Figure 3.2. First Exploratory Coding Model (Free Nodes)

As I interviewed the next set of informants, I began to hear patterns from their role perspectives. I also was becoming aware of the multiple perspectives of informants. That is, those who had identified themselves as mentors often had experiences as mentees and/or managers. To this point, mentees retained their single perspective (they had not had experiences as either managers or mentors). For the next series of interviews I selected two managers, a mentee, and a mentor to look for trends and patterns in regard to both role and experience.

June 16 to July 31, 2007: As interviewing and coding continued, dimensions were sub-dimensionalized. Categories began to emerge from the data. That is, the natural "clumping" of dimensions continued to occur, as previously mentioned and as illustrated in Figure 3.3. The major categories at this point were: attitude, management references, coaching, learning, culture, communication, process of mentoring, evaluation, interconnectedness, reciprocity, structure of mentoring, emotions, and responsibility. The labeling of the dimensions came from the words of the participants and I explored meaning only to the extent that groups of nodes began to swell as like expressions were captured from the interviews.

> Exploring the data in this way served to further expand them in order to reveal the full realm of conceptual possibilities that they reflected. . . . Moreover, the determination of saliency was postponed until a "critical mass" of dimensions was assembled and assessed. (Kools et al., 1996, pp. 323 - 324)

At this time I began to notice the different levels of management that had responded to the survey and realized I had not considered this data point in my demographic survey. It was a "watch item" at this point to understand if there would emerge important distinctions between the experiences of first-level managers and executive managers.

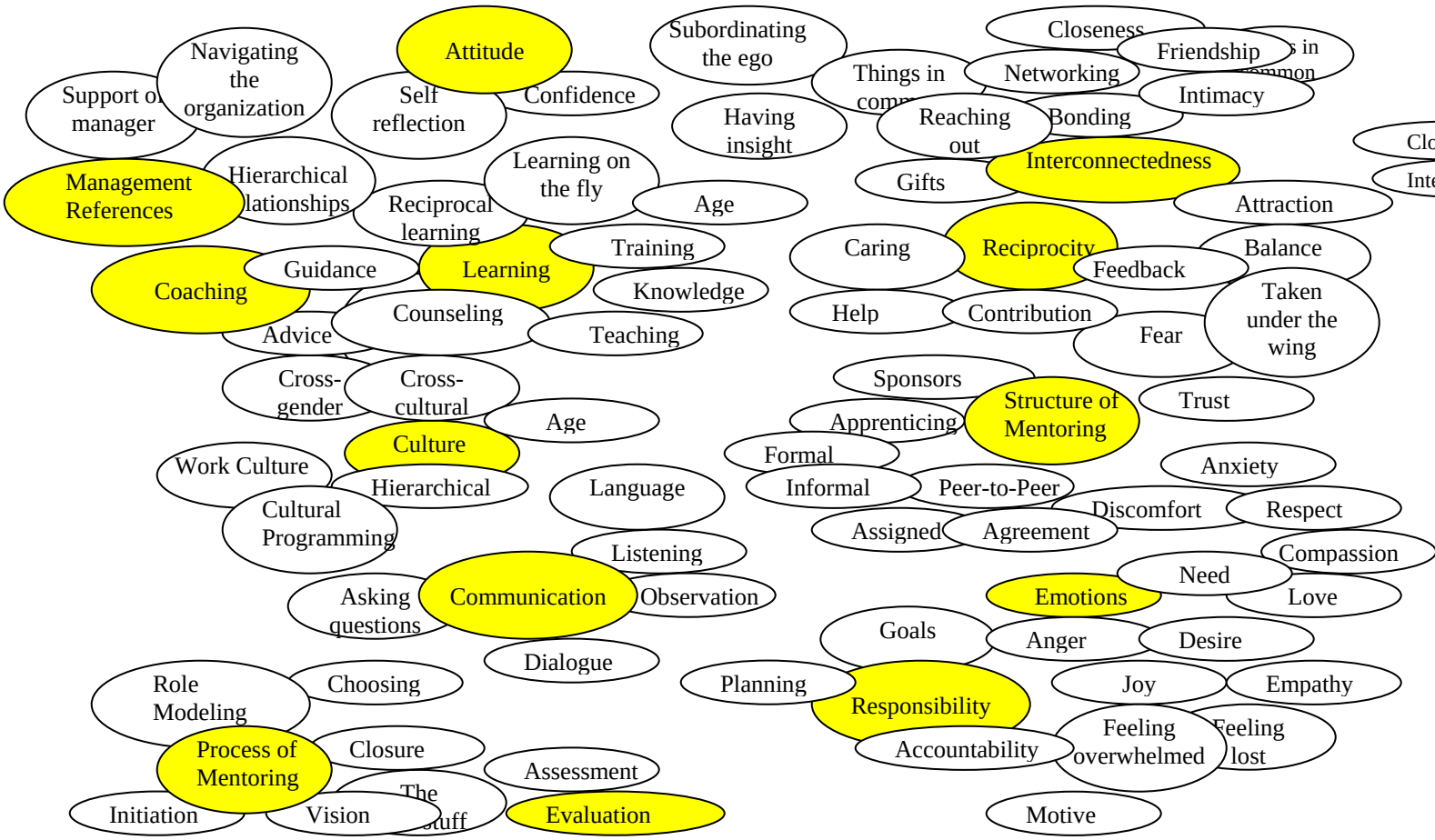


Figure 3.3. First Conceptual Model of Emerging Categories

Along with the emergence of these categories, there were patterns developing around the perceptions of the mentor/mentee toward their managers in relationship to their mentoring experiences. Comments from women and ethnic minorities suggested that there were cultural issues inside the mentoring relationship. Data from interviews with executive managers and the variety of comments from all participants about the influence of the culture on their relationships led me to create the second conceptual model of the mentoring context (Figure 3.4). Key elements of the internal organizational culture were the PE (performance evaluation) and PDP (performance development partnership); how these instruments were used as talking, planning, and assessment tools between the employee and manager; and how or whether this instrumental dynamic

carried over to the mentoring relationship or vice versa. The influence of the culture in terms of organizational politics, corporate initiatives (such as diversity and inclusion), tribal knowledge about taboos and constraints, and work priorities frequently emerged in the interviews. The multiplexed roles of participants were a constant theme.

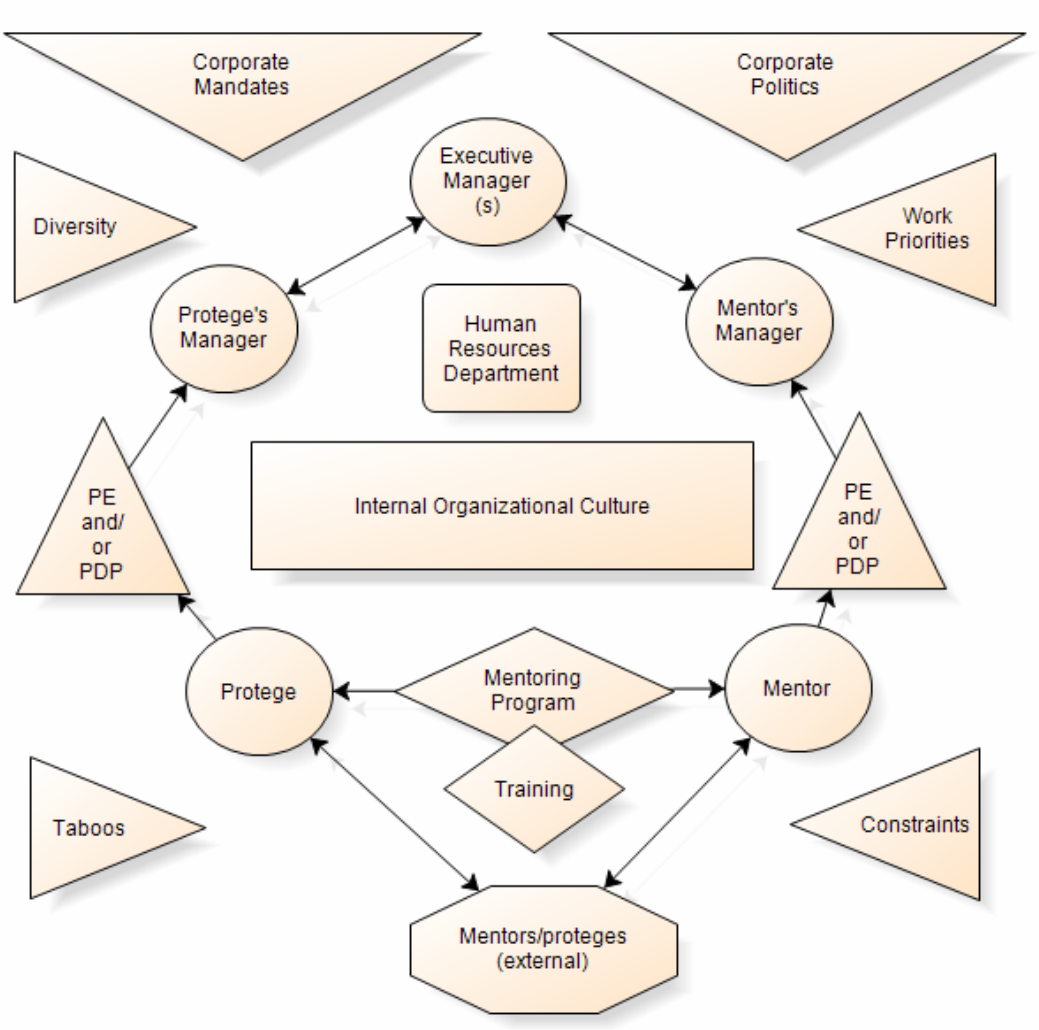


Figure 3.4. Conceptual Model of Mentoring Context

By this time, I was hearing repetitions in the expressions of the mentees' experiences, a sign that I might be reaching "critical mass" or saturation on this perspective. The creation of new nodes for the mentee perspective were slowing down and the perspective of mentor was coming from both managers who saw their role as

manager/mentor, and those who identified themselves as mentors who were not managers. Analysis of the interview codes drove the suggestion from my research team to include more interviews with managers and add the following questions in all future interviews with managers:

- What is your understanding of the role of mentor versus the role of a coach?
- What is your level of engagement in the mentoring relationships of your employees? If there was a lack of engagement, I was to probe for understanding of this phenomenon.
- What was your level of engagement in the mentoring program training? Have you received any on-going training or support? I was to probe if a lack of training seemed to be an issue.
- Have you had any cross-cultural and/or cross-gender mentoring experiences? If so, what was your experience of that relationship?

In my interviews with mentees and mentors, my research team and I agreed that I was to continue to inquire into their perceptions of their managers' interest and engagement in their mentoring relationships and to probe for their attitudes and/or feelings about the involvement of their manager (or lack of involvement). Questions around training and cross-cultural/cross-gender experiences were also to be probed.

August 1, to September 2, 2007: By this point in the research, data collection and analysis were occurring concurrently and I was returning to previous interviews to check on correspondences with emerging learning. My research team and I were in agreement that we were seeing fewer new nodes for the roles of mentor and mentee, but that we

needed to explore more deeply the perspective of the organizational manager. My understanding of the complexities and multiple perspectives of the relationship space were evolving and I created a more accurate model of the perspectives of the triad relationship than I had conceptualized in April. This is shown in Figure 3.5.

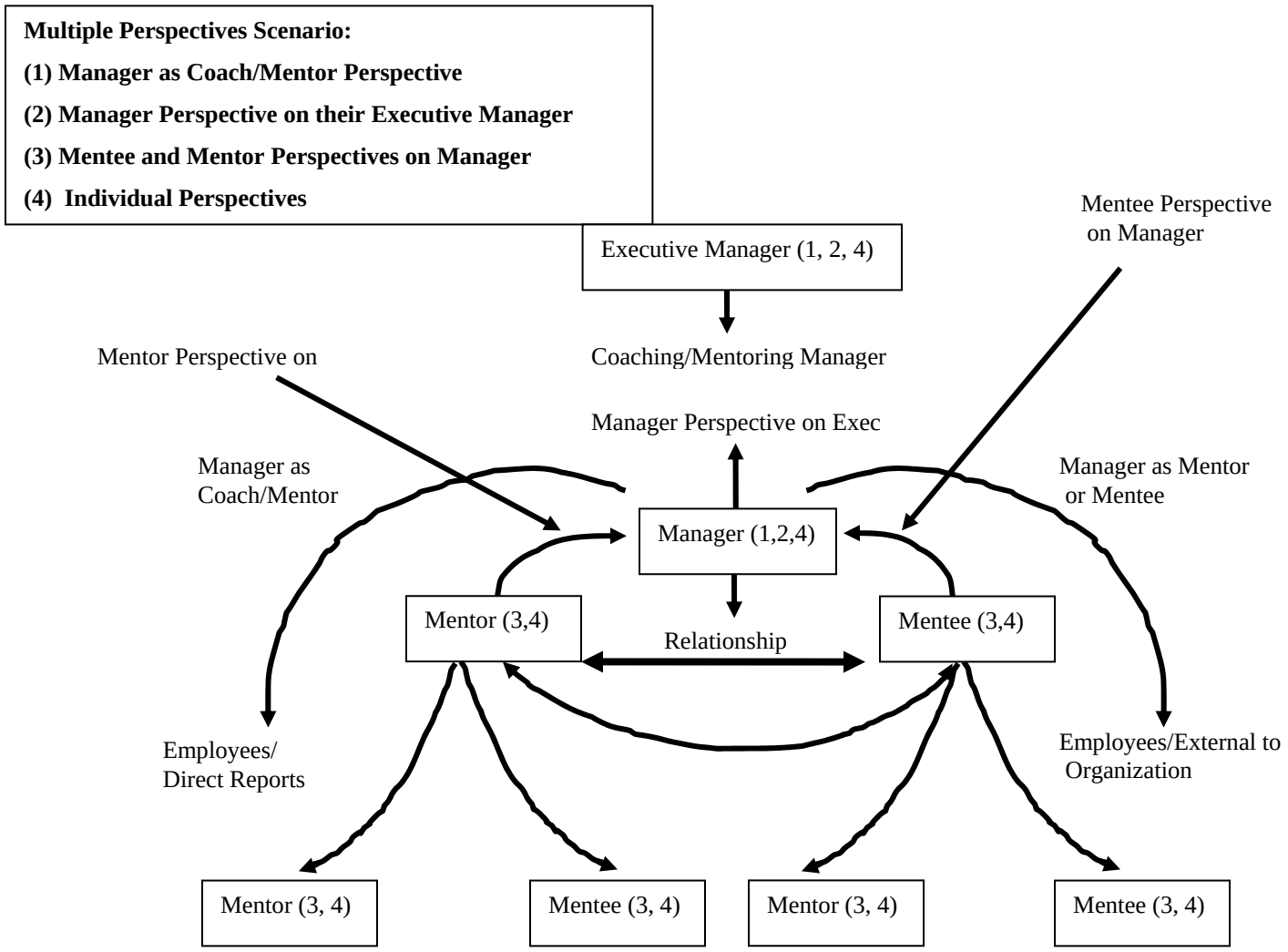


Figure 3.5. Multiple Perspectives of the Mentoring Triad

My research team and I discussed at length the importance of the role of organizational manager, the apparent differences in the perspectives between first-line

management and executive management, and the multiple roles played by managers (who may see themselves as mentor to their employees, who may, in fact, be a mentor to employees outside their organization, and who may also be a mentee to a more senior manager either within their organization or outside their organization). My team and I agreed that I should try to find managers who might represent a "negative case," that is managers who might not have played multiple roles within the mentoring context, managers who did not mentor their employees, who had not experienced mentoring relationships themselves and/or who had not been instrumental in the mentoring relationships of their employees. We also determined that I should interview one more first-level manager and one more executive-level manager to understand further the differences in perspective from these two positions in the management hierarchy. For these interviews, I realized I would have to go outside the participant sample, as all respondents to my inquiry had been involved in mentoring experiences and I had not asked participants to identify their level of management in the questionnaire. First, however, I went back through the interview transcripts, looking for leads. I found two possibilities and requested interviews with both. One accepted. As I had previously been a manager in this work environment, I knew of first-level and executive level managers that I thought might fit the profile, based on their management styles. I contacted three and one accepted. Additionally, I selected one of the managers from the sample, who turned out to be a first-level manager, and then contacted an executive manager (from outside the participant sample) who was about to retire. Both agreed to be interviewed.

I was now zeroing in on the area of human interactions in the context of mentoring from the perspective of the organizational manager, and specifically, taking a

look to see how meaning was framed from the perspective of managers that either had no mentoring experiences, did not see themselves as mentors to those that reported to them, and/or had no engagement in the mentoring relationships of those people who reported to them. Additionally, I was exploring any differences in the construction of meaning between first-level managers and executive level managers. As the data became rich enough, I developed and reviewed with the research team dimensional maps that visually displayed possible primary dimensions and their properties. When coding was complete, over 1200 nodes had been identified and categorized. A smaller but representative sample of 410 nodes is provided in Appendix D as an example of the richness of the data.

As required by the methodology, I "auditioned" many competing dimensions (Schatzman, 1991) in order to allow those that were conceptually important to emerge from the data. As relationships among the categories and dimensions were discovered, tentative theoretical concepts emerged. As discussed, the concepts were tested by the selection of interview participants who provided comparative cases. With each new analysis, concepts were confirmed, revised, or discarded (Strauss, 1987). "Analyzing data and placing them within the matrices as context, condition, and process (action/interaction), or consequence moved the research process along to capture a greater world of meaning within each of the developing structures" (Kools et al., 1996, p. 327). Ultimately, a final series of theoretical matrices were developed, each from the perspective of the mentor, mentee, or organizational manager. A theoretical story was being generated and integrated, confirmatory interviews were conducted, and "a good amount of self-talk and negotiation were occurring in conjunction with a number of peer rehearsals that took place for the same purpose of theory verification" (p. 328).

Tools

The NVivo software was used to perform the open and axial coding of the interview transcripts. This software enabled macro- and micro-categorization and dimensionalization of the data and offered multiple functions to record and interlink memos and other relevant internal and external data pertinent to the research process. A representative example of the categorization scheme generated from the NVivo tool is provided in Appendix D. NVivo, as well as external graphics tools (Visio, Excel), were used to create conceptual maps. Standard digital recording and transcription equipment were used to document the interview data. Written reflections containing insights noted during the interview were captured. The notes identified verbal and non-verbal behavior of the participants and other pertinent reflections. Extensive memoing captured the evolution of my emerging conceptualizations. The Internet-based collaboration tool Elluminate was used to enable online collaboration with the research team and Skype was used to enable low-cost audio communication, as the research team worked across multiple time zones and internationally.

Issues of Rigor and Ethics

Rigorous research is research that ensures that the tools applied in the research process are necessary and sufficient to meet the stated objectives of the investigation. Rigor, or the degree to which research methods were meticulously documented and carried out, was carefully illustrated in the step-by-step description of my research actions provided earlier in this Chapter and by my use of a data collection tool that was capable of managing and generating the level of detail appropriate to the research purpose. My ethical perspective began with adherence to the assumptions of the

qualitative paradigm. I was aware that grounded theory research, especially during the data collection and analysis phases, might present a variety of ethical problems. Interview data was shared only within my research team and was used only for research purposes. I ensured that anyone was able to find information about and understand my position and judge my behavior accordingly at any point in the process of this study.

Creswell (1994) reinforced the researcher's obligations and ethical responsibilities: "First and foremost, the researcher has an obligation to respect the rights, needs, values, and desires of the informants" (p. 165). My ethical responsibilities in data collection included maintaining high standards of interaction with the participants and making known my research objectives (including how the data would be used) both verbally and in writing early in the process. Written permission to proceed with the study was obtained from all participants and participants were assured from the beginning that they would have complete anonymity in the process. The Communications and Legal departments of the corporation, as well as key executives, provided me with permission to proceed with the study. At all times, the benefits of the study were subordinated to the safeguards that protected the rights of participants and the corporation within which they worked. At all times, I understood that the burden of producing an ethical study rested with me as the researcher involved. Upon completion of the study, the corporate Communications function, as well as responsible executives, reviewed my dissertation and granted permission for it to be released.

Summary

The purpose of this chapter has been to describe the design and procedures of the study. It included descriptions of the type of qualitative design chosen, the researcher's

role, a description of the sample and sampling procedures, a detailed and time-based description of the study procedures, descriptions of tools used, and a description of my position on issues of rigor and ethics. I have learned through great social changes in my life to be observant, a good listener, and sensitive to important themes and patterns in the verbal and non-verbal behavior of others. My educational and professional background prepared me, generally, for the rigors of research and scholarship and, specifically, for grounded theory dimensional analysis research. My experience with mentoring, engineering professionals, and humanistic concerns in academics and in the workplace prepared me well for this study.

Findings

Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the study. It is organized to describe and illustrate my findings relative to mentoring in the workplace based on the lived experience of mentors, mentees, and organizational managers. While the mentoring relationship is always unique to the participants, four primary and interconnected dimensions of mentoring, and a core dimension, were identified that together described a social process critical to and typical of the modern workplace. The organizational culture was understood as an encompassing and holding space that embraces and profoundly influences the social process of mentoring. The core dimension *Learning* threads through the primary dimensions, is the ultimate goal of the social process, and is the engine that moves people to interaction within the social process.

The first section of the chapter presents related emergent findings that were uncovered early in the research and remained key factors as the dimensional analysis matured. The second section offers a high-level description of the findings relative to the influence of the workplace culture. The third section reports the results of the dimensional analysis, detailing the primary dimensions derived from the analysis of the research data: (a) *Dialoging,* (b) *Reciprocating*, (c) *Interconnecting,* and (d) *Transforming*. The fourth section describes the rationale for identifying Learning as the core dimension and describes the qualitatively different learning characteristics that emerged from the analysis of the data.

My understanding of the dimensions of mentoring resulted from an analysis of the purpose, conditions, and consequences of the social processes within each dimension, for

each perspective, in this unique context as received through the voices of the participants. What I have highlighted in this discussion is where meaning both converged and diverged for participants. This tells us quite exactly where and how, in the processes they engaged in, in the context of the diversity of mentoring dimensions explored, from the perspective of each of the roles or positions that they played, the participants either shared meaning or did not. Where there is no evidence of shared meaning, we may assume that they experienced something unique and personal.

Emergent Findings

Two related preliminary findings emerged early in the research and remained important throughout the research process. Inquiry relative to the role of the organizational manager affected the preliminary findings in the research and drove much of the later theoretical sampling. The emergent understanding of the multiple and often concurrent roles of participants confounded the research. The difficulty in getting clear perspective became increasingly both important and difficult to clearly articulate. These two elements of the study were also key contributions that this research offered to the existing mentoring literature.

Role of the Organizational Manager

As discussed in Chapter 1, the mentoring relationship, when formalized through corporate mentoring program structures, extends the traditional dyadic form of mentor and mentee relationship to include managers. The purpose of the study was to understand the dimensions of mentoring relationships in the workplace and to deliberately include the perspectives of organizational managers in the analysis. This triadic relationship and

its influence on the mentoring experiences of participants have remained largely unexplored in the research literature.

An unexpected phenomenon occurred during the interviews. Early on, it became apparent that informants were not spontaneously mentioning or including the manager as a factor in the mentoring experience. Mentors and mentees did not mention their managers spontaneously and managers were often surprised by my question about their experience of having people who reported to them involved in mentoring relationships. However, once mentees (especially) and mentors were asked about the role their manager had played in their mentoring relationships there were multiple and often strong recounts of their experiences. The following quotes register the diversity of responses when questions were raised about the role organizational managers played in mentoring:

> I would consider my manager a mentor right now. Probably more -- far more than any formal relationship I've had. I mean, I have an amazing manager who is extremely focused on, you know, her employees. (Mentee – Interview 108)

> The previous manager I had was not what I would call a mentor. Very nice person, but during salary time, I would get a slip of paper and a handshake. There would be no dialogue. During my performance evaluation, he would just look over everything. Very rarely did he ask me to give any more information. (Manager – Interview 122)

> Everything should be open in my opinion. Managers should know what's going on. I don't think the manager wants to know in great details what exactly I'm doing. (Mentee – Interview 116)

> I actually got my external mentor as a result of struggling with my current manager. I was very frustrated and not able to express anything to my manager because she pretty much shut it down. I don't think she's even aware of it today. It's something that I keep private between me and my mentor. (Manager – Interview 104)

When I asked managers about their engagement in the mentoring relationships of their direct reports, I got a surprised reaction and this interesting response from a senior executive:

> That question really stumps me in a way, because of the lack of engagement that I probably have when a lot of the people that have worked for me have been in a mentoring experience. It immediately causes me to think that it is really a gap, a shortcoming in our process. But there's nothing formal. There is nothing structured. Which is kind of sad. Now I am feeling really guilty. I am feeling really bad that I don't know where those relationships are and if they exist. (Executive Manager – Interview 114)

Oppositionally, here is a quote from a manager who believes, upon reflection, that his lack of engagement is correct:

> I have tried to really not, which I think is correct, not involve myself in that. That's a relationship between the two folks in that situation. So I allow that mentoring environment to occur independent of me. I don't probe into it. I don't ask about it. We tend to view that as a different relationship - different set of business. (Manager – Interview 123)

It's clear from the diversity of responses from both managers and non-managers, that people were conflicted about what the appropriate role of the organizational manager should be in the mentoring relationship within this workplace. This subject will be heard in multiple quotes from the participants later in this chapter and will be addressed relative to the implications for research and practice in Chapter 6.

