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The role that mentors play in women's work life balance

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THE ROLE THAT MENTORS PLAY IN WOMEN'S WORK LIFE BALANCE

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction

of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership

by

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August, 2014

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This dissertation, written by

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my family. Their support, trust, and encouragement made this journey possible. Dr. Timothy Capron, my husband, encouraged me to complete this degree for many years and always respected the "cone of silence" as I struggled to write. My parents, Carl and Thelma Allison, both went to be with the Lord in 2013; however, I continue to feel their unswerving confidence in my ability to take any hill. My three children, their spouses, and my eight grandchildren always believed that Ge-Ge could do it! My sister, Cathy Allison Johnson, brother-in-law, Barry, niece, Kristy, and nephew-in-law, Travis, continued to send encouraging words, just when I needed them. Finally, my Grandmother Allison was an early pioneer for women's leadership and modeled the tenacity with which I have been blessed.

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VITA

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AWARDS

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PROFESSIONAL POSITIONS

William Jessup University, Rocklin, CA Chief Strategic Officer Member of the University Executive Team. Reporting to the University President and responsible for strategic planning, Marketing and Branding, Human Resource, and Institutional Research Departments.	2014-Present
Associate Provost, Strategic Planning Member of the Executive Team. Responsible for Human Resources, Institutional Research, and Academic budgeting and planning. Continued to teach business courses including Marketing and International Business.	2013-2014
Associate Dean, Budget and Planning Associate Professor – Business Administration Department Responsible for budget planning and implementation for academics. Member of the Provost's Leadership Team and the President's Cabinet and Council. Continue to teach Marketing,	2011-2013

Management Information Systems, Strategic Management and International Business. Created a Marketing the Non-Profit course. Led a team to develop a Bachelors of Science in Organizational Leadership.

Interim Vice President of Academic Affairs   2010-2011
Associate Professor – Business Administration Department

Responsible for the academic endeavor for the university. Position includes leadership of faculty and academic staff, academic budgeting and planning, policy development and implementation, development of growth strategies, and achieving revenue targets. Continue to teach core and elective business classes for business and public policy students. Elected as Vice Chair for academic year 10-11. Facilitated two community forums entitled "Future of Financial Markets and Future of Renewable Energy".

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Associate Professor – Business Department & Public Policy Department

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Adjunct Instructor – School of Professional Studies -Degree   2004-2011
Completion Program

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Indiana Wesleyan University
Adjunct Instructor – Online Program   2009-2011
Taught Computers and Information Processing and Strategic Management in an all online format to students throughout the country. Completed extensive three week orientation training to teach online.

Ovation Solutions, Albuquerque, NM   2005-2012
Producer
Produced multimedia presentations for high technology, medical device and non-profit management organizations. Key services include development of value proposition, storyboard for video and editing to final production.

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Managed Service Delivery Organization for Fortune 500
enterprise customers in a hosted "software as a service" model.
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Managed a western area consultant group focusing on Sales,
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PC Support Inc., Albuquerque, NM
Director of Operations   1995-1997
Responsible for company-wide operations. Business unites
included computer service consulting and computer training.
Professional Services Manager
Supported company's largest customer with over 55 technical
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Department of Army and Department of Energy
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Information Management Fellow
Developed, authored, and staffed the 30 year Army wide Long
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Personnel Security Program Manager
Responsible for the 70 person organization that granted security
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PUBLICATIONS, PRESENTATIONS AND PAPERS

- "Authentic Leadership: William Jessup University Chapel Speaker, Rocklin, CA 2014
- "Marketing Your Business", Session speaker Yolo County Small Business Resource Summit, 2013
- "China: A Study in Contrast", Creator of lecture concept and hosted event, 2013
- "Marketing the Non-Profit- Good Marketing is Good Mission", Speaker National Association of Business Administrators local meeting, 2012
- "Educating the Next Generation of Women Leaders", Speaker at Northern California Women's Conference, 2011
- Capron, Rhonda A., updated Instructor Manual for new edition of International Business text, Pearson Education, 2010.
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- "Outsourcing can provide Innovation and Information On Demand" Guest speaker at the Gartner Conference on Outsourcing , Los Angeles, CA 2005
- Capron, Rhonda A. (with T. Capron). Computer Security: Piracy. Police Computer Review, Vol. 2, No. 1, 1993
- Capron, Rhonda A. (with T. Capron). Computer Security 101. Police Computer Review, Vol. 1, No. 3, 1992

LANGUAGES

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ABSTRACT

Organizational leaders need to establish policies and programs to retain quality employees.

Mentorship and work life balance positively impact organizational commitment and reduce

turnover intention. The purpose of this phenomenological, qualitative study was to explore the

role that mentors play in helping women achieve work life balance.

Two major theoretical frameworks were used as a basis of this study. Giele (2008)

identified 4 life course dimensions that contribute to an individual's behavioral system: identity,

relational style, drive and motivation, and adaptive style. Elder and Giele (2009) built on this

work and combined elements of their paradigms to link dimensions of an individual's behavioral

system and the setting where that individual functions. Kram (1988) documented 2 major

categories of mentorship functions. The first set of functions, career functions, focuses on those

aspects of the mentoring relationship that enhance career advancement. The second set of

functions, psychosocial functions, focuses on interpersonal aspects of the relationship.

The research questions focused on how the presence of a mentor in the workplace

impacted women's experiences and enabled them to meet the challenges of work life balance.

The research questions explored how having a mentor while dealing with the challenges of work

life balance impacted the 17 participants' perceptions of organizational commitment and

turnover intention. The researcher also investigated how mentorship functions differed based on

the characteristics of the mentor relationship.

This researcher gathered the data by sending an online survey to 80 women who had

previously participated in the Digital Women's Project (Weber, 2011). Data were coded based

on a priori lists that were developed from the theoretical frameworks and the literature. Themes

were established and utilized to develop findings for each research question.

Nine out of 17 participants had a mentor who aided her with work life balance. Women who had a mentor experienced all 4 life course dimensions. Both mentoring and work life balance positively impacted the participants' organizational commitment and reduced their turnover intention. The participants experienced almost exclusively positive mentorship outcomes. In light of these findings, organizational leaders can develop policies and programs to encourage mentorship and aid employees with work life balance, thus increasing retention.

Chapter 1: Introduction of the Study

Organizational leaders seek to retain quality employees, recognizing that specific programs and policies that lead to retention can be a key part of strategic planning (Chung et al., 2010). Organizational commitment and turnover intention are two specific work related attitudes that impact retention (Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005). Researchers have investigated the connection between mentorship and these two work-related attitudes, finding that having a mentor can increase one's organizational commitment and reduce turnover intention (Wanberg, Kammeyer-Mueller, & Marchese, 2006). Researchers have also connected work life balance with increased organizational commitment and reduced turnover intention (Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005). However, few studies have been done that connect how mentorship helps individuals improve their work life balance (Nielson, Carlson, & Lankau, 2001). This study focused on the role mentors play in women's lives and the influence they have in aiding women as they strive to find work life balance.

Problem Statement

Whenever the U.S. economy improves, voluntary job turnover increases (Shah, 2014); this increase has been seen in past economic recoveries. During the economic prosperity that occurred in the 12 months ending in January 2005, 24% of workers left their positions, constituting a 13% increase in attrition year over year (O'Connell & Kung, 2007). In November 2013, the percentage of employees who voluntarily left their jobs hit 1.8%: the highest level since the economy started to recover from the 2008 recession (Shah, 2014). Current and past trends suggest that as the economy improves, organizations will face increased turnover. As the economy is currently on the upswing, now is the time for organizations to consider the costs of turnover and to implement strategies to retain valuable and committed employees.

Human resource managers understand the necessity of reducing voluntary turnover. They also realize that the costs associated with turnover include both direct costs of employee replacement and the indirect costs of losing experienced employees (Hillmer, Hillmer, & McRoberts, 2004). The Saratoga Institute estimates that the direct and indirect costs of losing an employee equal the employee's annual salary (O'Connell & Kung, 2007). Because of economic trends and the incurred costs of turnover, organizational leaders should understand and measure those attitudes that improve retention.

One method of predicting voluntary turnover rates is to measure turnover intention. Turnover intention has been defined as an employee's thoughts and willingness to leave an organization (Tett & Meyer, 1993). Turnover intention is impacted by an employee's commitment to the organization. Robbins and Judge (2011) defined organizational commitment as the degree to which an employee identifies with an organization and wants to maintain membership in the organization. Luchak and Gellatly (2007) examined the relationship between organizational commitment and voluntary turnover by surveying randomly selected unionized utility workers, nurses, and food services employees. The study found that increasing organizational commitment reduced intentions to leave the organization. Both organizational commitment and turnover intention are work attitudes that can be measured and influenced by organizational policies and programs.

Although a variety of factors influence organizational commitment and turnover intention, this study focused on the impact that having a mentor and successfully balancing work and life have on these two attitudes. Both having a mentor and establishing work life balance have been shown to increase organizational commitment and reduce turnover intention. Lankau and Scandura (2002) surveyed employees of a medium-sized hospital and found that the

existence of a mentoring relationship was inversely related to turnover intentions. Several additional studies support the positive relationship between formal mentor programs and increased organizational commitment and reduced turnover intentions (Donaldson, Ensher, & Grant-Vallone, 2000; Reid, Watkins Allen, Riemenschneider, & Armstrong, 2008). Studies have also identified the need for further research that investigates the impact of mentor programs on organizational commitment (Joiner, Bartram, & Garreffa, 2004; Payne & Huffman, 2005).

Another important factor that impacts an employee's organizational commitment is work life balance. In a meta-analysis review of work life balance, studies connected work life balance with increased organizational commitment and reduced turnover intention (Eby et al., 2005). Organizational leaders who are interested in improving work life balance need to determine what types of programs and strategies should be implemented and how they will monitor success (Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007). Bird (2006) reported on the increase in demand for organizational solutions to help with work life balance and tasked both the organization's administrators and the individual with developing strategies to find work life balance.

