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Undergraduate mentoring experiences of women executives in government, higher education and business

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UNDERGRADUATE MENTORING EXPERIENCES OF WOMEN EXECUTIVES IN GOVERNMENT, HIGHER EDUCATION AND BUSINESS

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Undergraduate mentoring experiences of

women executives in government,

higher education and business

by

Brenda Joyce Greene

A Dissertation Submitted to the

Graduate Faculty in Partial Fulfillment of the

Requirements for the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

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CHAPTER I. INTRODUCTION

Both the term mentor and the concept mentoring are derived from
the epic poetry of the Greek, Homer. In the <u>Odyssey</u>, written by Homer,
Mentor is the name given to the surrogate father assigned to Telemachus,
in the absence of his father, Odysseus. Wise and faithful, Mentor was
to advise and monitor Telemachus' education and growth (Easton, Mills
& Winokur, 1982; Roche, 1979). Hall and Sandler (1983) elaborate further:

> Mentor also introduces Telemachus to other leaders and guides
> him in assuming his rightful place. Thus, Mentor's instruction
> goes far beyond the teaching of specific skills; it encompasses
> personal, 'professional,' and civic development--development
> of the whole person to full capacity, and integration of that
> person into the existing hierarchy through socialization to
> its norms and expectations (p. 3).

Hence, inherent in the origin of the mentoring concept is Levinson's
(1978) depiction of the mentor as a transitional figure in a person's
development.

In 1986, mentoring was defined in terms of what a mentor is or does,
for as Levinson (1978) suggests, "mentoring is defined . . . in terms
of the character of the relationship and the functions it serves. . . .
We have to examine a relationship closely to discover the amount and
kind of mentoring it provides" (p. 24). In the literature, the term
mentor is referred to as sponsor or role model. In consequence, there
are many terms used to denote mentoring, and equally as many definitions
to describe the term. The following is a sample from the literature.

Simply stated, a mentor is a "wise adviser, a teacher or coach"

(Collins, 1974, p. 451). Authors from varying perspectives have asserted that the mentor is a mixture of parent and peer, without ever committing exclusively to either role (Easton et al., 1982; Levinson, 1978). Indicative of this perspective, Speizer (1981) asserts that mentors are "older people in an organization or profession who take younger colleagues under their wings and encourage and support their career progress until they reach mid-life" (p. 708). In addition to the encouragement and support functions performed by mentors, Bolton (1980) adds the role model function to the definition; she states, "the mentor . . . demonstrates how an activity is to be performed . . . and acts as a guide for the protege" (p. 198). Researchers and writers also posit the view of mentors as purveyors of counseling and moral support (Bolton, 1980; Collins, 1983; Fitt & Newton, 1981; Levinson, 1978). In the role of counselor or supporter, the mentor may be viewed as a friend (Cook, 1979). Shapiro, Haseltine and Rowe (1978) add that mentors are "protectors, benefactors, sponsors, champions, advocates, supporters and advisors" to proteges (p. 55). Hepner and Faaborg (1979), using the vernacular of the 1970s, capture the essence of the mentor role by suggesting that a mentor is the "godfather in a person's career" (p. 18). The above definitions provide an overview of the extant views of mentoring in the literature. The following definition of mentoring is operative for this study.

> Mentoring is the process in which one person performs advising, counseling, teaching, sponsoring, coaching, guiding and role modeling with regard to another in a relationship that is more than pro forma in that the person with greater rank or experience takes a personal interest in a person with less rank or experience (Papa-Lewis, 1983, p. 5).

Basic to the concept of mentoring is the premise that all learning experiences do not lend themselves to pedagogical techniques common to the classroom or laboratory, but that some learning experiences are best acquired through observation and imitation. Indicative of this premise in education are internships and student teaching experiences, that not only allow students to test acquired knowledge and skills learned in the classroom, but also provide them the opportunity to observe behaviors and processes peculiar to their specific profession in the actual work setting. In the corporate world, Cook (1979) points out that,

> Thousands of people working their way up the corporate ladder are receiving an informal education on both corporate culture and their own business environment through a unique learning experience called a mentor relation (p. 82).

Hence, by virtue of a mentoring relationship, the less experienced protege is made privy to specialized behaviors, attitudes and information specific to a vocation via various planned and unplanned social processes occurring within the organization, but that exceed the parameters of formal learning environments (Bolton, 1980).

The practical application of acquired knowledge in the work setting by a novice under the supervision of an expert characterizes early apprenticeships. Today, Levinson (1978) sees a parallel in male adult development and its relationship to mentoring, he reports in Growing Up With the Dream,

> In the usual course of the mentor relationship, the young man first experiences himself as an apprentice to a more advanced and expert adult (p. 27).

Bolton (1980) states, "It is the practical aspect of training that has
as its purpose to assimilate all the knowledge and facts into a workable
systematic collection of occupational competencies . . . that relates
apprenticeships to mentoring relationships" (p. 198).

Further, Roche (1979) notes,

> Ever since . . . . Mentor first advised Odysseus, or Merlyn,
> the young King Arthur, wise men have counseled, taught, coached
> and sponsored the young. There have been mentors and proteges
> in philosophy, the arts and letters, the military, and even
> in professional sports (p. 14).

Hence, mentoring, as a concept encompassing vicarious learning exper-
iences and a novice-expert relationship, is neither a new, nor a unique
concept in career development.

The concept of role modeling is also a part of the mentoring process
(Erkut & Mokros, 1984; Rowe, 1978; Shapiro et al., 1978). While all
role models are not mentors, all mentors are role models (Bolton, 1980;
Shapiro et al., 1978; Speizer, 1981). Kemper (1968) defines the role
model as ". . . a person who possesses skills and displays techniques
which the actor lacks (or thinks he lacks) and from whom, by observation
and comparison with his own performance the actor can learn" (p. 33).
In the case of mentoring, the protege is "taking the role of the
other" (Turner, 1956, p. 316), the other being the mentor. As Bolton
(1980) notes, the modeling process serves practical purposes for those
who emulate others. She states,

> 1) Models demonstrate how required activities are to be
>   performed.

2) Modeling provides a faster way of learning than that of direct experience.
3) Some complex behavior can be produced only through the influence of models (Bolton, 1980, p. 197).

Clearly these attributes of role modeling possess particular significance for the mentoring dyad, as the protege under the tutelage of a mentor seeks also to be informed through indirect channels inherent in the mentoring relationship. The full import of the role model function and its relationship to mentoring will be addressed in the succeeding section.

In summary, the mentoring process assumes: 1) learning is not exclusive to formal pedagogical techniques or environments; 2) mentoring relationships involve dyads of novice and expert; and 3) role modeling is a requisite of the mentoring relationship.

Functions of Mentors

Positive influences

By definition the mentoring process is function-bound. Consequently, mentors must be in the position to effectuate the many functions ascribed to the mentoring role. According to Collins (1983), in order to be effective, mentors must be "higher up on the organizational ladder, an authority in his/her field, influential, interested in your growth and development, and willing to commit time and emotion to the relationship" (p. 7). With these characteristics, a mentor may assume many roles that serve to benefit the protege's progress.

Mentors as role models   Mentors often function as role models in the sense that Bolton (1980) describes below.

> The mentor, . . . demonstrates how an activity is to be per-
> formed and can enhance the learning experience. In addition,
> the mentor personalizes the modeling influences for the indi-
> vidual by a direct involvement . . . (p. 198).

Mentors as advocates   Another role commonly associated with men-

tors is the role of advocate. As an advocate, the mentor provides pro-

teges legitimacy in the organization via acceptance and implicit approval.

Fitt and Newton (1981) postulate that a decided benefit of the mentoring

relationship is the "stamp of approval" given a protege (p. 5). Bolton

(1980) concurs, and characterizes the 'stamp of approval effect' as the

"unspoken message . . . that 'this person is o.k. because I have taken

him or her under my wing. They are worthy of my attention and are, there-

fore, worthy of yours.' Thus, the mentor gives his blessing to the men-

tee; acceptance and advancement within the organization usually follow"

(p. 199).

Mentors as counselors   In a study of thirty women managers in

27 companies in the Northwest and Midwest, Fitt and Newton (1981) found

that mentors function as counselors, cheerleaders, and career advancers

also. As a counselor, the mentor supplies the protege with information

concerning managerial style, organizational culture, conduct, clothing

or personal style.

Mentors as cheerleaders   In the role of cheerleader, the mentor

is concerned with building the protege's self-confidence. "I am working

to give . . . confidence, to let her know there's a backup here" (Fitt

& Newton, 1981, p. 56).

<u>Mentors</u> <u>as</u> <u>career</u> <u>advancers</u>   The mentor as career advancer, lessens the instructional aspect of the relationship and concentrates on building the protege's career. The mentor must identify clout and make it work to the protege's advantage, according to Fitt and Newton (1981).

<u>Mentors</u> <u>as</u> <u>power</u> <u>givers</u>   Speizer (1981) avers that mentors serve other purposes as well. She contends that in the business world, mentors impart power to proteges in three ways: "1) by being in a position to fight for the person in question; 2) by helping the person bypass the hierarchy; and 3) by providing reflected power" (Speizer, 1981, p. 709).

<u>Mentors</u> <u>as</u> <u>teachers/guides</u>   Daniel J. Levinson (1978) landmark study on mentoring among men suggests other functions that mentors perform. He states,

> The mentor may act as a teacher to enhance the young man's skills and intellectual development . . . . He may be a host and guide, welcoming the initiate into the new occupational and social world and acquainting him with its values, customs, resources, and characters . . . . He may provide counsel and moral support in times of stress (Levinson, 1978, p. 24).

Clearly, this literature supports the thesis that mentors, using their status within an organization, function in a variety of ways to enhance their proteges' career development.

Negative influences

Although the benefits accruing to the protege from the mentor are many, mentoring alliances possess an equal potential for damaging a protege's career. As in any human relationship, the potential for conflict is ever present. As has been noted, the mentoring relationship is by

nature intimate, intense and involving, bearing similarities akin to the parent-child relationship in many respects. Consequently, the factors of dependency, control, separation, assessment, growth, and personality can surface in mentoring relationships resulting in serious personal and professional damage, in most instances, to the protege.

Cross-sex mentoring   One of the most frequently cited, and most damaging influences of mentoring relationships involving women, concerns cross-sex mentoring situations. Given that top management positions have in the past, and continue to be, held overwhelmingly by males (Cook, 1979; McLane, 1980), women professionals are more likely to have male mentors than female mentors, consequently, the potential for more than a professional relationship to develop between male mentors and female proteges is enhanced. The authors of Equal to the Task, report that in "a recent survey of career women who had mentor relationships . . . nearly 20 percent had crossed the line from professional to personal liaisons" (Easton et al., 1982, p. 97). A well-publicized example of this problem, that brought national attention to the issue, occurred in the Bendix Corporation with the Cunningham-Agee liaison. Cunningham, the protege, as a result of her personal involvement with her male mentor was opened to some of the experiences inherent in cross-sex mentoring that blur the professional-personal lines. Hall and Sandler (1983) state that women who find themselves in Cunningham's position in academe may experience the following repercussions--repercussions that are not dissimilar to those experienced in the business world.

> A woman . . . may begin to question whether her intellectual abilities or her sexual attractiveness led her to be 'chosen' as a protege in the first place.
>
> Sexual 'indiscretions' are usually forgiven men, but held against women. A woman . . . is likely to lose the support of peers. They may envy the woman's access to a senior person and/or attribute her own achievements to him.
>
> If a sexual relationship ends, the protege usually loses both her lover and her closest advisor--who may, if he has been rejected, purposely use his status and power to hamper her advancement (Hall & Sandler, 1983, p. 8).

The blurring of the line between professional and personal alliance in mentoring relationships can negate the desired outcomes upon which the mentoring rleationship is predicated. Negative effects inherent in Hall and Sandler's repercussions are the possibilities that the protege's self-confidence and reputation are eroded instead of developed, ability questioned instead of accepted or championed, career thwarted instead of promoted. Unfortunately, as Easton et al. (1982) note, "if a woman is looking for a father's love, or if a man is looking for a woman who understands and appreciates him, the fuse may be lit from day one" (p. 97).

Mentor 'fall-out effect'   At the other extreme, proteges may fear becoming too closely aligned with their mentors. The source of the protege's apprehension is the possible occurrence of two developments that militate against the career development of the protege: 1) peers, not engaged in a mentoring relationship, can become jealous and resentful of benefits accruing to the protege as a result of the mentor's real or perceived assistance (George & Kummerow, 1981); and 2) mentors who

lose status or power in an organization, or who are fired, place the protege in considerable risk when upper managers have not been made aware of the protege's abilities (Easton et al., 1982; Hall & Sandler, 1983; McLane, 1980). The above situations have been termed by this author as the 'mentor fall-out effect'. With the 'mentor fall-out effect', just having a mentor can conceivably place the protege in jeopardy, as peers may seek to undermine the protege's progress out of envy. Second, negative impacts to the mentor's career can spill over into the career salience of the protege. Hence, the protege's career can become precarious at best, and tenuous at worst.

Mentor assessment error   The mentor in the mode of guide and career advancer assesses the abilities of the protege in order to move the protege to the next level in his/her development. Assessment is subject to human error. Errors in mentoring relationships attributed to human judgment can render a protege's career development thwarted or seriously damaged. George and Kummerow (1981) provide an example of the consequences of judgment gone askew from the corporate world: "a talented female manager promoted too quickly to solidify her skills and learn to handle complex issues presents top management with a dilemma; fire her, demote her or live with her but neutralize her negative impact" (p. 44). The potential of a protege may be, not only, improperly assessed upward, as in the example above, but also, downward (Hall & Sandler, 1983), the effects of either serving to frustrate and/or debilitate the protege's career advancement.

<u>Protege misuse</u>   The misperception of a protege's abilities and
needs is usually an involuntary act. However, there are instances in
which proteges are misused by their mentors. Below Hall and Sandler
(1983) offer examples from academe that range from blatant to inadvertent
misuse.

> Mentors may deliberately or inadvertently use the mentoring
> relationship to get help with and recognition for their own
> projects at the expense of the mentee's recognition, interests
> and achievements. The mentor's own needs within the system
> may take precedence over the protege's correct advice on how
> to get ahead but at the expense of the protege's own research
> interests (p. 8).

While Hall and Sandler's example reference conditions in academe, it
is not inconceivable that similar occurrences take place in the corporate
world as well. Consequently, knowledge of possible misuse of aspiring
professionals becomes a point warranting this population's vigilance.

<u>Mentor insecurity</u>   Proteges are again placed in a precarious
position when they surpass their mentors. Despite the fact that the
protege's progress is to some degree, a reflection of how well the mentor
has performed, when the protege's accomplishments exceed those of the
mentor, this development may result in behavior reflective of the mentor's
professional insecurity, and thereby manifest as actions unbecoming to
the mentor, and detrimental to the protege (Levinson, 1978). A personal
account reported by a respondent in <u>Equal to the Task</u> is indicative of
the above thesis.

Mary's Story

> My mentor turned on me when I got to be really successful
> . . . . This man was the classic and marvelous mentor. He
> never held me back and always pushed me one more step . . . .
> I grew by leaps and bounds in a very short time. Eventually
> clients began to come directly to me and at that point my mentor
> became devastatingly critical overnight. He began trying to
> take away work from me, instead of giving me more to do. I
> guess he was threatened, but to this day I do not understand
> why. By the time I left the company, we were barely speaking
> to each other, and we had been extremely close, although not
> lovers (Easton et al., 1982, p. 99).

Levinson (1978) notes that behavior such as that exhibited by Mary's mentor can result when mentors fear being eclipsed, and consequently behave destructively at crucial moments. Further, the mentor, once career parity is reached by the protege, may practice overcontrolling behavior or reject the protege in bitter fashion, resulting often in a loss of status by the mentor which can adversely affect the protege personally and professionally (Easton et al., 1982).

Mentor trap   Easton et al. (1982) reference a unique type of negative mentoring relationship. It has been termed "the mentor trap" and defined as "the forced pairing of token women within a company" (Easton et al., 1982, p. 100). Basic to this experience is the assumption that the token woman in the department or office is the best candidate for the training of the woman who follows her (Easton et al., 1982). This situation violates the critical mentoring principles of choice and compatibility. Mentors, according to research, tend to choose proteges most like themselves socially and with whom they identify (Hetherington & Barcelo, 1985; Shapiro, et al., 1978), regardless of the sex of the

potential protege. In consequence, the relationship's susceptibility to negative developments can be increased when choice and compatibility have been eliminated.

Terminating relationships   Regardless of the composition of the mentoring dyad, its intensity and similarities to parenting, combine to make termination of the relationship particularly susceptible to conflict (Bolton, 1980; George & Kummerow, 1981; Levinson, 1978). Termination of the relationship may engender negative feelings in either the protege or the mentor, or both. George and Kummerow (1981) in their discussion of women and mentoring, note the following relative to the problem of termination: "In the process of separating, a woman is apt to devalue what a mentor has offered in the past and convey an unintentional arrogance that can only breed ill-will" (p. 49). Although outgrowing the need for one's mentor is a common occurrence and should be a reasonable expectation on the part of both parties, when the separation process occurs, it can provoke criticism and condemnation from the mentor (Bolton, 1980). Levinson (1978) provides a pertinent description of negative feelings frequently experienced by the protege and the mentor at the point that termination is necessary.

> The young man protege may have feelings of bitterness, grief, and abandonment, ... He now experiences the mentor as critical and demanding, or seeking to remake him in the mentor's own image rather than fostering his individuality. The mentor, for his part, finds the younger man touchy, unreceptive to even the best counsel, rebellious, and ungrateful (Levinson, 1978, p. 27).

Over-dependence and termination   Termination of the mentoring

relationship frequently makes for a very volatile atmosphere wherein

mentor and protege may express feelings of frustration and dissatisfaction

in an overt manner. Marsicano (1981) describing the termination of women

interns in academe, suggests that proteges, upon withdrawal from their

mentors, may harbor negative feelings that are not overtly expressed

or directed at their mentors, but that nonetheless possess the same poten-

tial for negative impact. According to Marsicano (1981), when the men-

toring relationship has fostered a strong sense of dependency in the

protege, the withdrawal of the mentor "may result in feelings of inade-

quacy, guilt, uncertainty about one's ability to achieve, and feelings

of insecurity over the ability to control one's own situation" (p. 6).

Easton et al. (1982) corroborate Marsicano's thesis in a case report

from their study of corporate women.

Linda's Story

Linda had a mentor on her first job and became very attached
to him . . . . Linda eventually left her job and mentor to
take a better-paying position with another firm, but found
that she could not function without the support of her mentor.
She returned to her former employer . . . accepting a pay reduc-
tion . . . . Unfortunately, the mentor felt no such bond.
When he was offered a better job, he quickly accepted and left
Linda . . . . She continues trying to rebuild her career
(Easton et al., 1982, pp. 98-99).

Hence, termination of a mentoring relationship, be it amiable or

conflict-ridden, possesses the potential of negatively affecting those

involved, especially the protege. Clearly, much discomfort can result

from terminating a mentoring relationship, however, overdependence on

the mentor can exacerbate the situation and extend the impact far beyond normal proportions.

The foregoing discussion demonstrates that mentoring is not a new phenomenon. While it is true that both benefits and deficits can result from the mentoring experience, mentoring remains a viable career development process and one desired by new professionals of nearly every clime. As such, the importance of mentors to career development and advancement is a prominent theme in current career development theory. As noted below, professionals are indeed cognizant of the efficacious role that mentorship plays in their career development.

> Role models, mentors and sponsors are concepts whose time has come. Professionals must have one, been one, or be seeking one if they are to advance their careers. . . . Senior professionals who look back over their lives assure us that they owe their success to having had one; middle-level professionals say with pride that not only have they had one but they are one, and junior professionals are constantly worrying that they will not advance unless they find one. Women who also must have one, especially a female one, look bleakly around and realize that the lack of a role model, mentor, or sponsor may be another explanation, in a long list of explanations, for why they will or will not advance (Speizer, 1981, pp. 692-693).

Given the touted importance of the relationship between mentoring and career development and advancement, in general, proponents of women's career development strongly suggest that women committed to pursuing a career include among their priorities a diligent search for a mentor, if they hope to advance in their chosen fields (Bolton, 1980; Collins, 1983; Marsicano, 1981). Further, Collins (1983) exhorts women to emulate men in the effective use of mentors, especially in the desire to have a mentor.

Early mentoring relationships are particularly crucial to women's career development and advancement. A growing concept in the literature concerning women's career development is the premise that it is efficacious to engage in mentoring relationships at the pre-entry level of employment (Bolton, 1980; Marsicano, 1981). Corroboration of this premise takes several forms in the literature on women's career development. More than one researcher has proffered the thesis that professional women's career development often stagnates at the entry or mid-management level, due to their limited access to mentoring alliances (Bolton, 1980; Collins, 1983; Cook, 1979). Studies conducted by Collins (1983) of over 400 executive women nationwide concluded that a woman's first mentor could very well be her most important mentor. Hence, the collective import of the literature suggests that early engagement in mentoring relationships especially in the case of career-oriented women, is critical to career development and advancement.

Statement of the Problem

Early engagement in mentoring relationships at the pre-entry level of employment for many career-oriented women occurs at the undergraduate level. Erkut and Mokros' (1984) study of undergraduate students' choices of professors as role models and mentors revealed that undergraduates are capable of wisely choosing their mentors and role models. Despite proclamations of the efficacy of early mentoring experiences for women in the literature and Erkut and Mokros' (1984) findings, studies that address the mentoring relationships of undergraduate women were not found.

Hence, the purposes of this study are to discover: 1) whether mentoring relationships took place in the undergraduate experiences of women who held administrative and managerial positions in the public and private sectors, 2) if such relationships took place, what was the nature of the experience, and 3) if such relationships took place, did they influence the career development of the women who experienced mentoring as undergraduates.