Multiple Roles of Participants

Before 1985 it was fairly well accepted that mentoring studies were based on the experiences of managers, as mentoring was an activity generally confined to the management ranks (e.g., Hunt & Michael, 1983; Kram, 1980; Levinson et al., 1978; Missirian, 1982; Phillips-Jones, 1982; Schein, 1978). But what was surprising, given the diversity of mentoring approaches eventually covered in the mentoring literature, many

of the most often cited empirical studies on mentoring in the business domain over the years 1985 to 2005 continued to research only managers (e.g., Fagenson-Eland, Baugh, & Lankau, 2005; Kram, 1983,1988; Kram & Hall, 1989; Lewis & Fagenson, 1995; Olian, Giannantonio, & Carroll, 1986; Parker & Kram, 1993; Ragins, 1989; Ragins & Cotton, 1993; Ragins & Scandura, 1997; Scandura & Schreishman, 1994; Scandura & Williams, 2004; Seibert, Hall, & Kram, 1995; Thomas, 1990; Turban & Dougherty, 1994). Although Kram (1980) and Kram and Isabella (1985) early on posited that peers can be mentors, opening up the literature to a broader relational perspective, the majority of the people they interviewed were managers even in the context of peer relationships. The number of studies that researched only non-managers (e.g., Dreher & Ash, 1990; Higgins & Thomas, 2001) was insignificant and, as previously stated, no studies researched the perspective of managers on the mentoring relationships of their direct reports. This has created a previously undocumented skew in the mentoring literature and suggested an ongoing bias in the empirical base toward the experience of managers. Why is this important for this research?

First of all, this study investigated the mentoring experiences of technical professionals (non-managers). Managers were brought into the study because of their known cultural role in organizations; my received knowledge from my experience in this culture as a manager, mentor, and mentee; and the apparent lack of research on the role of manager in the mentoring relationships of their employees. The first significant finding of this research, therefore, came from the literature review. The first group of participants in my research (non-managers) had been infrequently investigated, and the second group (managers), although deeply researched as mentors or mentees, apparently had not been

researched to investigate their perspective as managers of employees who were being mentored.

One element of significance in this finding was methodological. I did not realize the bias in the literature base toward the experience of managers until I had interviewed several managers and heard their confusion around my question: What was your experience of having people who report to you engaged in mentoring relationships? This drove me back to the literature to see if I could situate their confusion. The bias in the literature toward the experiences of managers helped to explain why the managers in the study had expected questions about their experiences as mentors but not questions about their experiences as managers of people who were in mentoring relationships. My question took them by surprise because there was no model anywhere in the literature or in their culture for this role for the manager. In effect, it was hidden in plain sight. The relationship existed, but it was not a relationship that had visibility. There was no role established in this regard for managers to model.

There was more to my findings in this regard. What I had believed to have been a simple question uncovered a multi-faceted constellation of potentially concurrent mentoring relationships, some of which had been separately documented in the literature, but which were now brought together through the voices of the management participants, fleshing out my understanding of the complexity of perspectives. What was uncovered was that while managers might perceive themselves as being a mentor to certain (or all) of their direct reports, they may also (a) be serving as a mentor to others outside their organization, and/or as a mentee to their boss or other higher ranking manager or executive (either internal to or external to their organization), (b) be engaged in a peer-to-

peer relationship with a manager at their same level in the hierarchy, and (c) it seems in their hierarchy of awareness they may have employees reporting to them who were engaged in mentoring relationships which they felt some responsibility for monitoring. Although the manager role has clearly dominated the research literature over the last two decades, the fragmented approaches to research had hidden the multi-perspective view that managers were reflecting to me in the interviews. The lack of a holistic approach to mentoring research may have hidden this phenomenon.

The complexity of getting perspective in this study drove much of the theoretical sampling. For example, I had to go outside the participant pool in order to find managers who had not been mentors or did not consider themselves as having performed as mentors to their direct reports. This was because many managers I talked to from the sample population saw themselves as mentors in one form or another and spoke of experiences they had had as mentees. Despite this focus on mentoring, many were not involved in the mentoring relationships of their direct reports and felt that it was not appropriate for them to engage in what was assumed to be a private relationship.

Well into my interviews, I realized that what had hidden the complexity of the manager's perspective was that in the culture where I was conducting the study there was a powerful message from upper management to mentor; there was a pervasive campaign going on for the inclusion of women and people of color in succession planning; there was a new executive mentoring program that mandated that all executives take on at least one woman and/or person of color as a mentee; yet there was no mentoring program for managers, no training for managers who were serving as mentors, and no inclusion of managers in the structure of the formal mentoring program, except to authorize their

employees to participate. The program did invite managers to the first training session for the mentor and mentee and they were educated on the time commitment that would be required by the mentoring pair, but there was no formal accommodation of the manager and no way for the manager to engage with the mentoring pair. It was as if the manager was invisible in this culture, and yet, paradoxically, managers had been the focus of the majority of empirical mentoring research. The implications of this finding will be discussed in Chapter 6.

In addition to the findings relative to the manager role, I discovered that those participants who had identified themselves as mentors, typically, had experience as mentees, and often had spent some time in management. So, there too, I was hearing answers to my interview questions not from a simplistic single perspective, but from a person who often had experienced all three of the triadic roles of mentoring and this, necessarily, confounded the research. As discussed in Chapter 3, although the first several interviews with mentees reflected a lack of experience with the other roles, eventually I did hear mentees speak of their experiences as mentors. When I introduced the idea of manager-as-mentor, some mentees did recognize that their manager had mentored them, while others had not considered their manager playing that role. None of the mentees interviewed had been managers. Getting clarity on perspectives of the different actors in the mentoring triad was confounded by the following elements. These general categories of confounding elements will surface in the detailed discussion of findings through the quotes of participants in the next section of this chapter.

Boundaries. Each person had assumptions that they brought to the mentoring space about designated boundaries for each role, within the context of the mentoring

relationship. For example, issues around privacy of the relationship were viewed differently from the different perspectives, and within perspectives differently depending on the prior role experiences of the participants.

Responsibility, accountability, and authority. Issues arose due to the lack of clarity on both role definition and scope, as defined (or ill defined) by both the culture and the mentoring program. An area of particular fogginess was around the appropriate interface between the roles. For example, the mentors felt it was their responsibility to make time for the mentoring relationship but they lacked authority to arrange for that time in the budget. The managers had the authority to make time and resources available for the mentoring pair, but had no structured way to engage, no responsibility to engage, or any accountability for the outcomes of the mentoring experience of those that reported to them. Although many managers (not all) formally authorized their employees to participate in the mentoring program and attended the orientation training session, there was no formal requirement for ongoing support to the mentoring pair and limited interaction relative to plans and goals of the mentee. The mentees often constructed elaborate goals and plans with their mentors, but the connection to real-life operationalization of their plans was their manager, who was often not aware of or paying attention to their mentoring activities.

Expectations. The “going-in position” of the participants determined, to some extent, the outcomes of the mentoring experience. For example, a mentee might have a vision or hope or assumption of what it would be like to be mentored but the reality was that mentoring in this culture had many faces, and the different textures of relationship formation meant that different outcomes resulted from the different human beings

interacting in different time and space contexts. Thinking of mentoring as being "one thing" was problematic and tended to distract from the richness of the actual possibilities.

Values alignment. There was no focus on values alignment between the participants and the culture. The value proposition of mentoring in the workplace was well understood by all; however, an assessment of how the structure of the mentoring program fulfilled the needs of the participants, from a systemic perspective, had not been explored. The implications of this gap in understanding will be discussed in Chapter 6.

Measures and metrics. The mentoring program surveyed participants and captured information that provided a gross idea of whether the program was providing value. That was not an issue. But the lack of any requirement for individual measures or metrics from program participants may have been responsible for a lack of focus by upper management on mentoring outcomes, which, in turn, may have reinforced the lack of measures and metrics. In this culture, the mantra "what gets measured gets done" drives managers to pay attention to those things that they are responsible for measuring. Although mentoring activities can constitute a significant portion of a large organization's resources, there were no requirements to measure the activity or the outcomes of mentoring relationships, no requirements for managers to pay attention, and therefore no effort from managers to engage. This, ultimately, left mentees between a mentor who had no authority to help in concrete ways and a manager who was not engaged, and, in fact, often felt uncomfortable with the idea of engaging.

Cultural Context

Dimensional Analysis, as conceptualized by Schatzman (1991) "tells a story about the relations among things or people and events" (p. 308). Dimensions are elements

of experience identified as important to the storyline from a certain perspective and enable “inquiry into its parts, attributes, interconnections, context, processes, and implications” (p. 309). The cultural context is central to the story; it serves an integrating function, “providing an understanding or theory of all considerations seen as involved in the phenomenon and as constituting the ‘whole’ of it” (p. 309). The assumptions underlying the dimensional analysis approach to grounded theory “include a socially constructed perspective on the world that is particular to a given perspective and is defined by context” (Benson, 1999, p. 60). It is a “process for understanding and defining a situational self” (p. 61).

The culture played a powerful role in the construction of meaning by the study participants. The story that emerged from this study is contextually unique and yet is transferable because of the contextual structures, roles, and behaviors that populate the story. The setting is not atypical: a successful and long-standing global engineering and manufacturing business entity with a hierarchical corporate culture and multiple tiers of management firmly seated in the military/industrial complex. Like other global businesses, this business is straining to find a competitive edge by fully engaging their employees’ minds and hearts while striving to open up the organizational culture to diversity in all of its forms.

The social construction of reality (Berger & Luckman, 1967) documented in the interviews of participants described, to some extent, people “act[ing] out scripts written by the culture” (Stryker & Statham, 1985, p. 331) for a particular role or position. But the story also relates the unique lived experiences of each participant from their unique role perspective (mentor, mentee, or manager). The story is enriched by the multiplicity of

roles experienced by the participants, the legacy of understanding of the different perspectives that is heard in their voices, and their shared and different expectations and assumptions, amid the influences of a corporation striving to transform itself.

It is important to understand that cultures are designed, they do not just happen. The process by which individuals learn to be members of a societal culture is an interactive process that is usually gifted to children by their parents and later is reinforced by the educational system and other cultural institutions. In adulthood, organizational cultures are transmitted through “transacting agendas” and other regularly occurring “patterns of encounter” that, over time, form a network of meaning (Gearing & Tindall, 1973). A corporate culture is no different. Organizational cultures are intentionally designed by those who found the organization, and the values of those founders are woven tightly into the business processes of the corporation. Cultures are institutionalized over decades through policies, rituals, traditions, and the sustaining hand of the corporate manager. Managers are understood to be instrumental in sustaining cultural values, therefore managers must fully engage when it is determined that a particular organizational culture needs to transform itself in order to meet changing business realities.

Each culture specifies who teaches what to whom, and how, where, and under what circumstances the teaching is to occur (Tindall, 1976). The role of teacher is the core actor in the process of cultural transmission. The ability of the teacher to change the perspective of the student is the foundation of learning (Mezirow, 2000). The way an effective mentor works with the adult learner through dialog and self-discovery is a powerful learning method. Daloz (1999) iterated the key mentor actions explained by

Virgil in Dante's *Divine Comedy*: engendering trust, issuing a challenge, providing encouragement, and offering a vision (p. 31). In a similar fashion, the workplace mentor can encourage and help the mentee to navigate the often scary and ambiguous signs and symbols sent out by the workplace culture. There is some evidence in the literature that describes mentors as "transfer agents of corporate culture" (Wilson & Elman, 1990, p. 89). Applebaum, Ritchie, and Shapiro (1994) argued, "Mentoring can be utilized for the differentiation, translation, and modification of organizational culture" (p. 66) and Darwin (2000) argued that historically "the mentor's primary role was to maintain culture . . . and stems from a power-dependent, hierarchical relationship aimed at maintaining the status quo" (p. 198). As previously stated, this same description could be made for organizational management. According to Kleiner (1996), the profession of management was originally engaged to maintain the status quo in corporations, once the corporate values, rules, principles, and guidelines were established by the founders.

I found no evidence in the literature that organizations were intentionally designing mentoring programs or training mentors to be instruments of culture shifts. In this study, there was a general lack of awareness among participants about the instrumental role played by mentors as potential change agents of the culture. However, the lack of intention does not prevent a phenomenon from occurring. Unintended consequences of the institutionalization of mentoring practices, such as that evidenced in this study, can loop back on the culture and have lasting effects.

Kram (1988) argued, "organizational context shapes relationships" (p. 7) and suggested that an organization's reward system, culture, job design, and personnel practices can either facilitate or create obstacles to mentoring. In 1989, Kram and Hall

argued for the increased need for mentoring in a time of organizational upheaval when restructuring and increased competition create heightened organizational stress. They suggested that mentoring could serve as “an antidote to stress in a turbulent organizational environment” (p. 495). This idea that the cultural climate would drive people to seek mentoring relationships was supported in the reports of participants.

A paradoxical and important culture-influencing finding was the frequent view from managers that an important part of their job was to perform as mentor to their direct reports, yet the mentoring program and the overall messages from the culture were indicating that mentors should not come from an employee’s “chain of command.” As well, there was some evidence in the literature that “Immediate supervisors would generally be unsuitable mentors for their underlings. The inherent conflict of interest and tension involved, particularly in the valuative judging aspects of the supervisory role, could be likely to stifle meaningful communication” (Wilson & Elman, 1990, p. 90). Clearly, there is a difference between an evaluative relationship in terms of growth and development as provided by a traditional mentor and an evaluation of performance via the line of authority as performed by a manager. When the mentor *is* the manager complexities can arise and this situation confounded the research.

Primary Dimensions

The role of each primary dimension is to describe and illustrate the various journeys documented as a part of the lived experience of participants within their mentoring relationships within the context of the corporate culture studied. The primary dimensions are conceptualizations suggestive of different paths that the participants took in their mentoring journeys. They serve to illustrate the diversity and complexity of

mentoring experiences that I heard from the participants. The four dimensions are not to be construed as a hierarchy, but represent an interconnected web of experience that emerged from the interviews of the three players in the theatre of mentoring within this work culture. Figure 3.5 attempts to highlight the areas where intersection of meaning occurred among the participants, where they shared meaning around a particular concept, and where they diverged and had unique and distinct understanding. These areas of convergence and divergence will be detailed and supported with the voices of participants in the following sections.

A fundamental tenet of this work is that the experiences of the participants resulted from what each brought to the relationship, and therefore conceptualization of key elements was necessarily difficult. Added to this difficulty was the multifaceted nature of the perspectives of the participants in this study, which clouded the emergent pictures. Nevertheless, as shown in Figure 4.1, the areas where meaning intersections did occur can be understood to be focal areas of interest for theory generation. Elaboration of theory will follow in Chapter 5. Each primary dimension will be discussed in the following sections, and intersections of meaning will be highlighted.

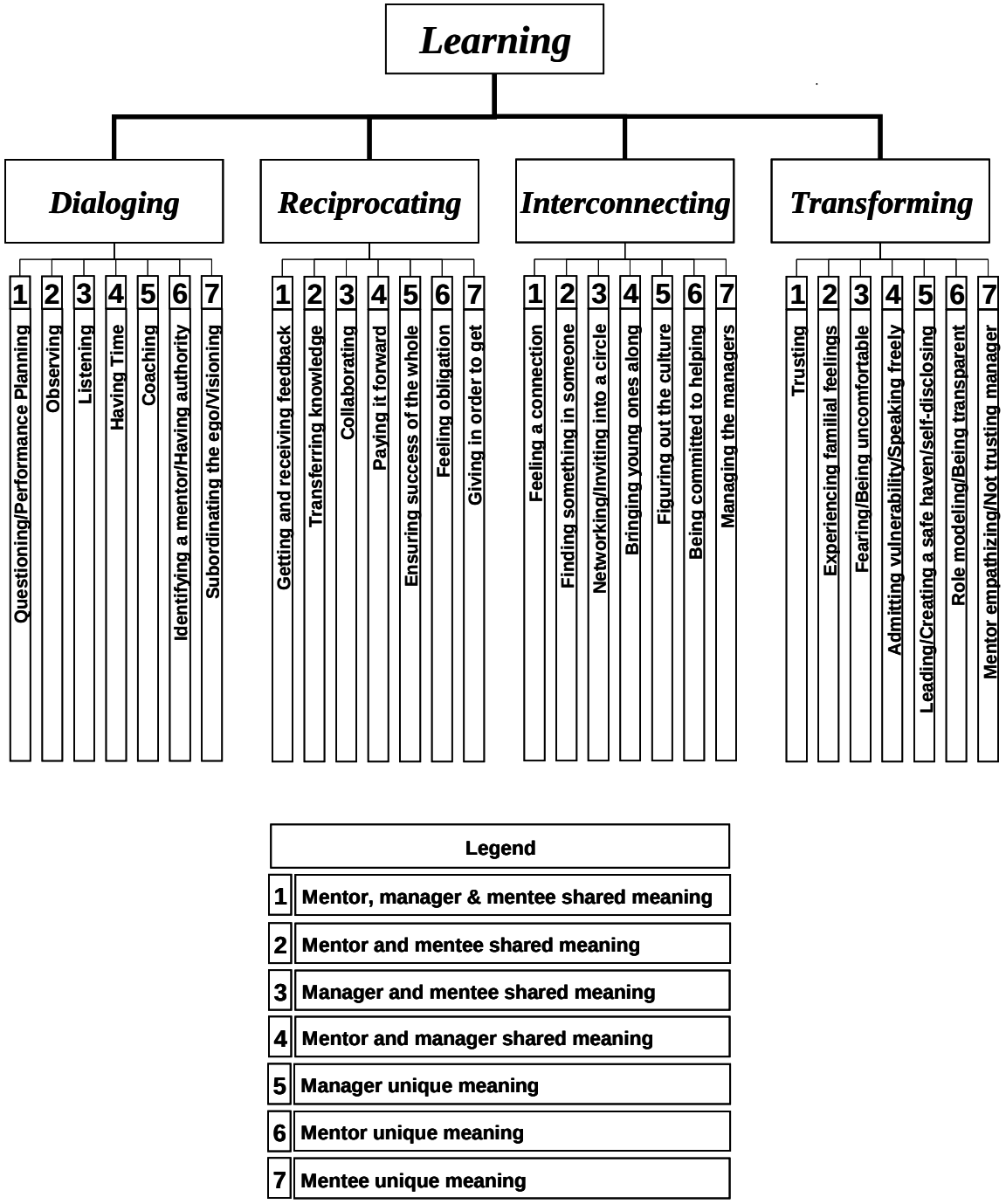


Figure 4.1. Shared and Unique Meaning-Making Among Triad Members

Dialoguing Dimension

The various levels in the *Dialoguing* dimension are discussed so that the reader understands that within this dimension there is also a continuum or progression in terms of depth of engagement in dialogue, from simple conversational exchange to deep "dialogos" as conceived by Bohm (1980). Quotations from informants punctuate the descriptions and provide authentication of conceptualizations. The overlap with the other dimensions is highlighted so that the reader understands that this dimension is broken out for clarity and for the purposes of description, but that dialoging is essential to every other dimension in the journey of mentoring.

The initializing dimension of *Dialoging* is described in terms of the sub-dimensions (or processes) that identify the actions and interactions of the participants, who spoke from their unique perspectives. Notation is made and quotations are provided to illustrate where there was shared meaning around a particular sub-dimension and where the participants diverged in their understanding or interpretation of a process.

All of the properties of the *Dialoging* dimension apply and may represent the properties as communicated by the participants, or may represent the areas of interconnection or shared space among the four primary dimensions. For example, Bohm's (1980) concept of "dialogos" could be seen reflected in the properties of the *Interconnecting* dimension or the *Transforming* dimension, as we will describe later in this chapter. What is important to register at this point is that the participants identified processes of conversation that had meaning for them outside of other types of interactions that might be considered more profound or that might carry a deeper subjective meaning. The purpose of those processes or how the participants experienced intentionality in

relationship to the processes is noted as applicable. Any consequences of acting upon or acting out the processes are identified, as required by the methodology.

This dimension of *Dialoging* is an acknowledgement of the boundary that participants drew around their experiences that could be logically grouped under the category or process of *Dialoging*. Clearly, dialog is a necessary element of any relationship formation. Whether that dialog is non-verbal or verbal is a component of a unique relationship composition that can only be realized in the moment.

Mentor, manager, and mentee shared meaning. The key process areas of *Dialoging* where the manager, mentor, and mentee all shared meaning were questioning and performance planning.

In terms of questioning, mentors were focused on asking questions for understanding how they could best help their mentees:

> You start asking the questions, what does that person need from you to do this new job that she wants? In order to really help that person. (Mentor – Interview 101)

In terms of questioning, managers were focused on using questions to clarify understanding and ensure that real communication had occurred:

> So I'm always…asking questions and checking for understanding and testing that communication has occurred. Because the illusion of communication is very strong. (Manager – Interview 120)

In terms of questioning, mentees were focused on the instrumental use of asking questions:

> I was right out from college not knowing exactly what I needed to do in the corporate world, so I asked a lot of questions and I was hoping to get some more guidance from the mentor. (Mentee – Interview 116)

In terms of performance planning, mentors were focused on their mentoring activities being included in their overall performance evaluation, both because it was a

positive for them in terms of rewards and recognition, but also it was an indication of support by their organizational manager:

> I've been fortunate in that my manager has promoted my mentoring and he allows me to mentor and thinks it's a good thing. In fact, it's part of my performance plan, which is a good thing because things that are part of your performance plan, managers tend to be willing to let you do them. Because it also reflects back on them. So I feel like I've had support. (Mentor – Interview 101)

In terms of performance planning, some managers were focused on using the performance evaluation process to encourage their employees to mentor others.

> I have asked all my employees to have mentorship on their performance evaluations. I want them to note all the mentorship that they are doing, either within their work group or outside of their work group. I want everyone to make themselves available to do consultation to anyone within my group or outside the group. And I want them to document that. I feel that's important. (Manager – Interview 122)

In terms of performance planning, mentees saw the Performance Evaluation (PE) and Performance Development Partnership (PDP) processes as ways the corporation was encouraging people to mentor. One mentee spoke about how she felt that because her mentor was acknowledged formally in his PDP for his mentoring, this benefited him directly and thus her indirectly:

> As you probably know, now we have in our PEs, or PDPs, we have an item in there, which is really asking us to become a mentor. [So, my mentor is] fulfilling something that is defined in his PDP. (Mentee – Interview 108)

Mentor and mentee shared meaning. The key process area where the mentor and mentee shared meaning within the dimension of *Dialoging* was observing. The mentors talked about watching their mentees--about observing them and using the knowledge gained from that observation to inform their mentoring dialogs:

> Well my favorite story is about an individual who I started mentoring a long time ago. I had watched her for sometime. She decided that she wanted to be in management and I watched her and I watched her help other people and forget about herself. (Mentor – Interview 102)

One mentee clearly articulated her preference for observing a mentor in action. She was one mentee who used observation, much like an apprentice, watching the mentor and learning from that observation.

> I can stand back and not talk and just learn so much. . . I see it. I really try to pay attention. So I'm sort of more a quiet study. I'd rather sit back and sort of watch and take it in and observe and emulate, than sit down and say, tell me what you do. (Mentee – Interview 108)

Manager and mentee shared meaning. The key process area where the manager and mentee shared meaning within the dimension of *Dialoging* was listening. Managers talked about the art of listening and how important it was to offer "just listening" to people. As we will see in the *Transforming* dimension, trust is a necessary component of the interchange, but for the purposes of describing listening in this dimension, we hear the words of a manager revealing how vital it is, especially for women and people of color, to just have somebody that really listens to them:

> They are just looking for somebody that's going to listen to them. They can be seen and kind of acknowledged. . . . Especially, I think for women and for people of ethnic minority, they are looking for somebody who is going to listen to them, who will see them, who will help them. (Manager – Interview 115)

The mentee in the following quote echoes the manager's insight:

> The expectations I was hoping I could find with a mentor was somebody who could actually listen, and get to know me, and observe my strengths and weaknesses, and then coach and offer ways to help steer my career. (Mentee – Interview 106)

Mentor and manager shared meaning. The key process area where the mentor and manager shared meaning within the dimension of *Dialoging* was having time for

mentoring and assessment. Managers and mentors both described the time pressures they were under and how it was often difficult to make time for mentoring. Wrapped up in the constraints on their time was the problematic issue that for managers especially, and for a large majority of mentors, there was no formally set aside time for mentoring. What that meant was that they had to carve out time from their busy schedules to have their mentoring meetings. As this manager admits, the lack of requirement for formal tracking of mentoring activities causes mentoring, at times, to fall off the agendas of even the most dedicated mentors.