Women in particular find establishing work life balance challenging (Feyerherm & Vick, 2005). Women, who constitute 47% of the U.S. labor force, report that being a female working parent makes it harder to advance in a job or career; this difficulty impacts work life balance (Pew Research Center, 2013). Women continue to report higher levels of work life conflict based on family expectations (Eby et al., 2005). Women also report that the division of domestic duties is still tilted toward them (Grady & McCarthy, 2008). However, a longitudinal study of professionals revealed that women protégés who received career support from a mentor experienced increased career advancement (Tharenou, 2005). Existing research indicates that both mentorship and work life balance contribute to significant work related attitudes that lead to

retention. If organizational leaders are concerned about retention, they should evaluate the opportunity for mentorship and consider policies and practices that lead to work life balance.

Purpose of Research

The purpose of this phenomenological, qualitative study was to explore the role that mentors play in helping women achieve work life balance. The ultimate goal for an organization is to retain quality employees. Previous research investigated the connection between successful mentorship and increased organizational commitment and reduced turnover intention (Wanberg et al., 2006). Research has also connected work life balance with increased organizational commitment and reduced turnover intention (Eby et al., 2005). Ultimately, higher organizational commitment and lower intent to leave an organization signal higher retention. Although limited research has been done connecting mentorship with improved work life balance (Nielson et al., 2001), more research has been called for, particularly qualitative studies (Heraty, Morley, & Cleveland, 2008). Responding to this need, this researcher surveyed women to investigate their lived experiences with mentors and the impact those mentors had on aiding the participants with work life balance.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided this study:

1. How did the existence of a mentor impact women's experiences (identity, social relationships, motivation, and adaptive style) and enable them to meet the challenges of work life balance?

2. How did having a mentor impact their perceptions of organizational commitment and turnover intention?

3. How did the challenges of work life balance impact their perceptions of organizational commitment and turnover intention?

4. Did the mentorship functions experienced differ based on the characteristics of the mentor relationship?

Key Assumptions and Limitations

This study surveyed women who participated in the Digital Women's Project (Weber, 2011) concerning their experiences with a mentor; the purpose was to investigate how that mentor impacted their achievement of work life balance. The Digital Women's Project includes interviews with a widely diverse demographic population of women. These women vary in age, ethnicity, socio-economic class, geographic location, and family composition. A key assumption is that these women have a variety of experiences with mentors, have divergent levels of work life conflict, and experience differing levels of work life balance. The study was limited due to the population selected. Only women were interviewed for the initial study, and that population was surveyed for this research study. Therefore, the results may not be generalized to males facing work life balance challenges.

Only those women who were willing to complete an online survey were participants in this study. This limited participation to those with an electronic mail (email) address and sufficient computer skills to complete an online survey. The researcher assumed that the participants offered honest and accurate descriptions of their experiences. Because the study was qualitative, the population was relatively small and results may not be generalized to larger populations.

This researcher had a bias that mentorship leads to positive outcomes. Mentor relationships can lead to negative outcomes, and these negative outcomes were documented in

the literature review. To address this bias, a specific survey question was added to solicit any negative outcomes from the mentor experience.

Theoretical Framework

Giele (2008) identified four life course dimensions that contribute to an individual's behavioral system. She interviewed 48 women using a life course strategy. From a broad set of questions ranging across the women's life course, she established themes using the four life course dimensions: identity, relational style, drive and motivation, and adaptive style. Elder and Giele (2009) built on this work and combined elements of both of their paradigms to link dimensions of an individual's behavioral system and the setting where that individual functions. An individual's identity is influenced by history and culture in both time and place. Individuals are not isolated and thus have linked lives; these links establish a relational style shaped by loyalties and social circles. Individuals also develop different levels of motivation based on achievement, affiliation, and power. Finally, in studying life courses, an individual's adaptive style can be analyzed based on the timing of and adaptation to major life events. These four main dimensions were used to establish themes in this study.

In addition to the four dimensions from Giele's work, mentorship functions were used to establish themes. Kram (1988) documented two major categories of mentorship functions. The first set of functions, career functions, focuses on those aspects of the mentoring relationship that enhance career advancement; these aspects include sponsorship, exposure and visibility, coaching, protection, and challenging assignments. The second set of functions, psychosocial functions, focus on interpersonal aspects of the relationship and include role modeling, acceptance and confirmation, counseling, and friendship (Ragins & Cotton, 1999). In Appendix A, the four behavior dimensions established by Elder and Giele (2009) are mapped to the two

major categories of mentorship functions outlined by Kram (1988). These frameworks aided this researcher in establishing themes after data were collected.

Key Definitions

Organizational commitment: When an employee identifies with an organization and its goals and wants to remain a member, he or she can be described as organizationally committed (Robbins & Judge, 2011). Meyer and Allen (1991) clarified the conceptualization of organizational commitment in a three-themed approach: affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. Affective commitment is the emotional connection an employee has to the organization and its values. Continuance commitment reflects the perceived economic value an employee will receive by continuing to work in the organization. Normative commitment reflects a felt moral or ethical obligation to remain with an organization (Robbins & Judge, 2011).

Turnover intentions: Turnover intentions have been defined as an employee's thoughts about leaving the organization and his or her willingness to do so (Tett & Meyer, 1993).

Mentor: The traditional definition of mentor describes the relationship between a more senior individual aiding a younger adult. The mentor supports, guides, and counsels the younger individual (Kram, 1983). Kram (1988) recognized that the mentor relationship can be a mutually enhancing relationship with positive outcomes. Kram also recognizes the potential for a destructive mentor relationship with negative outcomes.

Formal mentor program: Organizations have implemented formal mentoring programs where mentors and protégés are selected and then participate in an organizationally supported program (Allen & O'Brien, 2006; Germain, 2011; Joiner et al., 2004).

Work life balance: Work life balance can be defined as accomplishment of role-related expectations. These expectations are negotiated with role-related partners in both the work and family domains (Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007). Earlier definitions focused on equality as a definition of balance, with both work and life equally engaged and satisfied. In literature, work life balance has been used as a noun, as a verb, and even as an adjective (Greenhaus, Collins, & Shaw, 2003).

Work life conflict: Researchers often use the definition of conflict that recognizes time devoted to one role and the strain on and specific behaviors required by that role, making it difficult to fulfill requirements in the other (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). More simply, inter-role conflict arises when role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some aspect (McMillan, Morris, & Atchley, 2011).

Work life harmony: A relatively new construct, work life harmony focuses on the opportunity to achieve a pleasing, congruent arrangement of work and life roles (McMillan et al., 2011). This concept includes the interface of conflict, enrichment, and balance interwoven into a narrative of life.

Work life interventions: Work life interventions are often associated with programs, practices, benefits, and policies that organizations provide to facilitate work life balance (McMillan et al., 2011). When flexibility, which is a work life intervention, is experienced at work, it supports commitment and increases productivity and aids in integrating work and family life (Grady & McCarthy, 2008).

Work family facilitation: Work family facilitation recognizes that participation in one role can make it easier or better to participate in another role (Van Steenbergen, Ellemers, &

Mooijaart, 2007). Other terms used interchangeably in studies include enhancement, positive

spillover, and enrichment (Powell & Greenhaus, 2010).

Significance of the Study

Organizations are seeking strategies for retaining quality employees (Chung et al., 2010).

This study investigated the potential connection between two such strategies that increase

organizational commitment and reduce turnover intention, ultimately leading to retention. These

two strategies for individuals are having a mentor and establishing work life balance. If

organizational leaders understand both the role of mentors and the impact of work life balance,

they can implement programs, policies, and strategies to impact both organizational commitment

and turnover intention, thus ultimately increasing the retention of quality employees.

Particularly interesting and seldom studied is how a mentor aids a protégé with the pursuit of

work life balance. This researcher investigated the connection between having a mentor and

establishing work life balance in order to provide organizations with additional information for

implementing these two strategies.

Organization of the Study

The research proposal contained three chapters. Chapter 4 and Chapter 5 were added to

the document once the research was completed. Chapter 1 provides an introduction to the study,

including the reason for the study and the need for additional research. The two theoretical

frameworks are introduced in this chapter. Research questions are included along with key

definitions and the limitations and assumptions. Chapter 2 includes a review of the literature

surrounding mentorship, work life balance, organizational commitment, and turnover intention.

Chapter 3 outlines the research methodology, addressing the study design and implementation

procedures. Chapter 4 outlines the data analysis and findings from the study, and conclusions

and recommendations are included in Chapter 5.

Chapter 2: Review of the Literature

The focus of this literature review was primarily the literature surrounding mentorship and secondarily studies that investigate work life balance. This researcher investigated the connection between mentorship and work life balance in the lives of women. In addition to that connection, the review considered two work attitudes that are outcomes of mentorship and work life balance. Both organizational commitment and turnover intention are workplace attitudes that are influenced by mentorship and work life balance. Ultimately, increased organizational commitment and reduced turnover intention lead to retention of quality employees, which is of interest to organizational leaders (Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005). Research studies show the connection between mentorship and increased organizational commitment and reduced turnover intention (Wanberg et al., 2006). Studies have also connected work life balance with increased organizational commitment and reduced turnover intention (Eby et al., 2005). However, little research has been done that studies the impact of mentorship on work life balance.

Mentorship as a concept has been in existence since Greek mythology but was brought into the work context in the 1980s by Kathy Kram (1988), who outlined the functions of mentorship and published the framework that was used to analyze the data in this study. Outcomes of mentorship, which have been widely documented, are outlined in Table 1. Although positive outcomes are well documented, negative experiences can also result from a mentor relationship, and these outcomes were also included in the study. Organizations can structure formal programs, but even without a structured format, they can encourage informal mentorship; the advantages and challenges of both are discussed. Kram's functions of mentorship are the primary theoretical framework used to establish themes of mentorship in the

data, but other theories can be tied to mentorship. These theories, including both social learning

theory (Bandura, 1977) and social exchange theory (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), are

discussed. Finally, emerging trends in mentorship are summarized.