Significance of the Study

Developments that took place between 1975 and 1986 portend the place of research in this area. First, the enrollment of women in colleges and universities nationwide has increased steadily since the 1970s. Presently, women students comprise over fifty percent of undergraduate enrollment, and this trend promises to persist throughout this century. Second, the pursuit of employment for a significant number of women has changed from jobs alone, to careers since the 1970s. Third, most higher education institutions are developing programs to increase enrollment and retention, while at the same time attempting to meet provide highly skilled college graduates. Fourth, students are looking for institutions with programs that will insure easy access to lucrative employment upon graduation. While cognizance of women's undergraduate mentoring experiences and their relationship to career development and advancement would not solve all the dilemmas germane to the points made above, it does, however, possess the potential of providing higher education the opportunity to increase the preparedness of its graduates for the world

of work by offering effective mentoring programs that could serve to attract more students and to develop insight into approaches that address other facets of the enrollment and retention dilemmas.

Mentoring ". . . is commonly thought to be tutorial in nature . . ." (Roche, 1979, p. 20) and, therefore, akin to the teaching-learning process, and is also easily adaptable to the experiences and environments of college life. Indeed, the graduate school dyad of graduate advisor and advisee is a mainstay of the graduate school experience, and is one of the few types of mentoring relationships found outside of the workplace. Further, a few colleges (Alverno College, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, City University of New York and the State University of New York at Cortland) have taken note of mentoring's benefits and conduciveness to campus life and instituted policies and programs that encourage the building of mentoring relationships between and among administrators, faculty, staff and students, to meet student retention needs and to foster faculty and staff development (Hall & Sandler, 1983).

From the standpoint of this study's purpose, discovering what human, programmatic and environmental inputs affect the career development of women, as the most substantial population of undergraduates, at this point in higher education's history, can offer insight into future policy-making, program development and institutional planning needs of higher education institutions. It provides one means of meeting the needs of students as consumers, and the needs of society for future employees knowledgeable to some degree in organizational behavior as well as their field of specialty. Hence, increasing the knowledge about mentoring,

and its relationship to women's career development, at the point that many women are effectuating plans for a career, the undergraduate school, warrants investigation, not only for the sake of college women, but also for colleges themselves.

Purposes and Objectives of the Study

This study has three purposes: 1) to investigate the undergraduate mentoring experiences of executive women in business, higher education and government; 2) to describe the undergraduate mentoring experiences of executive women; and 3) to examine selected influences of undergraduate mentoring on the career development of executive women.

This study will be guided by the following objectives.

1. To determine if women executives had mentors as undergraduates

2. To identify and describe the undergraduate mentors of women executives relative to:

    a. The average number of undergraduate mentors of women executives.

    b. The relationship of the undergraduate mentor to women executives.

    c. The predominant gender of undergraduate mentor.

    d. The age and professional respectability of undergraduate mentors.

    e. The mentoring functions performed by undergraduate mentors.

3. To descibe the nature of undergraduate mentoring experiences of women executives relative to:

a. The initiator of the undergraduate mentoring relationship.

b. The awareness of women executives of their mentoring as undergraduates.

c. The year of college matriculation that the undergraduate mentoring relationship of women executives was initiated.

d. The length of undergraduate mentoring relationships of women executives.

e. The reasons for dissolutions of undergraduate mentoring relationships of women executives.

f. The mentoring functions that most characterized the undergraduate mentors of women executives.

4. To determine selected influences of undergraduate mentoring experiences on the career development of women executives relative to:

a. The perceived value of undergraduate mentoring relationships to women executives.

b. The outcomes of undergraduate mentoring relationships accruing to women executives.

c. The impact of professional and personal attributes of undergraduate mentors on women executives.

d. The impact of undergraduate mentors on the post-undergraduate career plans of women executives.

e. The disposition of women executives to mentoring as a career development tool for present and future women undergraduates.

f. The impact of undergraduate mentoring on the decision to mentor by women executives, as professionals.

g. The number of women executives who have been mentors as professionals.

h. The number of persons mentored by women executives, as professionals.

i. The predominant gender of persons mentored by women executives.

j. The willingness to mentor by women executives who had not been mentors as professionals.

Organization of the Study

This study is organized according to the procedures and rationales that follow.

Source of the data

The data used in this study will be drawn from a questionnaire developed by the primary investigator. The Field Study Questionnaire developed by Nancy Collins (1983) will serve as a guide for the construction of the sections that will provide information on the backgrounds and undergraduate mentors of participants in the study. Items to obtain data about the undergraduate mentoring experience and its influence on women executives will be devised based upon information and concepts presented in the literature review.

Data analysis

Educational and professional data collected from participants will be analyzed using frequency and cross-tabulation procedures from the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences. Collected data will be examined in relationship to career development theories and concepts relative to mentoring presented in the review of the literature. The undergraduate mentoring experiences of participants will be scrutinized for similarities and dissimilarities to the professional mentoring model presented in the literature.

Population

Much of the literature on women and mentoring pertains to professional women who are attempting to pursue careers in the private and public sectors. As a part of this study's design, women will be chosen who attended postsecondary institutions and who have attained positions of managerial responsibility in the private and public sectors. Central to this decision was the intent to provide a credible basis for any relatedness found between undergraduate mentoring and its influence on the career development of participants in the study. Participants also will be chosen from education (higher), government and business with the intent of gathering data from a cross-section of three large sectors of the work force. More specifically, participants in the study will be restricted to women executives in government, higher education and business in the state of Iowa who are listed on the employee rosters of the Merit Employment Department of the state of Iowa, and the

membership rosters of the following professional associations and organizations: the American Council on Education/National Identification Program of Iowa, the 1983 Way-Up Conference, the Business and Professional Women's Clubs of Iowa and the National Association of Women Business Owners of Iowa.

Assumptions of the study

Assumptions common to the survey method apply to this study. The following assumptions are relevant to this study.

1. The questionnaire is an appropriate measure of the mentoring experiences of the sample.

2. The accuracy of responses is dependent upon respondents' ability to accurately remember their undergraduate experience.

3. The accuracy of responses is dependent upon the honesty of responses.

Limitations of the study

The limitations of this study relate to research design, sampling technique and survey construction. Those identified for this study include:

1. Responses are subject to the biases inherent in research based upon data obtained from self-reports over time.

2. The sample is restricted to women executives in the state of Iowa only.

3. The population was not randomly sampled. The sample was self-selected based on participants' membership in certain

organizations, associations and areas of employment.

4. Only participants who indicated that they were mentored as undergraduates are included in the study.

5. The study focuses on the positive outcomes derived from participants' undergraduate mentoring experiences only.

6. Past research has failed to provide a taxonomy for the body of research on mentoring.

Definition of Terms

The following definitions are used for the purposes of this study.

1. Mentoring - the process in which one person performs advising, counseling, teaching, sponsoring, coaching, guiding and role modeling with regard to another in a relationship that is more than pro forma in that the person with greater rank or experience takes a personal interest in the development of a person with less rank or experience (Papa-Lewis, 1983, p. 5).

2. Mentor - a person with greater rank or experience who takes a personal interest in the development of a person with less rank or experience (Papa-Lewis, 1983, p. 5). For the purposes of this study, the mentor is the person who performed mentoring functions and who most influenced the career development of the women in the study during the years that they were attending an undergraduate institution.

3. Protege - a person with less rank and experience who enters a mentoring relationship. The protege, as used in this study,

is each woman who experienced mentoring as an undergraduate.

4. Career - a profession for which one undergoes special training and which is undertaken as a permanent calling.

5. Executive - one who holds a position of administrative or managerial responsibility in a business or other organization. Professional women in leadership positions in the private and public sectors, such as, corporations, government, higher education and industry.

6. Career development - those processes that lead to: 1) decision-making skills necessary for choosing career options; 2) the capability of making considered choices of career goals based on development of self in relation to the range of career options; 3) the capability of charting a course for realization of self-established career goals in keeping with individual desires, needs, and opportunities; and 4) knowledge, skill, and attitudes necessary for entry and success in a career (Hansen, 1977, p. 75).

7. Public sector - employment area that serves the public and that is funded through public revenues. Women executives in city, state government and public universities/colleges.

8. Private sector - employment areas not funded through public revenues. Private business owners, professionals in industry.

9. Career parity - equal in status or professional development.

10. Career salience - commitment to a career; career aspiration as a central part of one's lifestyle (Angrist & Almquist, 1975).

11. Below entry level - position requiring qualifications lower than one's professional preparation.

12. Pre-entry level of employment - period prior to entering work force as a credentialed professional. In this study, this period is represented by the time spent in an undergraduate institution.

CHAPTER II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The review of literature related to this investigation is organized
into two major sections. Section one discusses the relationship between
women and mentoring as experienced in the world of work. For the purposes
of this study, the work world is divided into the public and private
sector as represented by academe and business, respectively. The barriers
and needs of women, relative to mentoring, are discussed from the perspec-
tive of each sector. Section two reviews mentoring as an undergraduate
experience. Attention is focused upon campus-based and noncampus-based
mentoring experiences of undergraduate women, and some uses of mentoring
in college settings.

Women and Mentoring

In the past two decades, American society has been forced to re-
evaluate the roles of women in modern society. The assumption that "women
form such a homogeneous group that one type of endeavor is fully satis-
factory to all" (Bailyn, 1964, p. 701) is no longer an acceptable dictum.
The endeavor addressed by Bailyn concerns the designation of housewife
as the exclusive occupational status of women. Bailyn (1964) proffers
the following as a more realistic and plausible perspective of the issue:

> A woman's goal, like that of men, is to develop a life style
> that uses her energies and capabilities in such a way that
> she functions in her various roles efficiently and productively,
> with sufficient integration among these roles to give her at
> least some personal satisfaction in each (pp. 701-702).

Hence, from Bailyn's (1964) perspective, the theory that the job of house

wife is the one occupation most suitable to the needs of women rests upon unsound ground.

While Bailyn's point provides a more credible view of the issue, women who choose to invest their energies in the pursuit of jobs or careers, face issues uncommon to men. Lifestyle choices made by women relative to work, are the obverse of the decision patterns of men (Bailyn, 1964). That is, most men expect that work will comprise a major portion of their lives, there is no choice. For women, society dictates "the necessity for a choice" (Bailyn, 1964, p. 702). The choices involve such decisions as whether to work, or not to work; and whether to pursue a job, or a career (Bailyn, 1964). Angrist and Almquist (1975) provide an instructive variation of the same theme in their longitudinal study of undergraduate women and occupational choice. In Careers and Contingencies, Angrist and Almquist (1975) propose that the findings of their study suggests that women's occupational choices are not congruent with common theories of occupational choice for the following reason.

> . . . women do not merely seek a field of work. Instead, they worry about meshing work with other features of womanhood, features hard to predict marriage, children, etc. . These remain the unknowns that foster the contingency strategy, the waiting, watching and wondering what to do (Angrist & Almquist, 1975, p. 190).

Despite the serious and often onus decisions facing women as presented by Bailyn, Angrist and Almquist, women continue to make the choice to work or pursue management careers in ever increasing numbers (Ames & Heide, 1982; Hall & Sandler, 1983). The subjects of this study,

executive women, provide a pertinent example. According to Ames and
Heide (1982), increases in the number of corporate women in middle and
top management is a trend expected to persist. Likewise, according to
the September 18, 1985, edition of the Chronicle of Higher Education,
over the past decade the number of executive women in academe has in-
creased significantly. As such, the career development experiences of
executive women is a viable subject for investigation if the experiences
of future women executives are to be improved upon and promulgated.

The literature on career development, in business and academe, is
rife with declarations of the positive relationship between success and
having a mentor. Indeed, the consensus of men and women, whether aspiring
or realized professionals, is that mentoring relationships are an integral
part of professional development and advancement. Speizer (1981) presents
a contemporary and prevailing view of this topic.

> Role models, mentors, and sponsors are concepts whose time
> has come. Professionals must have one, been one, or be seeking
> one if they are to advance their careers . . . (Speizer, 1981,
> p. 692).

Roche (1979) notes further,

> In the arts it is accepted fact that a young person learns
> the trade best when studying with a master. In business, too,
> the importance of the mentor relationship for a young persons'
> development has been documented (p. 14).

Indeed, concern for the professional advancement of women is ex-
pressed in the literature dealing with career development issues (Bolton,
1980; Cameron & Blackburn, 1981; Douvan, 1976; Marsicano, 1981; Shapiro,

et al., 1978). More recently, increased attention has been paid to the

impact of mentoring upon career advancement in general, and its effect

upon women's career development, in particular. The need for research

in this area has been addressed by Hepner and Faaborg (1979). They state

in "Women Administrators: Careers, Self-Perceptions, and Mentors,"

> There are, . . . many unexplored issues and unanswered questions of concern to those interested in future opportunities for women. The roles of women as students . . . or as faculty members and administrators are just emerging as legitimate topics for serious research. . . . Researchers need to learn more about the difficulties faced by achievement-oriented women and strategies they use to cope with problems (Hepner & Faaborg, 1979, p. 2).

Corroborating Hepner and Faabor's thesis is Nancy Collins' study of men-

toring and professional women. In Professional Women and Their Mentors,

Collins (1983) specifically calls for more emphasis to be placed on the

literature describing the importance of mentoring relationships. In

this vein, Fitt and Newton (1981) also note the need for an increased

awareness among young professionals of mentoring's role in their develop-

ment. They purport, "although mentor relationships cannot be created,

they can be cultivated. The chief ingredient needed is an awareness

of the benefits of such alliances among potential proteges . . . ." (Fitt

& Newton, 1981, p. 60). Instructive to this discussion is Collins' (1983)

observation that men engage in mentoring activities in their boyhood

when ". . . they are trained to seek out the right coach to guide them,

and consequently it is no wonder that they move easily into mentoring

relationships" (p. 94). She notes further, "In fact, men actively seek

the right mentor and seem to know how and where to go to find them. . . .
They make sure their mentor has 'power' and is plugged into the 'action
line'" (Collins, 1983, p. 95).

Subscribing to the view that women engage in mentoring at later
stages in their development, Collins (1983) strongly advises women inter-
ested in building a career to emulate men in the effective use of mentors.
The literature supports the efficacy of the role that mentors can play
in women's realization of their career goals (Bolton, 1980; Collins,
1983; Fitt & Newton, 1981; George & Kummerow, 1981; Marsicano, 1981;
Moore, 1982; Rowe, 1978).

Mentoring Needs of Women

While the functions of mentors remain constant regardless of the
sex of the protege (Fitt & Newton, 1981), and to some extent the same
is true for the mentoring needs of women in business and academe, the
basis for dichotomizing the topic is an attempt to clarify the needs
of women for mentors, relative to the environments in which they work,
and the differences that each environment dictates.

Women in business

Organizations are comprised of various interdependent systems, the
likes of which new professionals would do well to master, if they are
to be successful (Cook, 1979). Emphasizing this point, Cook (1979) con-
tinues,

> Each one organization also has its own environment within
> which the employee will have to function and that environment
> must be understood in terms of its limitations, stimuli, per-
> sonalities and resources. Without an awareness of these fac-
> tors and the insight necessary to properly interpret them,
> one is not likely to achieve success within the organization
> (p. 83).

According to Dalton et al. (1977), it is not uncommon for young profes-

sionals to exhibit a naivete about the organizational systems noted above

by Cook. They report in Organizational Dynamics,

> Few came with any understanding of the constantly changing
> activities, relationships, and emotional adjustments they would
> have to learn to manage if they were to remain highly valued
> contributors throughout their careers. . . . No one had given
> them an accurate preview of what life in a complex organization
> would be like (Dalton et al., 1977, p. 20).

The combined import of the investigators cited above suggest the paramount

exigency for new professionals to enlist the aid of someone knowledgeable

of the specifics of their organization's structure -- specifically a

mentor. Cook (1979) advances this thesis convincingly below.

> . . . it's widely accepted management theory today that a person
> cannot make it alone inside the corporation, no matter how
> good the technical skills, abilities, performance, or stamina
> . . . the willingness of people on the key executive team to
> support an aspiring manager, . . . is the key to an individual's
> success. An unstated but widely-known fact is that promotions
> and high-level jobs are frequently filled on the basis of per-
> sonal relationships effected through mentor situations (p.
> 83).

Hence, the efficacy of mentoring in the career development of as-

piring executives is axiomatic to most professionals in the business

world. As for women professionals, the authors of Equal to the Task

claim that "many women have indeed translated traditional courtship pat-
terns to the search for a mentor, "therefore, no self-respecting corporate
woman would be caught without a mentor" (Easton et al., 1982, p. 95).
As more and more women have set their sights on corporate careers, they
have become increasingly cognizant of the crucial role that mentors can
play in their career development, and in consequence, have become more
proficient in their utilization of mentors (Collins, 1983).

Further, companies also have become increasingly aware of the utility
and worth of the mentoring process to their success and productivity
(Cook, 1979). "Some companies who have found themselves unable to move
women and minorities into top management have implemented formal sponsor-
ship programs" (Cook, 1979, p. 84). According to Cook (1979), the busi-
ness world is well aware of mentoring's potential to advance its personnel
development programs.

The widespread awareness that mentoring has engendered in the busi-
ness world, raises two questions relevant to this study. What are the
needs of women aspiring to executive positions in business? Do these
needs differ significantly from those of men aspiring to executive posi-
tions in business?

Collins (1983) queried both men and women concerning these issues
in her study of professional women and their mentors. If the perceptions
of valuable assistance received from mentors can be equated with the
needs of proteges for mentoring, then Collins provides answers to both
of the above questions. Men stated that their mentors provided the fol-
lowing forms of valuable assistance: "developing leadership, developing

the ability to take risks, giving direction, and providing information about what is going on" (Collins, 1983, p. 99). Women reported the following responses relative to the most valuable assistance received from their mentors: "giving encouragement and support, instilling confidence, providing growth opportunities and opening doors, giving visibility within the organization" (Collins, 1983, p. 99). Comparing the reported responses of the men and women, differences are evident. The needs expressed by the women in Collins' (1983) study are corroborated elsewhere in the literature.

Fitt and Newton (1981) in their study of women managers in 27 companies in the Northeast and Midwest, found the encouragement and support factors mentioned by women in Collins' (1983) study, to be a need of high priority for the women in the lower management levels. They state, "at the lower levels in the organization women typically need more encouragement than their male counterparts" (Fitt & Newton, 1981, p. 56). As it relates to the support factor, Fitt and Newton (1981) suggest that a mentor's support is extremely vital to women for the reasons recounted below.

> You can't underestimate the importance of having a chance to prove yourself. Women don't often get this, because they aren't given the benefit of the doubt. The risks in making a mistake are always higher for women. Her visibility heightens this risk. Whereas a male protege may have the luxury of failing quietly, a young man can bomb without any noticing . . . a woman's mistakes are often broadcast (p. 58).

Implicit in the above citing is the need for the mentor to exercise influence that would enable him/her to fight for the protege and thereby

lessen the impact of a mistake, without such support, a woman's career could be damaged or destroyed. However, regardless of the risk involved in the growth process of a protege, mentors feeling that women possess less self-confidence than men, must work at instilling confidence in women, and often view this function as a major mandate for mentoring women (Fitt & Newton, 1981).

Support from mentors is not exclusive to potentially threatening situations, mentors using their status and influence, quietly work to provide women proteges legitimacy in the organization by striving to insure that women receive credit for their work, in order to build their reputations (Fitt & Newton, 1981).

George and Kummerow (1981) speak to the needs of women relative to providing growth opportunities. It is the contention of these authors that not only can mentors provide growth opportunities, but that mentors can also significantly accelerate the professional development of aspiring executive women by expeditiously opening the proper doors. In this regard, Fitt and Newton (1981) add that at the higher levels of organizations, mentors spend considerable time and effort "selling" their women proteges (p. 56). One mentor interviewed by Fitt and Newton (1980) supported the "selling" thesis as follows:

> In the case of women, many people above have to be convinced. When you're trying to present a woman to your superiors you often feel you have to explain everything, and you try to put the gender issue right out of their minds (p. 56).

In reference to the need for providing visibility for women in business, a prevailing view is that the larger the organization, and the greater the dearth of women role models, the more likely is the need for an effective mentor affiliation for women (Fitt & Newton, 1981).

A need not registered by respondents in Collins' (1983) study, but one that many in the literature consider as a decided need specific to women aspirants in business, is the need for more women role models (Adams, 1979; Angrist & Almquist, 1975; George & Kummerow, 1981; Howe, 1975; McLane, 1980). The percentage of women executives is minuscule (Collins, 1983; Cook, 1979; Schwartz, 1971). Collins (1983) notes that "the shortage of female role models adds to the limited feedback that younger women need to climb upward" (p. 2). George and Kummerow (1981) present a more comprehensive view of the benefits of female role models to young women professionals below:

> . . . only a female can be a true role model . . . the ground has already been broken by that female executive and her position becomes a highly realistic career goal for other women with similar talents and aspirations. A successful woman manager . . . has developed effective ways of maneuvering within the organization and may understand the subtleties as well as a male mentor (p. 46).

From the above perspective, it is not difficult to concede that female role models can influence and sustain aspirations of young women professionals in business environments.

Thus far, it has been suggested that women and men in business who aspire to upper levels of management, appear to require different types of assistance from mentors. Other contributors to the literature have

added support for women's needs as espoused by Collins (1983), in addition
to providing convincing rationales for the existence of these needs.

Women in Academe

The world of higher education, not unlike the world of business,
is an organization. As such, it has structures, systems and personnel
whose purposes include the nurturing of its neophyte professionals (Ep-
stein, 1975; Howe, 1975; Marsicano, 1981; Stein, 1981). Further, women
professionals in higher education at the beginning of their careers like-
wise seek encouragement, support, recognition, role models, visibility,
and information on the 'rules of the game' from their mentors (Hochschild,
1975; Marshall, 1984; Marsicano, 1981; Stein, 1981). However, institu-
tions of higher learning employ criteria specific to their environment,
and herein lie the apparent differences between women's mentoring needs
in the two worlds. In other words, women's needs for mentoring in academe
are artificially dichotomized by the nature of the criteria imposed by
academe, rather than by the needs themselves, for the mentoring needs
of women remain constant through the categories of academe and business.
Mentoring in academe, criteria specific to academe, and their relationship
to women's mentoring needs, inform the discussion that follows.