> I think that that is the worst constraint that we all have, is our--the expectations are grand for all of us and given those expectations of here's what I expect out of you, and yet the, the list of other things that they want us to do, all these people things, and if we don't track it somehow formally, then there's not enough time built in. (Manager – Interview 119)

In the following quote, a mentor talks about the problems that were inherent in trying to mentor someone who was outside of their organization. The pressures of work projects continually intervened until the relationship dwindled away:

> It was a really large time commitment because it wasn't work that was associated to any of our assignments and so the conflict. She worked for another manager so her assignments were always conflicting in time with my assignments and meetings, you know, so it was very difficult, very difficult to find any time to make this a priority and make it happen. It turned out that it always became low priority and we slid out our meetings, slid out, slid it out. (Mentor – Interview 118)

We will return to the subject of time constraints and their relationship to the lack of involvement of managers in the mentoring process when we discuss implications for practice in Chapter 6.

There was scant evidence of formal assessment of outcomes from the mentoring program, except through a very high-level survey; however, managers and mentors both spoke of assessment as an important part of mentoring relationships. One executive

manager was very forthright and open about how mentoring activity by their direct reports was encouraged and consistently tracked:

> I will strongly encourage you to do it. I will ask you if you've done it and I'm going to measure you through your PDP. So I'm holding you accountable for growing as a mentor. (Manager – Interview 117)

A mentor indicated that although he wasn't "micromanaged" about the activity, he was assessed for it in his performance evaluation and received benefits in his evaluation of his performance:

> I don't get micromanagement from my boss to do this. But I am recognized for doing it in my performance evaluation, and with my money. (Mentor – Interview 111)

Manager unique meaning. A key process area where the organizational manager had unique meaning within the dimension of *Dialoging* was around having coaching sessions with their employees. One manager explained very clearly their way of distinguishing coaching from mentoring. There were echoes of this understanding in other interviews:

> Coaching is part of our job as managers and leaders. And I think that when we sit down and have PEs, PDPs, day-to-day conversations, we do a lot of coaching. There's a whole range of coaching. . . .What I find that most of us have to do on a daily basis is performance coaching. You know, how do you do it in a way that sets the expectation, but inspires people to want to do better. . . .I think that is just part of a leader and a manager's job. I think when it starts to move to mentoring for me, it is when somebody says would you be my mentor? And the conversations get much broader. (Manager – Interview 126)

Managers also spoke frequently about providing guidance, help, or advice. What was pertinent for this study is that many of the managers spoke of these interactions in the context of mentoring--that is, they thought of themselves as performing mentoring activities not just being managers. This was true of both executive managers and first-level managers.

> I am a senior manager. I have mentoring relationships with, uh, various first lines within my organization and outside of my direct responsibility and they have direct mentoring relationships with employees in their group and outside of their group. Executive Manager – Interview 117)

Mentor unique meaning. The key process area where the mentor had unique meaning within the dimension of *Dialoging* was around identifying themselves as a mentor. In a very few words, this mentor captured the essence of mentoring--that mentoring can only be evaluated from the perspective of the mentee. Only the mentee has the experience of being mentored and can rightly name a person as their mentor.

> If people were to ask me, am I a mentor? I don't necessarily see myself as being a mentor, okay. But it's just - I think there are people that. . .Okay, how can I put this so that it makes sense? OK. I think there are some terms or labels that are best used when you give them to someone, not when someone puts it on themselves. (Mentor – Interview 122)

Mentee unique meaning. One key process area where the mentee had unique meaning within the dimension of *Dialoging* was around subordinating their ego or putting them purposefully in a subordinated state in order to learn. The following two quotes from mentees illustrate radically different perspectives, but ultimately they share a profound understanding of how they needed to configure their thoughts to be open to learning:

> It was almost like my mind went into, you know, a state that it knew very well and that was this subordinated state of learning where everything about my demeanor is expressing to this person mentor me, help me, teach me, help me achieve this goal. (Mentee – Interview 103)

> You have to convince yourself before you incorporate something new. The same idea, the same situation or same problem. You got some idea which already you have achieved and you are successful in that idea. You're getting a new idea but your mind says, You've already got an answer, why are you looking for something? So you have to convince your mind, so while convincing, the convincing process you will ultimately hurt the ego. It's like, it not a physical hurt, you know, you have to push your thought, okay, you have to be open. (Mentee – Interview 125)

Another key process area that was unique for the mentee was engaging with the mentor in visioning a future state. In the following quote, a mentee describes how a mentor planted a seed of possibilities that became important years later.

> And he began to talk with me about one day owning a store of that magnitude and why it was important to understand inventory and stock management and customer service. I don't think I got it then. I listened and I obeyed and I did what he asked but I never really thought of myself as owning a supermarket, let alone a string of supermarkets or any other businesses. But he did plant a seed. (Mentee – Interview 103)

Reciprocating Dimension

Reciprocating is a transactional exchange; one gives value in order to receive value or responds to the gifting of something of value by returning the favor. The "quid pro quo" in mentoring in the workplace researched in this study was referred to as "knowledge transfer," the sharing of specific knowledge and skills between people where both become learning partners--each receives a gift of knowledge from the other. Sometimes, when a gift of knowledge or other intangible gift is received, the "payback" is not immediate nor is it returned to the person who gave it. This is an expression of what has been popularized as "paying it forward," the sense that having received something of value, there is an urge within the receiver to give to others. I heard this sentiment frequently from both managers and mentors. Mentees, however, didn't use this language but spoke in more transactional terms.

As with the *Dialoging* dimension, the *Reciprocating* dimension can be conceived of in multiple levels, as illustrated by the distinction between a “quid pro quo” and the undeniable obligation felt in the intention of “paying it forward.” This continuum or progression in terms of depth of reciprocating behavior was particularly clear when hearing the words of the manager when they were speaking from the perspective of a mentor as compared to that of the mentee who spoke more from an instrumental and utilitarian perspective. Here, a manager reveals how he selected someone to mentor:

> There's maybe quite a spectrum there. I picked up people that I think I saw, somehow in their career they were stopped, or unmotivated. And I've taken an interest in trying to mentor them, to find out what jazzes them to go forward and I try to help out there. (Manager – Interview 109)

This manager recognized the need in himself to mentor and he looked for those who had an equal need to receive what he had to give. Kram and Isabella (1985) recognized that this “Complementarity of needs solidifies a mentor relationship . . . and propels it forward” (p. 111). When the need to give and the need to receive are reciprocated, positive action necessarily results to quench need with need.

Nothing so altruistic, however, has to occur for reciprocity to be in play. The following illustrates the more pragmatic perspective of a mentee:

> I heard about this person. I worked with him before and he was pretty good working with people, so I asked him if he could be my mentor. I wanted to learn things that he wanted to teach, and he was okay with that. (Mentee – Interview 116)

A much more pragmatic viewpoint from an executive manager was expressed as:

> To me, [mentoring] is two people, one says ”I’m here to help in any way, shape, or form” and the other says, “I’d love to have you involved.” (Executive Manager – Interview 117)

As previously discussed, the primary dimensions are not mutually exclusive. They are interconnected and are discussed as discrete entities for the purpose of clarifying their

attributes and enabling reflection on the ways that the participants framed their experiences. But there is always an overlap among the dimensions. For example, the process of transferring knowledge could be understood to be an element of the *Dialoging* dimension, yet I talk about it here in the *Reciprocating* dimension because participants talked about it in the sense of mutual learning. The purpose of the processes or how the participants experienced intentionality in relationship to the processes is noted as applicable. Any consequences of acting upon or acting out the processes are identified, as required by the methodology.

Mentor, manager, and mentee shared meaning. The key process areas where the manager, mentor, and mentee all shared meaning in the *Reciprocating* dimension were serving as a sounding board or getting and receiving feedback and giving-and-taking.

In the following quote, a mentor explained the reciprocal nature of feedback quite clearly. He experienced one of the important value propositions of mentoring, that in giving and receiving feedback we can assess and improve our own knowledge through the practice of others.

> The feedback was the good part - her feedback to me, because I would assign her to do something and send her off. And she would come back and say, it worked this way, or she tried what I told her and it worked pretty good, or it didn't work. So it would help me also. (Mentor – Interview 110)

Here a mentee describes how mentors provided a “sounding board” for them that helped them make future decisions:

> He helped to allay any fears that I had of change and moving forward. He provided a sounding board for the development of confidence be it a referral to a training that I may need, an exposure of some kind, an interface with someone or some specialty of learning, or a set of experiences that I needed to have that would prepare me for my future. (Mentee – Interview 103)

Here a mentor shares a painful experience where her idea of give-and-take did not match up with that of her mentee. There was definitely a reciprocal exchange, but the mentor's idea of what was needed went beyond what the mentee was seeking:

> As a mentor sometimes our egos get in the way too because even though the lady that I mentored the first one that we talked about who didn't want a relationship just wanted advice and then wanted to move on. You kind of feel rejected 'cause you want to give more and they don't want more sometimes. So you gotta let go. So that can be emotional if you're a very caring person. And especially when you know that mentoring is more than just throwing advice over the wall. (Mentor – Interview 102)

Mentor and mentee shared meaning. The key process area where the mentor and mentee shared meaning within the dimension of *Reciprocating* was transferring knowledge. This first quote is from a mentor who expressed one of the most often referred to issues around knowledge transfer in the company and that was about getting the knowledge out of the heads of the graying engineering and technical professional staff people and into the heads of younger employees:

> It was from a senior engineer's perspective on how they become a mentor - that they need to get their knowledge out of their filing cabinet and share it. . . you don't lock onto the knowledge that you've gained over the years and years that you have, you know, it's about sharing. (Mentor – Interview 118)

A very pragmatic look at transferring knowledge came from this mentee who spoke matter-of-factly about getting the information he needed both to do his job and to improve himself:

> He gave me things to learn, things to do. Based on the information, I did what I had to do and then if I had any questions I went up to ask him to see if I did it right or if I did anything wrong. He gave me some feedback. If I did something wrong, I corrected it, whenever I made a mistake and that's how I improved myself. (Mentee – Interview 116)

Manager and mentee shared meaning. The key process area where the manager and mentee shared meaning within the dimension of *Reciprocating* was collaborating.

Both managers and mentees saw the practice of collaboration that is central to the mentoring relationship as being positive for the teams where mentoring was fostered and being indicative of the assumption that leadership happens at all levels and is not reserved for the management ranks. Here a manager speaks to the team influence:

> I'm looking for team players. I'm not looking for prima donnas and superstars because my attitude is we win together and we lose together and, you know, there's no "I" in team and all those corny things but I really strongly believe in that. (Manager – Interview 120)

In the following quote, a mentee saw their collaboration with their manager, who was also their mentor, as a collaborative partnership in leadership:

> We developed a friendship with a true multilateral giving and taking of information and information sharing opportunities where we collaboratively went about leadership. (Mentee – Interview 103)

Mentor and manager shared meaning. The key process areas where the mentor and manager shared meaning within the dimension of *Reciprocating* were "paying it forward" and "reaching out/reaching back." What I heard often from both mentors and managers who saw themselves as mentors was a sense of "paying it forward," or feeling an obligation to give back in some way because they had experienced the gifts of a mentor in their past. Here are two quotes, one from a manager, and one from a mentor expressing this experience.

> He taught me a lot, in that he gave me tools. I mean, he was able to point out where, you know, like in project management, the discipline of organization. He acknowledged the gift that I gave him, and I acknowledged the gift that he gave me in that protégé relationship. And to this day there is that respect. And, you know, I have always... That was kind of that mark of how that -- what I want to do is give.... (Manager – Interview 112)

> I remember times when people have went out of their way to help me in my profession, to give me pointers, guidance, how to take the next step. And I said if I can ever give that back to somebody I'm going to. And I believe I have along the way. (Mentor – Interview 101)

The next quote frames a mentor's idealized concept of "paying it forward" but goes further and tells a story of someone she had mentored who did not feel inclined to give back. The sadness in this mentor's words as she talks about it feeling like a "personal failure" is poignant, and clearly expresses the extent of emotion that mentors can feel about repaying the unspoken debt.

> Because one of the things I do say to the individuals that I mentor is that you need to look back and mentor those that are in need. You just can't accept the mentoring and leave it. When you reach your plateau you need to reach back and help others. This individual who I did mentor, he did make it. He got promoted. He is doing very well but he is refusing to mentor others and I view that as a negative. I also view it as somewhat of a personal failure. (Mentor – Interview 102)

Manager unique meaning. The key process area where the organizational manager had unique meaning within the dimension of *Reciprocating* was ensuring success of the whole, that is, the success of the people translates into the success of the enterprise.

> My [mentoring] work reminds them of why we're at the [name] Company and blending those together to help anybody and everybody who wants and seeking out guidance counsel, leadership, whatever it might be to use those attributes to help people succeed. (Executive Manager – Interview 117)

Mentor unique meaning. The mentor unique meaning in the *Reciprocating* dimension was related to that of the managers who saw themselves as contributing to the success of the whole. Mentors saw themselves in a somewhat less holistic way. They were concerned about the success of their team and how the mentoring activities they engaged in helped their workgroup.

> So, I mean, I get it. I'm not looking for any fame. I told him I am looking for a way to directly contribute to the success of my group. This is what I try to do. And this is one of the ways that I do it is through mentoring. (Mentor – Interview 111)

Mentee unique meaning. The key process areas where the mentee had unique meaning within the dimension of *Reciprocating* were around giving in order to get. The voices of the mentees have been shown to be more pragmatic and less emotional than those of the mentors and managers when speaking about mentoring. Even in this context, speaking about reciprocal behavior, this mentee explains reciprocity from a very practical frame of reference:

> You know, we have our daily activities. We have what we are comfortable doing. We have our outside obligations and responsibilities, but in the end, what are we really giving back to the people around us? And I think that's the biggest thing that I picked up out of mentoring. Kind of, you got to give to get. (Mentee – Interview 106)

Interconnecting Dimension

Interconnecting does not suggest an exchange, although both dialoging and reciprocating can be a part of the experience of mentoring that is conceptualized as *Interconnecting*. This dimension is characterized by both what initiates a mentoring relationship and what sustains it. As with the *Dialoging* and *Reciprocating* dimensions, the *Interconnecting* dimension can be conceived of in multiple levels. Interconnecting suggests the forming of a bond that can be as lightweight as having things in common and enjoying talking about them to the forming of a partnership, as illustrated by the distinction between a mentoring experience where “networking” is the ultimate purpose and focus, and the feelings of intimacy that are engendered when a close personal relationship is formed.

This continuum or progression in terms of depth of interconnectedness was particularly clear when hearing the words of managers when they were speaking from the perspective of a mentor, as compared to that of the mentees who often spoke more from instrumental and utilitarian perspectives. Mentees tended to view mentors as resources,

elements of the culture that could be instrumental in their career progression. They shared little of the emotional investment that is evident in many of the interviews of managers and mentors.

A particularly interesting perspective from an executive manager that was echoed by mentees had to do with hopes or expectations relative to the possibility of sponsorship. A legacy of mentoring in the workplace is the idea that a mentor might be able to arrange for the mentee to get a "high-visibility" assignment or be transferred into a position that would directly help their career. This was fairly common behavior in the past and managers spoke of it wistfully, recalling how their own careers were rocketed forward due to the intervention of a sponsor/mentor:

> . . . back in those days in the '80s and in the early '90s, somebody would just, one of my mentors/sponsors would just say I need you to go over and do this next week, instead of what you are doing today. I think I made five lateral changes, but they were always development opportunities. There were always the next cool thing. (Executive Manager – Interview 114)

From this experience, this executive manager recognized the hope from mentees that they might be able to have a similar advantage:

> I still think there's a lingering expectation from protégés, or maybe it's a hope, that they could find a sponsor . . . but it is a very different world today. (Executive Manager – Interview 114)

This idea of having a sponsor relationship, as it was experienced in the past, is still very much alive in the minds of mentees as they enter into mentoring relationships. The myth of mentoring as a fast track for career advancement can still be heard in the voices of mentees as they talk about searching for and finding a mentor that can help move them ahead. This phenomenon has implications for practice, which will be discussed in Chapter 6.

As previously discussed, the primary dimensions are not mutually exclusive. They are themselves interconnected and are discussed as discrete entities solely for the purpose of clarifying their attributes and enabling reflection on the ways that the participants framed their experiences. But there is always an overlap among the dimensions. For example, the process of bonding can be discussed as reciprocal behavior, but it is brought forward as an attribute of the *Interconnecting* dimension because of the way the participants talked about it. The purpose of the processes or how the participants experienced intentionality in relationship to the processes is noted as applicable. The consequences of acting upon or acting out the processes are identified, as required by the methodology.

Here a mentor discusses the connection she feels with her mentee:

> As for the lady that I'm mentoring now, it's an emotional roller coaster 'cause the more I mentor her and the closer I get to her you can feel her pain, you feel her joy, you feel what she feels because you do have that close bond with her. And so yeah, emotions play a big role in mentoring and no matter how hard you try to remove yourself from it you need to be prepared for that because there are times even though your emotions are on a roller coaster you need to control them in order to be able to help the individual that you're mentoring. (Mentor – Interview 102)

Mentor, manager, and mentee shared meaning. The key process areas where the manager, mentor, and mentee all shared meaning were "feeling a connection," which some described as "clicking" (Mentee – Interview 105, Mentee – Interview 116) or "chemistry or instant dynamic" (Manager – Interview 114) or "bonding" (Mentor – Interview 102, as described above).

In the following quote, a mentee, once again, speaks pragmatically about feeling a connection with their mentor. There is no "magic" for them in the formation of the relationship, but the mentee used a very effective image about the process of making

connection, that of tuning a radio to the right frequency. This brought in the concept of intention on the part of the relationship participants that put this key process area beyond just serendipitous connecting.

> In my case both, we both, it is kind of like tuning the radio, like FM or AM, like the frequency match, they both should tune, they both should tune and get that link. It's not magical, it's like even, it has to come naturally, it has to come from each individual. So each should tune, and once the tune happens, once the frequency matches then the click happens. Once the click happens then the relationship happens. Once the first experience happens then, how to say, then the relationship starts growing. Once the relationship starts growing that is the real mentor/mentee relationship. (Mentee – Interview 125)

Mentor and mentee shared meaning. The key process area where the mentor and mentee shared meaning within the dimension of *Interconnecting* was "finding something in someone." This process area expresses a phenomenon in mentoring where a mentor is attracted to a mentee because they see something in them that triggers a desire to help. In some instances, the mentee might demonstrate potential in an area where the mentor excels and therefore the mentor feels they can provide valuable guidance. In other instances, it might emerge because a mentee reminds a mentor of themselves when they were younger and this apparently triggers an almost parental response.

> He found something in me... And it was that relationship we were talking about earlier. He found something in me that he wanted to have a relationship with and help me along. (Mentee – Interview 101)

> I could see a lot of me in her when I was younger. (Mentor – Interview 110)

One interesting perspective on this phenomenon was offered by a lead engineer mentor who looked for people to mentor who might not otherwise have the opportunity. She suggested that she was drawn to these people because of her personal experiences.

> So I requested from my management to operate my group as a training cell. I requested that I be able to select the people to come into my group so that I could work with people I felt had merit, but probably would not be given an opportunity . . . like the person I knew who would never promote himself enough to really get ahead, and be able to shine. (Mentor – Interview 111)

Manager and mentee shared meaning. The key process area where the manager and mentee shared meaning within the dimension of *Interconnecting* was networking and "inviting into a circle." Several executive managers that I interviewed were quite sophisticated about networking and very willing to share their network with others, as expressed in this broad and unconditional statement about a manager's willingness to put a mentee in touch with others who could help. It was said with a great deal of pride.

> I have a network of people around that I can use to help. . . . You'll still have the relationship with me but I want you to know that I'm going to go to the network so when you want something or when you need something that I can't have or can't provide you I'm going to help you find it, somewhere in that network. I'll find it for you. (Executive Manager – 117)

This statement of an unconditional open door to other people was tempered by another executive manager's concern about how networking assistance might be construed as recommending a person as a viable candidate for a position.

> The only thing that I can say that's a bit troubling is, because I do so much in the way of mentoring, I had an individual that contacted me after we had worked on their development plan. They went and interviewed for a new job in another part of the company, and used me as a reference. It's the first time that I thought, how many people are using my name out there that is becoming a door opener? (Executive Manager – Interview 107)

From a mentee's perspective, the value of receiving networking assistance can be profound. In this quote, a mentee talks about the evolution of a relationship that started professionally, but eventually resulted in a merging of social circles and an ultimate partnership in leadership.

> The relationship moved from a profession at work relationship to a friendship where we shared a variety of different information, did things together with our families, traveled. I became a part of their circles, invited them into mine. They became a part of my circles and we developed a friendship with a true multilateral giving and taking of information and information sharing opportunities where we collaboratively went about our leadership. (Mentee – Interview 103)

Mentor and manager shared meaning. The key process areas where the mentor and manager shared meaning within the dimension of *Interconnecting* were "bringing young ones along." Managers and mentors frequently spoke of the need to attract and retain young people to the corporation. The phenomenon of the aging workforce was on their minds. Tribal knowledge within this corporation suggests that around 40% of the technical workforce will be retiring within the next 5-10 years. This is assumed to be one of the drivers of the spread of mentoring programs and practices across the corporation. Managers and mentors not only spoke of the need for matching young people with those readying for retirement, but they were alike in their opinion that young people needed more than occasional conversations with mentors. They described the need for more apprentice-like mentoring structures, where young people had the dedicated time for learning from a "more seasoned person." The power of being a manager is that they could make this arrangement happen. The implications for practice will be described in more detail in Chapter 6.

> For a young developer, we would assign them to a more seasoned person. I would bring in experts . . . Sit them together. Somebody they could actually ask questions to. And didn't feel like they had to be, you know, worrying about their time . . . Rather than feeling like they had to go begging for time, or begging for a question. (Manager – Interview 113)

The following quote from a mentor sums up the business value of this key process area and reflects the shared meaning between mentors and managers on this topic:

> I believe that mentoring is the key to our future because we have so many young people who have not, who have just entered the workforce that need our help. In most corporations, the business workforce is getting old because the baby boomers are now getting ready to retire and have a lot of knowledge. And if we want to be successful and have American businesses continue to be successful, I believe mentoring is the key and we really need to start to promote it and promote it in a big way. (Mentor – Interview 102)

Manager unique meaning. The key process area where the organizational manager had unique meaning within the dimension of *Interconnecting* was "figuring out the culture." In the following quote, a first-level manager describes how she goes to her executive manager as a mentee and learns how to deal with what is often experienced as the "craziness" of the management hierarchy in what is still very much a command-and-control culture.

> So we have gotten very close. I need to talk to someone to just figure out what the heck is going on, and that has brought us closer. And he gives me advice as to what he thinks I can do. If he thinks that it's just beyond crazy and we discuss whether he should step in, or whether I should just do what I have been asked to do. (Manager – Interview 122)

Mentor unique meaning. The key process areas where the mentor had unique meaning within the dimension of *Interconnecting* were "being committed to helping people" and around having authority to arrange for mentoring experiences. Here a mentor talks about the mental model required to selflessly mentor:

> It's a matter of being committed to helping people, and to take yourself out of it. . . When you put yourself in it, or you get offended, or you look at that person like what is wrong with you? You cannot have that kind of attitude towards the person when you are mentoring. You have to be open and think, what can I do to help this person to learn? (Mentor – Interview 111)

In the following quote, a mentor speaks to the issue of responsibility, accountability, and authority (RAA) that came up in several interviews with mentors. Mentors have accepted the responsibility to mentor others, feel accountable for their

mentees' learning, but do not have the authority to set budgets or arrange for a mentee to work with them for any extended period of time. This authority rests with the organizational manager. The consequence of this situation is that opportunities for deep learning are rare. The lack of engagement of the organizational manager in mentoring relationships compounds this problem.

> You don't really have any authority or, you know, you are accountable, but you don't have authority. And people tend to say, well, how can this person tell you to do something if you don't have authority? How do you arrange time for mentoring in an already crowded schedule? (Mentor – Interview 110)

Mentee unique meaning. The key process areas where the mentee had unique meaning within the dimension of *Interconnecting* were around what I would call "managing the manager." Mentees talked about their relationships with their direct managers and their mentors and how they were or were not successful in managing that dynamic. The following quotes point to confusion for the mentee, even around how to refer or not to refer to their mentor in the context of speaking about their manager. This and other similar revelations from participants point to a largely invisible problem that can be traced back to the very design of the mentoring culture at this corporation.

> The one mentoring relationship that I had with my, with somebody, with the person from my current organization was a little bit awkward because we were in the same organization and if I was unhappy with my current situation, it made for uneasy conversations just because this is his organization and you don't want to say anything negative about it. And the few times that I was very, very fed up with what was happening I went to him and he said well let me talk to your manager. And I said, "No, the reason why I'm talking to you is because you have more influence." So that was one where it was very uncomfortable. (Mentee – Interview 105)

In the following quote, another mentee describes how she worked to manage the two relationships in the absence of any formal structures. She deliberately sought a

mentor who was not in her manager's chain of command, thinking that would prevent problems.