Table 1

Benefits and Outcomes from Mentorship Studies

Source	Setting	Benefits/Outcomes
Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz, & Lima (2004)	Meta-Analysis – mentored and nonmentored	Compensation Promotions Career satisfaction Expectations for advancement Career commitment Job satisfaction Intention to stay
Chao (1997)	Alumni of college of engineering – mentored and nonmentored	Income Organizational socialization Career planning and involvement Job satisfaction
Young-Illies (2010)	Alumni of two universities – formal and informal mentors	Job satisfaction Organizational commitment Satisfaction with mentor Perceived career success Promotions
Ensher & Murphy (2011)	Managers and professionals in variety of industries – formal and informal	Relationship satisfaction
Godshalk & Sosik (2003)	Working professionals in variety of industries enrolled in an MBA program – formal and informal mentors	Managerial aspirations Career satisfaction
Kleinman, Siegel, & Eckstein (2001)	Certified Public Accounting firms	Job satisfaction Organizational commitment Intention to leave Role ambiguity Role conflict Job burnout
Payne & Huffman (2005)	Army Officers – formal and informal	Organizational commitment Voluntary turnover
Ragins & Cotton (1999)	National associations for journalists, social workers, and engineers – formal, informal and nonmentored	Mentor satisfaction Compensation Promotion rate
Underhill (2006)	Meta-analysis – formal and informal	Seven out of 13 career outcomes were statistically significant, including organizational commitment
Wanberg, Kammeyer-Mueller, & Marchese (2006)	Nine organizations – formal	Career goal clarity Organizational commitment Intention to turnover

Work life balance is the other main concept considered in this literature review. This topic includes the evolving terms associated with the field of study, from work life conflict to balance to a newer lexicon such as work life harmony. Giele (2008), in her work with Elder (2009), outlined four life course dimensions: identity, relational style, drive and motivation, and adaptive style. This researcher used these dimensions to review the data collected in this study. Much of the work life balance studies are based on theoretical frameworks that recognize that individuals have limited resources to bring to both work and life domains (Grady & McCarthy, 2008). In this context, gender differences have mixed findings in the literature. As strategies are created, organizational leaders and individuals need to determine whether the segmentation of work and life domains or their integration will result in the most positive outcomes.

Finally, the review discusses both organizational commitment and turnover intention as concepts. Previous studies measured both of these work attitudes through the use of instruments. Ultimately this was an opportunity to see a direct connection with organizational retention. Programs, policies, and initiatives that encourage both mentorship and work life balance were determined to have direct connections with retention by measuring organizational commitment and turnover intention.

Mentorship

The concept of mentoring goes back to Greek mythology when the king of Ithaca left his son Telemakhos in the care of a trusted friend and advisor named Mentor (C. Young, 2007). Mentor's role was to train Telemakhos and prepare him for adulthood. Modern discussions of mentorship are relatively recent, with important works on mentorship emerging in the late 1970s and early 1980s (Kanter, 1977; Kram, 1983; Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, & McKee,

1978). Kathy Kram (1983) is often cited as the germinal author in contemporary mentoring research (Bozeman & Feeney, 2007; C. Young, 2007).

The traditional definition of a mentor describes the relationship between a senior individual and a younger adult where the mentor supports, guides, and counsels the younger individual (Kram, 1983). Kram's work brought the concept of mentorship into the organizational context (Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz, & Lima, 2004), but she also recognized that mentorship can mean different things to different people (Haggard, Dougherty, Turban, & Wilbanks, 2011). Definition clarity is important in order to reduce variability among studies, and several meta-studies on the definition of mentorship have been conducted to ensure consistency in future research (Bozeman & Feeney, 2007; Haggard et al., 2011).

In her seminal book, Kram (1988) outlined two major groups of functions in mentoring. The first, career functions, focuses on those aspects of the mentoring relationship that enhance career advancement, including sponsorship, exposure and visibility, coaching, protection, and challenging assignments. Later studies identify this function as vocational support (Kleinman, Siegel, & Eckstein, 2001). The second set of functions, psychosocial functions, focuses on the interpersonal aspects of the relationship; these include role modeling, acceptance and confirmation, counseling, and friendship (Ragins & Cotton, 1999). Noe (1988) created an instrument to measure the extent to which mentors provide career and psychosocial outcomes. The work of Kram (1988) and Noe (1988) was extended by the addition of the role modeling function, resulting in three major areas of function (Scandura, 1992). Scandura and Ragins (1993) went on to develop a mentoring function scale. This 33-item mentor role instrument analyzes 12 mentor functions that aid in analysis of mentorship outcomes. These functions and

the corresponding instruments provide a base for evaluating mentorship programs and their outcomes.

In addition to the functions of mentoring, Kram (1988) also described phases of the mentor relationship, starting with initiation, followed by cultivation, then separation, and finally redefinition. Her qualitative study was conducted at a large Northeastern public utility, and the findings outlined the general length of each phase, described the experience of the mentor and the mentee, and identified turning points that led from one phase to the next. The initiation period lasts from 6 months to a year; during this phase expectations are set, opportunities for interaction are clarified, and the relationship becomes important to both employees. Cultivation occurs during a period of 2-5 years when the maximum range of career and psychosocial functions are provided and emotional bonds deepen. Separation occurs for a variety of reasons, including the protégé no longer needing or wanting guidance, the mentor no longer being available, or the interaction being disrupted by resentment. Redefinition can occur when the relationship ends or changes significantly to a more peer-like relationship. Kram acknowledged that mentor relationships vary in length; however, they generally proceed through these phases.

Later work supported the concept of phases of a mentoring relationship and analyzed both the connection between functions and phases (Chao, 1997; Weinberg & Lankau, 2011). This work found that certain functions are performed at varying levels during certain phases. A study of potential negative experiences warned of specific challenges in each phase, reinforcing the concept that this type of relationship changes as time passes (Eby, McManus, Simon, & Russell, 2000). The length of these phases has implications for formal programs because they are often a prescribed length. If the relationship does not progress to cultivation, where the range of functions is experienced significantly, the mentorship benefits might not be fully recognized;

this lack of recognition has the potential to raise issues with formal, time bound programs (Kram, 1983).

Studies of mentorship focus on benefits, outcomes, and obstacles. The benefits and outcomes can be categorized as those received by the mentee or protégé, those experienced by the mentor, and those expected by the organization. The majority of studies focused on the mentee (Germain, 2011; Godshalk & Sosik, 2003; Underhill, 2006; Young-Illies, 2010) and on positive outcomes, with a few notable exceptions that recognize and discuss potential negative outcomes (Eby & Allen, 2002; Eby et al., 2000; Ensher & Murphy, 2011).

Mentoring can be associated with positive behavioral, attitudinal, health-related, relational, motivational, and career outcomes for protégés (Eby, Allen, Evans, Ng, & DuBois, 2008). Eby et al. (2008) found that in general, mentoring more easily influences attitudes than career outcomes. The mentee-focused studies outlined in Table 1 indicate support for potential positive objective or extrinsic outcomes, such as increased compensation and promotion (Allen et al., 2004), and subjective or intrinsic outcomes, such as relationship satisfaction (Ensher & Murphy, 2011). Outcomes include potential benefits from both career and psychosocial functions of mentorship. Organizational commitment and turnover intention, the focus of this study, are included frequently in potential outcomes.

Many of the studies reviewed focused on outcomes for the mentee, but several studies also reviewed potential impact on the mentors. For example, one study measured the achievement and avoidance orientation of both the mentor and protégé and the impact on personal learning (Hirschfeld, Thomas, & Lankau, 2006). This study reinforces the potential positive impact of being a mentor. Mentors realized improvement in their personal learning, particularly when the protégé had high achievement and low avoidance orientations. Although

organizational commitment is often an outcome measured for protégés, measuring it for mentors can also be important (Lentz & Allen, 2009). Researchers found that higher levels of the mentor's organizational commitment positively related to the extent of role model mentoring functions provided by the mentors (Weinberg & Lankau, 2011) and to their perceptions of program effectiveness (Allen, Eby, & Lentz, 2006b). Another study measured the commitment to the mentoring relationship for both the mentor and protégé and found a significant positive relationship between perceptions of high mentor commitment by both protégé and mentor and the protégé's report of mentorship quality. Lentz and Allen (2009) suggested that the mentoring experience increased job satisfaction, reduced turnover intention, and moderated job content plateauing for mentors. When mid-career employees were experiencing a reduced increase in job content, mentoring other employees alleviated the negative effects of job content plateauing and had the potential to enhance the mentor's job attitudes. This finding reinforces the importance of the mentor to the dyadic nature of mentorship relationships. The few studies that focused on the mentor called for additional research to measure outcomes for that important role in the mentoring dyad (Allen et al., 2006b; Hirschfeld et al., 2006; Parise & Forret, 2008; Weinberg & Lankau, 2011).

The benefits of mentoring for both protégés and mentors are important outcomes to measure; however, the benefit to the organization is also important to discern. Opportunities for formal mentorship have the potential to attract prospective employees. Individuals with a strong learning orientation found organizations that had formal mentoring programs more attractive (Allen & O'Brien, 2006). Allen and O'Brien (2006) suggested that individuals who find a formal mentorship program attractive focus on developing abilities by acquiring new skills and

mastering challenging situations. Not only does the potential pool increase, but also prospective

employees are already motivated to learn new skills.