The terms collegial relationship, protege-system, sponsor-protege
relationship or system are some terms used commonly and interchangeably
in academic circles to denote what has thus far been referred to as the
mentoring relationship. "Entry to the upper echelons of many professions
is commonly gained through the protege-system . . . this system operates

both to train personnel for certain specialties . . ., and to assure
continuity of leadership" (Epstein, 1975, p. 969). According to Epstein
(1975), the protege-system is also the mechanism by which performance
assessments of young professionals are made and the source of an intense
socialization process for young professionals. She describes the system
below.

> The collegial relationship is also important in the assessment
> of the performance of professionals. Members of professions
> affirm that only peers can adequately judge performance at
> these levels; they know the standards, they know the men, and
> they can maintain control. . . . The professions depend on
> intense socialization of their members, much of it by immersion
> in the norms of professional culture even before entry. . . .
> These controls depend on a strong network cemented by bonds
> of common background, continual association, and affinity of
> interests (Epstein, 1975, pp. 971-972).

Marshall (1984) relates Epstein's charge to the field of educational
administration by noting that "the most salient socialization and mobility
system for school administration is the informal sponsor-protege rela-
tionship" (p. 3). Concerned about the careers of women in the area of
research and development, Marsicano (1981) concurs with the above authors,
she states, "mentor relationships are also important to promoting pro-
fessional socialization and entry to the 'old boy' networks . . ." (p.
4). Having provided above some insight into the importance and param-
eters of the mentoring relationship as prescribed by the academy, dis-
cussion of the criteria for professional advancement and their relation-
ship to the mentoring needs of women in the academic environment is now
appropriate.

To progress in the academic arena, Epstein (1975) contends that young professionals must set their sights on meeting the performance criteria of the profession. Specifically, professionals with hopes of becoming administrators must: make contributions to the profession, perform up to prescribed standards; develop appropriate associations; and exhibit dedication to the profession (Epstein, 1975). Contributions to the profession usually involve publishing appropriately and frequently. The assessment of the professional's performance in areas assigned must be viewed as representative of quality. The criteria relative to publishing and performing serve to aid the young professional in meeting the requirement of becoming a member and participating advantageously in professional associations. Dedication to the profession, Epstein (1975) defines as follows, "the ideal professional is one whose work dominates the other parts of his life" (p. 976). Given the criteria in place in the academy to assess and promote new professionals, the answer to the question of how women in this environment meet their professional needs for advancement via a mentoring relationship, is the function of the discussion to follow.

The need for mentors by women, regardless of profession, are the same. They need mentors who will: 1) support and encourage them; 2) insure that they receive the recognition due them; 3) foster opportunities that will increase their visibility; 4) act as role models; and 5) teach them how to manage the systems of their environments. However, these needs are shaped by the criteria specific to the academic milieu. Epstein's (1975) view of this situation is instructive, she states,

> . . . contacts with professional colleagues . . . provide the
> wherewithal by which the professional may become equipped to
> meet the highest standards of professional behavior . . . the
> learning of a profession is not completed with graduation.
> . . . Techniques and experience must still be acquired in
> interaction with established practitioners. The judgement
> of whether a professional is "top" rank is contingent on . . .
> the collegial system (p. 972).

Thus, the protege-system, as a subsystem of the collegial system and
the trainer of young professionals, must foster encouragement, support,
visibility, and the like, within the context of performance, publishing,
dedication, and association.

More specifically, women aspiring to administrative post in higher
education institutions need mentors who will encourage and support their
research and publication efforts. Epstein (1970) suggests that mentors
can attain this goal by jointly publishing with women professionals.
For visibility, mentors of women must encourage and support their partic-
ipation in professional organizations. Participation in professional
associations can provide opportunities to: meet and interact with prom-
inent practitioners; encounter role models; make important contacts;
and gather information; all of which possess the potential for positive
professional development (Epstein, 1975). Successful publishing and
the promotion by the mentor can also enhance a woman professional's visi-
bility (Epstein, 1975). Finally, mentors of women can lend support and
protection to women who are less able to devote long hours to the pro-
fession because of factors associated with other facets of womanhood
(Epstein, 1975).

Considering the importance attributed to mentoring and its

relationship to career development in professionals from a variety of climes, a point of interest becomes the impact of the mentoring process on the career development of executive women. Further, given the relative newness of women to the rank of executive in significant numbers; and the role of differences attributed to, and recorded about, the impact of gender and societal influence upon women's decisions to pursue careers, the query of whether the trail of differences exercised in the early stages of career development persist and encompass their mentoring experiences, is a career development issue worthy of investigation.

The mentoring needs of women executive aspirants in business and academe are the same. Differences in the application of encouragement, support, and promotion are ascribed to the differences in criteria germane to the two environments. Women in these environments, unlike men, suffer from a lack of female role models in business and academe, indicating a sex-specific need related to the mentoring process that many researchers view as critical.

Barriers to the Mentoring of Women

According to the literature, mentoring is an important variable related to career success and upward mobility. However, researchers from education and the business world both proclaim that women receive less mentoring than men (Bolton, 1980; Cook, 1979; Erkut & Mokros, 1984; Marsicano, 1981; Shapiro et al., 1978). The barriers facing women serve to effectively limit their access to experiential learning inherent in mentoring relationships, and seriously impede their ability to equally

compete for promotions and advancement (Bolton, 1980). In consequence, this development is often proffered as a reason for women rarely progressing beyond entry level or mid-management positions (Bolton, 1980). Cook (1979) supports Bolton's premise, she proposes that, "few women have had mentors, and this is evidenced by the fact that less than one percent of the total executive population in our country today are women" (Cook, 1979, p. 84). Amelioration of similar conditions in institutions of higher learning occurred only in the decade of 1975-1985. Women administrators in the academy, according to the Chronicle of Higher Education, stand today at six percent.

Hence, it is the contention of many authors that women are not equally exposed to the mentoring process, and that the consequences that accrue from this situation adversely affect women's career development and advancement.

While reports of researchers indicate that women do not experience equitable shares of mentoring, the barriers that women face are quite democratic in practice and application. Regardless of the field, be it business or academe, barriers placed before women are very much the same, and most women experience inequity in one form or another as it relates to mentoring, in their quest for professional advancement, as the following will attest.

Findings of researchers reveal the following to be prominent barriers experienced by women in the work place relative to the mentoring process.

1. Scarcity of role models (Bolton, 1980; Cook, 1979; Marsicano, 1981)

2. Lack of sufficient mentors (Bolton, 1980; Cook, 1979; Epstein, 1975; Marsicano, 1981)

3. Lower expectations of women (Epstein, 1975; Gappa, 1977; Marsicano, 1981)

4. Decline of women typed "queen bees" to mentor other women (Bolton, 1980, p. 208)

5. Inhibition of men to mentor women (Bolton, 1980; Cook, 1979; Epstein, 1975)

6. Inclination of mentors to mentor people most like themselves (Erkut & Mokros, 1984; Gappa, 1977; Marshall, 1984; Ortiz, 1982; Epstein, 1975)

7. Tendency of men to not view women as colleagues or executive peers (Epstein, 1975, p. 977)

8. Tendency of mentors to view women's development as not yielding an equal 'return on the investment' (Cook, 1979; Epstein, 1975)

These findings suggest that the status quo of limited advancement of women in the executive arenas of business and academe are maintained by attitudes and perceptions about women that have, with time, taken on the proportions of tradition—traditions that now permeate the work place.

Scarcity of role models

Role models are capable of demonstrating complex behavior more expeditiously than direct experience in many instances (Bolton, 1980). "Theories of career development emphasize the importance of role modeling

in determining occupational choice . . . modeling . . . is thought to be one of the main elements in an individual's career development" (Bolton, 1980, p. 197). In studying the career choice processes of college women, Almquist and Angrist (1971) found the influence of role models to be a significant input in the career choices made by young women. Studies using women administrators in higher education revealed that this population of women had all had role models or mentors who influenced their careers (Barrax, 1985; Graham, 1971; Neiboer, 1975). Hochschild (1975) is of the opinion, "that a good female 'role model' can make up for the pervasive discouragement women find in academe" (p. 56). The efficacy of role models to women's career development is a thesis advanced by Bolton. Bolton (1980) contends that not only do women need role models, but that they need role models of their own sex. Support for Bolton's premise is provided by the fact that historically women have not aspired to executive positions, because, as Cook (1979) notes, ". . . they didn't see other women at the top and they didn't feel they would be given opportunities for key jobs" (p. 83). Further support is provided by the findings of a study of women college and university presidents conducted by McGee. Of the 35 women presidents in McGee's (1979) study, 57 percent reported having had role models who were female.

Three points are central to the discussion at hand: 1) less than 10 percent of executives in business and academe are women (Cook, 1979; Watkins, 1985); 2) role modeling is an integral part of the mentoring process; and 3) role models are important to the career development of women, especially female role models. These points lend credence to

Collins' (1983) postulation that "the shortage of female role models adds to the limited feedback that younger women need to climb upward" (p. 2). In consequence, the scarcity of women who could serve as the ego ideal of young women, inhibits women's advancement, as businesswomen in the position to provide insight into the structures and systems of corporate organizations are inaccessible, or nonexistent (Orth & Jacobs, 1971). Hence, it can be concluded that the absence of role models, in general, and female role models, in particular, is prohibitive to women's development as professionals in business and academe (Antonucci, 1980; Bolton, 1980; Collins, 1983; Cook, 1979; Marsicano, 1981; Orth & Jacobs, 1971).

Lack of sufficient mentors

Mentors enable professionals to realize their career goals within the parameters of the professional's demonstrated abilities and perceived potential, by offering career guidance and advice (Barrax, 1985). According to Cook (1979), there is no more expeditious means of learning management skills, organizational politics and the work environment for a novice professional, than through the utilization of a mentor. Apparently many new professionals are aware of the worth of mentoring to their career advancement, as they rated "knowledge of the organization and knowledge of the use of power, and willingness to share knowledge and understanding" as major characteristics most important for a mentor to possess (Roche, 1979, p. 24).

Women are capable of becoming managers and could succeed if they

know how to "wire" the system, contend Ames and Heide (1982), meaning,
"if women knew how to gain access to informal channels of influence and
information, secure mentors . . ." (p. 20). Collins (1983) concurs,
she suggests that women have not been privy to the benefits of mentoring
alliances--benefits that would allow them to compete more successfully
as professionals. She notes further, "with a suitable tutor, women will
have a much greater chance of understanding the game called 'working'"
(Collins, 1983, p. 2). George and Kummerow (1981) offer the following
as factors that enable mentors to be helpful:

> 1) A conviction or belief in the woman's potential to contribute
> to the organization; 2) a commitment to invest the time neces-
> sary to assist in her development; 3) the skills, experience
> and knowledge to help her develop her potential (p. 47).

It is clear that mentors possess the potential to greatly influence
the career growth of neophyte professionals. Yet, "women often lack
mentors or sponsors who can be instrumental in their career advancements"
(Shapiro et al., 1978, p. 51). Cook (1979) provides additional support
and offers other insights:

> In the past, willingness to mentor was not as often shown an
> aspiring woman manager as it was a male manager . . . most
> women who have worked their way up the corporate ladder will
> tell you there were not many mentors along the way. Few exec-
> utives have the same parental or colleague feeling or sense
> of camaraderie about women that they do men; and, for this
> reason, most women have missed a very important part of their
> grooming experience inside the corporation (p. 83).

Support for the premises presented are referenced in the literature.
In the discussion that follows, arguments are presented that offer

explanations for why women lack sufficient mentoring.

Lower expectations of women   "Women have not been taken seriously as top executive talent and until recently have not been prepared scholastically, experientially, or emotionally to move into key executive positions" (Cook, 1979, p. 83). Epstein (1975) has noted that women professionals are rarely involved in the collegial networks indigenous to college and university collegial systems that train, socialize and promote junior members. Further, the worth or expectations of employees are often reflected in the type of assignments they receive. Gappa (1977) notes in Improving Equity in Postsecondary Education, that "the work assignments given to some women . . . impede their professional careers and accomplishments" (p. 6). Based upon perceptions and actions such as these, the list of situations that inhibit women's career development grows, for as Bolton (1980) contends "men do not form relationships with women because they do not perceive talent that merits their attention" (p. 204). Hence, as long as women are excluded from the internal training and recognition mechanisms of business and academe, their ability to attract the mentors they need to develop and advance as professionals will be difficult indeed.

Impact of the "Queen Bee" syndrome   Cook (1979) suggested above that many of the women who were a part of the vanguard entering the executive ranks of business and academe did not have mentors. Among this group of women are those who subscribe to the belief ". . . that there can be only one outstanding female in an organization and that each one has to fight her way to the top with no help from her female colleagues

who have already made it" (Bolton, 1980, p. 204). Women who subscribe

to this canon have been termed 'queen bees' by Harragan (1977). Clearly,

women who practice this doctrine diminish the already miniscule pool

of female mentors available to aspiring women executives. Subscription

to such a doctrine produces a particularly adverse impact upon the career

development needs of women, when it is considered that many women are

of the opinion that female mentors can provide a more particularistic

mentorship by virtue of the fact that both protege and mentor are women,

a condition that would increase the likelihood of sharing more common

career experiences (George & Kummerow, 1981; McLane, 1980). It is certain

that the impact of the 'queen bee' syndrome upon prospective women exec-

utives' career progress limits their mentoring options.

Problems. in cross-sex mentoring   Mentoring between opposite sexes

is often precarious. The relationship is shrouded many times in mis-

understandings that result in problems for both the woman and the man

(Bolton, 1980; Cook, 1979; Easton et al., 1982; Epstein, 1975; George

& Kummerow, 1981; Rowe, 1978). Cook (1979) posits the view that some

male executives find it difficult to see women as their executive peers,

due to their socialization to view women in the traditional roles of

wife, mother or sweetheart, in consequence, they consciously or uncon-

scioiusly, avoid forming mentor relationships with women (p. 83). Easton

et al. (1982) present a situation to the obverse of Cook's. They suggest

that when the male executive and the female protege are both looking

for personal, instead of professional attributes in each other, the scene

is set for the professional alliance to become a personal one, often

complete with sexual interaction.

Such an occurrence portends the danger in cross-sex mentorship. Even when those involved in cross-sex mentoring remain totally professional in their comportment, problems arise with spouses and others close to the mentor or protege (Bolton, 1980; Epstein, 1975; George & Kummerow, 1981). George and Kummerow (1981) offer the following as relevant to the discussion:

> Mentoring between opposite sexes can create tension with spouses. When adults form close relationships outside of a marriage, suspicions are raised and people are alert for clues that something untoward may be going on (p. 45).

Further, the male executive who agrees to mentor a woman runs the risk of having his motives questioned by his peers as well (Bolton, 1980). As the above attest, the potential sexual aspect of cross-sex mentor relationships can act as a powerful deterent to involvement in such relationships by the protege, but most importantly by the mentor. Hence, the mentor's abilities go unused, the woman's talents go undeveloped, and women are again deprived of an opportunity to advance professionally (Sheehy, 1974; Thompson, 1976; Turner, 1956).

Pattern in choice of protege   The literature supports the thesis that the choice of proteges made by the majority of mentors conforms to a pattern that limits women's access to administrative positions (Clement, 1980; Erkut & Mokros, 1984; Epstein, 1975; Marshall, 1984; McLane, 1980; Ortiz, 1982). The pattern is reflective of a principle postulated by Gappa (1977) which claims that those in power maintain their power

by surrounding themselves with others much like themselves. As noted earlier in the discussion, women constitute less than ten percent of all executives, therefore, the majority of potential mentors for upwardly mobile women are men. This fact takes on significant proportions, when it is taken into account that mentors tend to mentor those most like themselves (Clement, 1980; Epstein, 1975; Hetherington & Barcelo, 1985; Marshall, 1984; McLane, 1980; Ortiz, 1982). Hetherington and Barcelo (1985) summarize the literature as follows: "Mentors often choose proteges who are similar to themselves in social class, race, ethnic background and gender" (p. 13). Epstein (1975) suggests a rationale for this behavior, she proffers that,

> The sponsor is apt to be a man and will tend to have mixed feelings about accepting a woman as protege . . . he cannot easily identify her (as he might a male assistant) as someone who will eventually be his successor. He may, therefore, prefer a male candidate to a female (p. 969).

Inherent in the male mentor's inability to "identify" with potential female proteges are points made earlier and to follow, relative to the perceptions of women professionals commonly held by many in the world of work. Regardless of the rationales for this behavior, the behavior serves to effectively limit women's access to the most potent career development experience open to aspiring professionals to date--the mentor-protege relationship.

Underdevelopment of women   Women in academe and business are often perceived as less than colleagues by their counterparts (Cook, 1979; Epstein, 1975). In business, Cook (1979) contends that women often

are excluded as potential proteges because "few executives have the same parental or colleague feeling or sense of camaraderie about women that they do men . . ." (p. 83). Epstein (1975) ascribes a similar condition to academe, asserting that because women do not "fit" into the professional structure, their appearance in collegial networks as coprofessionals, fosters discomfort among many male colleagues, causing them to refer to the traditional norms governing male-female interaction, and to avoid engaging in collegial relationships (p. 977). The tendency of men not to view women as colleagues or executive peers influences, to some degree, the willingness of many men to actively develop women's career potential (Bolton, 1980; Cook, 1979; Epstein, 1975). However, a more common reason given for the trend, is suggested by Bolton (1980), "Many potential male mentors do not consider women to be serious about careers and regard them as unpromising in terms of development" (p. 204).

Elaborating upon Bolton's remarks, Epstein (1975) states that mentors may see women as less dependent on a career, and presume that other priorities ascribed to womanhood will supercede their commitment to a career. Harboring such views results often in men not choosing to mentor women with potential, fearing that they will not get ". . . as good a 'return on investment' for the corporation as developing a male manager would . . ." (Cook, 1979, p. 83). Further, mentors likely to choose women as proteges may feel pressured to abandon the idea by peers who favor solidarity based upon sex; in deference to the pressure applied, and in an attempt to minimize risks, many mentors tend to avoid mentoring women (Epstein, 1975). The foregoing discussion suggests that because

of the inability of some men to view women as full colleagues and other
factors related to more traditional perceptions of women, many women's
potential and talents are underdeveloped for want of an effective men-
toring relationship.

Summary

Mentoring has long been an informal training and development strategy
in business and academe used to advance the careers of promising pro-
fessionals. The prevailing consensus of management theorists is that
career advancement is less likely to occur without the benefits that
an effective mentor can provide. Mentors provide useful information,
encouragement, guidance, protection and visibility to neophyte profes-
sionals. Until recently, the benefits of mentoring have been the ex-
clusive reward of male professionals. With the influx of women profes-
sionals aspiring to executive careers in management, the challenge to
business and academe has become the provision of equal access to manage-
ment positions for women. Mentoring is considered a prime step in the
development of prospective executives. To develop women executives re-
quires providing women with effective mentoring relationships.

The literature suggests that the mentoring needs of women differ
from those of men. In order to effectively meet the needs of women in
business and academe necessitates responsiveness to the differences in-
herent in the two environments. In academe, for example, the needs of
junior professionals are inscribed within professional standards such
as, publishing, and membership and participation in professional

—

associations. Researchers and analysts contend that women's needs for mentors are crucial to their career development.

Intrinsic to the mentoring concept is the element of choice. Mentoring is not a democratic process, mentors choose to mentor whom they please. Most mentors choose to develop alliances with professionals who share a common sex, race and social background. Given the small percentage of women executives, and the decline of some women within this rank to mentor other women, most aspiring women executives are dependent upon male mentors for their development. Reliance upon male mentors presents problems for women's career development. Many potential male mentors avoid mentoring women. The reasons for their reluctance to mentor women vary, but most are due to factors relating to problems inherent in cross-sex mentorship, and faulty perceptions of women's rights to career advancement. The decision of the majority of the available mentor pool not to mentor women, constitutes barriers to women's professional advancement. These barriers effectively impede the career progress of prospective women executives.

Hence, while mentoring can play a particularly pivotal role in the career advancement of aspiring professional women, access to mentoring relationships are not readily available to women.

Mentoring as an Undergraduate Experience

It has been contended that once a woman makes a commitment to pursue a career it is imperative that she seek out a mentor, and that a woman's first mentor could be her most important (Collins, 1983). Marsicano

(1981) asserts that "problems associated with the lack of sufficient role models and mentors appear as early as the pre-entry level of career development . . ." (p. 3). The importance of having a mentor at the beginning stages of career development is supported by other analysts in the literature (Ard, 1973; Bolton, 1980; Dalton et al., 1977). The points referenced by the above authors provide the basis for a major premise of this study.

A major thesis of this study is that the undergraduate experience is the pre-entry level for many college students. Second, women students who have chosen courses of study in which their college preparation serves as a requisite for entry into the labor market, as Collins suggests above, need mentors who can play an efficacious role in their career development at the point of commitment to a career, and consequently, prior to entering the work force. Further, women students who have chosen to enter traditionally male dominated fields are in need of effective mentors as well (Angrist & Almquist, 1975; Epstein, 1975). Lastly, career-oriented women students, who aspire to managerial positions, especially need mentors to prepare them for the difficulties that they are subject to experience in the work place. For as Dalton et al. (1977) note, many young professionals enter organizations without the slightest understanding of organizational life or the benefits that a mentor could provide.

Roche (1979) has reported that executives in his study rarely reported having career mentors in their educational experiences. He states,

> . . . executives find career mentors infrequently in academic
> settings. Few executives report a relationship with a mentor
> during their education or list a teacher or professor as a
> mentor (Roche, 1979, p. 20).

The implication of Roche's finding is not without relevance, however, it possesses the limitation of being based on information from only one course of study offered at the undergraduate level, business (Roche, 1979). While it is conceded that mentoring relationships are better suited to some undergraduate majors than others, an appreciable number of undergraduate majors are well-suited to cultivating useful mentoring relationships. Hence, the point to be substantiated is that mentoring has a place in the undergraduate experience and that women pursuing careers with aspirations of entering top level management, will need assistance from mentors--the sooner the better.