> I didn't want somebody [as a mentor] who might be able to have some influence over my manager. If I earned something, if I earned a promotion, if I earned the next level, I wanted it to be because I earned it, not because there was any, um, I don't even know what the right word is, if there was any influence. (Mentee – Interview 124)

The problems came anyway, as we hear in the next quote, but from a totally unexpected direction. The following mentee's experience points to the potential problems that can and do arise when the manager is excluded from the mentoring engagement and has no formal role to play.

> My manager . . . he didn't know I had this mentor and, um, it became a little uncomfortable because he made some comments, he really questioned who she was and what her motives were with mentoring me. He never said he was uncomfortable with it, but it was clear he thought that she had some ulterior motives of trying to pull me away from his group into her group . . . everything that was said from then on about me being mentored was very sarcastic. He really didn't like it. It became uncomfortable you know so we just stopped discussing it. (Mentee – Interview 124)

Transforming Dimension

If mentoring is viewed less as a role and more as a relationship, it has the capacity to transform workplace relationships (Darwin, 2000, p. 208). The *Transforming* dimension is characterized by what goes above and beyond the behavior attributed to the other dimensions and which transcends, to some extent, the constraints of the culture that envelops the mentoring partnership. The concept of *Transforming* is meant to be a metaphor for what initiates and sustains the mentoring relationship--not a giving and receiving phenomenon but something more profound, something more transformational. In the *Interconnecting* dimension, mentoring participants were drawn together and

described their experiences as “clicking,” or “seeing oneself in the other,” or “bonding.” In the *Transforming* dimension, mentoring participants were in search of a place of safety where they could get beyond their work personas and be their authentic selves. Some mentors spoke of intentionally working to create such a place of safety where people could be honest and expose their vulnerability without fear.

As with the *Dialoging*, *Reciprocating*, and *Interconnecting* dimensions, this dimension can be conceived of in multiple levels, as illustrated by the spectrum of experience between “an honest relationship” and finding a place of refuge from the culture where being one’s true self is possible. This continuum or progression in terms of depth of authenticity in a relationship was particularly clear when women of color spoke of seeking those who looked like them in order to be comfortable being honest and when certain managers spoke of intentionally self-disclosing in order to demonstrate risk-taking in the relationship.

As previously discussed, these dimensions of mentoring are not mutually exclusive. They are themselves interconnected and interdependent. I discuss them as discrete entities solely for the purpose of clarifying their attributes and enabling reflection on the ways that the participants framed their experiences. But there is always an overlap among the dimensions. For example, the process of “self-disclosure” can be thought of as reciprocal behavior, when the intention of the mentor is to enable the mentee to let down their guard. But self-disclosure is introduced for the first time as an attribute of the *Transforming* dimension because of the way the participants talked about it , with awareness of its power to represent authenticity and safety. The purpose of the processes or how the participants experienced intentionality in relationship to the processes is noted

as applicable. Any consequences of acting upon or acting out the processes are identified, as required by the methodology.

In the work culture studied, people generally thought of mentoring as something separate, apart from the mainstream, an activity not directly involved in daily work patterns. The mentoring program that was a focus in this study conceptualized the mentoring relationship as an activity that was related to work but not directly a part of employees' daily work. The processes and structures of mentoring were not integrated into employees' work processes and structures. This separation helped to put the mentoring experience outside employees' scope of work, tended to reinforce the assumption of a need for privacy, created time pressures and constraints, and sometimes even generated tension between the mentee and their organizational manager. Both mentors and managers realized that there was an inherent disconnection in the exclusion of the organizational manager from the mentoring relationship and agreed that the extent to which mentoring is seen as "a part of daily work" would determine its viability as a contributor to the overall learning architecture of the corporation.

The *Transforming* dimension addresses this need to bring mentoring inside--to allow mentoring behavior to assume its natural posture. Left to themselves, humans know how to do this. But in the culture of a workplace where mentoring has been fragmented off by itself it is more difficult to be natural, and yet, paradoxically, the stresses of the workplace drive up the human need for mentoring-like behaviors. Kram and Hall (1989) argued, "Stress will compel individuals to seek support from others, and mentoring relationships can serve to reduce stress over time through the *counseling and affirmation* that is offered" (p. 506). The participants in this study shared in the belief that the

affirming power of an authentic relationship cannot be denied, either from an instrumental learning perspective or from its ability to provide safe haven from the stresses of their culture.

Participants in this study spoke often about fear, feeling threatened, and the need to find a place of safety and someone they could trust. Managers, especially, were frank and open about the lack of trust that contributed to the climate of fear that existed in the workplace. They were direct about the crisis of trust that existed between managers and their employees. The following quote highlights this consequence.

> . . . no matter how we might want to set it, we don't necessarily trust the people that we are working for, especially, if you may be talking about certain things that are very personal and very close. (Manager – Interview 115)

Why this situation is discussed in the context of the *Transforming* dimension is that participants talked about how they did not feel comfortable talking with their manager. They described how important it was to have someone they could go to and talk honestly with--someone with whom they had a relationship that went beyond the boundaries drawn for them by the culture. They talked of their search for someone who would create a safe refuge where truth could be spoken without fear. The need for an authentic relationship, where people could bring their whole selves, where they could be who they truly are, with all their vulnerabilities, was spoken of frequently. As well, several managers spoke of intentionally working to create a refuge or space of authenticity. Interestingly, they freely admitted that it was "good for business" and this can be seen as one consequence of this mentoring behavior.

> I'm afraid of a dishonest relationship. That's what I'm afraid of. If I can't be honest with you, then we really can't have a relationship because I don't know how to have that kind of relationship in a business environment and be successful. (Manager – Interview 120)

Mentor, manager, and mentee shared meaning. The key process area of the *Transforming* dimension where the manager, mentor, and mentee all shared meaning was "trusting." The manager quoted talked about the two faces of trust; one being that what is heard is kept private and the other is that what is told is the truth.

> I think a mentor relationship is based on trust. It's based on a relationship of trust where you really feel that what you tell that person is going to be respected and maintained within that privacy, and that you can trust them to be honest with you and perhaps, given you a perspective that you would not have otherwise received. (Manager – Interview 115)

The quotes from the mentee and mentor suggest deeper levels of trust. One can hear it in their words when they talk about opening and exposing their mind or being seen as a mother figure. The conditions for trust building were on people's minds and they did not trivialize the responsibility. The consequences were that learning was fostered and the positive outcomes increased the chances that this behavior would be modeled and replicated. This mentee stated it clearly:

> Certainly anyone I opened and exposed my mind to was someone I had developed a high level of trust with. If I believed in them I developed a high level of trust with them and with that trust would come a natural letting down of a certain level of guard and with that letting down of guard would come enhanced opportunities to learn. (Mentee – Interview 103)

Mentor and mentee shared meaning. The key process area where the mentor and mentee shared meaning within the dimension of *Transforming* was around the subject of familial feelings. One can hear the sincerity in the following quote that illustrates a mentor's understanding of how the mentees often see her as a mother figure. Her intentionality around creating a safe environment for their learning is palpable:

> They kind of look at me like an adult mother kind of figure, which is okay. Although I'm not anybody's mom. And they come to me for advice and they trust me. And I put them in a very safe environment and we work at building skills and trust. (Mentor – Interview 111)

Manager and mentee shared meaning. The key process area where the manager and mentee shared meaning within the dimension of *Transforming* was reflective of the condition of a certain level of fear in the workplace, the consequences of which were having uneasy conversations, being uncomfortable, or having a sense of being watched and needing to be careful about what their "chain-of-command" might think about them.

> The one mentoring relationship that I had was a little bit awkward because we were in the same organization and if I wasn't happy with my current situation, it made for uneasy conversations just because this is his organization and you don't want to say anything negative about it. (Mentee – Interview 105)

> You have to be very cautious within your chain-of-command that you don't look like you're having favoritism, spending more time with one person or another. (Manager – Interview 107)

Mentor and manager shared meaning. The key process area where the mentor and manager shared meaning within the dimension of *Transforming* was "admitting vulnerability" and having the confidence to speak freely. In the following quote, a manager who saw herself as a mentor talked about finding someone with whom she could admit her own vulnerability. The consequence of this was she was relieved of the stress of not knowing, of being unsure of her own intuitions; she was able to speak without first filtering through what she should and should not say.

> I can admit the vulnerability. You know, sometimes you will be in these situations where, especially with upper management, where you will think: What are they thinking? Do they really know? And you don't want to ask that question out loud. Sometimes I've found that they are contradicting themselves. They are confusing. But you can go back and say, I heard them say this. So it has allowed me to voice that to another, and then sometimes take action. So in the relationship, I don't even have to think about [whether I] should I bring this up. (Manager – Interview 112)

Manager unique meaning. The key process area where the organizational manager had unique meaning within the dimension of *Transforming* dealt significantly

with ways they understood that mentoring helps in mitigating fear in the workplace. They talked about being leaders and about ways of creating a safe place where people could share without fear and where women and people of color could find understanding. This first quote from a manager describes the conditions that might cause someone to seek help outside their management chain:

> They might either be afraid or not certain whether they should ask their own management chain about something and they can ask a professional or manager somewhere else about it and be able to get answers and help. (Manager – Interview 119)

Oppositionally, managers spoke of working to mitigate that fear as a consequence of their awareness of how fear in the workplace constrains productivity. This manager clearly judges himself based on his ability to create a positive work environment:

> I'm here to help, you shouldn't have to hide that from me. I want you to come see me. I want you to come talk to me. Because if . . . things aren't going well I need the feedback. If you're leaving 'cause it's time for you to do something different, I'm here to help you. A happy employee who feels valued by management, no matter where they are, if they're in my group, if they're in some other group, that's what makes me successful as a leader. (Executive Manager – Interview 117)

One executive manager shared his awareness of people's need for a "safe place" in order for them to open up.

> People are very guarded and very private and need to be in a safe place before they feel like, you know, they can really share. (Executive Manager – Interview 120)

This manager had been mentored by another of the executive managers I interviewed and reflected what he had learned in his focus on being as transparent and authentic as possible. The consequences of his behavior were that he engendered immediate trust and that model reverberated throughout his organization, replicating his message. A consequence of this role modeling of leader behavior was its cascading

throughout this manager's organization. In this sense, he was speaking from the perspective of manager ***as*** mentor:

> So first of all, as a leader we all have many objectives. One thing we do is lead by example. And in my case, I would be available as a mentor for my employees. But I also expect my employees to be available as mentors for other peers in the organization and in their own groups. So I have a little bit of a twist because it's myself as a mentor, but also some of our team's employees as mentors as well. (Manager – Interview 121)

Managers also spoke about intentionally using "self-disclosure" as a way to break through communication barriers and get to honest talk. The conditions that set up the need for this manager to self-disclose were articulated in one way or another by all participants. The influence of the hierarchical culture, the distrust of immediate management, the lack of transparency around what it takes to get ahead in this environment, and the pervasive fear of admitting vulnerability all contributed to this manager having to use self-disclosure as a technique to get people to open up.

> These conversations that I have with people within my direct chain of command . . . I do that with a lot of self disclosure. It's up to us to do that. And so I share that with people. And, like I said, I do it in a way where it's personal. . . . I take mentoring very seriously. So I've built a reputation where I help a lot of people. (Executive Manager – Interview 107)

Managers also spoke about conditions where women and people of color could not find mentors that shared in their history. Although this corporation is deeply engaged in developing a more inclusive culture, the majority of leadership remains white male. Participants' awareness of the expressed need for "common ground" in order for an authentic relationship to grow indicated the level of reflection they had engaged in around their own potential shortcomings as mentors and managers. The consequences of this state of transformation from what has largely been a monoculture to a highly diverse

and global employee base is that mentors are needed who can bridge the gap that exists across genders, ethnicities, and other fundamental cultural realities.

> People who are ethnic minorities look for someone that they feel that they could relate to or may be able to relate to some of their experiences, so that's—you know a lot of the informal mentoring relationships that I have are with—you know what we call, "Sister girls." (Manager – Interview 115)

Mentor unique meaning. The key process areas where the mentor had unique meaning within the dimension of *Transforming* were around role modeling and the importance of transparency in how the mentee relates to both the mentor and the manager. This first quote describes an executive manager's reflection upon his mentoring work and how he strives to create people in his own image. Note the use of the word "force" that shows the extent to which this mentor/manager pushes people to role model his mentoring behavior.

> I want them to be somewhat like me in that I want them engaged in every person's life and because I- and they all actually have varying levels of wanting to do that and availability to do that. But that's my expectation . . . we force people to engage in counseling and mentoring. (Executive Manager as Mentor – Interview 117)

This second quote from a mentor demonstrates more of a natural role modeling scenario where people in his organization see his way of solving problems and come to him to learn how to model that behavior.

> I guess it's the calmness or whatever, they see. I don't know exactly what it is. They sought me out. The team was kind of troubled for a while. So I helped them through some rough spots. And then after that, they started coming to me saying, we enjoyed the way you went through that process with us, and I would like to learn how to do that. (Mentor – Interview 110)

In the following quote, an executive manager, speaking from the perspective of a mentor, clearly outlines the hope or expectation that a mentee would seek transparency

between what they are talking to their mentor about and what they share with their manager.

> I think the important thing is that the mentee is transparent to the both. And again, that's a trust thing. Hopefully, whatever you are talking to your manager about, around your development, your interests, your passion, your performance goals, you know, is consistent with what you're talking with your mentor about too. (Executive Manager as Mentor – Interview 126)

This was one of the few participants that spoke so directly to the confounding issue of managing the interfaces between the different relationships. Although this manager had the hope that this transparency would exist, there was little evidence that participants understood how they should interoperate within the mentoring triad, which they identified as causing discomfort and misunderstandings, and ultimately, affected the quality of their mentoring experiences.

Mentee unique meaning. The key process areas where the mentee had unique meaning within the dimension of *Transforming* were statements about their mentor's ability to relate to them, to really empathize with their situation. This quote from a mentee about their mentor's ability and willingness to let the barriers down far enough between them so that the mentee has the sense of being truly known is a demonstration of commitment by the manager and yields the consequence of obvious loyalty from the mentee to the manager and therefore to the corporation.

> Um, but she is sort of "chameleonesque" if you want to say that, where she can really adapt to what it would be like for me. . . You know she does an amazing job stepping sort of into my shoes. (Mentee – Interview 124)

This particular manager that was being described in the previous quote had been called a "mentor's mentor" by several other senior executives. Her dedication to mentoring was founded on the belief that to the extent people felt valued, that value

would accrue to the company. She built her mentoring practice on what she believed to be a solid business case for mentoring in the workplace.

One mentee from India also spoke of empathy but from a unique perspective--that of placing the responsibility for giving comfort with the mentor but the responsibility for creating empathy with themselves:

> It's all about getting comfortability to each other. I always see the mentor as the one who always gives comfortability to the mentee because the mentee has to open up first, so once, once the mentor gives the comfortability, the mentee starts opening up, that is the starting point of the relationship. (Mentee – Interview 125)

The explanation of this mentee's conception of "comfortability" is important for an understanding of the *Transforming* dimension:

> Comfortability means, again, two different people, they grew up in different areas, they grew up in a different environment, different culture, so somebody has to, it, sometimes it comes naturally and sometimes it likes it has to come by doing, by giving the comfortability. It's kind of, mentoring is kind of, a mentoring relationship is like kind of a friend, talk your other friend, a close friend, two close friends, so it's like a starting point of any kind of mentoring relationship. (Mentee – Interview 125)

Core Dimension: Learning

"Most governments and many organizations consider continuous, on-the-job learning as necessary for all employees. The movement toward competency-based training and education has brought new responsibilities for supervisors to provide learning development opportunities and career support to members of their staff" (Darwin, 2000, p. 198). In the corporation where this study was conducted, learning is embedded in the organizational culture. This corporate culture has generous learning development benefits for employees. Employee learning is supported in both "on-hours" and "off-hours" learning venues and extensive efforts are made to bring in the top talent

to sustain a learning focus. As a high-tech company, competitive advantage accrued by a corporation that has embraced learning organization principles is well understood.

Learning is varied under different cultural conditions and has a dependent relationship with the individual(s) engaged in the learning experience and their interactions with one another. The mentoring relationship has a high potential for learning outcomes because of its archetypal character, the diversity of learning styles it can accommodate, and the fundamental premise that the relationship is designed by the participants to support the learning--that the interactions are configurable to some extent in order to enable the agreed upon learning goals.

> Some literature on learning organizations stresses the development of a climate that encourages risk taking, dialogue, and horizontal relationships as a means of creating new knowledge. Mentoring becomes a collaborative, dynamic, and creative partnership of coequals, founded on openness, vulnerability, and the ability of both parties to take risks with one another beyond their professional roles. (Darwin, 2000, p. 206)

As discussed in Chapter 2, mentoring is fundamental to what it means to be human. Without needing an explicit definition, we have a visceral understanding of mentoring behavior. However, this going-in assumption can be problematic as it sets expectations that may not be possible to fulfill given cultural constraints. Nevertheless, there is an unspoken knowing that mentoring behavior is a demonstration of some of the highest human values and it is a method of learning that has proven itself throughout history. The diversity of learning styles that mentoring can accommodate are demonstrated, in part, by the diversity of mentoring structures that are being practiced in the modern workplace.

When knowledge is “viewed as an active process in which curiosity is encouraged learning becomes a dynamic, reciprocal, and participatory process” (Darwin, 2000, p.

202) that can be understood to be a 21st century knowledge creation enabler adaptable to the unique needs of both the organization and its employees. This is demonstrated, in part, by the diversity of mentoring relationship interactions that I identified as key processes of the primary dimensions of mentoring. The fundamental premise that mentoring relationships can be designed to accommodate the personalities of the participants, the unique context, and the particularity of learning purpose is what may have allowed mentoring to outlive all other forms of knowledge transfer. It is, to some extent, timeless in form and function.

For these reasons and because learning is the engine of mentoring and threads through all the primary dimensions as conceptualized in this study, the concept of learning was selected as the core dimension of mentoring. For each primary dimension identified in this study, learning takes on a different persona and has distinct attributes. The primary mediating element for depth of learning is trust. Trust, in turn, is mediated by the culture. Within any one primary dimension, where trust is lacking or minimal, learning will be limited. Where trust can be established, to whatever extent, learning will be facilitated. It is also important to note that the learning that can be associated to each of the primary dimensions is not exclusive but is inclusive and builds one on the other. The learning identified with the *Dialoging* dimension, for example, can as well be applied to the *Reciprocating* dimension, as dialoging is fundamental to learning. The learning foci of the dimensions are broken out here for illustrative purposes, but the whole is interconnected and cannot be understood fully from any one isolated perspective.

Learning in the Dialoging Dimension

The concept of dialoging is inclusive and necessarily brings in different perspectives. Learning in the *Dialoging* dimension springs from basic "value-added" interactions between people in the work setting, but adds a key ingredient of purposive intention to the conversation. Dialoging was understood by the study participants across a range of experiences, from a simple opportunity to have a series of conversations with a senior executive, as skills-based knowledge transfer, or stretched to the development of congruence of thought or synthesis of ideas that could not possibly have happened without the intended mentoring engagement. "With dialog, there is the intention of *coming to an understanding*" (Evered & Tannenbaum, 1992, 44).

In the mentoring relationship in a business environment, open dialog between the manager and the mentee is a learning enabler. What we found from some mentees was that there was a desire for communication between the mentor and the manager, if only to ensure there is no misunderstanding regarding the role of the mentor. This makes the dialog a (potentially) three-way conversation, as shown in Figure 4.2.

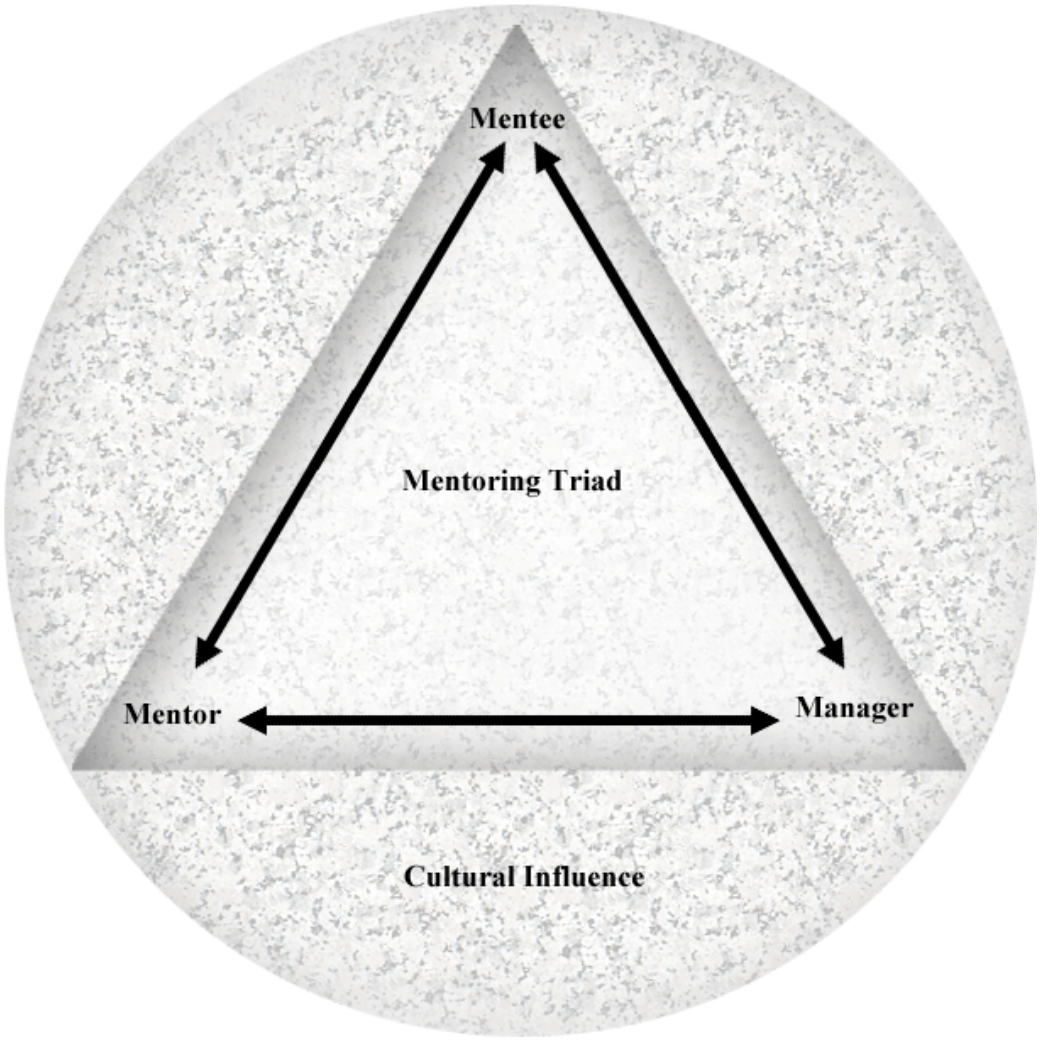


Figure 4.2. Three-Way Dialog Among the Mentoring Triad

The role of the organizational manager in the mentoring relationships of their employees is a phenomenon that has not been deeply explored. Tepper (1995) supported the view that this phenomenon deserved additional attention. His work to highlight the communication dynamics between the supervisor as mentor and the mentee supported Ragins and McFarlin's (1990) earlier work. Tepper argued, "supervisory mentors . . . are generally more accessible and provide more career-related mentoring benefits than non-supervisory mentors" (1995, p. 1204). Yet, he also found "supervisory protégés may

experience relational conflicts that suppress their willingness to express felt emotions. . . [suggesting that] firms should consider using communication training programs for participants in formal supervisory mentorships" (p. 1205). This research barely opened the door on the issues around engagement of the supervisor in the learning equation in the workplace. Whether they were speaking about direct mentorship of their supervisor, or simply involvement of their manager in their mentoring activities, a significant number of mentees and mentors in this study believed that manager involvement could have a positive effect on their mentoring experience. The following quote from a mentor tells the story.

> None of my mentees had their managers involved and I think that's a problem. And I'll give you an example of the lady I'm mentoring now who is in a totally different area and without her management involvement. I mean I'm writing, helping her develop career paths which she has to also go and share with her managers. Because they're the ones that have to help make this happen and because they're not involved we've got a lot of back and forth. It took a while to get her career path, all the things she needed to do nailed down. So when you're mentoring someone that's not in your organization, you don't really know that organization. So with the absence of that manager, it makes it more difficult. But I have to say none of the people I mentor have had their managers involved. (Mentor – Interview 101)

Managers were so far out of the loop on this question that they often did not know how to respond. Reactions to my questions about their role as managers of people involved in mentoring relationships ranged from "feeling guilty" about not knowing (Executive Manager – Interview 114), to "surprise at the question" (Executive Manager – Interview 126), to "not knowing why they didn't know" (Manager – Interview 123). The paradox of the situation was the perception of managers that they were mentors but a seeming lack of awareness about what was going on in terms of mentoring in their own organizations. One manager spoke at length about the lack of mentoring opportunities for

managers and the resultant lack of training for the role of mentor, suggesting that without training and without any formal role for them in the mentoring program, there wasn't any way for them to initiate a dialog. Another manager noted the lack of training and gave as a reason that "they expect us to be able to do everything" (Manager – Interview 112).