Once employees are part of an organization, they need to be socialized. When

individuals are properly socialized and expand their knowledge, the organization can also be a

learning organization (Payne & Huffman, 2005). Organizational socialization is so important

that a scale was developed to measure the extent to which employees feel they know how to

perform their role in the organization (Chao, 1997). Organizational socialization does not just

happen when employees join, but also spans an employee's entire career (Payne & Huffman,

2005). Exemplary mentorship programs that see benefits experienced by individuals translate to

the organization through retention and career development (Hegstad & Wentling, 2004). Several

studies recognized that mentor programs can be a valuable tool for human resource departments,

particularly in their goal of improving the workplace environment (Ensher & Murphy, 2011;

Germain, 2011; Ghosh, 2009). In one particular list of organizational benefits, the author

included several culture benefits from an effective mentor program, including the potential to

break down silo mentality between departments or divisions and expand a mentoring culture that

benefits employee development (Homsey, 2010). Protégés can also learn the unwritten rules of

an organization's culture from the mentor. The socialization process allows the protégé to

understand and adopt organizational goals and values (Payne & Huffman, 2005). Formal mentor

relationships provide the coaching necessary to help the protégé understand goals, values, and

politics (Kleinman et al., 2001). Once employees understand the organizational goals, they can

match them with their own personal goals and values, furthering their connection to the

organization.

Although research has focused on the benefits of mentor relationship, Kram (1988) and Eby (2007) pointed out a possible dark side of mentorship. Kram described the potential for a mentor relationship to move into a phase that is destructive for one or both of the individuals. She discussed the phases of the mentor relationship, including separation. If separation is untimely, occurring either too soon or too late, either individual might experience feelings of abandonment, fear, or resentment. Eby et al. (2000) developed a taxonomy of negative mentoring experiences based on Scandura's (1998) potential mentoring dysfunctions: negative relations, sabotage, difficulty, and spoiling. Manipulation, distancing behavior, mismatch of mentor-protégé, lack of expertise, and general dysfunction were all documented as categories of negative mentor experiences (Eby et al., 2000). They pointed out that formal mentoring relationships that are negative might be harder to terminate than informal ones because of the heightened visibility of formal mentoring programs within the organization. Eby and Allen (2002) expanded on this earlier work by studying the implications of negative experiences in relation to protégés' job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and stress. They clustered negative experiences into two factors: distancing/manipulative behavior and poor dyadic fit. Protégés who reported a poor fit with their mentor also tended to report less job satisfaction, higher stress, and stronger intention to leave the organization. If the protégé encountered these types of negative experiences, then why would he or she remain in the relationship? Both lack of mentoring alternatives and fear of retaliation may influence the protégés' intention to leave the mentoring relationship if they identify negative mentoring experiences (Burk & Eby, 2010). More recent reviews of this dark side call for additional research to determine the costs and benefits of mentor relationships (Ensher & Murphy, 2011; Germain, 2011; Haggard et al., 2011).

In these cases, researchers have suggested that poor mentoring may be worse than no mentoring at all (Ragins, Cotton, & Miller, 2000).

Recommendations to mitigate potential negative experiences include a strategic matching process between mentor and protégé (Allen, Eby, & Lentz, 2006a; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Godshalk & Sosik, 2003; Hirschfeld et al., 2006), making formal organizational programs voluntary (Allen et al., 2006a; Hegstad & Wentling, 2004), and providing high quality mentor program training (Allen & O'Brien, 2006; Hegstad & Wentling, 2004; Kleinman et al., 2001). One particular study focused specifically on program design and support and on the program's impact on mentors' perspectives on benefits and costs (Parise & Forret, 2008). This study recognized the valuable impact of management support and the voluntary nature of the program but did not see as significant an impact of input to matching and mentor training effectiveness. Organizational leaders should recognize and remediate possible flaws in mentoring programs to avoid potential negative experiences.

Another area of mentorship study is the micro-processes within the mentoring relationship. These relational behaviors and processes include interdependence, reciprocity, fluidity in expertise, power and role enactment, mutual learning, teaching, and information exchange (Fletcher & Ragins, 2007). Particularly in formal programs with time limits, relationship development is critical. In one study, the protégé's self-disclosure level related to higher relationship satisfaction and a positive influence of mentoring on job outcomes at the end of the program (Wanberg, Welsh, & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2007). The study is an example of the shift of focus away from simply mentorship outcomes to the micro-processes that occur during the mentoring relationship. An extension of this relationship process thinking is evidenced by the examination of both positive and negative experiences. Like in most relationships, mentors

and protégés report both positive and negative relational experiences (Eby, Butts, Durley, & Ragins, 2010).

In addition to outcomes, benefits, and processes, studies also capture antecedents to the mentor relationship (Allen & Eby, 2008; Chandler, Kram, & Yip, 2011). Two widely recorded demographic antecedents are gender and race (Chandler et al., 2011). These antecedents are often captured to address the perception that women and minorities have difficulty finding mentors. In a recent meta-analysis, gender differences in mentoring were investigated for both the mentor and the protégé (O'Brien, Biga, Kessler, & Allen, 2010). Two major questions were posed by this analysis, examining equal access to a mentor relationship and the degree of career and psychosocial benefits received from the mentor relationship. After reviewing the literature, the authors did not find a significant difference in protégé experience between genders. However, this analysis did find a difference between the types of mentoring provided by each gender. Although this analysis found that no gender differences experienced for receipt of career benefits, female protégés reported more psychosocial support. Males were more likely to serve as mentors (Higgins, Chandler, & Kram, 2007) and reported focusing more on career development; inversely, female mentors reported providing more psychosocial support (O'Brien et al., 2010). Potential benefits for women in a mentor relationship include setting performance expectations, particularly at senior levels, finding a style with which men are comfortable, gaining access to informal networks, seeking out challenging assignments, and overcoming stereotypes (McKeen & Bujaki, 2007).

Organizational context has a potential impact on gender based mentor outcomes. For example, women appear to benefit from sponsorship and legitimacy in male-gendered industries (Ramaswami, Dreher, Bretz, & Wiethoff, 2010). Ramaswami et al. (2010) considered male-

gendered industries as those that are congruent with sex-role stereotypes or dominated by men; the authors recognized the importance for women to have a male mentor in these types of industries. The organizational structure and industry are potential moderators of the benefits of mentorship, particularly in career management. As a case in point, male protégés reported more benefits from having a formal mentor in an organizational setting (Ragins & Cotton, 1999). One favorable longitudinal study recognized that any negative effect of cross-gender dyads dissipated as the relationship developed over time (Weinberg & Lankau, 2011). Contrary to expectations, one study found that cross-gender mentoring dyads reported greater psychosocial support from their mentors than protégés in same-gender dyads did (Sosik & Godshalk, 2005).

Another demographic antecedent often collected in research is racial or ethnic identity. Studies on race and the potential access to mentoring have resulted in mixed findings. Some research found issues with access for protégés of color, yet other studies did not report access differences and even found that minority employees had greater opportunities for mentoring (Blake-Beard, Murrell, & Thomas, 2007). At the individual level, researchers have demonstrated that individuals' gender, race, or ethnic identity can impact access to and benefits of mentoring (Chandler et al., 2011). In one population of students participating in an online community, women and students of color reported receiving more help from a mentor of their own gender and race, but academic outcomes were not affected (Blake-Beard, Bayne, Crosby, & Muller, 2011). Most studies evaluate race similarity in mentorship relationships that are already established. However, in one study, protégés preferred to initiate same-race rather than cross-race mentoring, but this preference was not seen for mentors (Hu, Thomas, & Lance, 2008). Even as recently as 2010, researchers were calling for collecting gender and racial/ethnic identity for both mentors and protégés (Haggard et al., 2011). The need to consider issues of race, class,

and gender can be particularly significant in cross-cultural mentoring (Johnson-Bailey &
Cervero, 2004).

Because of the importance of measuring the effectiveness of the mentor relationship,
researchers developed several instruments to do so. The Mentoring Relationship Challenges
Scale is one instrument used to measure the quality of the mentor relationship (Ensher &
Murphy, 2011). Other measurement methods include capturing the degree of mentoring
functions received (Noe, 1988; Ragins & Cotton, 1999), determining the importance of
development and maintenance of mentoring programs (Hegstad & Wentling, 2004), and using a
program effectiveness perception scale (Allen et al., 2006b). Allen and Eby (2008) developed a
mentor commitment scale to capture mentors' perceptions of their commitment to the mentoring
relationship. Organizations are recognizing that mentor programs, whether voluntary or
involuntary, could potentially have benefits and drawbacks and should be measured using an
evaluative tool to determine outcomes.

Organizational Mentoring

One type of mentorship is a formal program in an organization. Organizational
mentoring is a developmental relationship where mentors provide assistance and support to
particular protégés (Joiner et al., 2004). Russell and Adams (1997) define organizational
mentorship as "an intense interpersonal exchange between a senior experienced colleague
(mentor) and a less experienced junior colleague (protégé) in which the mentor provides support,
direction, and feedback regarding career plans and personal development" (p. 2). Formal
mentorship can be distinguished from informal mentorship by the structure of the organizational
support (Hegstad & Wentling, 2004; Russell & Adams, 1997). Characteristics of formal mentor
programs include a process to identify and match mentors and protégés (Hegstad & Wentling,

2004), the organization's establishment and management of the program (Underhill, 2006), a time limitation on the mentoring relationship (Weinberg & Lankau, 2011), and the focus on developmental goals (Ragins & Cotton, 1999; Wanberg et al., 2006). In formal programs, mentors are recruited with the focus on helping the mentee, while the needs of both parties are often considered in an informal mentorship (Chao, 2009).

The matching process has been identified as key to successful mentor relationships (Allen et al., 2006b; Eby & Lockwood, 2005; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Godshalk & Sosik, 2003; Hirschfeld et al., 2006). Some organizations have implemented formal mentoring programs where mentors and protégés are selected specifically to participate in an organizationally supported program (Allen & O'Brien, 2006; Germain, 2011; Joiner et al., 2004). The selection process for mentors and protégés can range from very informal and voluntary to a formal process that matches backgrounds/interests, needs and expertise, and job level (Hegstad & Wentling, 2004).