Prior to the 1970s, mentoring as an undergraduate experience was referenced in the literature as a role ascribed to role modelship instead of vice versa. Mentoring has only recently become the term of choice used to describe a person who guides the career of another. Role models have been depicted as ". . . individuals whose behaviors, personal styles, and specific attributes are emulated by others" (Shapiro et al., 1978, p. 52). Further, role modeling has been described in this paper as one of the many aspects of the mentoring role. According to Shapiro et al. (1978), role modeling ". . . is an essentially passive role" for the models (p. 53). Mentoring, on the other hand, is an active engagement of the mentor's time and effort in the development of the protege's career. The popular and more definitive usage of the term, mentor, has

rendered the past usage of the term, role model, a misnomer in today's parlance. Nevertheless, some authors continue to use the two terms interchangeably. Hence, unless otherwise noted, the term role model in this section more closely represents the term, mentor, than it does the term, role model, in its truest sense.

Prominently cited in the literature on career development is the influence of role models on college students (Almquist & Angrist, 1971; Basow and Howe, 1980; Douvan, 1976; Erkut & Mokros, 1984; Seater & Ridgeway, 1976; Tangri, 1972). Points taken from the literature pertinent to this study follow. A student may be positively or negatively influenced by role models, some role models provide students with someone to emulate, others provide examples that students strongly avoid emulating (Basow & Howe, 1980). In cases where the role model influence is positive, college students can benefit in areas, such as, professional development, occupational choice, career aspiration (Almquist & Angrist, 1971; Basow & Howe, 1980; Douvan, 1976; Seater & Ridgeway, 1976). Further, role models have been purported to assume the characteristics of a reference group, in that they set norms and values, provide recognition and reward, and channel behaviors in prescribed directions (Almquist & Angrist, 1971; Basow & Howe, 1980). Finally, interaction and identification processes are central to role modelship (Basow & Howe, 1980; Bell, 1970). Role models serve a variety of purposes, most of which possess the potential to positively influence the career development of women attending colleges.

Influences of Role Models on Undergraduate

Women's Career Development

A common theme expressed in career development literature concerns
the influence of female socialization and American values upon women's
ambivalence about pursuing a career (Bailyn, 1964; Bolton, 1980; Epstein,
1975; Perun & Giele, 1982). This issue is addressed by Perun and Giele
(1982) in The Undergraduate Woman: Issues in Educational Equity, they
state,

> . . . college-educated women have been faced with contradictory
> and ambivalent societal assumptions about their adult lifework.
> The decisions to be made by women after college from among
> a set of competing alternatives--to marry; to work for pay;
> to continue in school; or to do all, some, or none of the
> above--have always been complex and difficult (p. 375).

Bolton (1980) adds, the decision that a woman has to make ". . . creates
ambivalence and ambiguity about the initial career decisions, progression,
and measures of success. . . . Whatever women's decisions are, they
will likely have to compromise far earlier and for far less than the
man" (p. 195). For women who have chosen to pursue careers predominated
by males, the dilemma is compounded by women's socialization. Almquist
and Angrist (1970) posit the following as part of the dilemma: "In Amer-
ican culture girls are reared with an emphasis on sociability, charm,
domesticity, and popularity, qualities which adversely affect chances
for success in many occupations" (p. 243).

The problems recounted above suggest that women's decisions to pursue
careers require interventions well-matched with the benefits that role

models and mentors can provide. The sex-specific nature of the problems heightens the relevance of the need for female role models as espoused by researchers (Almquist & Angrist, 1971; Douvan, 1976; Epstein, 1970; O'Donnell & Anderson, 1978; Tangri, 1972; Tidball, 1973). Further, the importance of role models to the career development of women college students is established convincingly by Tidball (1973). She proposes that,

> . . . late adolescence and early young adulthood can be pivotal
> in actualizing the potential that is genetically inherent . . .
> all past identities, . . . what is perceived to be a meaningful
> future. Thus, it is a time when a young woman must face the
> kind of person she wants to be and realistically can aspire
> to be (Tidball, 1973, p. 131).

Concession to Tidball's (1973) claim, provides background for the compelling thesis that role models and mentors can substantially influence career aspiration, orientation and salience of traditional college age women during their undergraduate experience.

Further, Angrist and Almquist (1975) are of the opinion that "since university education is the key steppingstone to high level professions, it should socialize women both to aspire and to achieve such careers" (p. 40). Role models and mentors are socializing influences specific to career development that are often present within and without the university. Erkut and Mokros (1984) in "Professors as Models and Mentors for College Students" report the finding ". . . that college students have no difficulty identifying a role model who has demonstrated the kinds of commitments, skills, and qualities they see as important for

themselves" (p. 411). Explicit in the remarks of the researchers cited above, is the thesis that college students stand to gain from their exposure to role models and mentors encountered during their undergraduate years; that institutions have a responsibility to foster career aspirations in women; and that students are capable of meeting career development needs related to the benefits that role models and mentors can provide.

Role models who positively influence the career development of undergraduate women are diverse in composition and impact. They are found outside, as well as inside the institution, as the following will reveal.

Role Model Influences External to the Institution

Mothers as role models

Roles assumed by mothers have been shown to influence their daughters career aspirations, decisions and occupational choices (Almquist & Angrist, 1970, 1971, 1975; Tangri, 1972). The femininity-achievement conflict causes concern for college women pondering career related issues, and in consequence, enhances the importance of the role model function that their mothers and others close to them can perform (Seater & Ridgeway, 1976, p. 50). According to extensive studies of college women's career development, the value of mothers as role models lies in their ability to demonstrate how a career, marriage and family can be combined successfully (Almquist & Angrist, 1970, 1971, 1975; Tangri, 1972). Almquist and Angrist (1971) note in their study of role models and women's careers, that the college women who aspire to careers ". . . acquired

a favorable definition of the working mother role. They saw that combining marriage and career can be done, that it can be enjoyable, and that their fathers did not object strenuously" (p. 272). In the study of occupational role innovation among college women, Tangri (1972) summarizes, from her findings, the affects of mothers as role models upon their daughters:

> The daughter of the more educated working mother and father grows up in a family where: (a) mother's higher education and career commitment are valued by both parents; (b) these values and the mother's working are likely to decrease sex typing in the division of labor between the parents in the home; and (c) she the daughter receives the greater independence training which is associated with maternal employment (p. 193).

Findings such as the above cited, have caused some researchers to theorize that well-educated, career mothers: 1) can influence significantly the career decisions of their daughters (Basow & Howe, 1980); 2) can provide ". . . a less stereo-typed version of the female role in which work plays an important part" (Almquist & Angrist, 1970, pp. 243-244); and 3) can inspire their daughters to be ". . . high in achievement motivation, low in sex-role stereo-type, take the mother as an appropriate model . . . ." (Tangri, 1972, p. 193). Further, studying career salience and atypicality of occupational choice among college women, Almquist and Angrist (1970) make note of the importance of the mother's employment occurring during the woman's college years as a factor highly and significantly associated with career salience of women in their study. The above findings suggests that the role of the working mother can

provide useful input into the career decisions of college women.

The influence of the nonworking mother as a role model has also been addressed by analysts in the literature. The dissatisfied or devalued nonworking wife and homemaker has been termed the negative maternal model (Seater & Ridgeway, 1976). Researchers proffer that the influence of the negative maternal model may be equally as important in impact upon college women's career aspirations, as the positive maternal model (Rossi, 1967). Regardless of the mother's occupational status, it appears her influence as a role model is one of extreme importance.

Work experience and occupational role models

Summer and part-time employment often provide students an opportunity to contemplate and evaluate career choices. Almquist and Angrist's (1971) studies of college women revealed that women likely to be career-oriented, had had many jobs in a variety of settings when compared to their noncareer-oriented women classmates. Studies conducted over the past three decades reveal that women students have consistently named work experience related to their prospective career area as a primary influence in their career choice (Almquist & Angrist, 1970, 1975; Slocum & Empey, 1956). Instrumental also in women's choices of a career are the occupational role models encountered in the work setting. Angrist and Almquist (1975) in Careers and Contingencies posit the following in support of this thesis.

> Much specific role model influence occurs outside the university, within an explicit work situation. Career-oriented women have many more experiences of this kind. Two-thirds of them

have held two or more different jobs . . . (Angrist & Almquist, 1975, p. 165).

Basow and Howe (1980), concerned with female models for female students, add that "exposure to other female role models through work experience has been found to be influential to career-oriented college women" (p. 559). However, many career-oriented women in a study conducted by Almquist and Angrist (1971) named males as important influences in choosing their occupations, many of whom were often encountered in an explicit work context. Clearly, the researchers cited above believe experience in the world of work offers college women viable input for career decision-making via direct job involvement and exposure to occupational role models.

Significant others as role models

While not cited as frequently as other role models presented thus far, significant others do influence career-oriented women's career development (Seater & Ridgeway, 1976). Almquist and Angrist (1975) offer the example of other role models as ". . . simply friends, sometimes previous graduates of the university, and sometimes they are married . . ." (pp. 165-166). Although career-oriented women glean useful information from their interactions with friends of both sexes, males with related occupational interests often help women clarify their own career goals (Almquist & Angrist, 1975). Female peers, according to Tangri, provide career-oriented women with support ". . . in the form of value congruence regarding the importance given to career and untraditional attitudes towards sex roles . . ." (p. 192). As in past research on

the subject, fathers have sustained their influence in the career aspirations of their daughters (Basow & Howe, 1980; Tangri, 1972). Finally, the family as a unit, according to Angrist and Almquist (1975), ". . . stimulates students toward enterprising or pioneering fields mainly when the mother herself is employed" (p. 163). Continuing, Almquist and Angrist (1971) report,

> When career salient women reported familial influence on their choice, the parents were referred to as strongly supportive of their intentions. Sometimes a member of the family served as a model for a specific occupation or as a link to other models (p. 275).

Hence, women students inclined to pursue careers interact with role models whose impacts vary in degree and manifestation, such as those of significant others, but whose inputs are nonetheless important in women's decisions to pursue a career, and to remain loyal to that decision.

As the above attest, role models for women students who desire to pursue a career, exist beyond the confines of the college environment. Role models most instrumental in the career development of women students are mothers and occupational role models found in work settings. The work setting also provides women students the opportunity to make friends, many of whom are males with similar occupational interests, who aid them in concretizing factors related to occupational choice. Significant others, such as fathers and female peers also add support to women students aspiring to careers, by adding validation to their decision, especially those decisions that challenge tradition. The contributions of role models beyond the college campus play an efficacious role in

the career aspirations, orientations and salience of women students.

Role Model Influences within the Institution

Faculty as role models

Prominent studies concerned with undergraduate women's career aspirations, reflect the importance of campus-based role models (Almquist & Angrist, 1970, 1975; Basow & Howe, 1980; Erkut & Mokros, 1984; Seater & Ridgeway, 1976; Tangri, 1972). The results of Erkut and Mokros' (1984) study suggests ". . . that professors who serve as role models are very much a part of at least two-thirds of college students' educational experience" in small, selective liberal arts colleges (p. 412). Almquist and Angrist (1970) report their findings on the subject below.

> Among college students, career-oriented women had been more influenced by teachers, professors, and people in the occupation; these role models who embodied occupation-related values led the women to identify closely with an occupation (Almquist & Angrist, 1970, p. 243).

Further, Tangri (1972) speaking to the needs of college women pursuing careers in nontraditional fields, proposes that women in this group need,

> . . . some concurrent sources of social support in order to continue pursuit of her chosen vocation. The most likely source of such support during her college years should be faculty in her chosen field. It would seem without the encouragement of some faculty member, it would be very difficult for a woman to stay in a highly male-dominated field (p. 189).

Benefits accruing to students as a result of emulating and interacting with faculty, closely resemble some functions of career mentors. Erkut and Mokros' (1984) study of the modeling-mentoring relationships

between 723 college students and their professors revealed that the
students' faculty models:

> encouraged them to pursue further work in certain areas . . .
> helped them with academic work on occasion . . . provided
> moral support . . . took an interest in their growth as a person
> . . . helped them learn how to formulate their thoughts better
> . . . set priorities in life, . . . interact with people more
> effectively, and . . . better communicate with others (pp.
> 408-409).

Erkut and Mokros (1984) also found that only women students reported
gaining greater self-confidence from the relationship with faculty role
models, and all students claimed to have been influenced by their role
models. However, the extent to which faculty role models influenced
students' decisions about a major was reported as minor.

The efficacy of the role of college professors in the career aspira-
tions and salience of college women, is a thesis convincingly proffered
by Almquist and Angrist's (1971) studies on role model influence on col-
lege women's aspirations, and career-salient and noncareer-salient college
women. A summary of these researchers' contentions reflect the potential
of college professors' to positively imprint college women's career de-
velopment. Angrist and Almquist (1975) believe: professors are par-
ticularly suited to role modelship, in that they exert a clear influence
on students by displaying the skills and life style associated with a
particular occupational role, and to this extent, invite the student
to consider choosing the field; professors operationalize occupational
role model functions, as they make students privy to the values associated
with the academic world and their extra-work pursuits, which provide

the observant student the opportunity to evaluate and possibly admire

these life style aspects. Findings of Angrist and Almquist (1975) are

reflective of the role of faculty in college women's career development.

In addition to corroborating some of the findings of Erkut and Mokros

(1984), Almquist and Angrist (1971) found that career-salient women in

their study were provided psychological incentives to select a particular

occupation by faculty role models--incentives which included rewards

for academic performance or work activity in which the model helped the

student in developing self-concept as a person capable of operating ef-

fectively in a given occupation. A suggested by-product of the psycho-

logical incentives given by faculty, led to the finding that career-

salient women reported the perception that their faculty members had

a more positive evaluation of their studentship than did noncareer-salient

women students (Almquist and Angrist, 1971, p. 277). Further, Angrist

and Almquist (1975) suggest that professors can convert some women stu-

dents from noncareerist stances to careerism. These authors found that,

> . . . the conversion process seems to involve first getting
> noticeably better grades and then coming around to career aspir-
> ations. The converts seem to be reminded, via their academic
> performance, that they ARE bright and therefore ought to pursue
> careers. This is a kind of mirroring effect, involving the
> student's performance, the teacher's view of that performance,
> and the student's view of the teacher's view! (Angrist & Alm-
> quist, 1975, p. 164).

The results of the studies cited above convincingly establish the

potential of college professors to positively influence the career orien-

tation, aspiration and salience of college women. However, not to include

the role of women faculty in the career development of women college students in the discussion would be an incomplete treatment of the subject.

Female faculty as role models

The importance of female role models to women's career development is a debatable point in the literature. Studies have shown that women students have had positive male role models, and have identified with male peers of similar occupational interests (Almquist & Angrist, 1970, Angrist & Almquist, 1975; Erkut & Mokros, 1984; Seater & Ridgeway, 1976; Tangri, 1972). Research to conclusively determine the efficacy of female role modelship over male role modelship for women is exacerbated and hampered by the disproportionate numbers of males and females in the position to perform role model duties. In higher education, as in the world of work, women occupy too few positions of power and visibility, hence, women students are left with few opportunities to model, using women as the ideal (Seater & Ridgeway, 1976; Tidball, 1973, 1980). Findings of relevant studies provide conflicting views of the influence of female role models on female students.

The following study findings are exemplary of the lack of conclusiveness concerning the need for female role model influence by women undergraduates. Erkut and Mokros (1984) found that ". . . female students neither gravitate toward nor avoid female role models. They choose female faculty as models to the extent that women are available on campus" (p. 399). Seater and Ridgeway's (1976) study of role model influence on college women revealed that 44% of their sample had female faculty role

models and these women had a significantly higher degree of expectations and were more inclined to pursue a graduate education than the women who did not have women faculty as role models. Further, 71% of Seater and Ridgeway's (1976) sample expressed the belief that a female role model would be desirable. Basow and Howe (1980) studied role model influence on college women using the variables of sex and sex-role attitude, and found ". . . extremely low ratings for female teachers . . ." (p. 565). The finding by Basow and Howe (1980) contradicts findings of major studies by Tidball (1973) who strongly espouses the importance of female faculty influence on women college students and the impact that women's colleges have upon the career development of their students, partially because of the availability of female role models (Tidball, 1973, 1980). The worth of female faculty members as presented in the literature is inconclusive. While the technical explication of a particular occupational role is conceded not to be sex-specific, the demonstration of how career and other demands of womanhood are conterminously effectuated, is a concession to sex-specificity that cannot be easily discounted. As it relates to women seeking entry into fields that are male-dominated, female role models serve a special purpose--a purpose bound to gender, as they can offer insight reflective of a practical and personal nature not privy to males directly. Hence, despite conflicting reports in the literature, the place of female role models in the career development of college women is special and necessary.

Influence of the department

Hearn and Olzak (1982) have proposed that the academic department, while not a human role model, is nevertheless a purveyor of tremendous influence in the career development of college students. They state,

> There is clear evidence that the department of a student's major is the college subenvironment most influential in undergraduates' career-related decision making and socialization . . . two major-related factors--the warmth and frequency of faculty-student interactions and the degree of involvement of students with their academic work . . . (Hearn & Olzak, 1982, p. 275).

Angrist and Almquist (1975) agree with Hearn and Olzak, and add that career-oriented women in their study were more involved in departmental clubs. According to Angrist and Almquist (1975), the value of involvement in departments is, "These professionally centered organizations tie the student to her major, give her experience within a discipline, and allow her to explore career opportunities, . . ." (p. 158). Based upon the analysts cited above, academic departments do indeed, possess the potential to positively influence the career development of women students.

In summary, clearly the college environment is abundant with opportunities for women students' career development via the use of role models. Women students have found role models among the faculty, both male and female, although to a lesser degree among the latter, due in part to the scarcity of female role models. Ambivalence as to the efficacy of female role models in women's career development is reflected in the literature. The academic department serves as fertile ground for the cultivation of career-related decision-making and socialization .

necessary to the career development of women students. A point for future research is no longer, whether women will work, but of the women who work, what are the determining factors that cause some women to make work a central feature of their lives, and why other women do not (Almquist & Angrist, 1970). Mentoring and role modeling at the undergraduate level are suggested as realistic factors for consideration. Thus, role models and mentors in the development of women students' career orientation, aspiration, and salience, stands as a challenge to higher education institutions to be instrumental in the career development of its women students.

Some Uses of Mentoring in College Settings

The mentoring concept has not escaped the purview of colleges and universities. Programs and proposals using mentoring as a framework have been established or proposed with the intent of improving some aspect of student life, meeting an institutional goal or both. Canisius College, a small Jesuit, nonresidential institution established a mentoring model pairing small groups of freshmen with a faculty/staff member or administrator, in order to improve retention and services to students--the program resulted in helping all involved (Miller & Brickman, 1982). Constance Carter Cooper (1985), Dean of the Division of Graduate Studies at Cooper State College, has proposed that the mentoring of Black students in schools or colleges is one viable means available to today's Black professionals and business people who desire to be accountable to future Black generations. Another proposal from a different perspective has

been offered by May (1982). She proposes that mentorship has the poten-
tial of developing scholarliness in nurses. The Massachusetts Institute
of Technology has established an informal institution-wide mentoring
program for students, faculty and staff that serves the career development
needs of these groups (Hall & Sandler, 1983). A mentoring program for
women students' career development has been established at the State
University of New York, College at Cortland, which combines a two-credit
strategy course and the faculty-student advising relationship (Hall &
Sandler, 1983). Other institutions, such as Alverno and Wheaton Colleges,
Seattle Community College and Yale University, have programs using men-
toring models also (Hall & Sandler, 1983). The above information con-
clusively establishes that mentoring has gained over the past decade,
a place in undergraduate education, and that career development of stu-
dents can be enhanced through its utilization.

Summary

   The belief that the undergraduate experiences of women college stu-
dents can be enhanced by the benefits that a positive mentoring alliance
can provide is the primary focus of this study. That role models, acting
as mentors, can significantly influence the career development of students
in general, and women students in particular, has been substantiated
by the literature. Regardless of the ambivalence associated with the
need for female role models in career-related decisions of women students,
points related to the sex-specific nature of women's experiences sustain
the need to provide a choice for women students. The impacts of female

role socialization upon women students' career decisions, strongly infer the need for female role models who can demonstrate and explicate the handling of both a career and other demands of womanhood. Prior to matriculation in college, prospective women students find role models at home and in the work setting, such as working mothers, occupational role models, friends and other family members who provide input useful to career-related decisions. The college environment provides many opportunities for women students to build mentoring alliances with faculty/staff members. A chief source of information, nurturing and promotion is provided through the academic department to which the student belongs. The combination of role models found outside and inside the university possess the potential for positively influencing women students to aspire to their fullest potential. Higher education, as a stepping stone on the path to women's realization of their highest potential, has a particularly potent role to play in this process. Some institutions have realized the efficacy of implementing mentoring programs. However, what is less definitive is the nature of the impact of mentoring experiences on the career development of undergraduate women--a goal, central to this study.

CHAPTER III. METHODS AND PROCEDURES
FOR CONDUCTING THE STUDY

The purposes of this study were to collect, collate and analyze personal, educational and professional data about executive women relative to their experiences of undergraduate mentoring and to draw conclusions from the findings. Accordingly, the discussion for this chapter is divided into five sections.

1. Identification of the population

2. Selection of the sample

3. Development of the survey instrument

4. Distribution and collection of data

5. Summary of data analysis

Identification of the Population

Women administrators and managers from both the private and the public sectors in the state of Iowa were sampled for the purposes of this study. The samples included women working in government (city and state), business and higher education. The public sector was represented by women working in government and higher education. The private sector was represented by women working in private businesses and industries, or who were self-employed.

The participants in the study met three criteria:

1. They were women;

2. They attended an institution of higher education; and

3. They held positions of administrative or managerial responsi-
bility in their work setting as defined by position title.

Positions of administrative and managerial responsibility varied according to the type of employment. In the private sector, women holding positions of president or vice president of a company or corporate unit, manager, assistant manager or other comparably titled positions were selected for the study. Participants selected from the public sector (city and state government) held the following positions:

1. Board chairperson,
2. Coordinator,
3. Commissioner,
4. Committee chairperson,
5. Director,
6. Department head, or
7. Examiner.

Women in higher education institutions holding the rank of Dean, Assistant or Associate Dean, Coordinator, Director, President, or Vice President were included in the study.

Selection of the Sample

Samples for the study were selected from the following four sources. Women with management responsibility in city and state government were selected from the Merit Employment Department of the State of Iowa. They were selected from a computer generated list of management personnel provided by the above state department. The list consisted of 126 persons

in management, 48 of whom were women.