> The thing that bothers me is we expect our managers to be fine mentors, but there is no training. It is kind of like, you are a lead. Here comes a person and they dump them on you. But there is a real art to mentoring. (Manager – Interview 127)

Learning in the Reciprocating Dimension

Learning in the *Reciprocating* dimension is transactional and looks like feedback and mutual exchange of information based on the agreed upon learning goals of the mentee and the learning content the mentor receives back from the learning engagement. Mentors who have had significant mentors in their lives feel the drive to give back to others. The mentor is highly motivated by the mentee's learning in this dimension as the need to "pay it forward" is strong. In this dimension of mentoring experience, the mentoring pair often "clicks" right away when they meet, they find "common ground" in their learning conversations, and often share career development and institutional values that allow free flow of information between them. This dimension is experienced as a "win-win" situation by participants where both the mentee and the mentor learn and benefit from the relationship.

The quality of mentoring relationships where learning is a two-way street is of particular importance to this study. In Chapter 5 we will discuss mentoring as a whole system and how the learning seed that is planted in a reciprocal mentoring relationship has consequences for other organizational learning structures. The gift of learning

reverberates across the organization, effecting positive change in both group and individual behavior patterns.

Learning in the Interconnecting Dimension

Learning in the *Interconnecting* dimension looks like transactional learning still, but on a level where true connections are made between people who have found shared values, interests, and goals. Here the mentee might be invited into the "inner circle" of an executive, have broadened opportunities for networking, and be schooled in how to navigate the organizational culture. Learning in this dimension has attributes like mutuality, openness to learning, honoring inquiry, opportunity to transcend the ego, and ability to risk getting beyond current learning paradigms. The *Interconnecting* dimension represents a portal to learning that the mentee traverses via the mental, emotional, or cognitive connections they make with the mentor. In the *Interconnecting* dimension, trust is established through a frame of shared experience or values that naturally encourages people to work together. When this beginning trust matures and is tested over time, true transformational change can occur, as described in the next dimension.

Learning in the Transforming Dimension

Learning in the *Transforming* dimension is transformational, life changing. Adult learning theory emphasizes "contextual understanding, critical reflection on assumptions and validating meaning by assessing reasons" (Mezirow, 2000, p. 3). Learning in the *Transforming* dimension incorporates this view of learning and adds the concept of transitioning beyond the organizational culture, breaking free. What is learned by the participants who share experiences in this dimension is about self in relationship with others, deep learning within a safe environment where risk can be taken because fear is

not an issue. Where interpretive structures are shared, empathy exists, and the personhoods of the individuals are allowed to come forward. In this dimension, community is created, allowing both team and individual learning to blossom.

Dialoging, reciprocating, and interconnecting all play here with the critical added component of a "safe house," a place away from the stresses of the culture where one can self-disclose, be vulnerable, and bring their whole self to the moment. This space of safety is intentionally created by some and sought by others, almost as a refuge. In this dimension, dialoging becomes reflective discourse involving "a critical assessment of assumptions" (Mezirow, 2000, p. 11) often allowing engagement in deep discussion of "feelings, intentions, values, and moral issues" (p. 8). In this dimension, reciprocating takes on the mantle of truth where "give-and-take" move beyond the instrumental and deal with meaning-making. In this dimension, interconnecting signifies coherence, appropriateness, and authenticity of intention.

Summary

In this chapter, I presented the findings from my research. The findings were expressed through identification of the three key perspectives of the mentoring participants, conceptualization of four primary dimensions of mentoring, and discussion and illustration of where and how meaning was shared among the participants and where it diverged. These findings were supported by direct quotes from the participants so that their clear voices could be heard above my own. The core dimension of *Learning* was named as the integrating dynamic in the mentoring experience. What gives mentoring its unique and lasting quality is that learning in mentoring is a shared experience, benefiting both the mentor and the mentee and necessarily accruing to the organization,

organizational management, and group processes operating within the unique encompassing culture.

In this chapter, I highlighted the voices of the participants and let them speak what was in their hearts and minds. In Chapter 5, I will present models that express both the complexity and the simplicity of the dimensions of mentoring as I interpreted them. The models will be situated in the mentoring research.

Modeling and Theoretical Propositions

Introduction

Schatzman (1991) challenged qualitative researchers to ask the question of their research, "What all is involved here?" The following quote from a mentor in this study answers the question so simply, while still capturing the awesome complexity of studying social process:

> So I think relationships and mentoring depends on one, who you are; two, where you are in your life; and three, what's going on in your life at the time. (Mentor – Interview 102)

The mentoring journey of participants within the specific corporate culture explored in this study was multifaceted and complex. The exploration of the different primary dimensions from the different perspectives of mentor, mentee, and manager in the previous chapter allowed us to view the landscape of mentoring through various lenses in an attempt to describe the parts. Now, our task is to synthesize the parts into a whole cloth, stitching together the pieces into a composition that tells more of the whole story to answer Schatzman's simple but profound question from a theoretical perspective.

Metaphorical Model

To set the stage for the presentation and discussion of my theoretical model, I offer the dimensions of mentoring as conceptualized in this study (Dialoging, Reciprocating, Interconnecting, and Transforming) in the context of a metaphorical journey down a river, as shown in Figure 5.1. What the river represents is the modern work stream--the flow of daily operations with its myriad group processes and individual and group dynamics. The main stream of the river is where the action is--where careers are forged, where strategies are created and implemented, where the work happens, and

where money is made. The current can be swift and people do get caught up in it. It often hurries them along and past opportunities such as mentoring experiences. In the work culture studied however, there are shoals that have been purposefully built to enable people to move out of the stream, take a rest on the bank, and bask for a time in the joys and rewards of human relationship formation. One such breakwater in the culture studied is the formal mentoring program that has become institutionalized across the enterprise. It offers the opportunity to move out of the current and personalize learning through a mentoring relationship. However, the very act of moving out of the stream of action may not serve the intended purpose of mentoring in this unique work culture.

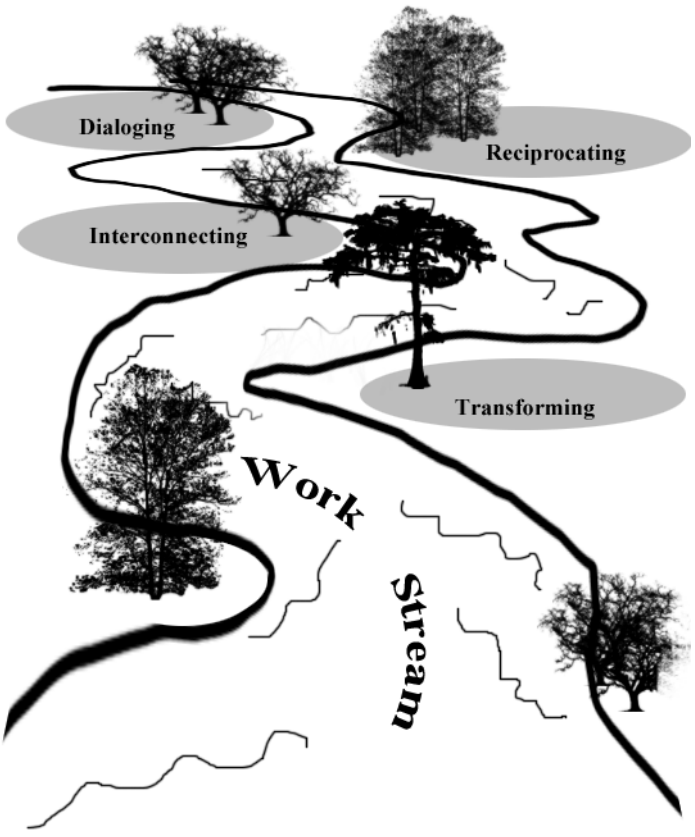


Figure 5.1. Metaphorical Model

Mentoring is a dynamic human activity. In the workplace, mentoring occurs in a multilayered and constantly changing environment where organizational and political pressures, personnel changes, leadership and strategy changes, and many other forces affect the formation, experience, and outcomes of mentoring relationships. This illustration is meant to be a metaphor that illustrates this movement in, out, and through the various dimensions of mentoring. Other researchers have brought our attention to the dynamics of mentoring. For example, Kram (1980) compared the mentoring experience to a life's journey and suggested that those involved in mentoring relationships moved through various phases in the life of a mentoring relationship. What I am offering for consideration, however, is that participants in mentoring relationships in this study (mentor, mentee, and manager) experienced mentoring in different ways, at different times, in different situations, with different structures of partnering because they were different people, at different points in their lives, and with different relationship patterns and partners. As Heraclitus (540 - 480 B.C.E.) suggested, one can never step in the same river twice. So it is with mentoring and the culture within which it occurs.

Nevertheless, we know from the interviews that some mentoring participants experienced the full range of mentoring relationships as conceptualized, while others went no further than the first bend in the river. What is important to understand is that from the perspective of many of the participants in this study, there is not necessarily a higher value in having experienced all the various possibilities in mentoring relationships. There is not necessarily greater value gleaned from a relationship that gets down the river to the *Transforming* pool than one that stays and learns through *Dialoging*. What determined the value for participants stemmed from their original expectations, their

learning needs, and the possibilities that they imagined and achieved by the bringing together of unique human beings for this, at once, both specific and general purpose of learning.

As several of the participants acknowledged in their interviews, the corporation is very aware of the business value of mentoring. The work culture promotes mentoring and there is clearly alignment between individuals and the culture around the perceived benefits received from mentoring behavior. People move freely in and out of mentoring experiences. Their actions are not formally tracked by the enterprise and, more pertinent to this research, their mentoring experiences often take place below the surface and out of the awareness of their organizational managers. We will return to this subject in the next section and will discuss the implications for research and practice in Chapter 6.

The next section transitions us from a metaphorical model to a theoretical model that expresses the interrelationships among the dimensions of mentoring as conceptualized and situates the conceptualizations in the mentoring literature. The theoretical model is intended to represent the voices of the participants about their experiences. It is a simple model and yet, like human relationships, it has depth and complexity and lends itself to a diversity of interpretive scenarios depending on the lens of the interpreter.

Theoretical Model

In this section, a theoretical model of mentoring (Figure 5.2) is offered to synthesize and compose the dimensions of mentoring as they were independently discussed in Chapter 4 into a holistic representation and to discuss how the primary and core dimensions work together as a system. Theoretical propositions that emerged from

the research will be woven into the discussion. Key findings elaborated in Chapter 4 will be situated in the existing research on mentoring.

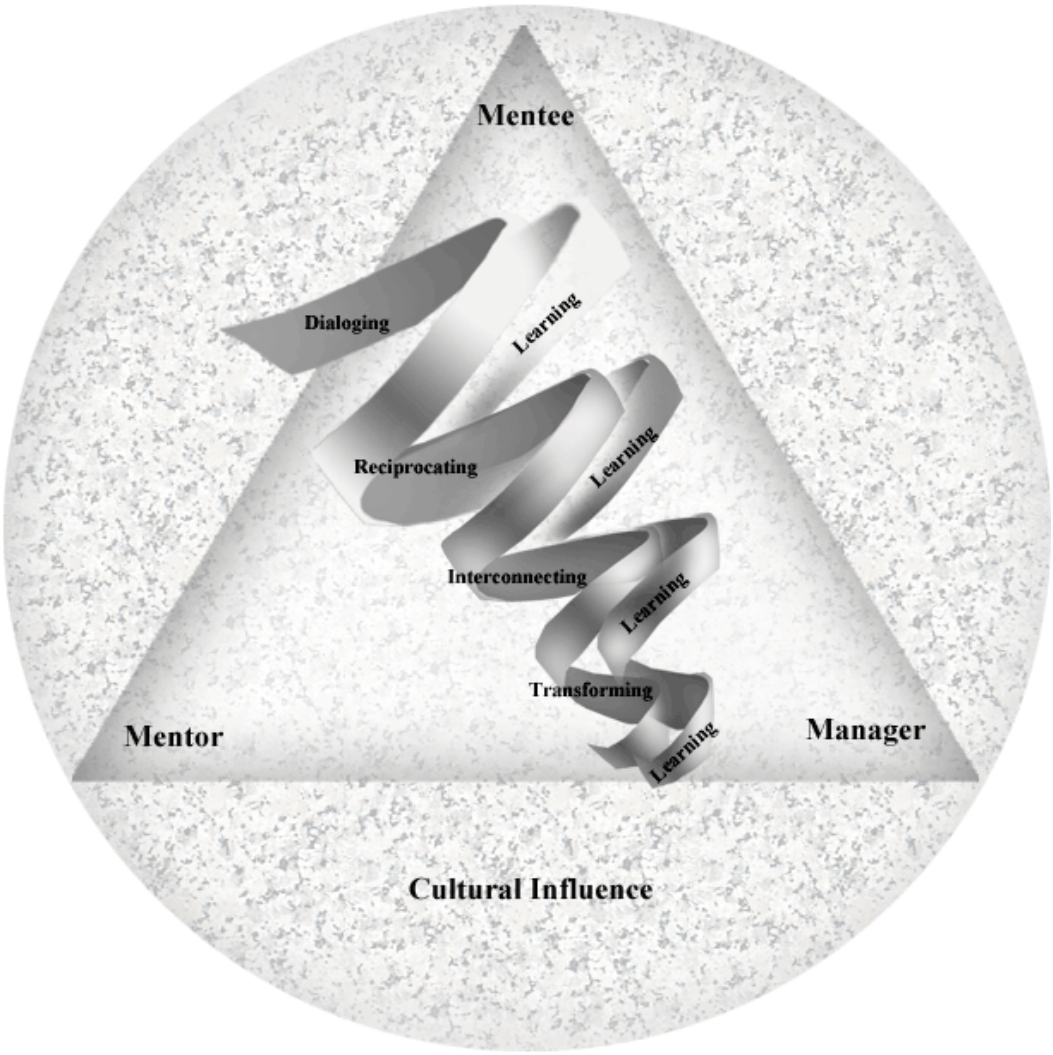


Figure 5.2. Theoretical Model

The theoretical model illustrates a conceptualization of the full scope of mentoring experiences as reported to me through the interviews of study participants. From the perspective of the Systems Sciences, it is a human activity system that represents "set of human activities related to each other so they can be viewed as a whole,

consisting of purpose, process, interaction, integration, and emergence" (Checkland, 1981, p. 47). The components of the system are part of a dynamic process, mutually influence one another, and are highly interrelated (Holloway, 1999, p. 250). Banathy's (1996) conceptualization of a human activity system adds depth to our understanding:

> [A human activity system] is an assembly of people and other resources organized into a whole in order to accomplish a purpose. The people in the system are affected by being in the system, and by their participation in the system they affect the system. People in the system select and carry out activities -- individually and collectively -- that will enable them to attain a collectively identified purpose. [The system] maintains sets of relations [that are] sustained through time, among those who are in the system. The maintenance of these relations is of primary importance. . . . [The system] is open to and interacts with the environment; depends on it and contributes to it. The nature of its relationship with the environment is mutual interdependence. This interdependence imposes constraints and expectations on both the system and its environment responsively. The environment is expected to provide the resources and support that are required by the system. [The system] acts as a whole toward itself and by itself -- by its internal relations and internal integration -- by which it can also sustain itself. Thus, while we view the system as a whole, at the same time we consider it as part of, and embedded in, its environment. (p. 275)

The theoretical model of mentoring that emerged from my research meets these criteria. It consists of four primary dimensions conceptualized as *Dialoging*, *Reciprocating*, *Interconnecting*, and *Transforming* and manifests the interpenetrating influence of the organizational culture as surrounding or holding in place the human activity system. It represents the interactions and interdependencies of the participants in their multiplexed roles and illustrates the dynamic nature of the internal and external interrelationships that cause the emergent properties of learning to manifest. The graphic tells a story of the diversity of mentoring experiences that participants recounted. The dimensions are not separate but are interconnected and interdependent; they blend into one another and often overlap. Yet, they can be understood to have been experienced as

unique processes by the participants and therefore each one, separately and together, have validity.

I have suggested that mentoring is a whole system, a human activity system that has a unique relationship with and patterns of interaction that exist between those engaging in the mentoring relationship and the culture or context from which the relationship emerges. In Chapter 4, we discussed the whole system of mentoring in terms of its separate dimensions. This theoretical model is intended to show that the parts of the system cohere and work together to produce the output of the system--learning. The parts are flexible and moldable; they adjust to the needs and demands of the system and are informed by the feedback mechanisms of the system. The processes that operate within the dimensions of mentoring, as described in Chapter 4, can be understood as patterns of interaction engaged in by the participants acting in their roles as defined and experienced within a unique cultural milieu.

Identifying the patterns of mentoring, as we did in the last chapter, helps us put the patterns of interaction in mentoring in the context of similar event patterns, which then allows us to draw causal connections. We saw in the previous chapter that there were patterns of mentoring that the participants shared in and patterns where they diverged. This allowed us to say something about the alignment of the roles and their effect on one another. The concept of a “frame” as first introduced by Erving Goffman (1974) is pertinent here. The participants were often operating out of a shared definition of a situation or experience (frame) that tended to organize and govern their social interactions. The idea of “reframing” made popular through the work of Bolman and Deal (2003) suggests that people can intentionally adjust their frame or shared understanding

through social processes. Mentoring can be understood as one of those social processes that can have a profound effect on the way people view reality as they engage in learning new ways of being and doing.

The inspiration for the theoretical model offered in this study was Holloway's Systems Approach to Mentoring (SAM) model (in Holloway & Shoop, 2006) and her associated work to develop a holistic solution for mentoring program design and implementation. The SAM model is in alignment with Barrett's (2006) work on a whole systems approach to cultural transformation. The role of mentoring in cultural transformation is just beginning to be understood and the role of mentor as culture change agent is emergent. This study speaks to those emergent roles and adds that of the organizational manager, a role that is transitioning from one of control to one of empowerment through transformational leadership principles and practices. A holistic look at these nuanced human and structural dynamics in the workplace is overdue.

In the following sections, the dimensions of mentoring illustrated in the model are described in their role as parts of the whole system of mentoring. Although, once again, they are discussed separately, their interconnectedness with the other parts of the system is highlighted and their unique properties are situated in the mentoring research literature. Theoretical propositions that emerged from the findings are discussed in the context of the model and will be summarized at the end of this chapter. In all cases, the implications for research and practice will be brought forward in Chapter 6.

Learning--The Core Dimension

Mentoring is a constellation of highly interrelated activities. At the core of any system is its ultimate purpose. With mentoring, the ultimate purpose is learning. No

matter the form mentoring may have taken over the millennia, before and since the Egyptian Ptah-Hotep mentored his son in how to be a leader, the core purpose of mentoring has always been founded on making meaning from learning outcomes. In this study, meaning making was explored through the voices of adult participants who shared their experiences of mentoring within a particular organizational context. Their experiences were complex and multifaceted, and yet the simple theoretical model (Figure 5.2) can hold their expressed experiences, allowing them to be discussed and understood without taking away from their sophisticated composition.

Mezirow (1996) understood learning "as the process of using a prior interpretation to construe a new or revised interpretation of the meaning of one's experience in order to guide future action" (p. 162). It is interesting that this same description came out of the mouths of mentors and managers when they were describing their mentoring role in the contexts of both the *Reciprocating* and the *Transforming* dimensions. The "coherent body of experience--assumptions, concepts, values, feelings, conditioned responses--frames of reference that define an adult's world" (Mezirow, 1997, p. 5) were the gifts that mentors described as passing on to their mentees, either from a "paying it forward" impulse or from a passion to guide the mentee beyond their current paradigms. The dimensions through which mentors and mentees traveled together in their learning journey may have begun with dialog but they also traversed across the dimensions, recursively evolving and spiraling deeper, downward and inward, toward a perspective transformation (Mezirow, 1978) that was a potential ultimately held by the *Transforming* dimension. The action of mentees who experienced the *Transforming* dimension validated the idea that a change in perspective is known by the positive action

that follows. Saavedra (1995) declared, “Action, acting upon redefinition of our perspectives, is the clearest indication of a transformation” (p. 373). The promise of the *Transforming* dimension is that the mentee’s learning would get beyond the clutches of the culture and allow the mentee to see the whole system and thus act for the success of the whole. This potential was what impassioned mentors saw as a possible learning outcome of mentoring and why they were willing to dedicate their time and energy to anyone who came to them, as so many did. Several mentors referred to this as the “business case for mentoring.” What was hidden in these banal words was the knowledge that a change in perspective toward a more systemic viewpoint would not only be good for the employee but ultimately would be a best practice for sustaining the success of the corporation.

Situating Dialoging

Dialoging is foundational to all the other dimensions of mentoring. It is the pattern of interaction that occurs in every other function within the whole system of mentoring activity. “Dialog between the mentor and the ‘protégé’ or learner plays a central role in the learning process” (Borredon & Ingham, 2005, p. 494). Freire and Macedo (1995) defined dialogue as an epistemological relationship: “I engage in dialogue because I recognize the social and not merely the individualistic character of the process of knowing. [In this sense,] dialogue presents itself as an indispensable component of the process of both learning and knowing” (p. 379). Mezirow (2000) defined discourse as “specialized use of dialogue devoted to searching for a common understanding and assessment of the justification of an interpretation or belief” (p. 10) and suggested that it can produce “an altered state of being” (p. xii) resulting from

interaction based on solidarity, empathy, and trust. The philosopher Martin Buber used the term “dialogue” in 1914 as a description of a mode of exchange between people where trust and a full appreciation of each other underlies the conversation. Bohm (1985) described a new form of conversation that was intended to alter the “tacit infrastructure” of thought and motivate people to pay more attention, listen intently, and to perceive and acknowledge assumptions. He developed principles or rules for acceptable and unacceptable conversations and identified the purpose of dialogue as the creation of a setting or context where conscious “collective mindfulness” could be exercised and enjoyed. In Bohm’s earlier work (1980), he searched for an understanding of the origins of fragmented thought that he understood as separating man from himself and other men and women, from his own body and mind, and from his spiritual nature. Bohm saw conversation or “dialogos” as an intervention to heal fragmentation of thought between individuals and a way to rediscover “the primacy of the whole” in human interrelationships (p. 176).

Conversation or dialogue as an intervention was also described by Argyris (1990) as an effective way to overcome defensive routines and deal with “undiscussables” in team and organizational settings (p. 27). Schein (1992), as well, described the activity of conversation or structured dialogue as a way of uncovering “shared underlying assumptions” through discussion of inconsistencies between “cultural artifacts” and “espoused values” (p. 21). Senge (1990) rephrased Argyris’ work into the concept of “mental models” (pp. 8 - 9) and focused us on seeing interrelationships between people in organizations. Senge, Kleiner, Roberts, Ross, and Smith (1994) extended Senge’s ideas and described “patterns of interaction” (p. 25) and visioning as guiding ideas that evolve

as people reflect and talk about them. They described how “shared visions live in our ongoing conversations about what we seek together to create” (p. 24). These views from the literature were echoed in the words of participants as they related their experiences of mentoring and are reflective of the theoretical model offered as a description of emergent properties of workplace mentoring explored in this research.

Situating dialoging in the workplace and in a learning context necessarily introduces the political realities of organizational life, which in turn necessitates discussion of the distribution of power and authority. Significant investment has been made by researchers over the last three decades in the subject of power and influence and their role in relationships within the workplace. Of particular import to this research is the relationship between power, involvement, learning, and development as these are key elements that we are concerned with in a mentoring-in-the-workplace context. Freire (1972) early on introduced the perspective of power and powerlessness and helped to frame how an imbalance of power in a relationship can affect learning outcomes, especially for those that are already experiencing some sort of marginalization. Beech and Brockbank (1999) argued, “Where the mentor has hierarchical authority over the mentee, the psychosocial functions which support a developmental relationship may be inhibited by the power inherent in the relationship” (p. 8).

Leary (1957) first offered a framework to classify verbal behavior in supervision from the perspective of power and involvement. That framework placed “power in a relational system through the integrative power of involvement” (Holloway & Wolleat, 1994, p. 34) while describing the reciprocal nature of the influence. Nelson and Holloway (1990) extended Leary’s work by examining the interrelations of gender, power,

supervisory role, and patterns of interaction. Imbalances relative to gender and power were seen to affect both relationship and learning. Mentees in this study (both male and female) spoke of the need to "subordinate their ego" (Interviews 103, 125, 124) in order to encourage the desired mentor behavior. Female managers were the most vocal about fear over "being wrong" (Interview 112), "being afraid" (Interview 119) and needing to find "a place of safety" (Interview 120). These participants clearly were experiencing power and involvement issues as we see documented in the literature.

Tannen (1994) described conversations as rituals and described different cultures as having different habits for using these rituals. She stated "when a ritual is not recognized, the words spoken are taken literally" (p. 43). Several participants in this study who were people of color spoke of the need to find someone like them to talk with. One participant (Manager – Interview 115) used the phrase "Sister girls" to describe those she could talk to without guardedness. Participants acknowledged the lack of mentors who were people of color and how important it was to have people to turn to that could relate to one's unique set of experiences. As stated, female managers were particularly poignant in their search for other women with whom they could confide around issues of status and the mine fields of the management hierarchy.