Matching strategy examples include a study that used learning goal orientation as a method for matching mentor to protégé (Godshalk & Sosik, 2003) and another study that focused on matching attachment styles for mentors and protégés (Germain, 2011). One study found greater disagreement regarding the provision of mentor support based on disparity in age and organizational tenure (Fagenson-Eland, Baugh, & Lankau, 2005). Similarity between mentor and mentee has been examined beyond just demographic characteristics. One study measured deep-level similarities that included personality, interests, work values, outlook on organizational issues, problem-solving approach, and personal values (Lankau, Riordan, & Thomas, 2005). Chao (2009) suggested that the likelihood of a successful match can be improved by ensuring a large and diverse pool of mentors, the consideration of mentor strengths and mentee needs, and

understanding both individuals' priorities in the matching criteria. Organizations that pressure mentors into participating in formal programs can see negative protégé perceptions of quality if mentors are not committed to the relationship (Allen & Eby, 2008). An effective matching process is important, and if a good match is not found, the lack of mutual concerns can have a negative impact on the mentor relationship (Eby & Allen, 2002; Eby et al., 2000; Germain, 2011).

In January 2009, approximately 70% of Fortune 500 companies offered a formal mentoring program (Gutner, 2009). Several authors have called for additional research in formal mentor programs to evaluate program structure and outcomes (Allen et al., 2006a; Allen et al., 2006b; Weinberg & Lankau, 2011). In one qualitative study, both mentors and protégés were interviewed in order for researchers to gain an understanding of their experience in a formal mentor program (Eby & Lockwood, 2005). In this study, both positive and negative experiences were reported; suggestions for program improvement included clearer communication of program objectives, better matching, targeted participation, and better program monitoring. In a summary article discussing effective formal program design criteria, the authors reiterated the need for specific program goals, proper dyad matching, sufficient interaction, and adequate training (Baugh & Fagenson-Eland, 2007).

Researchers have found mixed outcomes when comparing formal and informal mentoring. Some studies found better outcomes from informal mentor relationships (Ragins & Cotton, 1999; Young-Illies, 2010), whereas others did not find significant differences in outcomes when comparing formal to informal programs (Ensher & Murphy, 2011; Ragins et al., 2000). Allen et al. (2006a) summarized these results by stating that formal mentoring is better than a lack of mentoring, but not as effective as informal mentoring. One set of researchers

raised a concern about formal programs, stating that formally assigned mentors often perform the duty as just one more item on their long list of work-related tasks (Viator & Dalton, 2011). Viator and Dalton (2011) acknowledged that true mentorship requires sufficient time, effort, and interest by the mentor. Although studies compared outcomes between formal and informal mentoring programs with mixed results, satisfaction with the mentor relationship mitigates the potential differences between formal and informal relationships (Ghosh, 2009; Ragins et al., 2000). One often cited study compared formal and informal mentor relationships and recommended that organizations should not consider formal mentor programs as a substitute for informal mentoring relationships, but should offer formal programs in partnership with informal relationships (Ragins & Cotton, 1999). A meta-analysis of 120 samples from 113 publications and dissertations summarized the positive impacts of mentorship on both job and career satisfaction, but also suggested that studies should shift focus from measuring more extrinsic career outcomes such as promotion to more intrinsic outcomes like organizational commitment (Kammeyer-Mueller & Judge, 2008).

Mentorship Theoretical Framework

Mentor relationships have a basis in two theoretical foundations. First, mentorship programs are based on social learning theory, which states that individuals learn through observation and direct experience in social settings; in other words, people learn from each other (Bandura, 1977). Social learning theory is at the root of Skinnerian behavioral theory, where behavior is seen as a function of consequences (Davis & Luthans, 1980). Bandura (1977) expanded on the theory to encompass a triune relationship between organizational participant, organizational behavior, and the environment, which includes other participants and variables. According to Davis and Luthans (1980), individuals and environments do not function

independently but interact in a reciprocal manner. In other words, people produce environmental conditions that in return affect their behavior. Social learning theory recognizes that people learn by watching models, such as parents, teachers, or supervisors, and observing the consequences of their behavior. Four processes influence how the model impacts an individual (Robbins & Judge, 2011). First, people learn from models to which they pay attention, based on the model's attractiveness, availability, and importance. Secondly, retention is important so the learner can remember the model's action after the model is no longer available. Third, observation has to be translated into action through a motor reproduction process. During this process, individuals demonstrate that they can perform the observed activity by reproducing it. Finally, a reinforcing process occurs by seeing positive reinforcement for behavior. This connection ties directly to social learning theory's roots in behavioral theory. Social learning theory is often referenced as a basis for mentorship studies (Allen et al., 2004; Donaldson et al., 2000; Godshalk & Sosik, 2003; Lankau & Scandura, 2002). Studies have called for longitudinal research to measure the impact of mentoring over a period of time (Donaldson et al., 2000; Payne & Huffman, 2005).

Social exchange theory also influences the concept of mentoring based on the understanding that social relationships are negotiated exchanges between parties (Blau, 1986). While studying small group interactions, Homans (1958) reinvigorated the concept that social behavior is an exchange of goods, both material and non-material, and saw a direct link between social theory and economic theory. He likened social relationships to marketplace exchanges. Sociology and social psychology influence social exchange theory by suggesting that these exchanges in social relationships are based on valued commodities such as money, approval, appreciation, advice, trust, and even opportunities (Dutton & Heaphy, 2003; Ensher & Murphy, 2011). For example, trust theories are based on social exchange theory when trust is established

over time with repeated exchange of benefits (Erickson, 2007). If individuals acquire these valued commodities, then the relationship in which they were obtained is likely to endure and grow stronger. Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) provided a review of this interdisciplinary theory and suggested that when the relationship is built on mutual obligations, it can lead to mutual commitments. As the benefits of a mentoring relationship increase, the commitment to the relationship also increases, which supports the concept of reciprocity found in social exchange theory (Payne & Huffman, 2005). The inclusion of the organization into the exchange occurs when the mentor program is formal and the mentors are relatively high in the organizational structure (Raabe & Beehr, 2003). This study reinforces the potential benefits for mentor, mentee, and the organization, as a positive exchange between the three parties produces higher organizational commitment, lower turnover intention, and increased job satisfaction.

Social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) and social exchange theory (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005) both support the benefits of mentor relationships. These relationships provide opportunities to share knowledge and improve organizational socialization (Kleinman et al., 2001). If the mentor relationship is healthy, mutual commitment and positive reciprocity should be evident (Payne & Huffman, 2005). Bandura's (1977) social learning theory points to the benefits of learning in community. If protégés are successfully learning about their profession and how to be successful in the organization, the levels of organizational and occupational commitment could mirror that success and reflect positively on a mentor program. If participants perceive benefit from their participation in a mentor program, they support the reciprocal nature of social exchange theory where both the protégé and the mentor gain benefits from the two-way exchange.

Although social learning and social exchange theories are often cited as the basis for

mentorship theory, other theories, frameworks, and models are presented in the literature

reviewed. Table 2 presents additional items that help explain the underpinnings of mentoring.

Table 2

Additional Frameworks, Models, and Theories

Name	Description
Exchange Relationship Framework (A. Young & Perrewé, 2000)	This framework was developed to measure the support behaviors exchanged between mentors and mentees; these include both costs and benefits. This framework focuses on the role behaviors expected and received as a basis for outcomes. It categorized antecedent factors as relationship, career, and environmental. Outcome categories included perceptions of relationship quality, dyadic success, tangible, and organizational.
Mentoring Investment Model (Eby, 2007)	This model suggests that both the mentor and mentee evaluate their perceived costs and benefits, and when the benefits outweigh the costs, then the satisfaction with the relationship will be positive. The satisfaction with the relationship will also impact their desire to continue long term. This model tries to answer the question, "Is it worth it?" An interesting element of this theory is consideration for availability of alternative mentor relationships for both mentors and protégés. The outcome of this model includes both commitment and relationship stability.
Mentoring Enactment Model (Kalbfleisch, 2007)	This theory focuses on communication strategies to develop, maintain, and repair high-quality mentoring relationships. Kalbfleisch focuses on the use of communication to evolve the mentoring relationship instead of on Kram's stage structure. This model emphasizes the need to attend to the relationship itself, not just the tasks and accomplishments of the mentor and mentee.
Relational Mentoring (Fletcher & Ragins, 2007)	The authors applied relational mentorship to an existing set of relational theories from the Stone Center for Developmental Services and Studies at Wellesley College. The tenets of their application include the interdependent nature of self-in-relation, the criteria for a growth-fostering interaction, and the recognition of power in interdependence.
Framework for Mentoring and Attachment Theory (Scandura & Pellegrini, 2004)	This theoretical framework extends mentoring theory by integrating the functions and phases of mentoring in the workplace with attachment theory from the field of psychology. Attachment style refers to how a person develops relationships, and the patterns of attachment style are mapped to the formation of a mentoring relationship.

Leadership theories are also cited in mentorship studies that outline the leadership role a

mentor plays in the mentor-mentee relationship. The most prominent theory, Leader-Member

eXchange theory (LMX), reinforces the concept of dyad exchange between mentor and mentee. LMX is often modeled in a leader-subordinate relationship and focuses on the delivery and exchange of valued resources over time (Northouse, 2010). An example of the exchange of resources includes the leader developing the member and the leader in turn receiving member commitment and effort. With increased trust and improved flow, rate, and quality of resources, the exchange deepens the connection between the leader and the member. LMX theory argues that leaders establish a special relationship with an in-group and all other followers are part of an out-group (Robbins & Judge, 2011). The members of the in-group have higher performance ratings, engage in better citizenship behaviors, and report greater satisfaction with their leader. Positive outcomes such as overall satisfaction, organizational commitment, and reduced turnover are potential outcomes of a high-quality LMX relationship (Erickson, 2007; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Several studies used the LMX theory as a basis for evaluating the dyadic nature of mentoring relationships (Raabe & Beehr, 2003; Reid et al., 2008). A quality LMX in a mentoring context can predict career satisfaction, career success, improved interpersonal relations, and effective role performance (Byrne, Dik, & Chiaburu, 2008).