Two rosters were used to select women administrators in Iowa in-stitutions of higher education. One sample was taken from the 1985-86 Basic Information Booklet distributed by the Iowa constituency of the American Council on Education/National Identification Program for the Advancement of Women in Higher Education Administration (ACE/NIP). The second group of women administrators were extracted from the roster of conference registrants to The Way Up: Women in Higher Education Adminis-tration Conference of 1983. The Way Up Conference roster contained 311 higher education administrators, 47 administrators were women who met the criteria for this study. Excluding the overlap from the Way Up Con-ference roster, 37 of 78 women higher education administrators were left for sampling. Women in administrative positions taken from these two rosters were contacted for inclusion in the study.

To obtain participants from the private sector who met the criteria of the study, two women's organizations were contacted -- the National Association of Women Business Owners (NAWBO), and the Business and Pro-fessional Women's Clubs of Iowa (BPWC). These organizations are local branches of national organizations (BPWC/National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs) with concentrations of women who attended college and who are presently holding positions of managerial respon-sibility in the private sector. The women in the two organizations also represent women working in diverse settings, such as, banking, indus-try, private business, thereby, providing an opportunity for the findings of the study to reflect a variety of work environments. For the above

reasons the National Association of Women Business Owners and the Business and Professional Women's Clubs of Iowa were chosen to represent the private sector in this study.

Collectively, 105 women held memberships, 35 (33%) in the Business and Professional Women's Clubs of Iowa, and 70 (67%) in the National Association of Women Business Owners. The total membership of both organizations were contacted for participation in the study.

The sample consisted of 85% (237 of 278) of the known population of women executives in city and state government, business and higher education as defined by the sources from which it was taken.

Development of the Study Instrument

A questionnaire was developed to ascertain the degree to which mentoring took place in the undergraduate experiences of executive women, and the extent and influence of undergraduate mentoring on the career development of executive women. The content of the general information section of the survey was guided by the field study questionnaire, "Values of Mentors", developed by Nancy Collins (1983). Procedures for extracting information from respondents about the nature, length and development of mentoring relationships were derived from the "Total Mentor Experience" section of Collins' survey also.

Prior to distributing the questionnaires to the actual sample, women at Iowa State University who met the study criteria were sent copies of the survey. They were asked to fill out the survey and make suggestions for revisions. The questionnaire was finalized based upon their

suggestions and those of the investigator's graduate program of study committee.

The formatting of the questionnaire was guided by the Dillman (1978) Total Design Method (see Appendix D). The Total Design Method aims "...to identify each aspect of the survey process that may affect either the quality or quantity of response and to shape each of them in such a way that the best possible responses are obtained" (Dillman, 1978, p.12). Dillman claims that the size, shape, color, paper quality, cover design and layout of the instrument positively influences the response rate of the survey. The questionnaire was printed as a 6-1/8 X 8-1/4 booklet with photographically reduced (74%) print. Questions were not printed on the inside front or back covers. The cover letter was placed on the first inside page. Questions were ordered and arranged under four sections: 1) General Information, 2) Undergraduate Mentors, 3) Nature of Undergraduate Mentoring Experience, and 4) Influence of Undergraduate Mentoring.

The survey asked respondents who had mentors as undergraduates to recall: mentoring relationships experienced during their undergraduate years; demographic information about their mentors; and certain aspects of the relationship with their most influential mentor. Respondents who did not have mentors as undergraduates were queried about their perceptions of the worth of undergraduate mentoring for women, and their involvement in professional mentorship. All respondents were asked to provide demographic information.

The questionnaire was divided into four parts. The primary function

of Section I was to gather general information about the educational and professional background of the respondents. Items in this section provided conformation of respondents' college matriculation and employment status.

Section II gathered information on the undergraduate mentors of respondents. Respondents were asked to identify and rank their undergraduate mentors. They were also asked to rank their undergraduate mentors according to their degree of influence on respondents. Using a seven point Likert rating scale, respondents also were asked to rate their most influential undergraduate mentor, based on nine mentoring functions which emerged from a review of the literature.

The purpose of Section III was to discover the nature of the undergraduate mentoring experiences of respondents who had mentors while in college. Respondents used a Likert scale to characterize the most influential mentor's relationship to the respondents. Respondents were also asked to provide descriptive information about their mentoring experiences as undergraduates.

Section IV assessed the influence of respondents' undergraduate mentoring experiences. Respondents were asked to indicate the value of their undergraduate mentoring experience to their career development. Benefits and deficits common to mentoring relationships reported in the literature review were used to extract respondents' views of the negative and positive outcomes of their undergraduate mentoring relationships. Respondents were further queried about personal and professional attributes that they adopted from their most influential mentor. To determine

a direct influence of the primary mentor on the respondents' career development, respondents were asked if their primary mentor helped them gain entrance to graduate or professional school, or find their first job after graduation from college. The final set of items required respondents to indicate whether their undergraduate mentoring experiences predisposed them to mentor as professionals, and if so, to what extent. In this section, respondents who did not have mentors as undergraduates were also asked about the value of undergraduate mentoring for women from their perspective (lack of mentoring as undergraduates), and their predisposition to professional mentoring.

Distribution and Collection of the Data

A cover letter and questionnaire with return postage status were mailed on July 25, 1986 to 237 women executives: 132 (56%) women executives in education and government; 35 (14%) to the president of Business and Professional Women's Clubs of Iowa and 70 (30%) to the president of the National Association of Women Business Owners for distribution to their memberships. The presidents of the two organizations agreed to distribute the study instruments to their respective memberships. Due to a clause in the by-laws of the above mentioned organizations that prohibits the sale or sharing of membership rosters, the National Association of Women Business Owners mailed the instrument with its newsletter. The instrument was individually distributed to the members of the Business and Professional Women's Clubs of Iowa by the President. A sample of the cover letter is provided in Appendix C. The women

executives were asked to complete the questionnaire and return it by August 15, 1986. This deadline was extended to August 22, 1986, to accommodate participants who might have been on vacation when the questionnaire arrived. Fifty-two percent (123 of 237) of the sample responded to the initial mailing of the survey. On August 25, 1986, a follow-up letter along with another copy of the instrument were mailed to the remaining 115 (48%) women executives who had not responded to the first mailing of the questionnaire. The follow-up letter used in the study can be found in Appendix E.

By September 19, 1986, 67% (159 of 237) of the sample had responded to the questionnaire. Sixty-one percent (146 of 237) of returned questionnaires were used in the study.

Summary of Data Analysis

To analyze the data collected, questionnaires were coded and processed through the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSSX, 1983), using frequency distributions and cross-tabulation procedures. The descriptive statistics generated by these two procedures were frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviations. To determine whether selected variables were significantly related, the Chi-square Test of Independence was employed.

The statistical procedures used to evaluate and analyze the data included:

1. Frequencies and percentages for all variables under demographic characteristics, undergraduate mentors, undergraduate mentoring

experience and influence of undergraduate mentoring.

2. Mean and standard deviation for number of undergraduate mentors.

3. Chi-square Test of Independence for functions performed by primary undergraduate mentors and positive outcomes derived from undergraduate mentoring relationships.

CHAPTER IV. FINDINGS

The findings presented in this chapter are based on the responses from a questionnaire mailed to 237 women executives including 84 (36%) in higher education, 105 (44%) in business, and 48 (20%) in city and state government. Collectively, 67 percent (159 out of 237) of the women executives contacted responded to the questionnaire. Eight percent (13 of 159) of the respondents were not included in the study because they did not meet the criterion of college matriculation. From the remaining 146 questionnaires available for statistical analysis, 94 (64.4%) respondents did not have mentors as undergraduates and 52 (35.6%) respondents had mentors as undergraduates. The respondents having mentors as undergraduates became the subjects of this study.

The data presented in this chapter are organized under four headings: 1) demographic characteristics, 2) undergraduate mentors, 3) nature of undergraduate mentoring experience, and 4) influence of undergraduate mentoring. Graphic representations of the data are included in the text where they enhance and clarify the discussion. Other corroborative information can be found in the Appendices as noted in the text. Seven point Likert scales have been collapsed into three point scales as a means of ameliorating the disparity of responses resulting from their use and to more clearly represent responses. Although missing data were not a problem in this study, the number of responses may not always represent the 52 women executives, because not all of the women executives answered all of the questions.

Demographic Characteristics

Summary data for demographic characteristics were obtained from questionnaires completed by 52 (35.6%) women executives surveyed who had mentors as undergraduates. The survey mailed to women executives can be found in Appendix D. The following discussion describes the sample using education and employment data supplied by the respondents in Section I of the survey instrument. The discussion is subdivided into two profiles. The first profile covers the educational characteristics of the sample and the second profile presents employment characteristics of the sample.

Education profile

Ninety percent (47 of 52) of women executives participating in the study attended universities or four-year institutions during the 1960s and of those women, most majored in the humanities (31%) or the behavioral sciences (27%). Seventy-one percent (37 of 52) of the sample graduated from undergraduate school at the traditional college ages of 21 or 22. An overwhelming majority (92%) of respondents reported an overall grade point average of B or better. More than half (29 of 52) of the women in the sample pursued graduate studies. Degrees earned by women in the study ranged from the associate to the doctorate. Equal numbers of women earned bachelors (18) and masters (18) degrees, while fewer numbers of women earned associate (4) and doctoral (11) degrees. Additional data regarding the education profile of the sample can be found in Appendix H.

Employment profile

Of the women executives who were employed directly after graduation from college, 58% (28) entered the work force in positions below their qualifications while 27% (13) obtained entry level positions. Fewer women (7) reported entering the work force, following college graduation, at middle management (4) or top management (3) levels. More than one-fourth (15 of 51) of respondents took less than five years to advance to their present executive position. Twenty-three percent (12) advanced within five to ten years, while 18% (9) took more than twenty years to advance. At the time that the study was conducted, the majority (26 of 51) of respondents held middle management positions, the remainder of the sample held either top management (35.3) or entry level management (13.7) positions. Nearly half 25 (48%) of the women were married, 14 (27%) were never married and 12 (23%) were divorced. The three reasons most frequently given for the interruption of the careers of women in the sample were childbearing (46.7%), marriage and childbearing (16.7%), and returning to school (13.3%). Tables presenting these employment data are presented in Appendix I.

Undergraduate Mentors

Central to this study was the gathering of data about the undergraduate mentors of women executives in the study. This part of Chapter IV addresses the following objectives of the study:

1. To determine if women executives had mentors as undergraduates.

2. To identify and describe the undergraduate mentors of women
   executives relative to:

   a. The average number of undergraduate mentors of women executives.

   b. The relationship of undergraduate mentors to women executives.

   c. The predominant gender of undergraduate mentor.

   d. The age and professional respectability of undergraduate
      mentor.

   e. The mentoring functions performed by undergraduate mentors.

The tables and explanations in this section are based upon the responses of women executives taken from Section II of the survey instrument. Frequency distributions and/or cross-tabulations were computed for the variables and used to analyze the data collected. To determine whether variables were significantly related (dependent), the Chi-square Test of Independence was performed on selected variables. The results of Chi-square tests are presented in tabular form only when they have been found to be significant.

In addition to identifying the respondents who had mentors as undergraduates, the presentation of findings under this heading consists of two profiles. The first profile is a presentation of findings that identify the mentors of women in the study. The second profile explores the relationship between established mentor criteria presented in the literature review and the degree to which the undergraduate mentors of respondents met the criteria.

Of the 146 women responding to the survey, 35.6% (52) had mentors as undergraduates and 64.4% (94) did not have mentors during college. The 52 women who completed the survey included 25 (48%) business executives, 20 (38%) higher education administrators and 7 (14%) government executives. These respondents had an average of two mentors while enrolled in undergraduate college.

Mentor identification profile

To gain an understanding of who the undergraduate mentors of the sample were, respondents were asked to identify their mentors relative to: 1) the mentor's relationship to the respondent, 2) the most influential mentor of the respondents, 3) the predominant gender of the mentors of the respondents, and 4) the predominant gender of the most influential mentor of respondents. The responses of the sample are presented in the following profile. As Figure 1 shows, the most frequently cited undergraduate mentors of executive women were college professors (58.8%), college staff (35.3%), male friends (23.5%) and female friends (21.6%). The undergraduate mentors indicated by women in this study, such as, college faculty and staff, coincide with the choices of undergraduates commonly noted in the literature, suggesting that campus-based mentors were not uncommon sources of mentoring for women executives in this study.

Using a multiple response format to rank their most influential undergraduate mentor, more women executives (25 of 31) ranked college professors as their most influential mentor. The second, third and fourth choices of respondents were college staff persons (7 of 13), female
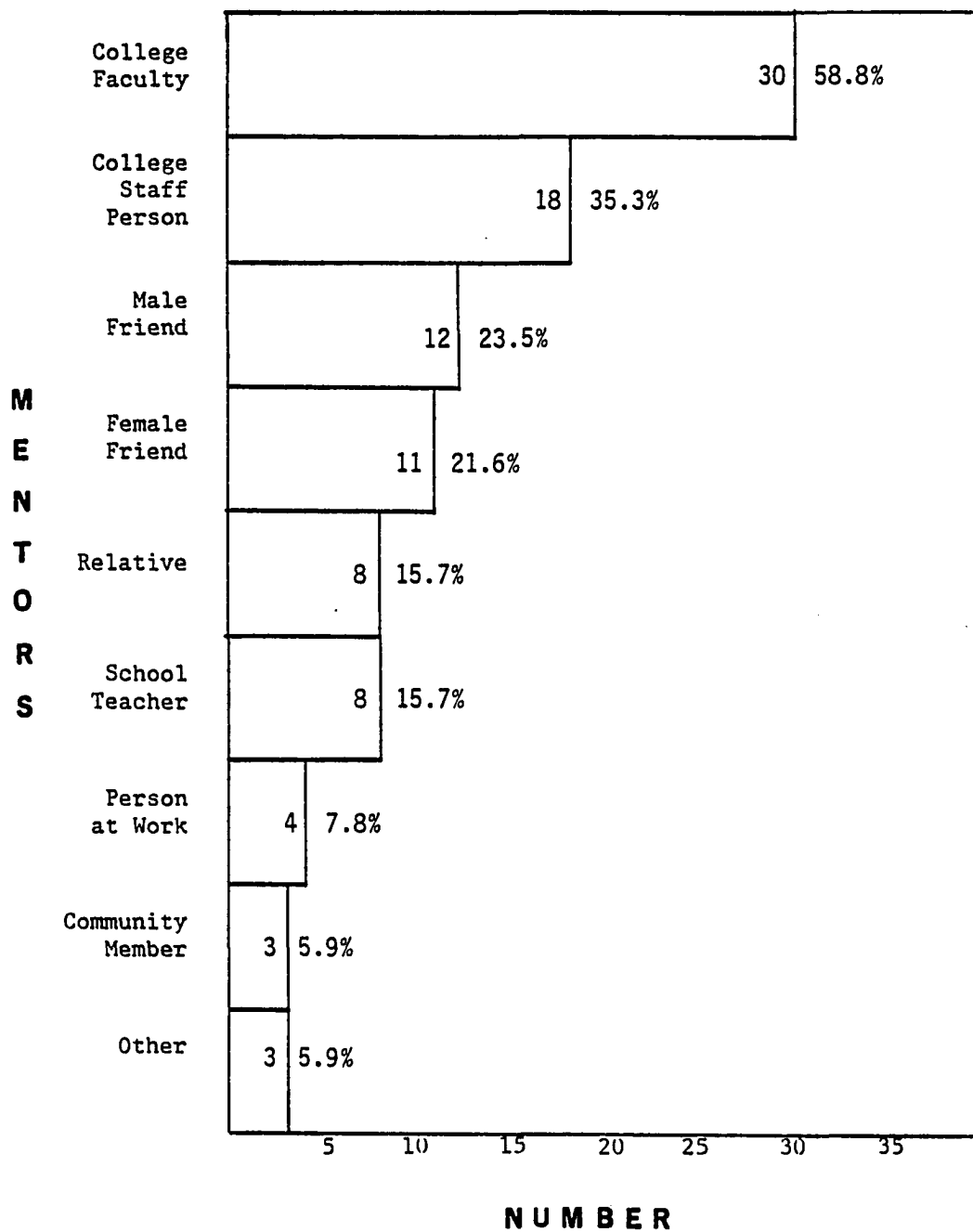
Figure 1. Identification of undergraduate mentors of women executives

friends (6 of 9) and male friends (6 of 10), respectively (see Table 1).

Table 1. Ranking of most influential undergraduate mentors of women executives

		Ranking		
		1st	2nd	3rd
Mentor			Number Percent	
1. Female friend	N=9	6 66.7	2 22.2	1 11.1
2. Male friend	N=10	6 60.0	1 10.0	3 30.0
3. Family member	N=8	3 37.5	4 50.0	1 12.5
4. Person at work	N=3	1 33.3	1 33.3	1 33.3
5. College staff person	N=13	7 54.0	4 30.7	2 15.3
6. School teacher	N=6	1 16.5	1 16.5	1 16.5
7. Community member	N=3	1 33.3	1 33.3	1 33.3
8. College professor	N=31	25 80.6	4 12.9	2 6.5

Note: Multiple response item, numbers and percentages apply to each category separately.

Women were slightly more likely to have been the undergraduate mentors of women executives surveyed (see Table 2). Respondents identified the gender of all mentors they had during their undergraduate experience using the categories of "All men, All women, Mostly men, Mostly women and Women and men equally." As Table 2 reveals, 44% (23) of women executives indicated that their undergraduate mentors were either "All women or Mostly women," while 34% (18) indicated that their mentors were either "All men or Mostly men." Results relative to the gender of respondents' primary undergraduate mentors were the same. The most influential undergraduate mentors of women executives were slightly more likely to have been women (29) than men (23).

Table 2. Gender of all undergraduate mentors of women executives

Gender	N	Percent
All men	16	30.8
All women	16	30.8
Mostly men	2	3.8
Mostly women	7	13.5
Women and men equally	11	21.1
TOTAL	52	100.0

Mentor criteria profile

Respondents were asked about the age, professional respectability and functions performed by their undergraduate mentors, to determine whether primary undergraduate mentors met the established criteria of career mentors.

Women executives indicated in overwhelming majorities that their primary undergraduate mentors were professionally well-known and respected (47 of 52), and older than they (51 of 52).

Using a Likert-type scale, respondents were asked to rate their primary undergraduate mentors on nine mentoring functions adapted from the literature on career mentors. Mentors were rated as "unlikely," "somewhat likely" or "very likely" to have performed the following functions: 1) supported career choice; 2) enhanced self-confidence; 3) provided career related information; 4) encouraged graduate or professional pursuits; 5) exposed to prominent practitioners; 6) provided employment information; 7) enhanced practical knowledge; 8) provided recommendations;

recommendations; and 9) performed career and graduate school advising. The results presented in Table 3 revealed that at least 26 (51%) respondents indicated that their primary undergraduate mentors were very likely to have performed all mentoring functions, except the provision of information about employment vacancies. Further, the ratings of female and male primary undergraduate mentors on the same functions did not differ greatly on all but one function (see Table 4). More respondents (21 of 23) indicated that male primary mentors were more likely too have enhanced their self-confidence than female primary mentors (11 of 29). However, Chi-square tests conducted for each function showed no relationship between the gender of the primary mentor and the degree to which functions were performed.

Nature of Undergraduate Mentoring Experience

Central to this study was the objective of collecting data that would be instrumental in characterizing the nature of the undergraduate mentoring experiences of women executives in business, government and higher education. The data presented in this section were taken from responses to questions in Section III of the survey instrument and required respondents to provide information relative to aspects of the mentoring relationship, such as length of relationship, year of initiation and awareness of mentoring. Hence, objective number three will be addressed in this section of Chapter IV. The statement of objective three follows.

Table 3. Rating of mentoring functions performed by primary mentors of women executives

Function		Unlikely 1		Rating Somewhat likely 3 Number/Percent		Very likely 7	
1. Supported career choice	N=52	2	3.8	2	3.8	48	92.4
2. Enhanced self-confidence	N=52	0	0.0	2	3.8	50	96.2
3. Provided career-related information	N=52	10	19.2	7	13.5	35	67.3
4. Encouraged to attend graduate school	N=51	9	17.6	7	13.8	35	68.6
5. Exposed to prominent practitioners	N=51	18	35.3	7	13.7	26	51.0
6. Informed of employment vacancies	N=50	20	40.0	9	18.0	21	42.0
7. Enhanced practical knowledge	N=51	8	15.7	4	7.8	39	76.5
8. Recommended for fellowships/internships	N=51	22	43.2	2	3.9	27	52.9
9. Advised about career and graduate school	N=50	15	30.0	4	8.0	31	62.0

Table 4. Mentoring functions performed by primary undergraduate mentors of women executives by gender

Function			Unlikely 1		Somewhat likely 3		Very likely 7	
			Number/Percent					
Supported career choice	Female	N=29	2	7.0	1	3.0	26	90.0
	Male	N=23	0	0.0	1	4.0	22	96.0
Enhanced self-confidence	Female	N=29	14	50.0	3	11.0	11	39.0
	Male	N=23	0	0.0	2	9.0	21	91.0
Provided career-related information	Female	N=28	14	50.0	3	11.0	11	39.0
	Male	N=22	6	27.0	6	27.0	10	46.0
Exposed to prominent practitioners	Female	N=28	10	36.0	5	18.0	13	46.0
	Male	N=23	6	27.0	5	22.0	12	52.0
Informed of employment vacancies	Female	N=22	14	50.0	3	11.0	11	39.0
	Male	N=22	6	27.0	6	27.0	10	46.0
Enhanced practical knowledge of field	Female	N=28	4	14.0	4	14.0	20	72.0
	Male	N=23	4	17.0	0	0.0	19	83.0
Recommended for fellowships/internships	Female	N=28	13	46.0	1	4.0	14	50.0
	Male	N=23	9	39.0	1	4.0	13	56.0
Advised about career and graduate school	Female	N=29	6	21.0	3	10.0	20	69.0
	Male	N=22	3	14.0	4	18.0	15	68.0

3. To describe the nature of undergraduate mentoring experiences
   of women executives relative to:

   a. The initiator of the undergraduate mentoring relationship.

   b. The awareness of women executives of their mentoring as
      undergraduates.

   c. The year of college matriculation that the undergraduate
      mentoring relationship of women executives was initiated.

   d. The length of undergraduate mentoring relationships of
      women executives.

   e. The reasons for the dissolution of undergraduate mentoring
      relationships of women executives.

   f. The mentoring functions that most characterized the under-
      graduate mentors of women executives.