Tannen (1994) suggested that status and communicational connectedness do not have to be mutually exclusive. She argued, "Nowhere is the double meaning of status and connection clearer than in the use of first names" (p. 208). Tannen described how subordinates in the status relationship are often called by their first names while superiors are addressed using their title. Her work is foundational to interventions that work to improve the ability of people to talk openly in groups, a requirement of self-directed

work teams and other expressions of “leadership at all levels of the organization” where people “turn to one another” (Wheatley, 2002) for solace and solutions as the participants in this study acknowledged.

Reciprocating--the Feedback Engine

> In 1988, Olian et al. framed their study problem as
>
> > Conceptualizing the mentoring relationship as a *reciprocal exchange* implies that both mentors and protégés exercise choice in entering into and maintaining a mentoring relationship [and admitted] research to date is somewhat imbalanced in emphasizing the mentor’s perspective over the protégé’s. (p. 143)

In 1997, Healy argued that “formal appropriately structured [mentoring] programs may promote the developmental-contextual hallmarks of reciprocity and qualitative transformation” (p. 12). In 2001, Higgins and Kram identified mutual trust, interdependence, and *reciprocity* as characteristics of relationships in developmental networks. Hall (2002) brought us to the awareness of how people actively develop their identities through acquiring the ability to *process feedback* about themselves through effective mentoring relationships. As late as 2005 Molloy was basing research on the 1978 social exchange theories of Emerson and Cook, which suggested that protégés and mentors made decisions based on their assessments of the costs and benefits of their interactions.

This legacy of focus on reciprocal behavior as a key element of mentoring was validated by the participants in this study. The insight by mentors and managers around the deliberate use of self-disclosure to encourage reciprocation by mentees was particularly poignant. Ehrlich and Graeven (1971) explored reciprocal self-disclosure in a dyad situation. Their findings suggested that (a) the greater the intimacy of the disclosure on the part of one person in a dyadic encounter, the greater the intimacy of the disclosure

of the other, and (b) in a dyadic first encounter, the more intimate the disclosure behavior of an individual, the greater the liking of the other person for him (p. 390). Participants in my study reported using self-disclosure to quickly establish rapport with mentees. The literature suggested that development of trust could be fostered by such behavior because "the discloser has demonstrated his trust by divulging intimate information, making himself open and vulnerable. The recipient then reciprocates to indicate that his trust is not misplaced" (Chaikin & Derlega, 1974, p. 118.) Participants in this study voiced an intuitive understanding of this reciprocal relationship and used it intentionally to move the mentoring relationship to the next level of engagement.

The motivation for exhibiting reciprocal behavior relative to the act of mentoring itself was also evident in the testimonies of the participants. Participants clearly articulated that reciprocating behaviors were additive and tended to drive people toward mentoring others. The following quote from a manager/mentor tells the story:

> The reason I have so much passion around mentoring, is it's my way of telling -- of saying thank you to all the people who have helped me. (Manager – Interview 107)

Every system needs an engine to keep it going. The engine of mentoring was clearly identified by participants in this study as the urge to "pay it forward." The engine of reciprocity enables the mentoring system to be self-organizing and self-sustaining. These are key attributes of any system. The mentoring literature also supports the study findings relative to reciprocity, "Mentoring creates a three-way reciprocal context. For example, the mentor gives, the protégé gets, and the organization benefits. When the mentoring relationship enhances the protégé's contribution to the organization, the organization benefits" (Scandura, Tejeda, Werther, & Lankau, 1996, p. 52). Acknowledgment of this three-way reciprocal interaction was identified by both mentors

and managers who spoke about how mentoring was good for business while, as illustrated by the quote above, being their way of "saying thank you."

Interconnecting--Bringing the Pieces Together

Interconnection and interdependency are fundamental to the parts of a whole system. Our findings in this study highlighted the shared and unique perspectives of mentors, mentees, and organizational managers in regard to the interconnectedness of their mentoring experiences. In mentoring relationships, mutual caring and loyalty increases as the social distance between the mentor and the mentee decreases. The better they get to know one another, the more their relationship is characterized by mutual trust and mutual obligation, similar to effective leadership relationships (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

The only researchers found that explored shared perceptions on the mentoring relationship were Godshalk and Sosik (2000) and Raabe and Beehr (2003). Their research explored shared perceptions between the mentor and mentee. The perspective of the organizational manager, however, remains an invisible and yet important part of the mentoring interconnection. In this study, findings relative to the active role of organizational managers as mentors, their self-perceptions as mentors, and yet their lack of involvement in the mentoring relationships of their employees was an important dynamic and a key finding of this research.

Early on, Louis, Posner, and Powell (1983) identified supervisors as key individuals for an employee's socialization within an organization. Burke, McKenna, and McKeen (1991) and Scandura et al. (1996) addressed conditions where an immediate supervisor served as mentor to their employees. Thibodeaux and Lowe (1996) found

convergence between in-group Leader Member Exchange (LMX) relations and mentoring functions. Scandura and Schriesheim (1994) suggested that “when a supervisor is seen as a mentor, a transformational process may be present” (p. 1589). They conceptualized supervisory career mentoring (SCM) as a transformational process in which the commitment of the mentor to the mentee’s development results in extra-organizational investment and involves a mutual commitment by mentor and protégé to the latter’s long-term development (p. 1589).

In a corporation, the fulcrum between individual and collective needs is the manager. The instrumental role of the organizational manager found in this study was significant. Evidence of organizational managers orchestrating mentoring relationships and using mentoring relationships as interventions both on an individual and organizational level was testimony to the importance of the role of manager in mentoring. The problems that mentees and mentors both discussed relative to the non-involvement of their managers in their mentoring experiences, such as time constraints and disconnections relative to organizational priorities added to the strength of the assertion that managers do have a role to play. Realities of policy and politics in an organizational context mean that only the organizational manager has the authority to arrange learning opportunities, such as job shadowing and apprenticing opportunities. These accommodations for deep learning were recognized and desired by both mentees and mentors in the study. A key finding of this research was the lack of a roadmap between the mentee and these kinds of vital growth opportunities. Implications for practice relative to this finding will be addressed in Chapter 6.

Out of this finding emerged what appears to be a disconnection or misalignment in values around the role of the organizational manager, both in their assumed role of manager-as-mentor and in their lack of engagement in the mentoring triad relationship. The culture studied is expending significant resources developing, implementing, and sustaining a diversity of mentoring relationship formation opportunities. The formal enterprise-wide program studied was only one of many others that are available to employees. Demonstrably then, the corporation understands the value proposition of mentoring relative to the "triple bottom line" (Savitz & Weber, 2006). So why does this misalignment exist? Perhaps a structural error was made in an effort to solve a different kind of problem.

Formal corporate mentoring programs were brought into existence to level the playing field for women and minorities who were being left out of informal mentoring opportunities (Kanter, 1977; Holloway & Shoop, 2006). The literature is clear that the most mentoring activity in the workplace from the 1970s through the 1990s was within the management ranks. As stated earlier, there is a definite skew in the literature in favor of the experiences of managers. In the corporation studied, there is no mentoring program for managers. Only this year did a mentoring initiative get started where executives formally took on mentees, with a requirement that at least one mentee be a woman or person of color. The legacy of the perception of favoritism among managers that still lingers from the days of the "good ole' boys' network" may have caused this corporation to ensure an end to favoritism by explicitly excluding managers from being mentors of their direct reports. What has resulted has been the exclusion of managers from any role in the mentoring program and a lack of engagement in the mentoring relationships of

their direct reports. Paradoxically, many managers saw it as their responsibility to perform as a mentor. It may be that the corporation is solving the right problem with the wrong structure. It appears that a schism exists between mentoring behavior and the culture to the detriment of both the employees and the corporation. The existence of such a nuanced problem has not been addressed in the literature.

What the literature does address is the diversity of interconnections available in what is referred to as developmental relationship networks (Kram, 1988; Higgins & Kram, 2001; Seibert, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001; Chandler & Kram, 2005) that assist mentees in career growth and personal learning (Landau & Scandura, 2002), self-identity formation (Ibarra, 1999) and professional identity formation (Dobrow, Ensher & Higgins, 2005). The strength of relationships has been a subject in the mentoring research since Granovetter's (1973) research determined that "the strength of a tie is a combination of the amount of time, the emotional intensity, the intimacy (mutual confiding), and the reciprocal services which characterize the tie" (p. 1361). The increasing levels of emotional intensity, intimacy, and reciprocal services that characterized the dimensions of mentoring in this study validate the existing research in this area. However, the existing research continues to be focused on the mentee and relationship outcomes with no focus on the role of the organizational manager in the initiation, maintenance, or closure of the mentoring experience.

The literature points to, and my findings validate, an evolution of management theory that moves away from the command-and-control model to a more empowering model of management where mentoring and leadership are seen as attributes of managerial excellence and where the responsibility for creating an environment where

mentoring and leadership development can thrive is directly placed at the door of management. In 1990, Evered and Selman wrote an important article on this subject which is pertinent to the findings in this research. They used the term “coaching” but made a clear distinction between their definition of coaching, which aligned much closer to the accepted understanding of mentoring behavior, and traditional coaching activities. Their definition of coaching was, “a managerial activity of creating by communication only, the climate, environment, and context that empowers individuals and teams to generate results” (p. 18).

Many of the managers in this study used the terms coaching and mentoring interchangeably and their words, captured in Chapter 4, align with the definition of management responsibility as offered by Evered and Selman (1990). What I believe I am finding in this data and from my received theory and experience in this culture, is evidence of a corporation in transition from their legacy management model to an evolved view of manager as leader. At the point in time of this study, the manager is caught betwixt and between, hearing the call to evolved relationships and yet not yet fully supported in this transformation by the culture. This situational finding will be addressed in more detail in the discussion of the *Transforming* dimension.

Transforming and Transitioning

A whole system is always at work transforming itself to adjust to changes in the surrounding environment. In the world of business, the transitioning of the organizational culture from one of command-and-control to a diverse and involved workforce, empowered to make decisions in the context of work is deeply connected to the movement from a more transactional leadership style to transformational leadership

principles and practices. The idea that “leaders may need to serve as mentors to activate transformational leadership . . . in followers” (Scandura & Williams, 2004, p. 448) is a relatively new idea but was evident in the interviews, especially, but not exclusively, from executive managers. The roadmap for this transformation is not yet clear. Clearly, education for mentors must be included to enable this transformation.

The mentoring literature is not generous on the subject of development for mentors. Barrett (2002) explored a process for mentor development and ongoing supervision, but he is one of the few researchers in the business domain who have addressed this neglected topic. Cohen (1995) provided a comprehensive guide for acquisition of competencies for mentoring but the need for mentor training and supervision was not brought forward. Where there is a significant literature base on this subject is in the supervisory counseling literature.

Research into the subject of supervision in counseling psychology has much to teach us in our nascent inquiry into mentoring in the workplace. In 1987, Holloway and Acker defined supervision as “a learning alliance that empowers the trainee to acquire skill and knowledge relevant to the profession and to experience interpersonal competence in the supervisory relationship” (in Holloway, 1994, p. 8). In clinical settings supervision takes two forms, depending on the intended beneficiary of the supervision process and the nature of the relationship between the supervisor and supervisee (Holloway & Wolleat, 1994, p. 24). The parallels to mentoring relationships, as they are experienced in the workplace, are immediately evident. The administrative supervisor has the “primary task of overseeing, directing, and evaluating the work of clinicians . . . [while] clinical supervisors meet with professionals on a regular basis to discuss clinical

and professional issues for the benefit of the professional growth of the supervisee" (p. 24). One cannot help but compare this triadic relationship with the mentoring triad described in this study.

As well, Holloway and Wolleat (1994) described the roots of clinical supervision as intertwined with the roots of mentoring: "Supervision is an instructional method that finds its origins in the apprenticeship approach to learning an art or craft. . . . Supervision provides an opportunity for the trainee to learn the skills and ethical principles of the profession" (p. 25). An alignment of the clinical supervisor behavior with the mentor and the administrative supervisor with the organizational manager's role and responsibilities can be made. Holloway (1994) described the supervisory relationship as a "hierarchical, formal working relationship that acts as a vehicle to establish teaching and learning specific to the trainee's level of skill and experience" (p. 8). What becomes important in later research in the counseling supervision literature is the focus on learning development for the supervisor, an area that is neglected in the mentoring literature. Holloway and Wolleat (1994) informed us, "The supervisory relationship is crafted not only to facilitate the teaching and learning processes, but also to allow for the evaluation of students' performance. The supervisor is both the support for learning and the gatekeeper to the profession" (p. 25).

So, what have we said here? We have the organizational manager in the workplace, a formal, structured role in the corporation, who is accountable for employee performance and responsible for employee performance evaluation. Performance evaluations to some extent are reflective of employee learning and development, but the methods for determining that equation are not documented and, as stated earlier, there is

no formal linkage between a key learning development activity (mentoring) and the organizational manager. Learning and development of employees is only evaluated to the extent that the manager can attribute learning to enhanced performance. Managers have extensive opportunities for management and leadership development training. Then, we have the mentor, an informal, unstructured role that has taken on the mantle of "development" of the mentee, but without any formal documentation of process, without accountability, and without evaluation. Mentors, in the workplace studied, have extremely limited opportunities for training and development to increase their mentoring competency and no on-going or maintenance learning opportunities beyond initial introductory courseware that is, in some programs, only web-based. There is no training for managers who are serving as mentors. Although the literature is quiet on this point, I have anecdotal data that this condition is fairly common across business enterprises. The proliferation of "mentoring episodes" (Ragins & Fletcher, 2007) masquerading as mentoring relationships may be a symptom of the lack of meaningful relational skills training for mentoring participants. On this point of ongoing training and supervisory support for mentors is where the connection being drawn to the supervisory role in counseling abruptly diverges from the corporate business model. Having the responsibility for the learning development of a professional without adequate training is not a situation that would stand in counseling supervision.

I am not alone in having noticed this apparent anomaly. Godshalk and Sosik (2000) argued,

> Human resource managers should provide developmental training for managers so they may handle and understand informal mentoring relationships. . . . Organizations should train managers in offering mentoring functions [because] in many cases mentors may be direct supervisors and these relationships may not be formally sanctioned. (p. 311)

Godshalk and Sosik as well, advised that formal mentoring programs should include

> …training and development to foster an awareness of mentoring and its role in career development . . . the design of an appropriate structure that enables protégés and mentors to have meaningful work interactions [e.g., apprenticing], and support and feedback for those involved in the program. (pp. 313 - 314)

Although these suggestions were offered in the context of enhancing the "success and well-being of women" (p. 312), their recommendations apply across the board. It is noteworthy, however, that they do not include consideration of the organizational manager, except as they might function as mentors, and they give short shrift to the need for any ongoing support for mentors from a supervision perspective (Barrett, 2002). They did, however, call for future research into mentoring relationships between mentees "with and without mentors who are also their direct superiors" (p. 311) as this was seen as a deficiency in the literature.

Counseling supervision in the workplace, which was adapted from traditional counseling approaches (Carroll & Holloway, 1999) may be able to be adapted in turn to address the need for mentor supervision in a business context. Many of the same challenges that face counseling supervisors and counselors in the workplace would fit in the frame that surrounds the mentoring relationship. Clearly, the mentor often serves as a non-professional counselor and advisor and is expected to offer guidance on personal and career growth, areas that bridge counseling and human resource professionals' territory. The emerging expectation that mentors serve as organizational change agents parallels an

emergent expectation of workplace counselors (Carroll, p. 142, in Carroll & Holloway, 1999). Many of the organizational tasks of supervising workplace counselors would apply to mentoring supervision (e.g., generating clear contracts with all parties, working at the interface between the individual and the organization, general personal support and help dealing with parallel processes, working with teams, and evaluation of process and outcomes) (Carroll, p. 144, in Carroll & Holloway, 1999). “Supervisors offer an oasis for workplace counselors,” (p. 149) as do mentors for mentees. Who is there for the mentors to go to for guidance and growth?

What I am suggesting here is that there is a design element of mentoring in the workplace studied that paradoxically may be working against its own purpose. As we discussed in the metaphorical model offered earlier in this chapter, the corporate mainstream is where the action is--where careers are forged, where the work happens, where money is made. The culture has purposefully moved mentoring out of the mainstream--moved it to the eddies and backwaters of the river by (a) refraining from putting any structures in place that would enable the organizational manager of the mentee to engage in the formal mentoring dialog, (b) not providing adequate on-going learning development to mentors, and (c) not creating a supervisory role for mentor support and oversight that would guide the evolution of their important role as change agents and leaders of the corporation. This argument is not meant to suggest that there should not be boundaries. Clear understanding of the appropriate interfaces between the members of the mentoring triad is essential. What is called for is appropriate and clearly documented roles and responsibilities for all the members of the mentoring triad. Clearly, the issue of privacy and confidentiality between the mentee and mentor is of paramount

consideration. However, a conversation on boundaries is a different conversation from one that engages the subject of inclusion of the manager in some formal way in the mentoring experience. Holloway and Shoop (2006) argued for the need to create alignment of structures within organizations (values alignment with mission alignment) in order to create the effect of group cohesion (p. 7). Their point was that "Mentoring can make a significant contribution to the transformation of organizational culture" (p. 5), but the approach to mentoring must be inclusive and holistic.

The design of this study, which drew a more holistic view of mentoring by including the manager, turned out to be a good decision because it allowed us to glimpse how the culture of the organization permeated the mentoring relationship. Why am I so convinced of this? In my modeling, managers were important to understanding the effect of the culture on the relationship. This was seen from several perspectives. From the mentee's perspective, there was a confounding element around the engagement or non-engagement of their supervisors in their mentoring experiences. From the mentor's perspective, there was frustration about their lack of authority and inability to arrange adequate time for their mentoring because they did not have organizational authority to manage resources. But beyond these indicators, it was the references from participants about the need to create or find a place of refuge that revealed the power of the culture. The references to fear and the need for safety told me about the culture and its influence. So, why was the inclusion of the manager in the study important? The inclusion of the manager allowed me to understand the influence of the culture because it was the managers who allowed me to glimpse its power; they were the ones who spoke of it.

Learning, mentoring, and leadership. Henrickson (1989) defined the word *leadership* "as a product of the human attribute of cognitive functioning by which we humans organize our reality and experience . . . [and described leadership] as a structural relationship between leaders and followers" (p. 1). He argued that "leadership is a whole process containing a complex set of interdependent variables that tend to be culturally defined and thus the meaning-making outcomes of leadership tend to be cultural expressions" (p. 2). Holloway and Shoop (2006) indicated, "Mentoring, like any relational approach to learning, is socially constructed within its particular context [and argued that a systemic approach to mentoring must be inclusive of the principles of] transformational leadership and organizational change" (p. 8). Barrett (2006) argued, "Ultimately, the culture of an organization is a reflection of the leader or the personalities of the leadership group" (p. 57). Previously, we noted that a mentor is increasingly being understood to be a "transfer agent of the culture" (Wilson & Elman, 1990) and, therefore, must be considered to be a member of the leadership group.

Conger and Benjamin (1999) argued for a leadership and learning alliance. "By accentuating the importance of learning and establishing a context where employees want to and are able to learn, leaders will be more capable of strengthening their organizations for future challenges and increasing competitive and innovative abilities" (p. 279). Bennis and Nanus' (1997) defining attributes of transformational leadership could as well be stated as tenets of mentoring and learning: (a) it is collective, (b) it is causative, (c) it is purposeful, and (d) it can move constituents to heightened degrees of consciousness (p. 275). Mezirow (2000) argued that the ability of the teacher to change the perspective of the student is the foundation of learning. Following Scandura and Schriesheim's (1994)

integration of mentoring with the Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) model, Scandura and Williams (2004) argued for the beneficial alliance of transformational leadership (as a performance-based change method) and mentoring (as a development-oriented change method) for individual and organizational change.

This brief survey of relevant leadership, learning, and mentoring literature threads learning, mentoring, and leadership together to form a powerful triad suggesting that each can reflect the face of the other, depending on the context. The cycle of change that is fundamental to all living entities has a co-dependent relationship to learning. “It is at the essence of the learning process” (Brown & Posner, 2001, p. 275). Thus, learning, leading, mentoring, and being mentored are all social actions that we are trying to understand so that we can better address the critical incidents that come at us in “a continual stream” (Vaill, 1999, p. 119) in places like the modern corporation. The correspondence between the triad of learning, mentoring, and leadership and the triad of mentee, mentor, and manager is striking (Figure 5.3). They overlay one another and identify the actions and actors, their purposes, and the consequences of their actions.

Figure 5.3. The Two Triads

What this double triad or hexagram suggests is a powerful union of actors, processes, paradigms, and consequences that are operating in the workplace. When the two triads are brought together with intention, purposefully, they have the power to align individual values and developmental objectives with those of the larger system within which the individual operates. In this way, mentoring can be seen as a "seeding process" (Holloway & Shoop, 2006) where individuals within a corporation hone their relational skills; develop their ability to communicate across cultural, gender, and age boundaries; receive the gift of mirrored reflection; and invest in the learning infrastructure at a micro level in a way that will inevitably yield macro level benefits. Mentoring performed in the context of the two triads expands participants' understanding of the whole system within

which teaching and learning, management and leadership, individual and relational, and local and global realities all are interacting all the time, as shown in Figure 5.4.

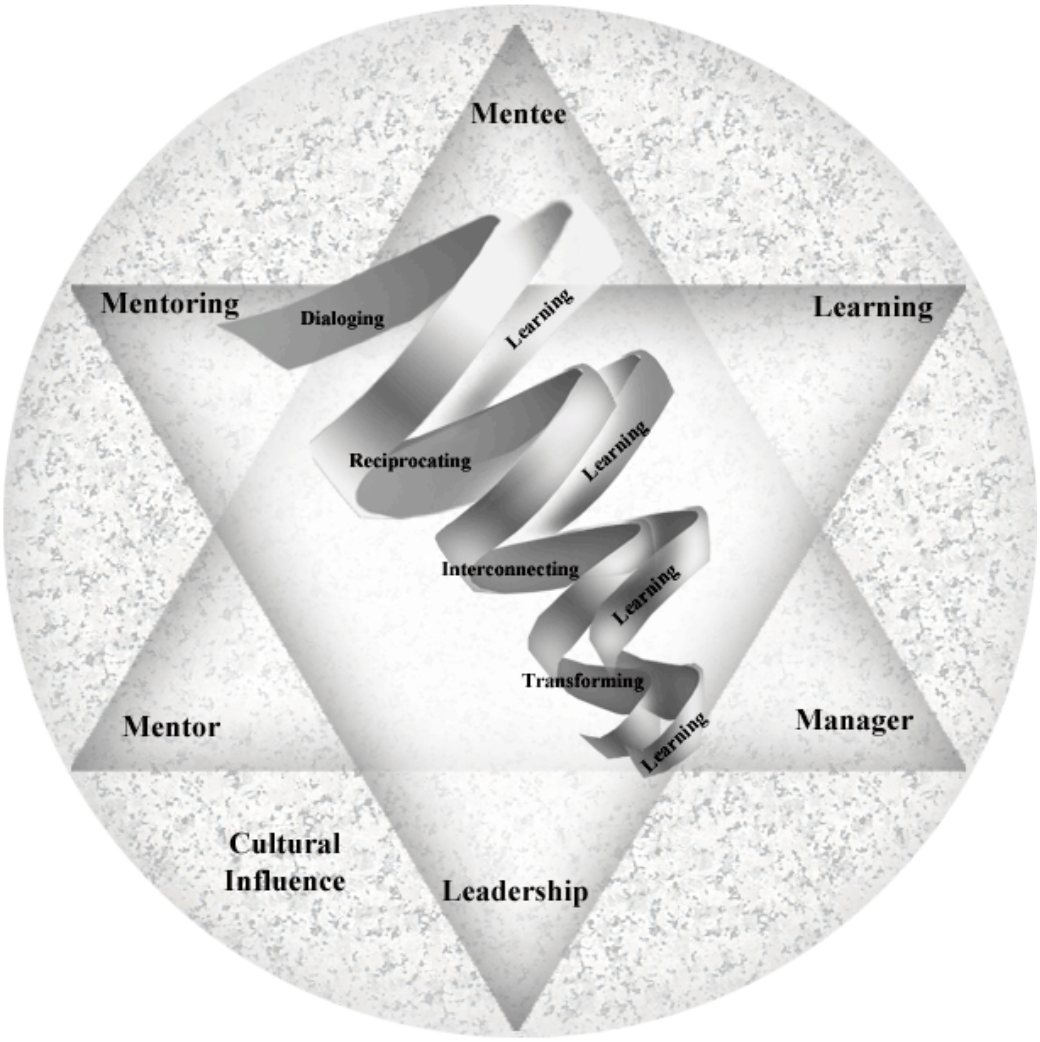


Figure 5.4. Holistic System of Mentoring

Understanding mentoring as a nascent and emerging whole system of leadership and learning development suggests that we may want to look to more mature relational learning models to inform and guide the growth of mentoring programs in corporate contexts. One such source we can look to is the supervisory relationship in counseling

psychology. From that field, work on the learning alliance of supervision (Holloway & Gonzalez-Doupe, 2001), an evolutionary advance on the concept of the working alliance (Bordin, 1983), is particularly relevant.