Several studies measure leadership characteristics of mentors to determine the potential outcomes for the mentee using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). One study used elements of the MLQ to measure the mentor's role modeling behaviors when evaluating mentoring functions received by the protégé (Godshalk & Sosik, 2003). Another study measured a mentor's transformational leadership levels from the perspective of both the mentor and the protégé by using questions from the MLQ (Sosik & Godshalk, 2004). This study compared the perceived transformational leadership levels to determine if the mentor and mentee agreed on their evaluation of a mentor's transformational leadership levels. This agreement was then

examined for its impact on mentoring functions and protégé outcomes. The same authors, in an earlier study, measured transformational leadership behavior agreement and the influence on the quality of mentoring relationships (Godshalk & Sosik, 2000). Interestingly, mentors who underestimated their transformational leadership behavior were associated with the highest perceived quality of relationship by the protégé. The study's authors made the case that the mentor role is transformative in nature, which supports the concept that the characteristics of transformational leadership have similar developmental nature, functions, and outcomes as mentoring. Transformational leadership is characterized by engagement and connection with others to raise the level of motivation and morality in both the leader and the follower (Northouse, 2010). In the very definition of transformational leadership, aspects of the mentoring relationship can be recognized, such as role modeling, seeking mutual benefit, and building trust and collaboration.

Trust was an important moderator in one longitudinal field experiment that focused on measuring leader efficacy based on a mentor program for West Point Cadets (Lester, Hannah, Harms, Vogelgesang, & Avolio, 2011). Lester et al. (2011) compared a treatment group's leadership efficacy to a comparison group's efficacy measurements. The treatment group participated in a formal mentor program that focused on leadership, and the comparison group attended six classroom sessions that discussed leadership styles and techniques. The authors suggested three significant benefits of mentorship programs when compared to a group intervention style of leadership training. First, mentorship programs might be more cost effective than traditional contracted leadership training courses. Second, the mentors, as well as the protégés, benefit from the leadership development process. Third, both the mentor and protégé can leverage the learning in a specific work context. In an article recommending

mentorship to franchisees, the author stated that mentorship is leadership training that goes

beyond the classroom (Homsey, 2010). Not only does leadership theory apply to mentorship

relationships, but also mentorship relationships can also be used to teach leadership skills.

Godshalk and Sosik (2007) rightly pointed out that although mentorship and leadership have

analogies, as concepts they are distinctly different. They summarized this conclusion best when

reminding the reader that not all leaders are mentors and not all mentors are leaders. Although

the underlying theories and mentorship studies have been in existence since the 1970s and 1980s,

the field of study continues to evolve.

Emerging Mentor Delivery Trends

More recent articles on mentoring discuss new types of mentorship delivery, including

developmental networks, peer mentoring, and e-mentoring (Haggard et al., 2011; Kammeyer-

Mueller & Judge, 2008). Social network theory was first applied to career context mentoring by

the creation of a typology of developmental networks (Higgins & Kram, 2001). The authors

defined a developmental network as a group of people who are interested in advancing their

careers and act to do so. The original typology included two main dimensions, the diversity of

an individual's developmental network, and the strength of the relationships that make up the

networks. Four types of networks were identified. High diversity and high strength ties were

dubbed *entrepreneurial*, high diversity and low strength were termed *opportunistic*, low diversity

and high strength were called *traditional*, and low diversity with low strength were labeled

receptive. Based on these different networks, positive and negative outcomes were identified for

the protégé, including career change, personal learning, organizational commitment, and work

satisfaction.

Researchers introduced a new dimension to the developmental network typology: developmental initiation, which is defined as development-seeking behaviors by an individual to gain benefits such as knowledge, skills, and personal learning (Higgins et al., 2007). Although some purists are concerned that this reconceptualization of the one-to-one mentor relationship diminishes the original model, others believe it is more representative of today's working environments (Chandler et al., 2011; Higgins et al., 2007). In a practical article for accounting professionals, the authors suggested that a single mentor might not provide all the support needed, particularly over the stages of a protégé's career (Viator & Dalton, 2011). Eby et al. (2008) evaluated positive outcomes for academic, youth, and workplace mentoring and echoed the need for mentorship across one's lifespan. A network of multiple mentors might be particularly important in today's changing workplace. External and internal organizational forces such as changing technology, shifting organizational structures, global marketplace dynamics, and boundaryless work practices require support from a diverse portfolio of mentors (de Janasz, Sullivan, & Whiting, 2003). De Janasz et al. (2003) recommended five steps to building an intelligent mentoring network: become the perfect protégé; engage in 360-degree networking; commit to assessing, building, and adjusting the mentor network; develop diverse, synergistic connections; and realize that change is inevitable and that all good things must come to an end. A traditional mentor can encourage a protégé's networking behaviors and allow for expansion into a larger social network (Blickle, Witzki, & Schneider, 2009). Kram (1988) recognized early on that individuals have *constellations* of mentors during their careers, but research has been challenged to properly model this environment; it is not fully understood how these networks are formed. The conceptualization of developmental networks has broadened the exploration of the mentoring field (Higgins et al., 2007).

This concept of a developmental network ties to Communities of Practice (CoP), another social learning theory concept used in organizational settings. CoPs provide the environment where experts aid novices in expanding their knowledge (Wenger, McDermott, & Snyder, 2002). Wenger et al. (2002) focused on this broad definition of CoPs, describing them as, "Groups of people who share a concern, a set of problems, or a passion about a topic and who deepened their knowledge and practice in this area by interacting on an ongoing basis" (p. 4). In Lave and Wenger's (1991) early work, the concept was known as situated learning and emphasized the interactions between novices and experts. Focusing on knowledge creation and sharing, Cisco Corporation developed hundreds of CoPs and experienced benefits as employees deepened their knowledge about a subject and strengthened their relationships with other members of the group (O'Leonard, 2011). This shared knowledge drove innovation and joint problem solving, which contributed to organizational performance. Several benefits of CoPs are realized in formal mentor programs that provide career or instrumental support by advising protégés concerning career issues and interests (Donaldson et al., 2000).

Peer mentors can provide key developmental assistance, particularly in organizations with fewer hierarchical levels (McManus & Russell, 2007). A peer mentor is typically at the same level in the organization and has similar status as the protégé (Ensher & Murphy, 2011). Coworker or peer mentorship was the most frequent identified category in a study that solicited alternative sources of developmental support (Allen & Finkelstein, 2003). Traditional mentor relationships focus on benefits for the protégé, although both the mentor and the organization can benefit as discussed previously. Peer mentorship has three distinct characteristics: complementarity, mutuality, and reciprocity (McManus & Russell, 2007). Each member of the mentor relationship has strengths and weaknesses that can be offset by being in the peer

relationship, and peers can provide mutual assistance as a form of reciprocity. Peer mentorship can be an important part of a developmental network and provide another source of support; however, protégés with supervisory mentors reported receiving greater amounts of career development mentoring than protégés with non-supervisory mentors (Sosik & Godshalk, 2005).

Another area of study in the last 15 years is e-mentoring, which is defined as a relationship between a mentor and protégé that is conducted primarily through email and other electronic means. This mentoring relationship has some of the same characteristics as traditional mentoring, including beneficial career and psychosocial support, but it also recognizes that geographic and organizational boundaries need not necessarily apply. This type of mentoring can be applied to both formal and informal programs and ranges from fully computer-mediated to a mentor relationship supplemented by technology (Ensher & Murphy, 2007). Ensher, Heun and Blanchard (2003) discussed both opportunities and challenges for e-mentoring. Online mentoring provides greater access, reduced costs, equalization of status, decreased emphasis on demographics, and a record of interactions. E-mentoring is also time independent, which facilitates global opportunities (Bierema & Hill, 2005). Another article, one making recommendations to accounting professionals, listed potential benefits: wider access, less intimidating means of communication, and more neutrality regarding race, gender, age, and other physical characteristics (Viator & Dalton, 2011). A study focusing on women added the benefits of overcoming feelings of isolation and the flexibility of asynchronous communications (Headlam-Wells, Gosland, & Craig, 2005).

Ensher et al. (2003) also identified challenges in this form of mentorship: likelihood of miscommunication, slower development of relationship, competency in written and technical skills, potential for computer malfunction, and issues of privacy and confidentiality. Another

key disadvantage is the inability to observe the e-mentor in a physical day-to-day work setting (Viator & Dalton, 2011). Moderators to the success of this type of mentorship include familiar indicators such as match quality, frequency of communication, and perceived similarity, but a new and potentially challenging moderator is added when technology issues arise (Ensher & Murphy, 2007). Bierema and Hill (2005) proposed implications for human resource development professionals, suggesting that e-mentoring can provide lifelong learning, educate mentor dyads, support multicultural workforce members, and build knowledge across the organization. In today's age of global knowledge, organizations and individuals operate using technology, and several authors have called for empirical research in this specific area of mentoring (Bierema & Hill, 2005; Ensher et al., 2003; Haggard et al., 2011). The field of mentorship is evolving continually in both formal and informal relationships as it is influenced by the changing nature of today's dynamic organizational environment.

Work Life Balance and Related Concepts

Work life balance means many different things to different people (McMillan et al., 2011). A good simple definition is that it is the accomplishment of role-related expectations. These expectations are negotiated with role-related partners in both the work and family domains (Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007). Earlier definitions focused on equality as a definition of balance, with both domains equally engaged and satisfied. In literature, work life balance has been used as a noun, a verb, and even an adjective (Greenhaus et al., 2003).