The data presented in this section were analyzed using frequency
distributions and cross-tabulations.

The purpose of the following presentation is to describe the men-
toring experiences of 52 women executives who were mentored during col-
lege. The presentation is divided into the characterization of the under-
graduate mentoring experiences of the sample and the characterization
of undergraduate mentors based upon the functions that they performed.

Characterization of mentoring experience

Characteristics of career mentoring models discussed in the review
of the literature provide guidelines with which to investigate the
characteristics of undergraduate mentoring relationships of women in

this study. The characterization of executive women's undergraduate mentoring experiences is based upon elements of career mentoring relationships. Length, initiation period and awareness are examples of the elements discussed in the profile to follow.

The alliance between mentor and protege can develop in a variety of ways--the mentor or the protege may consciously initiate the relationship or the relationship may develop unnoticed by either the mentor or the protege. Three-fourths (39 of 52) of respondents indicated that their undergraduate mentoring relationship developed without their conscious knowledge. This finding provides credible support for the report that 56% (35 of 52) of respondents were not aware that they were being mentored while in college.

The literature supports the thesis that the career aspirant pursue mentoring relationships as early as possible. Slightly more than one-fourth (13) of the sample adhered to this dictum and established mentoring relationships prior to college, 19.6% (10) found primary mentors during their freshman year and 23.5% (12) during their sophomore year. However, more women (27.5%) indicated that they encountered their primary undergraduate mentor during their junior year of college. Hence, women in this study digressed from established rules of career mentoring by developing mentoring relationships at various stages in their college careers.

The longevity of undergraduate mentoring relationships of women executives approximated that of career mentoring relationships. The mentoring relationships of 21 (40.4%) respondents lasted from one to

three years. The established career mentoring relationship lasts approx-
imately three years. Fewer women executives experienced mentoring rela-
tionships that lasted between four and ten years (21.1%). However, 32.7%
(17) of respondents noted that their undergraduate mentoring relationship
lasted longer than 10 years, which represents a departure from career
mentoring alliances that usually last no more than ten years. Further,
the reason most frequently given for the dissolution of undergraduate
mentoring relationships of women executives deviated completely from
mentoring alliances in the work place. The most common cause of the
disintegration of career mentoring relationships is conflict. According
to the findings of this study, the relocation of 60% of women executives
was the primary cause of the dissolution of their undergraduate mentoring
relationships. Corroborative data relative to the disintegration of
the undergraduate mentoring relationships of respondents are reported
in Appendix J.

Characterization of primary mentor

In the literature mentors have been characterized by the functions
that they perform. In this study, respondents characterized their primary
undergraduate mentors by rating their performance on the following func-
tions: 1) invested time and emotion in the relationship, 2) acted as
an advocate with influential people, 3) acted as a protector in poten-
tially threatening school or career-related situations, 4) acted as a
tutor, 5) acted as a role model, 6) provided feedback about personal
progress, and 7) provided moral support (see Table 5).

Table 5. Rating of mentoring characteristics of primary undergraduate mentors of women executives

Characteristic		Rating		
		Unlikely 1	Somewhat likely 3	Very likely 7
			Number/Percent	
1. Invested time and emotion in the relationship	N=52	5 9.6	7 13.5	40 76.9
2. Acted as tutor	N=51	22 43.1	12 23.5	17 33.3
3. Acted as role model	N=52	7 13.5	6 11.5	39 75.0
4. Acted as advocate with influential people	N=52	15 28.8	8 15.4	29 55.8
5. Acted as protector in potentially threatening school/career-related situations	N=51	24 47.1	9 17.6	18 35.3
6. Provided feedback about progress	N=51	2 3.9	2 3.9	47 92.2
7. Provided moral support	N=51	3 5.9	0 0.0	48 94.1

Ratings of primary undergraduate mentors were based upon the likelihood of the mentor to perform the above seven functions. An overwhelming majority of respondents characterized their primary undergraduate mentor as very likely to have provided feedback (92.2%) and moral support (94.1%). More than two-thirds of the sample noted that their primary undergraduate mentors invested time and emotion in the relationship (40 of 52) and acted as a role model (39 of 52). Further, 55.8% (29 of 52)

of women executives reported that primary undergraduate mentors acted
as their advocate with influential people. Considerably fewer respon-
dents indicated that their primary undergraduate mentor acted as a tutor
(17 of 51) or protector in potentially threatening school or career-re-
lated situations (18 of 51). The latter finding may have its roots in
differences in the environments of the work place, where tutoring and
protection are less likely to be the domain of undergraduate mentors.
However, overall, the characterization of primary undergraduate mentors
by women executives adhered to the characterization of career mentors
noted in the literature.

Influence of Undergraduate Mentoring

The perceptions of women executives concerning the influence of
their undergraduate mentoring relationships on their career development
as undergraduates and as professionals are discussed below. The findings
presented address objective four of the study which follows.

4. To determine selected influences of undergraduate mentoring
   experiences on the career development of women executives rela-
   tive to:

   a. The perceived value of undergraduate mentoring relationships
      to women executives.

   b. The outcomes of undergraduate mentoring relationships ac-
      cruing to women executives.

   c. The impact of professional and personal attributes of under-
      graduate mentors on women executives.

d. The impact of undergraduate mentors on the post-undergraduate career plans of women executives.

e. The disposition of women executives to mentoring as a career development tool for present and future women undergraduates.

f. The impact of undergraduate mentoring on the decision to mentor by women executives, as professionals.

g. The number of women executives who have been mentors as professionals.

h. The number of persons mentored by women executives, as professionals.

i. The predominant gender of persons mentored by women executives.

j. The willingness to mentor by women executives who had not been mentors as professionals.

Influences of mentoring on undergraduate career development

Contemporary career development theorists proclaim mentoring as invaluable to career development of undergraduate students (Almquist & Angrist, 1971; Bell, 1970; Cooper, 1985; Erkut & Mokros, 1984). The responses of women executives relative to the influence of their undergraduate mentoring experience reflect the opinions of contemporary theorists. Recollection of the value of the undergraduate mentoring experience, its value added outcome, and the input of primary mentors in the career plans of respondents are presented in the context of these

theories.

When women executives were queried about the value of their under-
graduate mentoring experience to their development as professionals,
53.8% (18 of 52) indicated that the mentoring that they received as under-
graduates was very valuable and 32.8% (17) indicated that their experience
was moderately valuable. Fewer women (7) reported that their undergrad-
uate mentoring experience was of limited value (5) or of no value (2).

Five positive outcomes common to career mentoring were adapted to
undergraduate conditions and used to investigate the degree to which
respondents' career development benefitted. The five mentoring outcomes
adapted from the literature were the: 1) enhancement of skills and intel-
lectual development; 2) provision of valuable insight into prospective
professions; 3) preparation for entry into the professional world; en-
hancement of self-esteem; and 5) provision of counseling and support
in times of stress (see Table 6). The outcome ranked most consistently
as the first, second or third choice of more women executives (43 of
50) was increased self-esteem, followed by enhanced skills and intel-
lectual development (41 of 50). Nearly one-half (24 of 50) of respondents
ranked valuable insight into the profession (48%), professional prepara-
tion (48%) and counseling (48%) among their first three choices, respec-
tively. Finding self-esteem ranked highest among the positive outcomes
derived from the mentoring experiences of women executives closely aligns
this finding with the findings of Nancy Collins (1983) and other research-
ers, who found the building of self-confidence to be a primary outcome
of mentoring for women.

Table 6. Ranking of most beneficial outcomes of undergraduate mentoring
relationships by women executives

		Ranking				
		1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th
Outcome	N = 50			Number/Percent		
Enhanced skills and intellectual development		15/30.0	13/26.0	13/26.0	6/12.0	3/6.0
Provided valuable insight into prospective profession		5/10.0	10/20.0	9/18.0	18/36.0	8/16.0
Prepared for entry into the professional world		5/10.0	5/10.0	14/28.0	16/32.0	10/20.0
Increased self-esteem		18/36.0	14/28.0	11/22.0	3/6.0	4/8.0
Provided counseling and support in times of stress		6/12.0	10/20.0	8/16.0	5/10.0	21/42.0

Further, inquiry was made into the positive outcomes of the under-
graduate mentoring relationships of respondents based upon the gender
of the primary mentor. The intent of this inquiry was to determine if
the gender of the primary mentor influenced the outcomes derived from
the undergraduate mentoring experiences of women in the study. The re-
sults of Chi-square tests for each outcome did not reveal a relationship
between the gender of respondents' primary undergraduate mentors and the
outcomes derived from the mentoring relationships. Male primary mentors
were found to be as likely as female mentors to have fostered all five
outcomes. Hence, the gender of the primary mentor did not make a differ-
ence in the types of outcomes accrued by executive women from their under-
graduate mentoring relationships. Responses relative to negative outcomes

resulting from the undergraduate mentoring experiences of women executives were solicited also. However, only 10% (5) of the sample responded. A report of so few responses would not adequately or fairly represent the sample. Consequently, this item was not included in study findings.

Proteges often are attracted to mentors because of certain personal and/or professional attributes exhibited by the mentor that the protege wishes to emulate (Kemper, 1968). Respondents validated Kemper's thesis convincingly. Thirty-five of 37 (94.6%) women executives reported emulating professional attributes of their primary undergraduate mentors and 30 out of 32 (93.7%) indicated that they emulated personal attributes. Women executives appeared to be attracted to professional and personal attributes of their mentors that reflected "caring and concern for others" (see Appendix K).

In the world of work, a much sought after product of the mentoring relationship is advancement, via recommendations, promotions and the like (Bolton, 1980; Epstein, 1975). Adapted to the undergraduate experience, a like product of mentoring would be a strong recommendation for graduate or professional school, or for one's first professional job following college graduation. Concerning the input of primary undergraduate mentors in the post-undergraduate career plans of women in the sample, 55.8% (24 of 43) of respondents noted that primary undergraduate mentors played no role in their pursuit of a graduate education (see Table 7). Likewise, 45.1% (23 of 51) of women executives did not perceive their primary undergraduate mentor as playing a role in the acquisition of their first job following college graduation (see Table 8).

Table 7. Role of primary undergraduate mentor in career plans--
educational pursuits

Role	N	Percent
Major role	8	18.6
Moderate role	5	11.6
Minor role	6	14.0
No role	24	55.8
TOTAL	43	100.0

Table 8. Role of primary undergraduate mentor in career plans--
employment

Role	N	Percent
Major role	11	21.6
Moderate role	6	11.8
Minor role	11	21.6
No role	23	45.1
TOTAL	51	100.0

An additional 11 (21.6%) respondents reported that their primary under-
graduate mentor played only a minor role in helping them obtain their
first professional position. According to the results, undergraduate
mentors were less likely to influence the post-undergraduate career plans
of women in the study.

Influences of mentoring on professional development

The data and presentation to follow relate to respondents' percep-
tions of the impact of undergraduate mentoring on their professional
development as it relates to mentoring. According to the literature
about mentoring, those who have been mentored tend to support mentoring
as a viable career development tool and to mentor others (Speizer, 1981).
To test this thesis, women executives were asked the following questions.
Would they recommend mentoring for more undergraduate women? Had they
mentored since becoming professionals? Was their decision to mentor
based on their undergraduate mentoring experience? How many people had
they mentored? What was the predominant gender of those whom they men-
tored?

Women executives who were queried concerning mentoring for more
undergraduate women responded definitively. Seventy-nine percent (41
of 52) were in favor of increasing the number of women engaging in men-
toring at the college level, 17% (9) were not in favor, and four percent
(2) were undecided. Women executives who did not recommend more under-
graduate mentoring for women, or who were undecided about this issue,
appeared to be concerned about students becoming entangled in some of
the common negative by-products of mentoring, such as, dependency and
misuse of students by mentors. Explanations of respondents' positions
concerning more mentoring for undergraduate women can be found in Appendix
L.

The investigation of the influence of undergraduate mentoring on
women executives involved the assessment of the impact that their

mentoring relationship had on their decision to mentor as professionals. More women executives (32 of 43) expressed the belief that their undergraduate mentoring experience influenced, to some degree, their decision to mentor as professionals (see Appendix M). Equal numbers of women indicated that their mentoring experience as an undergraduate played a major (13) or moderate role (13) in their decision to mentor as professionals. Nine (20.9%) women indicated that their undergraduate mentoring experience played a minor role, and eight (18.6%) women reported that their mentoring experience did not influence their decision to mentor.

The extent to which women in the sample engaged in professional mentoring was investigated also. The majority (43 of 52) of women in the study indicated that they had been mentors since becoming professionals. Nine (17.3%) had not mentored professionally. Further, 65.1% (28 of 43) of respondents reported mentoring four or more persons. The remaining 34.9% (15) mentored one to three persons.

The literature on women and mentoring convincingly supports the thesis that women professionals are lacking sufficient numbers of female mentors in the work place (Bolton, 1980; Cook, 1979). Women executives surveyed for this study did not support this thesis. More women executives (32 of 44) indicated that they had mentored only women (14) or that their proteges were "Mostly women" (18), as Table 9 reflects. Very few women executives (2 of 44) reported mentoring large numbers of men. Partial explanation for this departure from the prevailing view presented in the literature may be based on the premise that men rarely seek out women to be their mentors (Cook, 1979; Epstein, 1975).

Table 9. Gender of proteges mentored by women executives as professionals

Gender	N	Percent
All men	1	2.3
All women	14	31.8
Mostly men	1	2.3
Mostly women	18	40.9
Women and men equally	10	22.7
TOTAL	44	100.0

Investigating the influence of the undergraduate mentoring experience further, the nine (17.3%) women in the study who had not been mentors since becoming professionals were asked about their willingness to mentor. Six of nine (67%) executives indicated a willingness to mentor, and 3 (33%) did not. The explanations tendered by women executives who were not willing to mentor appeared to deal with the constraints that mentoring relationships impose, such as substantial expenditures of energy, time, patience and commitment on the part of the mentor. Explanations for positions taken by respondents on this issue are in Appendix N.

Summary

In summary, the undergraduate mentoring relationship of women executives closely adhered to the career mentoring relationships. The length and the cause of the dissolution of the mentoring relationship represent the only deviations from career mentoring.

Undergraduate mentors were older, professionally respected and mostly female. In most instances, undergraduate mentors of women executives .

were campus-based in faculty or staff positions. Primary undergraduate mentors were more likely to have enhanced respondents self-esteem and supported their choice of a career. Undergraduate mentors were less likely to have informed women executives of employment vacancies. Respondents expressed the opinion that male mentors were more likely to have enhanced their self-esteem than female mentors. However, the ratings of male and female primary mentors on all other mentoring functions revealed little difference in performance.

Women executives, while undergraduates, were found to be influenced by their undergraduate mentoring experience. Aside from finding their mentoring experience valuable, women in the study emulated both personal and professional attributes of their primary mentor; enhanced their self-esteem, and skills and intellectual development. The influence of undergraduate mentoring also was shown to have had an impact on respondents as professionals, as it relates to their decision to mentor, their recommendation of mentoring for more undergraduate women, their engagement in mentoring activities, and their willingness to mentor as professionals. Finally, the indication by women executives that their proteges were most often women was an unexpected finding of this study, despite the numerous accounts in the literature that few female mentors are available to aspiring women.

CHAPTER V. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS
AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Chapter V consists of four sections. Section one summarizes the first four chapters of the study. The second section discusses the findings of the study. Conclusions drawn from the study are presented in section three. Section four poses recommendations based on the literature review and the findings of the study.

Summary

Chapter I introduced the following objectives of the study:

1. To determine if women executives had mentors as undergraduates

2. To identify and describe the undergraduate mentors of women executives relative to:

    a. The average number of undergraduate mentors of women executives.

    b. The relationship of the undergraduate mentor to women executives.

    c. The predominant gender of undergraduate mentor.

    d. The age and professional respectability of undergraduate mentor.

    e. The functions performed by undergraduate mentors for women executives.

3. To describe the nature of undergraduate mentoring experiences of women executives relative to:

    a. The initiator of the undergraduate mentoring relationship.

b. The awareness of women executives of their mentoring as undergraduates.

c. The year of college matriculation that the undergraduate mentoring relationship of women executives was initiated.

d. The length of undergraduate mentoring relationships of women executives.

e. The reasons for dissolutions of undergraduate mentoring relationships of women executives.

f. The mentoring functions that most characterized the undergraduate mentors of women executives.

4. To determine selected influences of undergraduate mentoring experiences on the career development of women executives relative to:

a. The perceived value of undergraduate mentoring relationships to women executives.

b. The outcomes of undergraduate mentoring relationships accruing to women executives.

c. The impact of professional and personal attributes of undergraduate mentors on women executives.

d. The impact of undergraduate mentors on the post-undergraduate career plans of women executives.

e. The disposition of women executives to mentoring as a career development tool for present and future women undergraduates.

f. The impact of undergraduate mentoring on the decision to mentor by women executives as professionals.

g. The number of women executives who have been mentors as professionals.

h. The number of persons mentored by women executives as professionals.

i. The predominant gender of persons mentored by women executives.

j. The willingness to mentor of women executives who had not been mentors as professionals.

This study investigated the topic of women's undergraduate mentoring relationships based on the remembrances of women executives now working in business, higher education, and city and state government. The review of the literature, presented in Chapter II, strongly suggests that mentoring, as a career development tool, is especially effective at the pre-entry level of employment, and that women desirous of professional advancement, must actively pursue mentoring alliances (Collins, 1983; Cook, 1979; Marsicano, 1981). For many career-oriented undergraduate women pursuing careers in fields that do not necessitate graduate degrees for advancement, the undergraduate school is the pre-entry level of employment. Further, major departments, college faculty and staff have been proffered as prime sources of mentors for students. According to Erkut and Mokros (1984), students have been found to be capable of identifying and choosing role models and mentors. The objectives developed for this study were based upon the above discussion and the knowledge

that women students, since the late 1970s, constitute more than half
of the undergraduate enrollment of post-secondary institutions nationwide;
that women are pursuing executive careers in ever increasing numbers;
and that mentoring relationships have been proffered as a crucial factor
in career advancement.

The review of the literature guided the choice of variables for
the study. Clusters of variables were developed to solicit data from
women executives that would describe their undergraduate mentors (e.g.,
gender, position), depict the nature of their undergraduate mentoring
experiences (e.g., length, initiation period), and suggest some influences
of their undergraduate mentoring experiences on their career development
(e.g., positive outcomes). Variables that characterized the mentoring
experiences and mentors of women executives were adapted from experiences,
characteristics and functions of mentors found in the world of work,
to the undergraduate experience.

The design of the study and the statistical procedures used to ana-
lyze the data were presented in Chapter III. The portent of the limited
treatment of the topic of women's undergraduate mentoring, warranted
beginning at the first phase of the research process--description. Fre-
quency distributions and cross-tabulations procedures provided descriptive
statistics (percentages, means, standard deviations) and the inferential
statistic (Chi-square Test of Independence) with which to analyze the
data gathered from 52 women executives in business, higher education
and government.

The responses of 52 women executives in business (25), higher education (20) and government (7) were organized under four categories: demographic characteristics, undergraduate mentors, undergraduate mentoring experiences and influences of undergradaute mentoring. Findings were presented in profile formats for each category. The findings are summarized below.

Findings

Demographic characteristics

The majority of women participating in the study attended four-year institutions during the 1960s and majored predominantly in the humanities or behavioral sciences. Most of the sample graduated from undergraduate school at the traditional college age of 21 or 22. Overall grade point averages of B or better were reported by over three-fourths of the sample. More than half of respondents pursued graduate studies. Earned degrees ranged from the associate to the doctoral degree, with more women earning bachelor (18) and masters (18) degrees than associate (4) or doctoral (11) degrees.

The majority of women began their professional careers immediately following college graduation and entered the work force in positions below entry level. Slightly more than half of respondents held middle management positions at the time that the study was conducted. One-half of respondents took 10 years or less to advance to their present positions. Their careers were most often interrupted by childbearing. Forty-eight percent (25) of the respondents were married, 27% (14) were never

married and 23% (12) were divorced. Of the 146 women responding to the survey, 52 (35.6%) had mentors during their college careers: 20 (38.5%) in higher education, 25 (48%) in business and 7 (13.5%) in government.

Undergraduate mentors

The following findings provide information concerning women in the study and their undergraduate mentors.

1. Women executives had an average of two undergraduate mentors (see Appendix O).

2. Women executives reported, in order, college faculty and staff, male friends and female friends as their most influential undergraduate mentors.

3. The primary undergraduate mentors of women executives were most often women.

4. The primary mentors of women in the study were older and respected in their profession.

5. Primary mentors of women executives in the study contributed to the career development of the sample, as they were very likely to have: a) supported their career choice; b) enhanced their self-confidence; c) provided them with career-related information; d) enhanced their knowledge of their professional field; e) advised them about career plans; f) encouraged them to pursue graduate degrees; g) exposed them to prominent practitioners; h) informed them of employment vacancies; and i) recommended them for fellowships and internships.

Nature of undergraduate mentoring experience

Below are listed findings that describe the nature of the under-graduate mentoring experiences of women executives in the study.

1. Mentoring relationships that developed between women executives and their undergraduate mentors were largely unplanned.

2. Women executives, overall, were not aware of their undergraduate mentoring while in college.

3. The majority of women executives encountered their primary undergraduate mentor during their third year of college.

4. The mentoring relationships of the majority of women executives lasted up to three years, with a maximum length of 10 years or more years.

5. The primary reason given for the dissolution of the undergrad-uate mentoring relationships of women executives was the reloca-tion of women executives (proteges).

Influence of undergraduate mentoring

An attempt was made to assess some of the impacts of undergraduate mentoring on women executives in the study, relative to their career development as undergraduates and mentoring activities as professionals. The following are the results of that inquiry.