Although counseling supervision is clearly a more rigorous engagement than mentoring in the workplace because of the clinical nature of counseling and psychotherapy, nevertheless, there are important parallels and lessons to be learned from this field that can inform our work in mentorship. Supervision has been defined within the counseling supervision literature as "an intensive, interpersonally focused, one-to-one relationship in which one person is designated to facilitate the development of therapeutic competence in the other person" (Loganbill, Hardy, & Delworth, 1982). One can immediately see that drawing from this long-existing well of knowledge might create a greener field for exploring mentoring relationship development.

In 1992, Poulin identified five primary dimensions in the supervisory process that are immediately relevant to the mentoring process: (a) Framing a context for discussion, (b) determining a focal point for the discussion, (c) identifying a teaching-learning goal within this context, (d) choosing a strategy appropriate for the teaching goal and the context in which the supervisor and trainee are working, and (e) evaluating the appropriateness of the goal and the effectiveness of the teaching and learning (in Holloway & Gonzalez-Doupe, 2001, p. 137). This process roadmap and the designated importance of the supervisory contract (Inskipp & Proctor, 1989) are just two artifacts from an emergent and systems approach to supervision (Holloway, 1995) that can be blended with the mentoring knowledge base to evolve a more holistic approach to mentoring in the workplace. The unification of the two fields can inform the design of

mentoring programs that are inclusive of the two triads, honor the twin roles of mentor and manager as change agents of the culture, and allow the mentee and the corporation to reap the harvest of shared leadership.

Summary

The theoretical propositions that emerged from this research began with seeing that in the workplace, mentoring can be understood as a triad relationship composed of mentor, mentee, and organizational manager, with each one perceiving this shared experience both similarly and differently. This is a perspective that has little voice in the mentoring literature. A better understood perspective is that in the workplace, the corporate culture has a pervasive influence on the experience of mentoring for participants in the mentoring relationship. Even though we might quickly accept this proposition, it too suffers from a lack of focus in the mentoring literature. Understanding the manager as being instrumental in the work culture is accepted doctrine, and yet the potential instrumentality of the manager's role in the mentoring experience of their employees is not addressed in the mentoring literature, although it does receive significant attention in the supervisory counseling literature. The acknowledgment that learning is embedded in the organizational culture is well documented in the literature on adult learning theory. However, the interactive effect between the mentor as a learning leader, the mentee as a reciprocating learner, the manager as an organizational leader, and the culture as a learning organization, and the resultant interrelationship between learning, leadership, and mentoring, is not well understood or documented. An understanding of how the diversity of mentoring relationships available in the workplace serves the learning enterprise is not well documented. Although an understanding of the

interactive effect between learning, leadership, and mentoring and those who perform the interactions (mentor, mentee, and manager) is clearly vital to enhancing the whole of the business enterprise, few studies pull these together and fewer still situate them in a cultural context.

This study brought together these previously fragmented parts so that they could be seen as a whole system, operating within the context of the workplace. This synthesis allowed us to conceptualize their interoperation and theorize about how they currently perform while opening a window onto the possibilities of how the components might be arranged to increased advantage. Implications for both research and practice are addressed in the concluding chapter.

Summary, Limitations, Implications, Conclusions

Executive Summary and Critical Findings for Practice

Mentoring programs have been seized upon as learning development solutions by many Fortune 500 corporations. Mentoring seems to be the right answer at the right time for corporations to protect their corporate knowledge, change their organizational cultures in order to attract and retain a younger and diverse employee base, enhance innovation and creativity, and lower costs. The question to ask is whether corporations are taking full advantage of the opportunity mentoring appears to offer. This study has offered a more holistic look at the mentoring landscape within a single corporation. Although the research was limited to a single culture, the findings both validate previous research and point to new areas of research that will prove valuable to practitioners and those working to design 21st century mentoring, leading, and learning solutions for the workplace.

Existing research has shown that emerging patterns in mentoring are (a) the recognition of the need for connection in an increasingly global work environment, (b) inclusion of racial and diversity factors in an increasingly global business climate, (c) recognition that the intellectual capital of a corporation is a vital corporate asset, (d) the increasing need for the use of mentoring, job shadowing, and apprenticeships as more effective knowledge transfer tools than classroom experiences, and (e) the explosion of technical career paths based on “know-how” not “know-who.”

All of these emerging patterns were in evidence in the related experiences of participants in this study. In particular, the call for opportunities to job shadow and apprentice with a master professional came frequently and from all members of the triad.

The opportunities for mentors and mentees working together on the same project are increasing. As this research came to a conclusion a new job rotation program within the Engineering organization was being launched. Job rotations within the Information Systems organization had been working for some time. However, these programs were not integrated with mentoring programs and therefore a vital learning link was missing.

The Business Case for Mentoring

Return on investment (ROI) is always a consideration for any initiative within a business context. It is a rigorous process engaged in by both business operations and financial analysts to determine whether the corporation's resources are being used wisely. It contains both objective and subjective elements; both implicit and explicit rationale. Participants in this study suggested that mentoring had value for training and retaining high-potential employees, for transferring key knowledge, for protecting intellectual property, for enhancing creativity and innovation, for increasing employee loyalty to the corporation, for enabling inclusion and diversity initiatives, and, in general, for making the workplace culture more livable. The ROI on a business activity that offers such a breadth of benefits is intuitively unnecessary. Nevertheless, in the following section we will address the critical findings of this study, one of which suggests that improved measures and metrics for mentoring activities would inform the corporation about how its resources are being used. Such accountability would enable mentoring investments to yield the highest possible ROI.

Critical Findings Relative to Practice

Six areas that represented critical findings in the study were related to (a) the need for a holistic approach to mentoring in the workplace, (b) confusion and misdirection

regarding responsibility, accountability, and authority (RAA) of the triad members, (c) power and involvement, (d) values alignment, (e) measures and metrics, and (f) understanding mentors as leaders and culture change agents.

Importance of a holistic approach. A perspective that sees "mentoring holistically as a dynamic field of study" (Applebaum et al., 1994, p. 4) recognizes that successful mentoring relationships will have a beneficial effect on other relational processes within an organizational culture. The wisdom of extending the traditional dyadic form of mentor and mentee relationship to include organizational managers widens the circle of mentoring and engages a powerful ally who can bring resources to bear to deepen and extend the learning of both mentor and mentee. This call for a more holistic perspective is only strengthened by the view that "mentors are simply leaders in disguise" (p. 4) as it is one of the hallmarks of leaders to work collaboratively with other leaders for the success of the whole business. This triadic relationship of mentor, mentee, and manager, its influence on the mentoring experiences of participants, and how the organizational culture influences mentoring relationships, have remained largely unexplored in the mentoring research literature.

The role of mentoring in cultural transformation is just beginning to be understood and the role of mentor as culture change agent is emergent. This study was an attempt to add to the literature through a more holistic approach to the subject of mentoring relationships by the inclusion of the organizational manager, a role that is transitioning from one of control to one of empowerment through transformational leadership principles and practices. The lack of attention to training for the manager-as-mentor and for ongoing support for the mentor is an indication of a lack of understanding

of their integrated and interdependent roles in employee learning development. A holistic look at these nuanced human and structural dynamics in the workplace is overdue.

The lens applied to mentoring practice in the workplace must be widened to include clear linkages and integrative structures to thread together and share resources among all learning initiatives and relational processes within a corporation. One example of a potential enlargement of the lens may be to look at linking mentoring practitioners with counselors and counseling supervisors in the workplace. These two groups of practitioners operate from many of the same foundational values and goals. To build a bridge between these areas would potentially accrue value to the corporation, suggest needed improvements to mentoring practice, and enhance the integration of counseling into more of the learning structures of the culture.

Need for responsibility, accountability, and authority. Issues arose in participants mentoring relationships due to the lack of clarity on role definition, accountability, and scope of authority for both the mentor and the organizational manager. An area of particular fogginess was around the appropriate interface between the roles of the mentoring triad. For example, the mentors felt it was their responsibility to make time for the mentoring relationship but they lacked authority to arrange for that time in the budget. The managers had the authority to make time and resources available for the mentoring pair, but had no structured way to engage, no clear responsibility to engage, no formal accountability for the outcomes of the mentoring experience of those that reported to them. The mentees often constructed elaborate goals and plans with their mentors, but the connection to real-life operationalization of their plans was their manager, who was often not even aware of their mentoring activities.

A paradoxical and significant finding was the frequent view from managers that an important part of their responsibilities was to perform as mentor to their direct reports, while the mentoring program and the overall messages from the culture were indicating that mentors should not come from an employee's "chain of command." When the mentor *is* the manager complexities can arise with the volatile mix of the expectations of mentees, perceptions of favoritism by others, and in the evaluative process.

Each person had assumptions that they brought to the mentoring space about designated boundaries for each role, within the context of the mentoring relationship. In a corporation, the fulcrum between individual and collective needs is the manager. The instrumental role of the organizational manager found in this study was significant. Evidence of organizational managers orchestrating mentoring relationships and using mentoring relationships as interventions both on an individual and organizational level was testimony to the importance of the role of manager in mentoring. The problems that mentees and mentors both discussed relative to the non-involvement of their managers in their mentoring experiences, such as time constraints and disconnects relative to organizational priorities added to the strength of the assertion that managers do have a role to play. Realities of policy and politics in an organizational context mean that only the organizational manager has the authority to arrange learning opportunities, such as job shadowing and apprenticing opportunities. These accommodations for deep learning were recognized and desired by both mentees and mentors in the study. A key finding of this research was the lack of a roadmap between the mentee and these kinds of vital growth opportunities. As well, it was clear that boundaries around the different roles were muddled and this caused confusion and ultimately affected the mentoring relationship.

All members of the triad recognized that there must be privacy and confidentiality within the relationship between the mentor and the mentee, just as there must be confidentiality between the manager and employee. What were not clearly drawn were those boundaries and where they could and should be porous and where they should be secure. The lack of a delineated structure of responsibility, accountability, and authority for each role and training in scenarios where engagement is needed and warranted left the manager feeling like an outsider and left the mentee between two power figures without a way to manage that power structure to their personal advantage.

Consideration of power and involvement. Significant investment has been made by researchers over the last three decades in the subject of power and involvement and their role in relationships within the workplace. Of particular import to this research was the relationship between power, involvement, learning and development as these are key elements that we are concerned with in a mentoring-in-the-workplace context. Researchers have clearly framed how an imbalance of power in a relationship can affect learning outcomes, especially for those that are already experiencing some sort of marginalization. Where the mentor has hierarchical authority over the mentee, the psychosocial functions that support a developmental relationship may be inhibited by the power inherent in the relationship. Imbalances relative to gender and power have been seen to affect both relationship and learning. Mentees in this study (both male and female) spoke of the need to subordinate their ego in order to encourage the desired mentor behavior. Female managers were the most vocal about fear over being wrong, being afraid, and needing to find a place of safety where they could talk honestly. These participants clearly were experiencing power and involvement issues as we see

documented in the literature. Mentoring program designs need to address this stubborn issue and provide opportunities for mentors, mentees, and managers to practice overcoming these barriers to trust with the support of a mentoring supervision professional.

Need for values alignment. Mentoring can make a significant contribution to the transformation of organizational culture if it is allowed to achieve its full potential. A mentoring program should be an integrative rather than an isolating element of the organizational culture, contributing to the alignment of values between the individual, the group, and the corporation and influencing other relational processes, such as communities of practice. Learning, leadership, and relationship development processes in the workplace can be optimized to work as an integrated system for strengthening the organizational culture that, in turn, would provide employees with a more livable workspace. Learning, leadership and mentoring initiatives should be integrated in order to eliminate opportunities for duplicative and perhaps counterproductive outcomes.

One example of a potentially counterproductive finding of this research was the discovery of what appeared to be a disconnection or misalignment in values around the role of the organizational manager, both in their assumed role of manager-as-mentor and in their lack of engagement in the mentoring triad relationship. What wasn't clear was whether the corporation was truly creating processes and structures that would enable the emergence of employee creativity and innovation or whether there was too much of a values misalignment to achieve what was envisioned. As previously discussed, a keystone of mentoring, apprenticeship, was not being widely employed. Where it was being used, participants testified to its extraordinary value for deep learning. The ability

to institutionalize apprenticing as an accepted method for learning is an example of a change that would require better alignment of group processes and structures.

Need for measures and metrics. In the specific business culture studied, the competency of mentors who engage in the development of mentees is not measured, the level of absorption of the training content is not validated nor reinforced over time, and no metrics are tracked to inform the corporation about the long-term value of the mentoring experiences for those who participate. The lack of any requirement for individual measures or metrics from mentoring program participants may be contributing to a lack of focus by upper management on mentoring outcomes, which, in turn, may reinforce the situation where outcomes of mentoring relationships are not formally tracked. In the culture within which the study took place, the mantra "what gets measured gets done" drives managers to pay attention to those things that they are responsible for measuring. Although mentoring activities can constitute a significant portion of a large organization's resources, there were no requirements reported by the study participants to measure the mentoring activity or the outcomes of mentoring relationships, no requirements for managers to pay attention, and therefore little effort from managers to engage. This, ultimately, left mentees between a mentor who had no authority to help in concrete ways and a manager who may not be engaged, and, in fact, often felt uncomfortable with the idea of engaging due to privacy or other real or imagined constraints. Measures and metrics should be created and used to ensure individual alignment to the espoused values of the corporation, support for the business case, and to encourage the most beneficial aspects of mentoring, relationship building and deep learning outcomes, both of which can be realized through activities such as apprenticing.

Understanding mentors as leaders. A whole system is always at work transforming itself to engage compatibly with the surrounding environment. In the world of business, the transitioning of the organizational culture from one of command-and-control to a diverse and involved workforce, empowered to make decisions in the context of work, is deeply connected to the movement from a more transactional leadership style to transformational leadership principles and practices. The idea that leaders may need to serve as mentors to activate transformational leadership in followers is a relatively new idea but was evident in the interviews, especially, but not exclusively, from executive managers. The literature is making the clarion call for the next generation of leaders to be mentors. Before that can happen in a practical way, those who serve tirelessly as mentors today must be recognized as leaders in their cultures and managers who also mentor must receive the training and ongoing support they require to continue performing this double duty authentically.

What has to be figured out in the design of next generation mentoring programs is the way to frame mentoring so that it can continue to respond organically and naturally while it assumes the mantle of a recognized method for "developing leaders 'in place'" (Holloway & Shoop, 2006, p. 14). Whole systems approaches to mentoring program design must consider (a) the appropriate role for the organizational manager, (b) what constitutes adequate training, support, and ongoing supervision for the role of mentor, and (c) what measures and metrics are required to place emphasis on the "right" behaviors without violating the confidentiality and safe haven that mentoring offers to those who need it. What must be drawn are flexible yet recognizable boundaries among the members of the mentoring triad. This role clarification will serve to enhance the trust

for confidential dialogue between the mentee and the mentor, will give the mentee an opportunity to have more confident and directed dialog with the manager, and will provide a more defined mapping for both the manager and the mentor in ways to support the mentee's vision for career and personal growth. A clearer understanding of the responsibility, accountability, and authority that operates at the interface between the roles of mentor and manager must be created and codified in a new generation of mentoring relationship agreements. As well, the mentee needs to be educated about how to manage the opportunity of having both a mentor and a manager focused on their success.

Mentoring programs must come more center stage in the learning development agenda. Mezirow (2000), a guru in the learning development field, argued "The who, what, when, where, why, and how of learning may be only understood as situated in a specific cultural context" (p. 7). What this augurs is the necessity for mentoring programs to be uniquely designed for the specific organizational context within which they are deployed. Mentors need to be recognized as leaders and change agents within the work culture and given both responsibility and authority to exercise that leadership role. Essential to this expanded role recognition is change relative to the amount, depth, and breadth of training for mentors. The counseling supervision model can inform this inquiry. Mentors, in partnership with organizational managers, must be allowed to craft deep learning opportunities for mentees, such as job rotations that last a year or more or apprenticeships that allow organizationally sanctioned opportunities for a junior person to work under the daily guidance of a master in their chosen professional path. This, in turn, will require the role of mentor to take on more of a professional stance. The legacy of the

perception of favoritism and nepotism in mentoring relationships needs to be put behind us. A new agenda for mentoring programs needs to be conceptualized in order to meet the needs of global corporations operated by innovative and creative employees fueled through learning relationships that honor employees' diversity and their unique and shared meaning making.

Limitations

This study has several limitations. There were limitations in the use of the selective sample, limitations in regard to transferability of the research findings, and limitations regarding the closeness of the researcher to the phenomenon under study. Limitations with regard to credibility and trustworthiness will also be addressed.

The use of selective sampling to obtain the initial pool of potential participants limited the pool to those who had participated in a formal corporate mentoring program. Although this was intentional and a design element of the study, it limited the ultimate participants to those who thought favorably about mentoring, who had mentoring experiences, and often, to those who had had multiple mentoring experiences and in a variety of roles. During the theoretical sampling, the need to talk to people who had not had mentoring experiences ultimately forced the research outside the participant sample.

The culture played a powerful role in the construction of meaning by the study participants. The story that emerged from this study is contextually unique and yet does have limited transferability because of the contextual structures, roles, and behaviors that populate the story. Although the culture under study had a unique ethnic and racial demographic, that is the general employee and especially the mentor and manager population was predominantly Caucasian male, the organizational culture is not atypical

of scientific and engineering focused corporations. The selection of a diversity of participants in the areas of ethnicity, gender, and age was meant somewhat to mitigate this condition. The corporation is a successful and long-standing global engineering and manufacturing business entity with a hierarchical corporate structure with multiple tiers of management firmly seated in the military/industrial complex. Like other global businesses, this business is straining to find a competitive edge by fully engaging their employees' minds and hearts while striving to open up the organizational culture to diversity in all of its forms. Although the culture is not necessarily unique, it was a study of one corporation with a select population of employees who had been engaged in a uniquely designed mentoring program. Higher transferability of the findings to other cultures would have required performing the study in multiple organizations, at different times, and in different regions. Continuing to explore the viability of the concept of the mentoring triad in other business contexts, in other sectors of the economy, even in other countries would be useful to understanding whether and/or how the organizational manager should play a formal role in mentoring relationships in the workplace. Discovering whether the same dynamics are at play in Africa or China would expand our ability to speak to the internationalization of what appears (from the literature) to be a largely Western phenomenon.

A second limitation involves my relationship to the phenomenon under study. I had limited marginality relative to both the culture and the subject under study. As detailed in Chapter 1, I have spent over 20 years in this organization and have served in multiple roles. I was known by many participants and was recognized as having been a manager by the managers and as being a technical professional by the mentors and

mentees. Therefore, I was very close to the field and may have been perceived as an "expert" by participants. This may have led to assumptions of understanding that may have resulted in my not receiving the full details that might have been related if I had been perceived as more of a stranger to the subject and the culture. The fact that my research team had no familiarity with the specific culture and little corporate business experience did enable them to maintain their marginality and they were of significant help to me in moving me beyond my own paradigms.

A third limitation was one of validity and is a question inherent in the methodology itself. In grounded theory research, the constant comparative method, the formation of theoretical propositions from the emergent data, and the ongoing dialog with the interview data and the literature that constitutes the researcher's mode of operations meant that I left information behind as I moved forward. I selected out data to explore, which required that I allowed other data to fall away. This in itself meant that the ultimate picture I painted in this research is uniquely my own. Another researcher mining the same data may have created a very different composition. Questions of validity, credibility, and trustworthiness must be answered by a subjective assessment as to whether the picture I created is clearly grounded in the research data and whether my process of analysis was sufficiently transparent. In order to answer such questions, complete transparency of procedures, emergent concepts, exploratory thinking, and preliminary findings were detailed in Chapter 3. Chapter 4 offered not only the findings through the voices of the participants, but, as well, provided intersections of meaning making for additional confirmability. Whether my findings are useful in understanding the mentoring process, and whether I added knowledge to the literature base that can be

employed to move the knowledge base forward for both the researcher and the practitioner is to be judged by the reader. I believe the questions of validity have been satisfied.

Implications for Research

As the U.S. labor force becomes increasingly diverse and the multinational nature of corporations expands, research documenting the changing nature of mentoring relationships will become critical (Eby, 1997; Ragins, 1997). "It will be important to understand the factors in these new organizations which facilitate or inhibit the formation and effectiveness of mentoring relationships" (Russell & Adams, 1997, p. 11). The need to build supportive alliances, such as those experienced in mentoring relationships, may increase

> …for those who are working in stressful and uncertain circumstances. . . . The possibility that the motivation to form mentoring alliances may increase during times of distress is encouraging, given the significant challenges posed by rapid technological change, increasing global competition, restructuring, and downsizing. (Kram & Hall, 1989, p. 499)

More research is called for to further understand these factors and document the perspectives from those who have participated in mentoring relationships during a time of profound organizational change within their professions and within their business context.

The results of this study suggest that a more holistic approach to mentoring research would broaden and extend our understanding of the mentoring theatre, would more accurately identify the players, their roles, and their canned and ad hoc scripts, but would also, and perhaps more importantly, inform us as to the effect and instrumentality of mentoring as a part of the larger system within which it performs. Taking a holistic approach to mentoring suggests that we look at mentoring through the lens that

recognizes mentoring in the workplace as part of a social paradigm shift that Capra (1996) defined as “a constellation of concepts, values, perceptions, and practices by a community, which forms a particular vision of reality that is the basis of the way the community organizes itself” (p. 6). Mentoring has clearly been selected as a strategic element of the business community’s vision for the future of workplace learning. The explosion of mentoring programs in corporations over the last two decades is only rivaled by the number of empirical articles and dissertations on mentoring in the research literature. What hasn’t yet occurred sufficiently in the design of mentoring research is to step back from the details of the instrumentality of mentoring, that is who needs to do what and how in order to yield what has been defined as favorable outcomes. What this research suggests is that we can and should take a deeper “ecological” view of mentoring that sees mentoring behavior embedded in a social environment, in a “network of phenomena,” (p. 7) and understand how this unique human activity system we call mentoring affects the community in which it operates and reciprocally, how the whole communal environment affects mentoring.

Mentoring research and theory can be wedded to leadership research and theory to the advantage of both fields of inquiry. This wedding can expand the horizons of both fields into a more holistic inquiry that clearly places mentoring, leadership, and learning into a cultural context where uniqueness of culture is shown to have unique influence. Holloway’s Systems Approach to Mentoring (SAM) model (Holloway & Shoop, 2006) and her associated work to develop a holistic solution for mentoring program design and implementation is one such effort to expand our conceptualization of mentoring. The SAM model is in alignment with Barrett’s (2006) work on a whole systems approach to

cultural transformation. The role of mentoring in cultural transformation is just beginning to be understood and the role of mentor as culture change agent is emergent. Additional research that adds to the literature through a more holistic approach to the subject of mentoring relationships is called for. Research that explores the mentor as a leader and change agent and includes the organizational manager as a partner in leadership would be important to understanding that emerging dynamic. A holistic look at these nuanced human and structural dynamics in the workplace is overdue.

A direction for inquiry that is related to wedding of mentoring and leadership theory is the potentially rich marriage of mentoring with the counseling supervision literature. The supervision model explored by Holloway (1995), Holloway and Gonzalez-Doupe, (2001) and Benson and Holloway (2005), as well as Carroll's work (in Carroll & Holloway, 1999) on counseling supervision in the workplace, can inform mentoring research. The lack of research linking mentoring with the counseling supervision literature suggests a green field for researchers that can only have reciprocal benefits. The interview data from this study underscores the lack of attention to mentor training and, especially, ongoing support. The focus is on the outcomes of mentoring, much like the mentoring research base. In the specific business culture studied, the competency of mentors who engage in the development of mentees is not measured, the level of absorption of the training content is not validated nor reinforced over time, and no metrics are tracked to inform the corporation about the long-term value of the mentoring experiences for those who participate. Research is required to understand how broad-based this pattern is in business cultures. Collaborative work between mentoring,

learning, leadership, and counseling supervision researchers may well allow synergies to emerge that are hidden due to the fragmented research base.

As mentioned in the *Limitations* section, the analysis process of this research left many valuable items on the cutting room floor. For example, an exploration into the perspectives of managers who do not see themselves as mentors to their direct reports and who may have never experienced a mentoring experience would, in itself, be a potentially important addition to the mentoring literature. Although an increasing number of studies have framed race/ethnicity and gender as important constructs in mentoring, research into how the design of formal programs meets the unique needs of diverse populations, especially those populations from non-Western cultures, would expand the picture of the community being served. Exploration into the expressed intentions of corporate human resources or other leaders in their support of expanding mentoring opportunities in their corporations would assist in the understanding of whether or how far off plumb mentoring programs are in regard to values alignment.

The issue of values alignment between the corporate culture and those engaged in mentoring relationships begs for additional research, as it has not surfaced to date in the mentoring literature, except as noted earlier (Holloway & Shoop, 2006). Although there was some, albeit insignificant, evidence in the mentoring literature that addressed the relationship between mentoring behavior and outcomes and the surrounding culture, more research is required to understand whether corporations are getting what they believe they are paying for in terms of mentoring benefits. Related to this remains the question of whether mentoring programs are designed to yield the outcomes that are intended by designers. A whole systems design approach to mentoring would consider

the legacy of favoritism in mentoring relationship formation that continues to cast its shadow on mentoring behavior. Only the light of focused holistic research in this area will dispel it.