Two schools of thought represent the integration of work and personal life domains (Grady & McCarthy, 2008). Early research focused on work life conflict based on the scarcity theory. When resources such as time, attention, and energy are finite and necessary for both work and family demands, conflict ensues as individuals try to fulfill demands in both roles

(Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Conflict occurs when roles interfere with each other, representing a bidirectional construct based on scarcity and depletion hypotheses (Lyness & Judiesch, 2008; McMillan et al., 2011). Expectations of conflict still exist; Millennials who have not yet had children assume that having a family will make it more challenging to advance in their career (Pew Research Center, 2013). A review of the literature reported that high levels of work life conflict predict reduced levels of quality in both work and family life (Eby et al., 2005).

Work life balance occurs when these limited resources are distributed across work and life domains (Lyness & Judiesch, 2008). Balancing resources does not mean equality but rather allocation of resources based on goals and capabilities (Grawitch & Barber, 2010). Grzywacz and Carlson (2007) conceptualized work life balance as accomplishing negotiated role-based expectations shared with partners in both the work and family domains. An international study found that managers who were rated high in work life balance were also rated high in career advancement potential (Lyness & Judiesch, 2008).

The concept of work life enrichment expands on work life balance, suggesting that positive experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other role (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Work life harmony, based on expansionist theory, has been introduced as a model that integrates the concepts of conflict and enrichment with a positive arrangement of work and life roles in a single life narrative (McMillan et al., 2011). Individuals who find satisfaction in both roles experience increased perceived levels of happiness, satisfaction, and quality of life (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Interviewees have expressed that neither family nor work roles alone give meaning to their lives, but the ability to integrate these two roles leads to meaningfulness (Grady & McCarthy, 2008). The concept of work life facilitation suggests that engagement in one life domain provides gains that enhance one's functioning in the other

domain (Wayne, Grzywacz, Carlson, & Kacmar, 2007). In one study, women experienced

higher levels of facilitation than men, suggesting some gender specific findings (Van

Steenbergen et al., 2007). Enrichment focuses on individual efforts, but facilitation is defined as

a system concept that includes both personal characteristics and environmental resources (Wayne

et al., 2007). McMillan et al. (2011) caution that enrichment research is still emerging and

suggest that no consistent conclusions can be drawn. Work life facilitation and work life conflict

can be examined as distinct phenomena not conceptualized as a continuum (Boyar & Mosley,

2007).

Work Life Balance Theoretical Framework

Just as the interaction between work and life can be categorized as conflict or facilitation,

the underlying theories can also be categorized. Work life conflict was conceptualized as

incompatibility of time, strain, and behavior between the work and family domains (Greenhaus

& Beutell, 1985). Conflict theory suggests that these two domains are incompatible because of

the different norms and responsibilities. This conflict assumes resources are limited and is in

line with the Conservation of Resources (COR) theory (Innstrand, Langballe, Espnes, Falkum, &

Aasland, 2008). The concept of limited resources is also reflected in scarcity theory, particularly

with time as a limited resource; this scarcity causes time-based conflict (Grady & McCarthy,

2008). Individuals accommodate time conflict by decreasing time in one role or accommodation

or by compartmentalizing their roles by segmenting; they then commit more time to the other

role (McMillan et al., 2011). The underlying concept of these theories emphasizes the limited

nature of resources and the potential conflict or interference between work and life.

In opposition to these theories are the ones that explain the potential for synergy that can

be experienced between the work and life domains. Wayne et al. (2007) extended the COR

theory and Positive Organizational Scholarship (Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2003) to provide an explanation for work life facilitation. After reviewing studies measuring work life enrichment with self-report scales, Greenhaus and Powell (2006) expanded the concept of work life enrichment by creating a theoretical model. Studies focusing on work life conflict or work life enrichment both reference theoretical frameworks that support the concepts.

Giele (2008) identified four life course dimensions that contribute to an individual's behavioral system. With these themes in mind, she interviewed 48 women using a life course strategy. From a broad set of questions spanning across the women's life course, she established themes using the four life course dimensions: identity, relational style, drive and motivation, and adaptive style. Elder and Giele (2009) built on this work and combined elements of both of their paradigms to link dimensions of an individual's behavioral system and the setting where that individual functions. An individual's identify is influenced by both history and culture in both time and place. Individuals are not isolated and thus have linked lives; this establishes a relational style shaped by loyalties and social circles. Individuals also develop different levels of motivation based on achievement, affiliation, and power. Finally, in studying life courses, the adaptive style of an individual can be analyzed based on the timing of and adaptation to major life events (Elder & Giele, 2009).

Does Gender Matter?

Many studies collect gender as a demographic variable or even focus on gender as a key antecedent (Martinengo, Jacob, & Hill, 2010). Parenthood yielded the strongest gender difference in several studies (Martinengo et al., 2010; Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2007). Women reported greater family spillover than men when they had a young child or a teenager (Martinengo et al., 2010). Traditional versus nontraditional roles for men and women impacted

the perception of conflict, where traditional men and nontraditional women were found to employ similar practices to mitigate work family conflict (Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2007). Byron (2005) reported in a meta-analysis that, contrary to the hypotheses of many studies, men and women have similar interference between work and family and family and work. Eby et al. (2005) had more inconclusive findings, recognizing that differences have been found between women and men experiencing work life conflict; however, no clear patterns emerged for work or family domain predictors between genders. Although studies do not always agree on how gender impacts work life balance, most researchers do recognize unique reactions and strategies (Eby et al., 2005; Van Steenbergen et al., 2007).

Recent literature has focused on choices women make as they seek to balance work life commitments. In one qualitative study, women declined promotion opportunities because the cost to the family was too high (Grady & McCarthy, 2008). Even very successful women bemoan the fact that they cannot have it all or at least not all at once (Slaughter, 2012). Some researchers even suggest that the work role is easier to exit for women and that this alleviates some work life conflict (Van Steenbergen et al., 2007). For those who choose to stay in the workplace, women experience increased work life harmony and report higher job performance, citing that the experience gained in home life provides new skills and psychological benefits at work (Van Steenbergen et al., 2007). Similarly, women experienced higher levels of positive spillover but did not experience more conflict than men (Powell & Greenhaus, 2010). Although not all women have the opportunity to choose to work or not to work, studies report both positive and negative impacts of work to women and their families.

Segmentation or Integration

       The bidirectional nature of the work life interface has specifically been studied (McMillan et al., 2011). One interesting area of study focuses on the permeability of that interface. Some individuals want to segment their work and family domains, and others seek to integrate them (Powell & Greenhaus, 2010). Researchers have even plotted this desire on a continuum that ranges from significant separation to extensive integration of work and non-work roles (Rothbard, Phillips, & Dumas, 2005). Some women leaders attributed their interconnectedness to their success, suggesting that it allowed them to balance their personal and professional lives (Cheung & Halpern, 2010). Role segmentation was found to reduce conflict, but then it also reduced positive spillover (Powell & Greenhaus, 2010). This individual difference in desire for integration or segmentation has implications for organizational leaders as they develop work life balance policies. For example, can onsite childcare be seen as a positive or negative accommodation (Rothbard et al., 2005)? Finding work life balance should be both an individual and an organizational effort (Wayne et al., 2007).

       Organizational leaders should note that positive work life balance brings positive work outcomes, including increased retention, commitment, and productivity (Bird, 2006). Workplace flexibility, including where and when workers can engage in work-related tasks, also contributes to increased commitment and employees working longer hours before perceiving conflict (Hill, Erickson, Holmes, & Ferris, 2010). Participation in work flexibility initiatives has a positive relationship with work engagement and life satisfaction (Grawitch & Barber, 2010). What policies organizations have in place speaks to the values held by leadership and supervisors. Family-supportive organizations provide more support to their subordinates than do less supportive organizations (Foley, Linnehan, Greenhaus, & Weer, 2006). This study focused on

the two positive outcomes of work life balance and mentorship: increased organizational commitment and decreased turnover intention.

Organizational Commitment

When an employee identifies with an organization and its goals and wants to remain a member, he or she can be described as organizationally committed (Robbins & Judge, 2011). Meyer and Allen (1991) clarified the conceptualization of organizational commitment in a three themed approach: affective commitment (a desire), continuance commitment (a need), and normative commitment (an obligation). Affective commitment is the emotional connection an employee has to the organization and its values (Robbins & Judge, 2011). Continuance commitment reflects the perceived economic value an employee will receive by continuing to work in the organization (Robbins & Judge, 2011). Normative commitment reflects a felt moral or ethical obligation to remain with an organization (Robbins & Judge, 2011). This element of commitment can be closely tied to turnover intention, which is discussed later in this review. Common to these three themes is a psychological state that characterizes an employee's relationship with the organization and his or her desire to continue membership in the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). The three types of commitment are not mutually exclusive and can be experienced simultaneously (Clugston, 2000). Organizational commitment can improve performance, lessen absenteeism, and reduce turnover intention and actual turnover (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002; Steers, 1977). In a meta-analysis on the causal relationship between job attitudes and performance, organizational commitment was positively correlated to job performance, and the effect was even stronger for commitment than for job satisfaction (Riketta, 2008).

There are two widely used instruments to measure organizational commitment. The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire was developed first (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1979). Later, Allen and Meyer (1990) developed a 24-item instrument to measure all three themes of organizational commitment. The two instruments were compared in a study with a specific population, and the Allen and Meyer instrument had a better fit with the work commitment construct than the often used Mowday et al. (1979) instrument (Cohen, 1996).

Studies and meta-analyses that report on the impact of mentoring on organizational commitment show higher organizational commitment in mentees than in those who are not mentored (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Kleinman et al., 2001; Stallworth, 2003; Underhill, 2006; Wanberg et al., 2006; Young-Illies, 2010). Mentors are measured to determine their levels of organizational commitment less frequently than mentees are (Wanberg et al., 2006; Weinberg & Lankau, 2011); however, the Weinberg and Lankau (2011) study revealed that mentors with higher organizational commitment put forth more effort when they provided role model mentoring.