1. The majority of women executives mentored as undergraduates considered their mentoring experiences to be valuable.

2. The most beneficial outcomes derived from undergraduate men-toring, were increased self-esteem, and enhanced skills and

intellectual development.

3. Women executives emulated both professional and personal attributes of their primary undergraduate mentors.

4. Seventy-nine percent (41 of 52) of the sample recommended undergraduate mentoring for more women students.

5. The majority of women executives decided to mentor as professionals based upon their undergraduate mentoring experience.

6. More than three-fourths of the sample have been mentors since becoming professionals.

7. Six of nine (67%) women executives who had not been mentors since becoming professionals indicated a willingness to mentor if the opportunity arose.

Conclusions

The findings of this study suggest that the undergraduate mentoring experiences of women executives conformed to many of the mentoring experiences found in the world of work reported in the literature on women and mentoring. A discussion of the similarities and dissimilarities of undergraduate mentoring of women found in this study and mentoring in the world of work are presented below.

Undergraduate mentors

The undergraduate mentors of women in the study bore resemblances to career mentors. Undergraduate mentors were older and well known professionally. Primary undergraduate mentors, not unlike career mentors, were characterized by functions that improved the career development

of women in the study and enhanced their opportunities to fulfill their professional goals. Further, the primary undergraduate mentors of the sample, being primarily campus-based, were in the position to observe and offer appropriate guidance to women in the study, as is done by mentors in work settings.

Additionally, the college campus proved to be fertile ground for students seeking role models and mentors. Women executives found their most influential undergraduate mentors on college campuses, confirming findings presented in the literature on the suitability of the college environment to the development of mentoring alliances between students and college personnel (Almquist & Angrist, 1971; Erkut & Mokros, 1984).

In the comparison of undergraduate mentors of women in the study with findings in the literature, two dissimilarities were found. In the studies of Almquist and Angrist (1971) on career-salient and noncareer-salient undergraduate women, the authors found occupational role models and mentors to be very influential in the career development of undergraduate women. Few women executives in this study indicated that persons at work were their mentors as undergraduates.

The most striking dissimilarity in the undergraduate mentor profile was the finding that the majority of women executives in the study had undergraduate mentors who were women. The strength of this departure from the literature is intensified when it is considered that few career women have access to female mentors (Bolton, 1980; Cook, 1979; Marsicano, 1981) as is the case on college campuses also, except for traditionally female disciplines (Almquist & Angrist, 1970; Basow & Howe, 1980; Tangri,

1972). Partial explanation for this dissimilarity could be based in the finding that the three majors of the majority of the sample included the Humanities and the Behavioral Sciences, two fields traditionally concentrated with women faculty -- a situation not commonly found in the private or public sectors.

Undergraduate mentoring experience

Few similarities were found between the undergraduate mentoring experiences of the women in the study and the mentoring experiences of women reported in the literature. The only similarities found between undergraduate mentoring experiences and career experiences of women were the functions performed by the mentors and the fact that women in the study were not likely to initiate their mentoring relationships.

As for the dissimilarities, some were complete, while others were partial. The reasons for the dissolution of the mentoring relationship were completely different. The major reason for the dissolution of undergraduate mentoring relationships was the relocation of the protege, while the major reason for the dissolution of career mentoring relationships was recorded as conflict between the mentor and the protege (Easton, et al., 1982; Levinson, 1978). Other findings conformed only partially to the career mentoring model. For example, the average length of mentoring relationships (one to three years) of women executives studied conformed to the average length of career mentoring relationships. However, women executives in this study had mentoring relationships that exceeded the longest lasting career mentoring relationships of 10 years.

Influences of undergraduate mentoring

The influences of undergraduate mentoring on women executives in this study were more similar than dissimilar to the influences of career women presented in the literature, as the following will attest. According to Collins' (1983) study of professional women and their mentors, women consistently noted the building of self-confidence as a primary function of their mentors. Women executives in this study ranked increased self-esteem as the most beneficial outcome of their undergraduate mentoring.

Role modelship is central to the mentoring function. The influence of this mentoring function was corroborated by the majority of women executives in the study who emulated professional and personal attributes of their primary mentors.

Further, the value of mentoring to the professional development of women has been proffered by many researchers (Bolton, 1980; Collins, 1983; Epstein, 1975); women executives in the study concurred with this appraisal, as the majority of women executives agreed that their undergraduate mentoring experience was valuable to their development as professionals.

An unexpected finding of this study was that the undergraduate mentoring experiences of women executives appeared to reach beyond their career development as undergraduates and to affect their perception of mentoring and their disposition to mentor. Responses made by women executives in the study provided support for this thesis. According to the majority (81%) of women executives, their decision to become a mentor

was influenced, to some degree, by their undergraduate mentoring experience. Further, the decision to mentor was acted upon by 43 of 52 (82.7%) women executives. Additionally, women executives expressed the opinion that their primary undergraduate mentors were very likely to have invested time and emotion in their mentoring relationships and that the element of care and the desire to help others were inherent in the personal and professional attributes of their mentors that they most emulated. The transference of these elements of their undergraduate mentoring experience is reflected, to some degree, by the largesse of time and energy invested by 65.1% (28 of 43) of women executives who reported mentoring four or more persons.

The only dissimilarity in this area was indicated by the disclosure of the limited role undergraduate mentors played in post-undergraduate career plans of women executives. According to the literature, a primary benefit of career mentoring relationships is assistance in obtaining promotions and access to situations that will enhance the protege's marketability (Bolton, 1980), such as manager trainee programs, special projects and the like. Most women executives in the study disclosed that their primary undergraduate mentors played limited roles in assisting them to find their first professional positions after college and provided little assistance in their graduate school admission process. Explanation for this dissimilarity is believed to be based in the inherent differences between the work environment and the undergraduate environment.

Recommendations

The economic, educational and social dilemmas facing the higher education community portend the need for an accurate prediction of its future needs and the mobilization of plans and activities that will meet those needs. Remaining abreast of student needs is a primary objective of leaders in higher education. Mentoring's relationship to staff, as well as student development has been documented (Almquist & Angrist, 1975; Bolton, 1980; Epstein, 1975). Conscious of this relationship, the business community has sought to take advantage of benefits to staff development that mentoring relationships promise. Business has been successful in increasing its productivity by implementing policies and programs that promote the development of mentoring (Cook, 1979). As a result, business has enhanced the professional development and retention of employees. The compatibility of mentoring to the undergraduate environment and the teaching-learning process, together with widespread attitudes of careerism and consumerism among today's students, suggest that it would be advantageous to higher education to follow more closely the business model. There is a growing impetus toward the development of formalized mentoring experiences for students as a part of higher education's student development process. Institutions, such as Alverno and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology already have begun to use mentoring programs as a means of addressing student retention and development (see Chapter II). These institutions, not unlike business, have formulated policies and programs to promulgate mentoring alliances among and between administrators, faculty, staff and students (Hall & Sandler, 1983).

Higher education is in the position to be proactive in developing mentoring policies and programs to meet the needs of substantial numbers of present and future student populations, especially women students aspiring to careers. The proof of the effectiveness of such a venture depends upon: 1) how well the need for information, programs and activities about mentoring's benefits are assessed, planned, marketed and executed; and 2) whether the outcome of constant and intense research regarding women and mentoring, in the future, is sufficient to generate a sorely needed taxonomy and data necessary for the higher education community to develop efficacious strategies for maintaining the present enrollment status of women students.

The need for more research on women and mentoring has been documented (Collins, 1983; Hepner & Faaborg, 1979). Clearly, women will continue to pursue careers (Ames & Heide, 1982). Hence, the direction for future research is not so much whether women will work, but of the women who will work, what are the determining factors that cause some women to pursue careers rather than just jobs (Almquist & Angrist, 1970).

Angrist and Almquist (1975), over a decade ago in Careers and Contingencies, laid the groundwork for future investigations of career-salience among women undergraduates. These investigators confirmed the importance of role models and mentors, both campus-based and noncampus-based, to the development of career aspirations among women undergraduates. The replication and/or continuation of the research initiated by Angrist and Almquist (1975) would add to the body of knowledge about a minimally researched topic and provide useful data for the higher education community.

This investigator concurs with the pronouncements of the researchers cited above and adds the recommendation that more research be focused on assessing, identifying and classifying the career development needs of women undergraduates. Particular attention should be placed on how undergraduate women cope with the stresses involved in the decision to pursue a career and the impact of that decision on childbearing and marriage plans; how women in traditionally male-dominated courses of study, combat the sexist attitudes of instructors, classmates and advisors (Tangri, 1972) and whether the dissemination of relevant career development theory and practice via increased programming and activities, influences the career development of significant numbers of women students.

Further, the establishment of a taxonomy that would standardize the research conducted about mentoring is needed. From the literature presented in this study, it is clear that research concerning mentoring lacks a nomenclature. There is a need for those engaged in research regarding women and mentoring to define, describe and classify the terminology and experiences germane to the mentoring process, as a means of standardizing future research.

Hence, based upon the findings of this study and the review of current literature, it is recommended that more higher educaiton institutions implement policies, augmented by programs, to promote the development of mentoring among its constituencies (students, especially women students, faculty and staff) by:

1. Researching mentoring programs at other institutions, investigating purposes, objectives and outcomes.

2. Educating faculty and staff about mentoring and the role it can play in the development of students with whom they come in contact.

3. Recommending that major departments develop plans suited to their subject area that will enhance more student-faculty inter-action.

4. Promoting the development of student programs that will educate students in the role that undergraduate mentors can play in their career development.

5. Maintaining faculty and staff that can draw students to the institution.

6. Diversifying faculty, staff and administration to closely re-flect the gender and racial composition of the student body.

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Friends made in Ames who have, in addition to supporting me, cultivated and nurtured new perspectives.

OM. j'ai guru.

APPENDIX A: PERMIT TO CONDUCT RESEARCH FROM

HUMAN SUBJECTS IN RESEARCH COMMITTEE

OF IOWA STATE UNIVERSITY

INFORMATION ON THE USE OF HUMAN SUBJECTS IN RESEARCH
IOWA STATE UNIVERSITY
(Please follow the accompanying instructions for completing this form.)

1. Title of project (please type): <u>Perspectives of Executive Women in</u>
<u>Industry and Academe of the Mentoring Experiences of Under-</u>
<u>Women: A Retrospective</u>

2. I agree to provide the proper surveillance of this project to insure that the rights and welfare of the human subjects are properly protected. Additions to or changes in procedures affecting the subjects after the project has been approved will be submitted to the committee for review.

<u>   Brenda J. Greene   </u>   <u>4/17/86</u> ‾ _Brenda J. Greene_
Typed Named of Principal Investigator   Date   Signature of Principal Investigator

<u>   6165 Buchanan Hall   </u>   <u>294-5871   </u>
Campus Address   Campus Telephone

3. Signatures of others (if any)   Date   Relationship to Principal Investigator
                                      4/17/86 Major Professor

4. ATTACH an additional page(s) (A) describing your proposed research and (B) the subjects to be used, (C) indicating any risks or discomforts to the subjects, and (D) covering any topics checked below. CHECK all boxes applicable.

- ☐ Medical clearance necessary before subjects can participate
- ☐ Samples (blood, tissue, etc.) from subjects
- ☐ Administration of substances (foods, drugs, etc.) to subjects
- ☐ Physical exercise or conditioning for subjects
- ☐ Deception of subjects
- ☐ Subjects under 14 years of age and(or) ☐ Subjects 14-17 years of age
- ☐ Subjects in institutions
- ☐ Research must be approved by another institution or agency

(stamp: RECEIVED APR 22 '86 GRADUATE COLLEGE ISU)
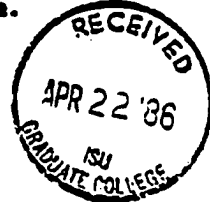
5. ATTACH an example of the material to be used to obtain informed consent and CHECK which type will be used.

- ☐ Signed informed consent will be obtained.
- ☐ Modified informed consent will be obtained.

6. Anticipated date on which subjects will be first contacted: Month 4 Day 27 Year 86

Anticipated date for last contact with subjects: 5 11 86

7. If Applicable: Anticipated date on which audio or visual tapes will be erased and(or) identifiers will be removed from completed survey instruments:

                                      Month Day Year

8. Signature of Head or Chairperson   Date   Department or Administrative Unit
                                      4/22/86   Professional Studies/Educ

9. Decision of the University Committee on the Use of Human Subjects in Research:

- ☐ Project Approved   ☐ Project not approved   ☐ No action required

George G. Karas
Name of Committee Chairperson   Date   Signature of Committee Chairperson

APPENDIX B: COVER LETTER SENT TO

WOMEN ADMINISTRATORS FOR

PRETESTING OF QUESTIONNAIRE

6165 Buchanan Hall
Iowa State University
Ames, Iowa 50013

Dear

Attached is a copy of the instrument that I am proposing to use in my dissertation research. A reliable strategy to avoid receiving useless data from respondents is to pretest the instrument with persons representative of the population you plan to sample, prior to the actual administration. One population to be included in my research includes women administrators in higher education like yourself. For this reason I am soliciting your assistance in the pretesting of my questionnaire.

Please feel free to make notes at the point(s) of confusion directly on the questionnaire. Any suggestions as to how I might improve the readability or understanding of the material are welcomed. It is estimated that the completion of the instrument will take approximately twenty minutes out of your busy schedule. You can return the questionnaire to me through campus mail at the above address. I also hope to make follow-up calls or visitations as well, if your schedule allows. I have made plans to make my first mailing in the first week of May, I would appreciate your promptest possible reply. A copy of my letter of transmittal has been enclosed in order to give you an idea of the focus of my research.

Please accept my sincere thanks for the time and effort expended in my behalf.

Sincerely

Brenda J. Greene
Doctoral Candidate
Professional Studies/Higher Education

APPENDIX C: COVER LETTER THAT ACCOMPANIED

SURVEYS SENT TO WOMEN EXECUTIVES

IOWA STATE
UNIVERSITY

Dear Madam:

In the last decade much attention has been focused on the rela-
tionship between mentoring and career advancement. As more women
plan careers in administration and management, interest in the
usefulness of mentoring relationships to women's career develop-
ment has increased. However, little research has been conducted
to ascertain the role of mentoring in women's career development
at the undergraduate level. Consequently, the focus of my doc-
toral study at Iowa State University is to collect and analyze
information about the mentoring of women at the undergraduate
level.

My commitment to this investigation stems largely from a strong
belief in the role that institutional programming and policy-
making at the undergraduate level can play in the career develop
ment of women. Believing that women who have advanced to manage-
ment positions can shed considerable light on the importance of
mentoring to their career development, I have chosen to consult
with women in the private and public sectors about their under-
graduate experiences of mentoring. Hence, the purpose of this
letter is to request your assistance in providing data for my
research. Please complete this questionnaire and return it to me
within 10 days. The questionnaire takes approximately 15 minutes
to complete. Postage for the questionnaire is prepaid, all you
need do is tape it and drop it in a mailbox.

You may be assured of complete confidentiality of all information.
The questionnaire has an identification number only for the pur-
pose of record keeping. Upon receipt of every returned question-
naire, all identification numbers will be expunged.

Your cooperation in this study of an issue important to women's
future development is deeply appreciated, and I wish to thank you
for your assistance. If you are interested in receiving copies of
the results of this study, please check the appropriate box pro-
vided at the top left corner of the first page of the question-
naire.

Sincerely,

Brenda J. Greene
Doctoral Candidate
Professional Studies/Higher Education

APPENDIX D: QUESTIONNAIRE SENT TO

WOMEN EXECUTIVES

We are interested in what you think

College Women and Mentoring

A study of executive
women's remembrances
of undergraduate mentoring

IOWA STATE UNIVERSITY

Dear Madam:

In the last decade much attention has been focused on the rela-
tionship between mentoring and career advancement. As more women
plan careers in administration and management, interest in the
usefulness of mentoring relationships to women's career develop-
ment has increased. However, little research has been conducted
to ascertain the role of mentoring in women's career development
at the undergraduate level. Consequently, the focus of my doc-
toral study at Iowa State University is to collect and analyze
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belief in the role that institutional programming and policy-
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ment positions can shed considerable light on the importance of
mentoring to their career development, I have chosen to consult
with women in the private and public sectors about their under-
graduate experiences of mentoring. Hence, the purpose of this
letter is to request your assistance in providing data for my
research. Please complete this questionnaire and return it to me
within 10 days. The questionnaire takes approximately 15 minutes
to complete. Postage for the questionnaire is prepaid, all you
need do is tape it and drop it in a mailbox.

You may be assured of complete confidentiality of all information.
The questionnaire has an identification number only for the pur-
pose of record keeping. Upon receipt of every returned question-
naire, all identification numbers will be expunged.

Your cooperation in this study of an issue important to women's
future development is deeply appreciated, and I wish to thank you
for your assistance. If you are interested in receiving copies of
the results of this study, please check the appropriate box pro-
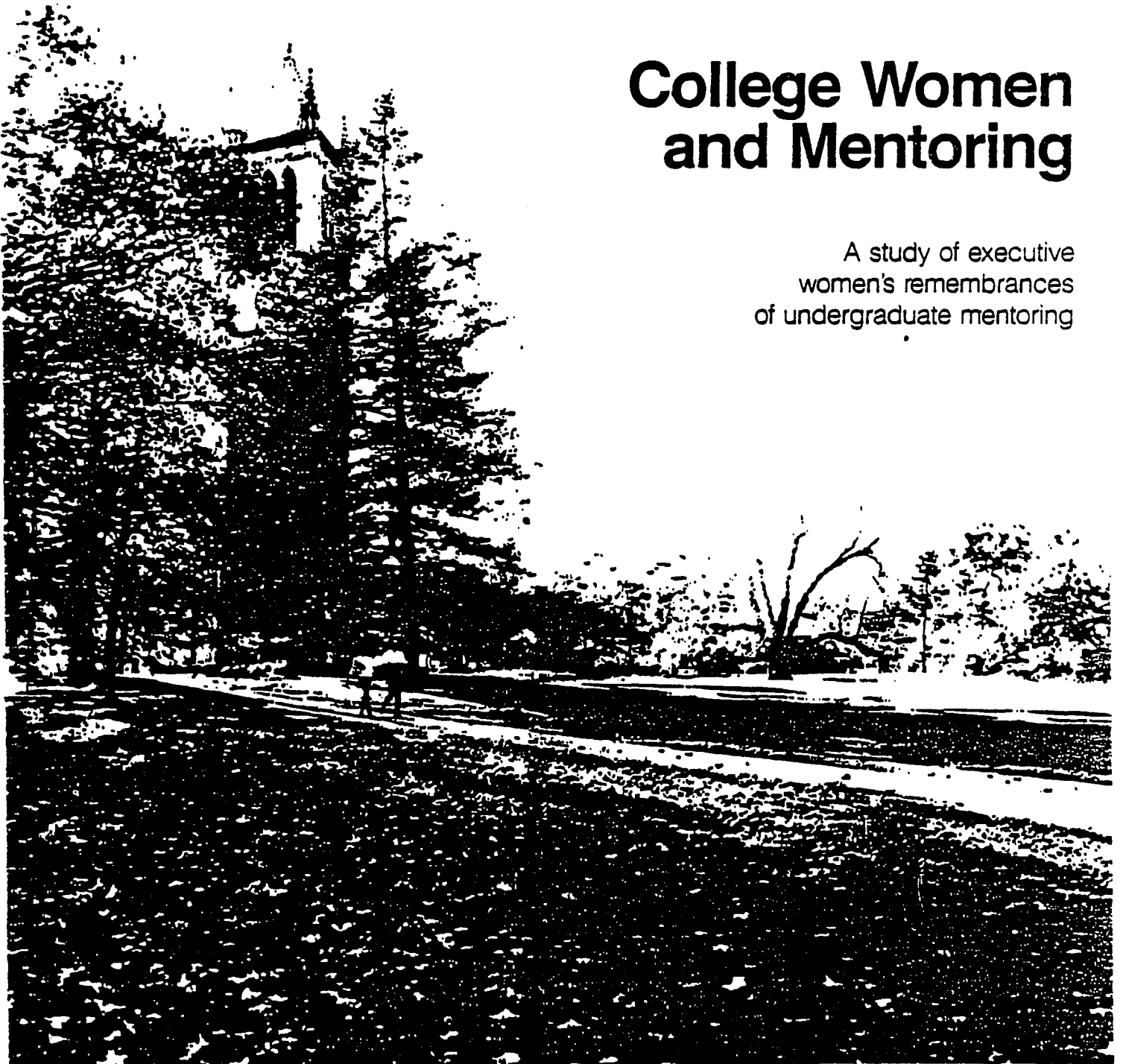vided at the top left corner of the first page of the question-
naire.

Sincerely,

Brenda J. Greene
Doctoral Candidate
Professional Studies/Higher Education

SECTION 1: GENERAL INFORMATION

DIRECTIONS: Please answer the following questions about yourself by filling in the information or by circling the appropriate category.

1. What is the highest degree that you have earned? Circle number.

    1) Associate Degree
    2) Baccalaureate Degree
    3) Masters Degree
    4) Doctoral Degree
    5) Other(specify)_____

2. Which of the following academic programs includes your undergraduate major? Circle number.

    1) Hard Sciences(Math,Physics,etc.)
    2) Humanities(English,Fine Arts,etc.)
    3) Education
    4) Behavioral Sciences(Psychology, etc.)
    5) Pre-Profesional(Pre-Law,etc.)
    6) Business(Accounting,Public Administration)
    7) Other(specify)_____

3. Which of the following academic programs includes your graduate major? Circle number.

    1) Hard Sciences
    2) Humnaities
    3) Education
    4) Behavioral Sciences
    5) Professional (Law School,Medical School)
    6) Business
    7) Other(specify)_____

4. From which institution did you receive your undergraduate degree?

    _____

5. Which of the following time periods includes the years you were an undergraduate? Circle number.

    1) 1940-49
    2) 1950-59
    3) 1960-69
    4) 1970-79
    5) Other(specify)_____

6. At what age did you graduate from undergraduate school?

    1) 20 or under
    2) 21-22
    3) 23-24
    4) 25-26
    5) Over 26

7. Which of the following best represents your present employment category? Circle number.

    1) Industry
    2) Education
    3) Self-employed
    4) Private business
    5) Government(local/state/federal)
    6) Other(specify)_____

8. How would you describe your first professional position obtained after graduating from undergraduate school? Circle number.