More research is needed to deepen our understanding of the role of the organizational manager in mentoring, as one who can be instrumental with regard to both cultural socialization and the career advancement of mentees. As we noted earlier, there has been a skew in the mentoring literature favoring the experiences of managers as mentors and yet an almost total neglect of the role of the manager as a partner in the mentoring triad. The findings of this research regarding the multiple roles played by the organizational manager, the formal mentoring program policy that mentors should not be in the chain-of-command of the mentee, and yet the contradictive informal and pervasive reality that managers see themselves as mentors to their employees needs to be more fully understood. Research needs to be conducted that validates or refutes this finding in other business cultures. If other researchers encounter this phenomenon, it needs to be surfaced, explored, and finally woven into more integrative and holistic designs for mentoring programs.

Conclusions

Before beginning and especially after completing the extensive trans-disciplinary literature review conducted for this study, I asked the question whether what I was seeing and experiencing in the workplace was, in fact, *mentoring*. One of my purposes in exploring mentoring in a workplace setting, within a formal program, was to reveal people's experiences of mentoring and to determine from their reports whether what was being identified as mentoring still fit the traditional model. The shifts from an

understanding of mentoring as a life-changing encounter and on-going personal relationship, such as I experienced early in my career; to the personal growth and career guidance that was the hallmark of workplace mentoring throughout most of the 20th century; to applying mentoring principles and practices to the problem of satisfying the need to constantly expand one's skill base, I believed, was potentially impacting the way mentoring was being conceptualized. What my research was intended to inform was my personal quest as well as an expanded understanding of the dimensions of mentoring relationships that have emerged in response to learning needs within the highly interconnected knowledge worker and collaborative team environment of the 21st century workplace. The increasing trend toward renaming what have been referred to as mentoring relationships in the past, begs us to inquire deeper and ask why. As Holloway (1987) asked the question of developmental models of supervision, so I asked of corporate developmental models of mentoring: Is it mentoring?

The other question that drove me into the design of this research was my personal experience of having been a manager of people involved in mentoring relationships and my personal guilt that I never involved myself in those relationships or offered any assistance in aid of those mentoring relationships or their outcomes. I was curious why I hadn't engaged or ever surfaced discussion on the subject in meetings with my teammates. This was curious as, otherwise, I had close relationships with those that reported to me and was mentoring several people in my direct chain of command.

The findings from this research point to confounding elements in the behavior of those engaged in mentoring relationships as well as in the design of corporate mentoring programs. The need to design mentoring programs for a unique organizational context

with a more holistic understanding of the role of mentoring in leadership development and organizational change is called for. The powerful confluence of interpersonal relationship, cultural navigation, learning, and leading that come packaged in mentoring behavior are an untapped resource that we are only just beginning to honor with adequate attention.

Whether what I found in the voices of participants represented what I understood to be mentoring, both from my personal experience and from the literature, I have to answer with reference to the diversity of mentoring experiences that were related to me, which resulted in the conceptualization of the four mentoring dimensions described in this study. No doubt there is mentoring going on in corporate settings that is not comparable to the traditional model of mentoring as we have come to understand it. A blooming field of mentoring structures has been documented in the mentoring literature and other structures will no doubt spring up. The chameleon will continue to adapt and shape-shift, adjusting to the needs of human learning. What is important, however, is that mentoring programs be designed from a whole systems perspective, with an eye to the unique culture within which mentoring occurs. What is critical is that corporate mentoring structures be intentionally designed to ensure that mentors, mentees, and managers all participate appropriately and sufficiently in integrated mentoring, learning, and leadership actions.

We have a “collective unconscious” (Jung, 1980) understanding about how fundamentally the learner, mentor/teacher, and leader are reflections of one another within an archetypal prism. We have a shared ancient memory of these fundamental human behaviors that has been fractured and fragmented by our Western organizational

cultures and educational systems. With all humbleness, I have to say it was wonderful and somehow appropriate that I should have had the opportunity, as a doctoral student, to bring them back together to help inform the future of mentoring and leadership in the workplace.

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Appendix

APPENDIX TABLE OF CONTENTS

Appendix A
Definitions of Terms

The following are key words or phrases used in this document. The definitions come from my research into the literature and represent, as closely as possible, the way I think about their meaning.

Apprenticeship

"Mentoring has its origins in the concept of apprenticeship" (Clutterbuck, 1985, p. 1). An apprentice/master relationship is ancient and describes a long-term learning relationship where a younger and less experienced person obtains practical experience by working with and being instructed by a skilled craftsman, artisan, or tradesman. The mentoring model that is commonplace in business today retains some of the qualities of this ancient model but has, for the most part, lost the commitment of time and the "intimate personal relationship frequently developed between the master (or mentor) and the apprentice (or protégé)" (p. 1).

Coaching

Coaching is the support for technical, skills-related learning and growth that is provided by another person who uses observation, data collection, and descriptive, non-judgmental reporting on specific requested behaviors and techniques. Where traditional mentoring has a general object of development, coaching is more strongly associated with a specific object of development. Coaching is technical support focused on development of the techniques effective employees must know and be able to do, while mentoring is the larger context and developmentally appropriate process for learning of

technique and all of the other professional and personal skills and understandings needed for success. Thus, mentoring includes coaching (Sweeney, 2001, p. 1).

Culture

Culture is an "adaptive, evolutionary, and ethical process through which people form groups that create socially shared meaningful structures by utilizing social, political, linguistic, symbolic, and learning resources to meet human needs" (Henrickson, 1989, p. 124).

Developmental Relationships

Kram (1988) defined developmental relationships very broadly as contributing to individual growth and career advancement and to be "adult working relationships that can provide developmental functions for career development" (p. 4). Kram and Isabella (1985) identified two types of developmental relationships: (a) instrumental, providing professional development for the purposes of advancement, and (b) expressive, providing psychosocial support. Molloy (2005) described developmental relationships as "concurrent dyadic relationships that are specifically developmental in nature and include, but are not limited to, a primary mentor" (p. 536).

Dimension

A dimension is an abstract concept with associated properties that provide qualitative or quantitative parameters or modifiers for the purpose of description (Kools et al., 1996, p. 316).

Dimensional Analysis

Dimensional analysis is a process that allows for the derivation of meaning by understanding the wholeness of a phenomenon or situation. Dimensional analysis is based on a theory of "natural analysis," which Schatzman (1991) conceptualized as a

> …normative cognitive process generally used by people to interpret and understand problematic experiences or phenomena . . . learned through early socialization [that] provides individuals with a schema that they can then subsequently use to structure and analyze the intricacies of phenomena of ordinary life. (Kools et al., 1996, p. 314)

Human Activity System

A human activity system is a "set of human activities related to each other so they can be viewed as a whole, consisting of purpose, process, interaction, integration, and emergence" (Checkland, 1981, p. 47). The components of the system are "part of a dynamic process; they mutually influence one another, and are highly interrelated" (Holloway, 1999, p. 250).

Learning

Mezirow (2000) defined learning as "a process of using prior interpretation to construe a new or revised interpretation of the meaning of one's experience as a guide to future action" (p. 5). "The who, what, when, where, why, and how of learning may be only understood as situated in a specific cultural context" (p. 7). Mezirow (1978) introduced the term "meaning perspective" (p. 46), a term that is pertinent to this study because of the multiple meanings given to a learning context by participants who held multiple perspectives simultaneously.

Mentoring (formal)

Formal mentoring relationships develop with organizational assistance, usually in the form of either voluntary assignment or the matching of mentors and protégés (Ragins & Cotton, 1999). Formal mentoring is

> . . . a structure and series of processes designed to create mentoring relationships, guide the desired behavior change of those involved, and evaluate the results for the protégé, the mentor, and the organization, with the primary purpose of systematically developing the skills and leadership abilities of the less experienced members of the organization. (Murray, 2001, p. 5)

Mentoring (informal)

Informal mentoring relationships develop spontaneously, without organizational assistance (Chao et al., 1992, p. 535).

Mentoring (traditional)

The classic mentor is involved in the profoundly human provision of care as well as the use of teaching skills and the transmission of knowledge between adult learners (Daloz, 1986). The metaphor of a developmental *journey*, consciously undertaken by an adult learner, is described by Daloz, as a complex and evolving process of interconnectedness with another human being. Mentoring in this paradigm is a partnership; “in the nurture of that partnership lies the mentor’s art” (p. 244).

Mentoring (Peer-to-Peer)

Peer mentoring is a process where there is *mutual involvement* in encouraging and enhancing learning development between two peers, where peers are people of similar hierarchical status or perceive themselves as equals (McDougall and Beattie, 1997, p. 425).

Mentoring Relationship (types)

Mentoring relationships can be conceptualized in four main ways:

> (1) exclusiveness (one-on-one versus multiple mentors concurrently), (2) organizational level or experience of mentor (higher-level individual and manager versus peer and subordinate/individual with less experience), (3) formality of initiation (informal versus formal), (4) relative location or proximity (inside same organization versus outside). (Levy, 2003, p. 1)

Mentoring Relationship Constellations or Networks

Mentoring relationship constellations or networks (Kram, 1988) are relationships established between a mentee and multiple individuals who are sought out for their expertise in areas important to the mentee to provide developmental support. This developmental support can come from peers, family, community members, senior management, or others at different points in time, as required for the learning progression of the mentee. From an educational perspective, Sharon Parks (1992) has more to add to this subject by offering the concept of a "mentoring community." For further reading see Daloz, Keen, Keen, and Parks (1996) and Mullen (1997).

Mentoring (Workplace)

A mentoring relationship in a modern business workplace context is typically conceived of as a one-on-one relationship between a higher-ranking mentor and a less-experienced mentee [sometimes] employed within the same organization (Kram, 1988) (note the use of the term "higher-ranking" is suggestive of the skew in the literature towards managers' perspectives). The term "developmental interactions" (D'Abate et al., 2003) was coined to subsume developmental activities in the workplace, such as coaching, mentoring, apprenticeship, action learning, and tutoring, and is defined as

"interactions between people with the goal of personal or professional development" (p. 360).

Role Model

A role model is a person who "possesses skills and displays techniques which the actor lacks . . . and from whom, by observation and comparison with his own performance, the actor can learn" (Kemper, 1968, p. 31).

Sponsoring

Sponsoring has been viewed in the literature as a developmental relationship in which the sponsor provides instrumental career support by nominating the protégé for promotion and other types of organizational activities that may be supportive of promotion (Campion and Goldfinch, 1983; Thomas, 1993). A sponsor is a person who provides power in three ways to the "comers" who [are] on the "fast track": (a) by being in a position to fight for the person in question; (b) by helping the person bypass the hierarchy; and (c) by providing reflected power (Kanter, 1977, pp. 181-182).

Supervision of Mentoring

In the context of mentoring, supervision can refer to the oversight by a designated individual, reflection upon the process, and recommendations of improvement to the processes that occur between mentor and mentee [protégé] during an interaction. The purpose is improvement in competence of the mentor (Barrett, 2002, p. 279). The use of supervision to support mentors in their work is not a concept that is highly visible in the research literature nor is it commonplace in the business domain.

Supervisor Career Mentoring (SCM)

Supervisor Career Mentoring (SCM) or “vocational mentoring” (Kram, 1988) is seen as the support by a supervisor to a subordinate (managerial dyads) that is intended to enhance traditional career outcomes and that augments traditional leader-member exchange (LMX) relationships (Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994, p. 1590).

Working Alliance

A working alliance is that set of actions interactively used by supervisors and trainees to facilitate the learning of the trainee. It is a set of alliance building and maintaining activities (Bordin, 1983).

Appendix B
Introductory Letter and Informed Consent

Miriam Grace

Ph.D. Program in Leadership & Change

Antioch University

Email: mgrace@phd.antioch.edu

Dear Participant in Mentoring

I am a doctoral candidate in the Ph.D. Program in Leadership & Change of Antioch University. I am writing to ask you to participate in a research project about the experience of mentoring. I am conducting a qualitative research project on the subjective experience of mentors, protégés, and organizational managers or supervisors of those in mentoring. I would really appreciate your participation in my dissertation research.

If you decide to participate, you'll be involved in approximately a 30 minute (maximum of one-hour) interview, which will be audio recorded and transcribed for analysis by a research team. All personally identifying information will be removed from the transcripts before they are submitted to the research team, and only I will know the identity of participants.

A potential benefit that you may experience from your participation in this study is that the material presented during the interview might allow you to better understand your experience of mentoring. Benefits may as well accrue to the mentoring program that you participated in due to the synthesizing of participants experiences. You may receive the audiotapes of your interview after they have been transcribed (if you request them), and you may also request a copy of the transcript of your audiotape. This could conceivably help you in your future endeavors, especially if you choose to engage in future mentoring relationships.

If you are interested in participating in this research, please complete the brief questionnaire attached. I have enclosed an example of an "Informed Consent" that you will be asked to sign at the time of the interview. I hope you will consider participating in this research. I look forward to meeting with you. If you need more information to make your decision, please don't hesitate to contact me at the email address and phone number provided above.

Sincerely,

Miriam Grace

This informed consent statement will be provided to you at the time of the initial interview. You will be asked to sign an Agreement to Participate (example enclosed) before participating in the interview

STATEMENT OF INFORMED CONSENT

This study is a qualitative research project. It involves gathering interview data about individual experiences in mentoring. The purpose of this study is to understand the lived experiences of mentors, protégés, and supervisors who participate in formal mentoring programs within a corporate setting. A member of the research team will interview participants in this study for approximately 30 minutes (maximum of one-hour) period of time, at least one time (a follow-up interview or phone call may be requested to clarify or elaborate on information). Participants will be asked to share their thoughts about their experiences in mentoring. During the interviews, participants will be audio taped by the interviewer. Afterward, the tape-recorded data will be transcribed by a transcriber versed in the issues of confidentiality that are tantamount in this type of research. The transcriptions will be analyzed by the research team of five graduate students and supervised by a faculty member experienced in this type of research (Dr. Elizabeth Holloway).

The potential risks to participants in this study are small. Nominal risks might occur for those who feel nervous about participating. Some of the interview material expressed by participants could bring up emotional responses, particularly if their mentoring experience was negative in any way.

Potential benefits to the participants are that the material presented during the interview may be useful as a forum in which they synthesize their experiences in mentoring and begin to formulate their own theory about the process and content of mentoring. From such understanding, interviewees might enrich their present or future relationships in mentoring. Participants may receive their audiotapes after they have been transcribed, and may also request a copy of the transcript of their audiotape. This could conceivably help them in their future endeavors, especially if they mentor others.

Participation in this study is completely voluntary. Refusal to participate involves no penalty or loss of any benefit. Participants may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty of loss of benefit. As previously discussed, there is only a minimal risk of discomfort from participating in this study. Participants have the right to know the results of the study, if they so desire.

Confidentiality will be protected in five ways: (1) each participant in the study will be assigned a number which will be known only to the primary researcher (Miriam Grace), and no identifying or personal information will be maintained

with the actual data material; (2) no participants will be included in the study who are now or have previously been in a supervisory or mentoring relationship with the primary researcher or any member of the research team; (3) the person who transcribes the tapes will be instructed in issues of confidentiality and will abide by such regulations; (4) all identifying information will be deleted from the transcriptions; (5) after the audiotapes are transcribed, the tapes will either be returned to the person who was interviewed or destroyed.

If you would like to receive further information regarding this study or have any questions about the research, please contact the graduate student who is the primary researcher:

Miriam Grace

Ph.D. Program in Leadership & Change

Antioch University

Email: mgrace@phd.antioch.edu

If, for any reason, you wish to speak with her faculty advisor, please contact her at the following e-mail address.

Faculty advisor for this study:
Dr. Elizabeth Holloway
Professor of Psychology
Antioch University, Ph.D. in Leadership & Change Program
eholloway@phd.antioch.edu

An example of the Agreement to Participate Signature Page is below:

Miriam Grace
Ph.D. Program in Leadership & Change
Antioch University

150 E. South College
Yellow Springs OH 45387
College Office: 805-898-0114
mgrace@phd.antioch.edu

AGREEMENT TO PARTICIPATE

I have read the preceding two pages of this three page Statement of Informed Consent and understand its contents. I know that I can withdraw from the study at any time without explanation or penalty. By signing below, I am indicating my willingness to participate in this study and giving permission for the interview data to be audio recorded.

_____ _____
Signature of Participant Date Signed

_____
Participant (Please Print Name)

_____ _____
Signature of Researcher Date Signed

Appendix C
Demographics Questionnaire

Mentoring Questionnaire
Contact Information

Name:_____ Email: _____
Work Location:_____ Phone: _____

If you decide to participate in this study, please complete the above contact information and the survey below. Send it electronically to Miriam Grace at the email address provided. A follow-up study will be conducted, but you will be asked for permission to access this survey information at that time.

Questions
1. I participated in the enterprise mentoring program in: □ 2002 □ 2003 □ 2004 □ 2005 □ 2006 □ 2007 2. My role in the mentoring program was: □ Mentor □ Mentee □ Advisor □ Supervisor For Supervisor Role: I was the supervisor of the: □ Mentor □ Mentee 3. Did you attend the mentoring training classes provided as a part of the program? □ Yes □ No 4. My mentoring experience lasted: □ 0 – 3 mos □ 4 – 6 mos □ 7 – 9 mos □ 10 –12 mos □ 13 – 15 mos □ 16 –18 mos □ 19 – 21 mos □ 22 – 24 mos
Demographic Information
5. My gender is: □ Male □ Female 6. My ethnicity is: □ White □ African-American or Black □ Asian/South Asian □ Hispanic □ Native American □ Other _____ 7. My age is between: □ 20 –24 □ 25-34 □ 35-44 □ 45-54 □ 55-64 □65-75

Appendix D
Representative Example of Node Structure

Node	Sub-Nodes	Sub-Sub Nodes
Attitude		
Authentic Relationship		
	Admitting vulnerability	
	Authenticity	
	Being honest	
	Believe in mentor	
	Breach of confidentiality	
	Comfort	
	Comfortability in sharing	
	Confidentiality	
	Dishonest relationship	
	Fears	
		Being afraid of dishonesty
		Cautious
		Consequences
		Controlling emotions
		Discomfort
		Fear of being judged
		Fear of being oneself
		Fear of change
		Fear of conflict
		Fear of manager
		Fear of opportunity
		Fear of saying anything negative
		Fear-driven environment
		Feeling displaced
		Feeling lost
		Feeling overwhelmed
		Feeling pushed
		Feeling rejected
		Feeling threatened
		Hurt or pain
		Living in the past
		Not afraid of honest relationship
		Not afraid of making mistakes
		Not fearful of not knowing
		Overcoming fears

Node	Sub-Nodes	Sub-Sub Nodes
		Putting fears aside
		Resistance
		Safe environment
		Scary
		Struggling
		Traumatic
	Has your best interests (at heart)	
	Honest relationship	
	Letting down the guard	
	Mutual trust	
	Private relationship	
	Relationship of trust	
	Trust required for good business	
	Trusting in mentor's advice	
	Trusting relationship	
	Willingness	
Coaching		
Cultural Influencing		
	African American References	
	Age references	
	Changing the culture	
	Constraints on mentoring	
	Creating a safe environment	
	Cross-cultural	
	Cross-cultural mentoring	
	Cross-gender relationships	
	Cultural programming	
	Development is up to employee	
	Fears about political incorrectness	
	Feeling of invisibility	
	Forcing people to mentor	
	Formal behavior	
	Hassles of management	
	Hierarchical culture	
	Interns	
	Male mentors	
	Mentoring as part of work	
	New Hires - New to Org	
	Not doing a good job	
	Not giving help	

Node	Sub-Nodes	Sub-Sub Nodes
	Retention	
	Same gender relationships	
	Showing respect	
	Team-based culture	
	Time off from work	
	Validation for minorities	
	Women	
	Women as mentors	
	Work	
	Working for me	
Dialoging		
	Dialogue	
		Apologizing
		Asking questions
		Breakdown in communication
		Communication style
		Conversations
		Followup
		Giving feedback
		Not knowing what to talk about
		Open exchange
		Open-door person
		People unwilling to talk to one another
		Personal disclosure
		Telling it like it is
	Dishonest communication	
	Evaluation	
	Language	
	Listening	
	Observation	
	Responsibility	
	Sensitive issues	
	Skills	
Feelings and Emotions		
	Anger	
	Anxiety	
	Desire	
	Empathy	
	Esteem	
	Jealosy	
	Joy	

Node	Sub-Nodes	Sub-Sub Nodes
	Need	
Interconnecting		
	Attraction	
	Balance	
	Collaboration or partnership	
	Feeling a connection	
	Forming a relationship	
	Intimacy	
	Lack of connection	
	Networking	
	No negative impact	
	Not wanting relationship	
	Nothing in common	
	Parents as mentors	
	Professional relationship	
	Relationship ended before it began	
	Strangers	
	Team players	
Learning		
	Catching up	
	Continuous learning	
	Enhanced learning	
	Exposure	
	Focused on learning	
	Helping people to learn	
	Knowledge	
	Learning about others	
	Learning experience	
		Experience
		Learning from failure
		Learning from one another
		Learning from mentee
		Learning how to be a mentor
		Learning on the fly
		Learning something new
		Learning the basics
		Lessons learned
		Lifelong
		One-on-one learning
		Power of learning
		Sharing experience

Node	Sub-Nodes	Sub-Sub Nodes
		Similar experience
		Technical experience
		Wonderful experience
	Learning style	
	Life experiences	
	Practice	
	Teaching	
	Training	
Perspective on Manager - Mentor		
	Allowing the time	
	Assigning work	
	Chain of command	
	Confusing management with knowledge	
	Empowering people	
	Engagement of manager	
	Favoritism	
	Feeling empowered	
	Feeling threatened	
	Focus on problems	
	Growing people	
	Having all the answers	
	Influence of manager	
	Lack of authority	
	Looking for ways to retain people	
	Making matches	
	Management attributes	
	Management Structure	
	Management style	
	Management's Perspective	
	Manager as mentor	
	Manager in a leadership role	
	Managers are human	
	Manager's perspective on relationship outcomes	
	Managers supposed to do or be	
	Mentoring outside of management	
	Mistrust of management	
	Multiple managers	
	Non-Value Added	
	Not believing in PE PDP Objectives	
	Not enjoying management	
	Positive experience with mentoring	
	Privacy	

Node	Sub-Nodes	Sub-Sub Nodes
	Problems with manager	
	Promoting mentoring	
	Questioning management	
	Reflects on them	
	Responsibilities of management	
	Teaching classes	
	Treating all alike	
Perspective on Mentee		
	Adaptable	
	Approach mentor	
	Ask questions	
	Eagerness	
	Make a difference	
	Mentor others	
	Negotiator	
	Observe	
	Receive feedback	
	Take advantage of environment	
Perspective on Mentor		
	Ask questions	
	Authentic	
	Be supportive	
	Being a mirror	
	Being there - support	
	Calm	
	Diffusing negative situations	
	Expanding	
	Expectations	
	Focusing on what they want	
	Form relationship with mentee	
	Get to know mentee	
	Giving feedback	
	Giving opportunities to grow	
	Guidance	
	Handling difficult situations	
	Help new hires	
	Helping mentee to make decisions	
	How mentors are identified	
	How to dress for success	
	Intuitive	
	Leader	
	Look for things in mentee	

Node	Sub-Nodes	Sub-Sub Nodes
	Looking out for	
	Make mentee aware	
	Making a difference	
	Mentor attributes	
	Mentoring the overlooked	
	Not telling what to do	
	Observe	
	Providing focus	
	Providing insight	
	Push mentees	
	Reputation	
	Self-disclosure	
	Set the tone	
	Shaping mentee	
	Tapping into hidden talents	
	Teacher	
	Team players	
	Tell what others won't	
	Transparent	
Process of mentoring		
	Choosing a mentor	
	Choosing to mentor	
	Closure	
	Developmental planning	
	Initiating the relationship	
	Key to our future	
	Matching	
	Mentoring part of daily work	
	Multiple mentors	
	Multiple mentees	
	Obeying	
	Promoting mentoring	
	Role modeling	
	Selecting a mentee	
	Time	
	Visioning	
Reciprocating		
	Building on earlier relationships	
	Caring for	
		Attention
		Caring for each other

Node	Sub-Nodes	Sub-Sub Nodes
		Taking care of oneself
		Taking care of others
		Taking under the wing
	Contribution	
	Feedback	
		Being a mirror for another
		Discussing strengths and weaknesses
		Going round and round
		Honest feedback essential for business
		Making recommendations
		Self disclosure
		Sharing negative information
		Sounding board
		What you won't hear from others
	Gifts	
	Help	
	Lack of reciprocity	
	Mentoring others	
	Two-way street	
Structure of Mentoring		
	Apprenticing	
	Formal v informal	
	Hierarchical relationship	
	Mentoring Agreement	
	Multiple relationships	
	On-demand mentoring	
	One-on-one	
	Peer-to-Peer	
	Rotation Program	
	Sponsor relationship	
	Subordinate relationship	