    1) Reported to entry level management(first line supervisor/department executive officer)
    2) Entered at entry level management
    3) Entered at middle management level
    4) Entered at top management level

9. How would you describe your present position? Circle number.

    1) Entry level management(Supervisor/Administrative Assistant)
    2) Middle management(General Supervisor/Dean)
    3) Top management(Vice President/President)

10. How long did it take you to advance from your first professional position following your college graduation to your present position? Circle number.

    1) Less than five years
    2) 5-10 years
    3) 11-15 years
    4) 16-20 years
    5) More than twenty years

11. What was your overall grade point average as an undergraduate?

    1) 4.00-3.67 = A
    2) 3.33-2.67 = B
    3) 2.33-1.67 = C

12. What was your undergraduate grade point average in your major?

    1) 4.00-3.67 = A
    2) 3.33-2.67 = B
    3) 2.33-1.67 = C

13. If your career was interrupted, which of the following best represents your reason? Circle number.

    1) Got married
    2) Had child(ren)
    3) Returned to school
    4) Other(specify)_____

14. What is your present marital status?

      1) Never married
      2) Married
      3) Separated
      4) Divorced
      5) Widowed

SECTION 2: UNDERGRADUATE MENTORS

DIRECTIONS: A major goal of this study is to gather some basic information about undergraduate mentors. This section will help us accomplish this goal. Please answer the following questions based on the definition of mentor provided below.

A MENTOR IS A PERSON WITH GREATER RANK OR EXPERIENCE WHO TAKES A PERSONAL INTEREST IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF A PERSON WITH LESS RANK OR EXPERIENCE, AND PERFORMS ADVISING, COUNSELING, TEACHING, SPONSORING, COACHING, GUIDING OR ROLE MODELING.

15. Did you have a mentor during your undergraduate years?

      1) Yes
      2) No ------> IF NO, PLEASE SKIP TO PAGE 10
                   AND ANSWER QUESTIONS 50-55.

16. As an undergraduate how many mentors did you have? Circle number.

      1) 1
      2) 2
      3) 3
      4) 4 or more

17. What was the gender of your mentor(s) as an undergraduate?

      1) All men
      2) All women
      3) Mostly men
      4) Mostly women
      5) Women and men equally

18. Using the categories provided below, please rank your mentor(s) in descending order. The number 1 should represent your MOST INFLUENTIAL MENTOR. Place the appropriate number on the lines provided.

      ____1) Female friend
      ____2) Male friend
      ____3) Relative(specify)_____
      ____4) Person at work(summer job/internship)
      ____5) College staff person(advisor/counselor)
      ____6) School teacher(junior/senior high,etc.)
      ____7) Community member
      ____8) College professor
      ____9) Other(specify)_____

19. What was the gender of your most influential undergraduate mentor?

                1) Male
                2) Female

20. Was your most influential UNDERGRADUATE mentor well-known and respected in his/her profession? Circle number.

                1) Yes
                2) No

21. Was your most influential UNDERGRADUATE mentor older than you?

                1) Yes
                2) No

DIRECTIONS: To complete the next group of questions, use the mentor ranked NUMBER 1 in question 18 as your guide. Circle the number in a position from one to seven to indicate how likely it was for your MOST INFLUENTIAL UNDERGRADUATE MENTOR to perform each of the following functions in your regard.

	not likely				very likely		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

22. MY MOST INFLUENTIAL UNDERGRADUATE MENTOR:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1) supported my choice of career.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2) enhanced my self-confidence.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3) provided me with career-related information.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4) encouraged me to attend graduate or professional school.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5) exposed me to prominent practitioners in my field.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6) informed me of employment vacancies.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7) enhanced my practical knowledge of my field.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8) recommended me for fellowships or internships.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9) advised me about career choice or graduate school.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION 3: NATURE OF UNDERGRADUATE MENTORING EXPERIENCE

DIRECTIONS: Another goal of this study is to investigate aspects of undergraduate mentoring. Please use the mentor whom you ranked as your most influential undergraduate mentor as the model for answering the following questions.

23. How was your undergraduate mentoring relationship initiated?

> 1) You selected your mentor.
> 2) Your mentor selected   you.
> 3) You 'fell into' the relationship.

24. Did you realize that you were being mentored while you were an undergraduate?

> 1) Yes
> 2) No

25. When did you encounter your most influential UNDERGRADUATE mentor?

> 1) Prior to entering college
> 2) First year of college
> 3) Second year of college
> 4) Third year of college
> 5) Fourth year of college
> 6) Fifth year of college

26. How long did your mentoring relationship with your most influential UNDERGRADUATE mentor last? Circle number.

> 1) Less than one year
> 2) 1-3 years
> 3) 4-6 years
> 4) 7-9 years
> 5) 10 years
> 6) More than 10 years

27. Did your relationship with your most influential UNDERGRADUATE mentor end? Circle number.

> 1) Yes
> 2) No

28. If your relationship with your most influential UNDERGRADUATE mentor ended, which of the following best describes the reason?

> 1) Mentor relocated
> 2) You relocated
> 3) You changed majors
> 4) Conflict
> 5) Mentor died
> 6) Other (specify)_____

DIRECTIONS: To complete this group of questions about your most in-
fluential UNDERGRADUATE mentor, please circle the number in a position
from one to seven to indicate the degree to which each statement cha-
racterized your most influential mentor.

	never		usually			always	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

29. MY MOST INFLUENTIAL UNDERGRADUATE MENTOR:

1) invested time and emotion in the
relationship. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2) acted as my tutor. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3) was my role model. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4) acted as my advocate with
influential people and groups. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5) acted as my protector in poten-
tially threatening school and
career-related situations. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6) exposed me to practitioners in
my prospective profession. 1 2 3 4 . 5 6 7

7) gave me feedback concerning
my progress. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8) informed me of trends in my
prospective profession. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

9) gave me moral support. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

10) encouraged me to pursue
opportunities that would
improve my professional
marketability. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

SECTION 4: INFLUENCE OF UNDERGRADUATE MENTORING

DIRECTIONS: This final section is concerned with the influence of
your undergraduate mentoring experience   on your professional de-
velopment. Please use the relationship with your most influential UN-
DERGRADUATE mentor as the guide for answering the following group of
questions.

30. How valuable was your UNDERGRADUATE mentoring experience to your development as a professional? Circle number.

       1) Very valuable
       2) Moderately valuable
       3) Of limited value
       4) No value

31. Listed below are some positive outcomes of mentoring relationships. Please rank from 1 to 5 those outcomes you gained from your undergraduate mentoring experience, based on their benefit to your career development as an undergraduate. The number 1 should represent the most beneficial outcome. Place the appropriate number on the line provided for each outcome.

      ___1) Relationship enhanced my skills and intellectual development.
      ___2) Relationship provided me with valuable insight into prospective profession.
      ___3) Relationship adequately prepared me for entry into the professional world.
      ___4) Relationship increased my self-esteem.
      ___5) Relationship provided counseling and support in times of stress.

32. Listed below are some negative outcomes of mentoring relationships. Please rank the negative experience(s), if any, you had that resulted from your undergraduate mentoring relationship. The number 1 should represent the outcome that was most detrimental to your career development. Place the appropriate number on the line provided for each outcome.

      ___1) Relationship fostered over-dependence on mentor.
      ___2) Relationship ended in conflict causing trauma for me.
      ___3) Relationship caused envy and jealousy among my peers.
      ___4) Relationship was overcontrolled by mentor.
      ___5) Relationship advanced mentor's recognition at my expense.
      ___6) Relationship became sexual to my detriment.

33. If there were PROFESSIONAL attributes of your UNDERGRADUATE mentor that you emulated, please list them.

1) _____

2) _____

3) _____

34. Are the professional attributes listed above part of your professional self? Circle number.

       1) Yes
       2) No

35. If there are PERSONAL attributes of your undergraduate mentor that you emulated, please list them.

    1) _____

    2) _____

    3) _____

36. Are the personal attributes listed above part of your personality?

       1) Yes
       2) No

37. What role, if any, did your UNDERGRADUATE mentor play in helping you acquire your first job after your college graduation?

       1) Major role
       2) Moderate role
       3) Minor role
       4) No role

Explain_____

_____

38. What role, if any, did your UNDERGRADUATE mentor play in your gaining admission to graduate/professional school? Circle number.

       1) Major role
       2) Moderate role
       3) Minor role
       4) No role

Explain_____

_____

39. Based on your UNDERGRADUATE mentoring experience, would you recommend that more women engage in mentoring relationships as undergraduates? Circle number.

       1) Yes
       2) No
       3) Undecided

Explain_____

_____

40. Since becoming a professional have you been a mentor?
       1) Yes
       2) No

41. If you have been a mentor, what role, if any, did your UNDERGRAD-
UATE mentoring experience play in your decision to be a mentor?

1) Major role
2) Moderate role
3) Minor role
4) No role

42. How many persons would you estimate that you have mentored since
becoming a professional? Circle number.

1) 1
2) 2
3) 3
4) 4 or more
5) 0

43. What has been the gender of those you have mentored? Circle number

1) All men
2) All women
3) Mostly men
4) Mostly women
5) Women and men equally

44. If you have **not** mentored, based on your UNDERGRADUATE mentoring
experience, would you be willing to be a mentor? Circle number.

1) Yes
2) No
3) Undecided

This investigator appreciates the time you have taken to complete the
questionnaire.

Postage for the questionnaire is prepaid, so all you need do is
tape it and drop it in a mailbox.

9

NOTE: Questions 50-55 are to be answered by those respondents who answered NO to question 15 on page 3 only.

50. Would you recommend that more women engage in mentoring relationships as undergraduates?

        1) Yes
        2) No
        3) Undecided

Explain_____

_____

51. Since becoming a professional have you attempted to be a mentor?

        1) Yes
        2) No

52. If you have mentored, what prompted your decision to do so?

_____

_____

53. If you have mentored, how many would you estimate that you have mentored, since becoming a professional?

        1) 1
        2) 2
        3) 3
        4) 4 or more

54. What was the gender of those you have mentored? Circle number.

        1) All men
        2) All women
        3) Mostly men
        4) Mostly women
        5) Women and men equally

55. If you have not been a mentor, would you be willing to mentor?

        1) Yes
        2) No
        3) Undecided

Explain_____

_____

This investigator appreciates the time you have taken to complete the questionnaire.

Postage for the questionnaire is prepaid, so all you need do is tape it and drop it in a mailbox.

APPENDIX E: FOLLOW-UP LETTER SENT TO

WOMEN EXECUTIVES

IOWA STATE
UNIVERSITY

August 25, 1986

Dear Madam: ·

On July 25, 1986, I sent you a survey entitled "College Women
and Mentoring". As of today, I have not received a reply from
you. If you have already completed the survey and returned it,
please disregard this request.

I am writing you because of the significance each questionnaire
has to the usefulness of this study. You are representative of a
group of women who have progressed to positions of leadership in
a very competitive environment, and your views on the relation-
ship between mentoring alliances for undergraduate women and the
impact they have on the future success of this group of women is
important. In order for the results of this study to be truly
representative of the opinions of executive women in the public
and private sectors on this issue, it is essential that each per-
son in the sample return their questionnaire.

The survey takes about fifteen minutes to complete and I realize
that this is an investment of your time and good will. I sin-
cerely hope the topic is of interest to you and that you will
take the time in your busy schedule to assist me. I am most an-
xious to receive your response and look forward to the insights
that you can provide. The information you share will of course,
be held in STRICTEST CONFIDENCE. In the event that your
questionnaire has been misplaced, a replacement is enclosed.

Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Brenda J. Greene
Doctoral Candidate

APPENDIX F: TALLY AND RESPONSES

TO ITEM NUMBER 33

Tally and Responses to Item Number 33

#33 List professional attributes of mentor you emulate.

1.	Poise	2	Integrity	1
2.	Listening skills	3	Intellectualism	1
3.	Assertiveness	2	Continuous travel	1
4.	Independence	3	Self-confidence	3
5.	Sense of humor	2	Spirit of adventure	1
6.	Professionalism	4	Managerial skills	3
7.	Humanism	1	Leadership skills	1
8.	Civic commitment	1	Problem-solving skills	1
9.	Diligence	1	Customer Service	1
10.	Competence	1	Decision-making	1
11.	Dependability	1	Public speaking	1
12.	Education	1	Knowledge of subject	1
13.	Be a mentor	1	Style of dress	1
14.	Visibility	1	Teaching approach	1
15.	Fairness	1	Knowledge about career	1
16.	Curiosity	1	Positive reinforcement	1
17.	Inventiveness	1	Praise for job well done	1
18.	Creativity	1	Fun in work	1
19.	Goal-setting	1	Time management skills	1
20.	Personal strength	1	Importance of reading	1
21.	Faith in God	1	Knowing what works	1
22.	Style	1	Assisting others	1
23.	Dealing with peers	1	Inspired to go professional	1

24. Perceptiveness in dealing with people   1
25. Continuous education and training   1
26. Caring and concern for others   5
27. Well roundedness/diverse interests   1
28. Involvement in professional associations   1
29. Recognition of commitment needed for success   1
30. Appreciation of subordinates' work   1
31. Willingness to make decisions for good of all you serve 1
32. Never be afraid to teach someone else how to do your job 1
33. Internalization of the scientific method   1
34. Role model as professional   1
35. Correct student-teacher relationship   1
36. Follow in same field of study   1
37. Met business acquaintances well   1

APPENDIX G: TALLY AND RESPONSES

TO ITEM NUMBER 35

Tally and Responses to Item Number 35

#35 List personal attributes of mentor you emulate.

1.	Intelligence	3	Outspokenness	1
2.	Philosophical	1	Listening skills	2
3.	Problem-solving	3	Flexibility	1
4.	Sense of humor	3	Positive attitude	2
5.	Kindness	2	Enthusiasm	3
6.	Sensitivity	1	Fairness	1
7.	Sincerity	1	Caring	1
8.	Patience	1	Supportiveness	1
9.	Dedication	1	Relaxation	1
10.	Extraordinary energy	2	Big picture viewpoint	2
11.	Organizational skills	1	Accepting of others	2
12.	Love of family	1	Desire to help others	4
13.	Strong character	1	Interested in individuals	2
14.	Self-sufficiency	1	Service to others	1
15.	Social consciousness	1	Advocate for less fortunate	1
16.	Fun-loving attitude	1	Personal interest in students	1
17.	Intellectual curiosity	1	Professional preparedness	1
18.	Cultural interests	1	Sharing knowledge	1
19.	Career knowledge	1	Positive reinforcement	1
20.	Professional grooming	1	Philosophy of life	1
21.	Friendly personality	1	Praise for job well done	1
22.	Professional dress	1		
23.	Personal strength	1		
24.	Ability to accept reality	1		

APPENDIX H: EDUCATIONAL DEMOGRAPHICS

OF THE SAMPLE

Table H1. Type of undergraduate institution attended by women executives

Type of Institution	N	Percent
University	30	60.0
College	17	34.0
Community college	2	4.0
Institute of technology	1	2.0
TOTAL	50	100.0

Table H2. College matriculation period of women executives

Period	N	Percent
1940-1949	3	6.0
1950-1959	10	19.2
1960-1969	15	28.8
1970-1979	12	23.0
Other	12	23.0
TOTAL	52	100.0

Table H3. Undergraduate majors of women executives

Major	N	Percent
Business	9	18.0
Humanities	16	31.0
Education	9	18.0
Behavioral sciences	14	27.0
Hard sciences	3	6.0
TOTAL	51	100.0

Table H4. Age at college graduation of women executives

Age	N	Percent
20 or under	2	4.0
21 - 22	37	71.0
23 - 24	2	4.0
25 - 26	1	2.0
Over 26	10	19.3
TOTAL	52	100.0

Table H5. Overall college GPA of women executives

GPA	N	Percent
4.00 - 3.67 = A	15	29.0
3.33 - 2.67 = B	33	63.0
2.33 - 1.67 = C	4	8.0
TOTAL	52	100.0

Table H6. Highest earned degree of women executives

Degree	N	Percent
Associate	4	7.7
Bachelor	18	34.6
Masters	18	34.6
Doctorate	11	21.2
Other (not specified)	1	2.0
TOTAL	52	100.0

APPENDIX I: EMPLOYMENT DEMOGRAPHICS

OF THE SAMPLE

Table I1. Employment level of the first job of women executives after graduation from college

Level	N	Percent
Below entry level	28	58.0
Entry level	13	27.0
Mid-management	4	8.0
Top management	3	7.0
TOTAL	48	100.0

Table I2. Advancement of women executives in years

Years	N	Percent
Less than 5 years	15	29.0
5 - 10 years	12	23.0
11 - 15 years	8	16.0
16 - 20 years	7	14.0
More than 20 years	9	18.0
TOTAL	51	100.0

Table I3. Present management level of women executives

Level	N	Percent
Entry	7	13.7
Middle	26	51.0
Top	18	35.3
TOTAL	51	100.0

Table I4. Marital status of women executives

Status	N	Percent
Never married	14	27.0
Married	25	48.0
Separated	1	2.0
Divorced	12	23.0
TOTAL	52	100.0

Table I5. Reasons for career interruptions for women executives

Reasons	N	Percent
1. Marriage	1	3.3
2. Childbearring	14	46.7
3. Returned to school	4	13.3
4. Marriage and childbearing	5	16.7
5. Combination of 1-3 above	1	3.3
6. Changed career	2	6.7
7. Childbearing and returned to school	1	3.3
8. Other	2	6.7
TOTAL	30	100.0

APPENDIX J: REASONS FOR DISSOLUTION
OF PRIMARY UNDERGRADUATE RELATIONSHIP

Table J. Reasons for dissolution of primary undergraduate mentoring relationships of women executives

Reason	N	Percent
Mentor relocated	5	14.3
You relocated	21	60.0
You changed schools	1	2.8
Mentor died	3	8.6
Other	5	14.3
TOTAL	35	100.0

APPENDIX K: EMULATED ATTRIBUTES OF

PRIMARY UNDERGRADUATE MENTORS

Table K1. Tally of personal attributes of primary undergraduate mentors emulated by women executives

Attribute	N
Desire to help others	4
Intelligence	3
Problem-solving skills	3
Sense of humor	3
Enthusiasm	3
Kindness	2
Extraordinary energy	2
Listening skills	2
Positive attitude	2
Acceptance of others	2
Interest in the individual	2
Ability to always see the big picture	2
TOTAL	30

Table K2. Tally of professional attributes of primary undergraduate mentors emulated by women executives

Attribute	N
Caring and concern for others	5
Professionalism	4
Listening skills	3
Independence	3
Self-confidence	3
Managerial skills	3
Poise	2
Assertiveness	2
Sense of humor	2
TOTAL	27

APPENDIX L: RESPONSES AND EXPLANATIONS OF

RECOMMENDATIONS OF MORE UNDERGRADUATE

MENTORING FOR WOMEN

Table L. Tally of responses to whether women executives would recommend
mentoring relationships for more women undergraduates

Response/explanations	N
Yes	
Would have liked mentoring relationship in college	3
Could be valuable source of information	2
Guidance and experience would have helped my direction greatly	1
Would be advantageous to reach higher goals in business world and to become more knowledgeable and educated	1
Would be good to have someone give support and encouragement throughout college; definitely times when you need someone older and more experienced	1
It can help so much to know someone is interested in you	1
Sharing experience is very valuable and encouraging	1
Most undergraduates are confused about where to go what to do (I was) they could use some advice	1
Too many young women don't have direction when they first arrive at school	1
Female friendships of all ages need to be established as an ongoing value in life's activities	1
It sure would have helped in the 50s when I was pursuing a hard science major and had no other women in some of my classes	1
There is always a need for a leader	1
Having a mentor at that stage could have opened many possibilities to me at an earlier age	1
Fraught with pitfalls, however, objectivity is important too	1
Others say it has been invaluable	1
Good for guidance and example setting	1
Gives a better understanding of work toward a goal	1
Some women need guidance as to subjects for their career	1
To provide role models	1
It's helpful for anyone to be willing to assist other students and professionals in their development	1

APPENDIX M: ROLE OF UNDERGRADUATE MENTORING IN

THE DECISION OF WOMEN EXECUTIVES TO

MENTOR AS PROFESSIONALS

Table M. Role of undergraduate mentoring in the decision of women executives to mentor as professionals

Role	N	Percent
Major role	13	30.2
Moderate role	13	30.2
Minor role	9	20.9
No role	8	18.6
TOTAL	43	100.0

APPENDIX N: REASONS FOR WOMEN EXECUTIVES'

WILLINGNESS TO MENTOR AS PROFESSIONALS

Table N. Tally of responses to women executives' willingness to mentor as professionals by women executives who were not mentored as undergraduates and who had not mentored professionally

Response/explanation	N
<u>Yes</u>	
I would be glad to share my experience and knowledge with others	1
Advice and leadership would have been of assistance to me	1
Guidance is always helpful	1
My maturity and varied background would help me as a mentor	1
Important to support and encourage women as much as possible. Mentoring however not easy and the development of mentoring relationships takes time and the right dynamics	1
I'm still learning. I look forward to the time when I can help other young people get started in this field	1
If I could provide encouragement to another, perhaps guidance, I would	1
I would like to share my experience with another person	2
<u>No</u>	
Not in a formal sense	1
Would prefer to be a resource person for many who take initiative to contact me rather than 'sponsor' only one or a few	1
<u>Undecided</u>	
A relationship is difficult to work if on an exclusive basis	1
Might be a challenge and something to try before retirement	1
Unsure if the experience would be useful	1
Would have to have a personal relationship	1

APPENDIX O. NUMBER OF UNDERGRADUATE

MENTORS OF WOMEN EXECUTIVES

Table O. Number of undergraduate mentors of women executives

Number	N	Percent
1	18	34.6
2	21	40.4
3	6	11.5
4 or more	7	13.5
TOTAL	52	100.0

Mean = 2.038
Standard deviation = 1.009