The literature varies on the impact of the functions of mentorship on organizational commitment. Some studies found the impact on organizational commitment from mentor relationships existed but was not significant (Seibert, 1999); others found a connection but determined that it was not as great as other types of relationships, such as those with supervisors and coworkers (Raabe & Beehr, 2003). In one study, the researchers found a positive relationship in one organization but not in the second and noted that the organization where there was a significant relationship considered mentorship a key component of career pathing and expected participation by new employees (Gilbert & Ivancevich, 1999). Some authors measured the two main functions of mentorship, career and psychosocial support, on the level of

organizational commitment and found they both had positive impact, but satisfaction with the mentor relationship did not have a statistical relationship with organizational commitment (Young-Illies, 2010). Contrary to that finding, another study found that satisfaction with the mentor relationship did impact the levels of reported organizational commitment (Ragins et al., 2000). Other researchers found a positive correlation between vocational or career support on organizational commitment but did not find a similar correlation with psychosocial support (Kleinman et al., 2001). A longitudinal study measured the influence of mentoring on two of the elements of organizational commitment, affective and continuance commitment (Payne & Huffman, 2005). This study found support for higher levels of affective and continuance commitment for those employees who were mentored. Although the findings are not consistent, they suggest that some functions of mentoring show a positive relationship with the three themes of organizational commitment. A meta-analysis did describe mentoring as a factor that drives organizational commitment (Morrow, 2011). Specifically, formal mentoring has been significantly and positively related to organizational commitment and negatively related to a protégé's intention to leave (Joiner et al., 2004).

Perceived work life flexibility also impacts organizational commitment (Grady & McCarthy, 2008). Work to family enhancement has positive associations with organizational commitment (Gordon, Whelan-Berry, & Hamilton, 2007). However, depending on the individual's desire for segmentation, more policies for integration may not be perceived as positive and may impact organizational commitment negatively (Rothbard et al., 2005). Work life facilitation, when sought, significantly increased the prediction of affective commitment (Van Steenbergen et al., 2007). Researchers have called for more studies that focus on the role of work life balance and organizational commitment (Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007).

Turnover Intention

Another intrinsic outcome of mentorship is a reduction in a valuable protégé's intention to leave the organization. Turnover intentions have been defined as an employee's thoughts about leaving an organization and his or her willingness to do so (Tett & Meyer, 1993). Most studies have measured intention to turnover, but others have included actual turnover data (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Lankau & Scandura, 2002). Turnover intention has been shown to be positively related to actual voluntary turnover (Erickson, 2007). In several articles reviewed, turnover intention is a dependent variable and is negatively correlated with a variety of independent variables, for example, LMX (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Ghosh, 2009).

Participation in a mentor relationship was the focus of this literature review, and a negative correlation with turnover intention was found for mentees when the experience of being mentored was positive (Young-Illies, 2010). In one study, mentors were also surveyed, and they also had reduced intentions to leave the organization (Ghosh, 2009). The negative relationship between mentoring functions and turnover intentions was not always found to be significant, and in one case was more influenced by relationships with supervisors and coworkers (Raabe & Beehr, 2003). As expected, one specific study on negative mentoring experiences saw a positive correlation with turnover intentions when the mentee's negative experiences increased the mentee's intent to leave. This outcome supports the supposition that poor mentoring can be more harmful than no mentoring at all (Eby & Allen, 2002). The relationship between mentoring, organizational commitment, and turnover intention has been evaluated in a linear way where commitment mediates between mentoring and intention to leave (Joiner et al., 2004; Payne & Huffman, 2005; Stallworth, 2003; Young-Illies, 2010). Often both organizational commitment and intent to turnover are measured as separate and direct dependent variables. In

the Stallworth (2003) study, affective commitment was the element of organizational commitment most negatively related to intention to leave. In a meta-analysis, Tett and Meyers (1993) outlined a path analysis for job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention as antecedents for actual turnover. In another meta-analysis, organizational commitment was found to be an antecedent for absenteeism, performance, and turnover (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

Employee turnover has both tangible and intangible costs for an organization (Hillmer et al., 2004). In one model that was created in a call center environment, tangible costs included recruitment, hiring, and training. Intangible costs in the model included impacts on customer service, efficiency, and effectiveness until a fully proficient replacement is available (Hillmer et al., 2004). Because of both tangible and intangible costs in voluntary turnover, it is an important metric for organizations to capture. Turnover intention is usually measured with a few questions, but several studies used a four-item instrument (Kleinman et al., 2001; Lankau et al., 2005). Other studies used two or three appropriate questions from the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (Raabe & Beehr, 2003; Ragins et al., 2000). Finding an employee's intention to stay with an organization can be as simple as asking the question, How long do you plan to stay with our company (Erickson, 2007)?

Work life balance also impacts an individual's intent to leave an organization (Feyerherm & Vick, 2005). Often turnover intention or retention is measured through the outcome of job satisfaction, and increased satisfaction negatively predicted intention to quit (Boyar & Mosley, 2007; Chung et al., 2010). However, not all studies show a significant association of work family enhancement to reduced turnover intentions (Gordon et al., 2007). In a review of the literature, many studies did find increased work life conflict led to increased turnover intentions

(Eby et al., 2005). Specifically, both work to family and family to work conflict correlated to behaviors that indicated potential turnover (Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005).

Although both mentorship and work life balance have direct correlations to organizational commitment and turnover intention, the connection between having a mentor and improving work life balance has not been studied extensively (Nielson et al., 2001). In one meta-analysis, Nielson et al.'s (2001) was the only study mentioned that evaluated the connection between having a mentor and reducing work life conflict (Eby et al., 2005). In the study, individuals with mentors reported significantly less work life conflict than those employees who did not have a mentor (Nielson et al., 2001). In one study of Generation X women, employees wanted support from their employers for both mentorship and work life balance but did not make the connection between the two (Feyerherm & Vick, 2005). When reflecting on the career paths of notable Latinas, researchers reported that mentoring was crucial to these women as the mentor provided career, role modeling, and psychosocial support (Gomez et al., 2001). Female academic department chairs also reported that family supportive policies, combined with mentorship from their dean, aided them in balancing their multiple roles at home and at work (Perrakis & Martinez, 2012). The role mentors play in aiding mentees with work life balance was the focus of this study.

Conclusion

Important findings from this mentorship and work life balance literature review include the continued importance of employee support given the changing nature of today's organizations. Benefits from both mentorship and work life balance can be realized for the mentor, the mentee, and the organization. Being in a mentoring relationship leads to increased organizational commitment and reduced turnover intention. Reducing work life conflict and

achieving work life balance also correlate with increased organizational commitment and reduced turnover intention. A summary of the findings in this literature review demonstrates that mentorship matters and can provide positive outcomes but also recognizes that bad mentoring can be worse than no mentoring at all. Achieving work life harmony can also provide myriad positive outcomes, but how it is achieved differs between men and women and often from person to person. Organizations need to consider the implications of these findings when designing mentor programs and implementing work life balance initiatives.

Chapter 3: Methodology

The purpose of this phenomenological, qualitative study was to explore the role that mentors play in helping women achieve work life balance. Previous research investigated the connection between successful mentorship with increased organizational commitment and reduced turnover intention (Wanberg et al., 2006). Research has also connected work life balance with increased organizational commitment and reduced turnover intention (Eby et al., 2005). Ultimately, higher organizational commitment and lower intent to leave an organization signal higher retention. Although limited research has been done connecting mentorship with improved work life balance (Nielson et al., 2001), more research has been called for, particularly qualitative studies (Heraty et al., 2008). This researcher surveyed women to investigate their lived experiences with mentors and the impact those mentors had on aiding the participants with work life balance. Survey questions can be found in Appendix B.

Research Questions

The research questions that guided this study were:

1. How did the existence of a mentor impact women's experiences (identity, social relationships, motivation, and adaptive style) and enable them to meet the challenges of work life balance?

2. How did having a mentor impact their perceptions of organizational commitment and turnover intention?

3. How did the challenges of work life balance impact their perceptions of organizational commitment and turnover intention?

4. Did the mentorship functions experienced differ based on the characteristics of the mentor relationship?

Description of the Research Methodology

This researcher used a qualitative approach because it aids in the study of issues and experiences in participants' natural setting. The primary design is phenomenology, capturing the women's lived experiences in mentorship relationships and as they strive for work life balance. Conducting qualitative research is a choice specific to the researcher who wants to work with complex unstructured data to reveal individuals' lived experiences (Richards & Morse, 2013). Understanding phenomena requires a method that reveals central themes and discovers core experiences. In this case, the researcher sought to understand how having a mentor impacted a sample of women in achieving work life balance and, ultimately, how that impacted their retention through the two work attitudes of organizational commitment and turnover intention. A qualitative methodology was selected in order to better understand participants' overall lived experience in lieu of a quantitative methodology that would measure specific levels of any of the variables discussed. Because extensive studies connecting mentorship and work life balance have not been conducted, this researcher selected qualitative methodology to collect rich data and identify mentorship impact themes.

This researcher has worked in predominantly male-dominated industries for over 30 years. She has had an occasional role model but has not benefited from an ongoing mentor relationship. The interest in this topic stemmed from her supposition that role mentors could aid mentees' efforts to balance work and life while striving to be successful in today's organizations. This researcher reviewed the mentorship literature during 2 years of doctoral studies and did not find significant focus on the connection between mentorship and work life balance. This study investigated the potential connection between mentorship and work life balance for a diverse group of women.

Process for Selection of Data Sources

Participants were contacted from an existing database of women in the Digital Women's Project (Weber, 2011). This population of over 300 women leaders participated in a work life balance study based on Giele's (2009) life story methodology. The original sample included women enrolled in a doctoral program at Pepperdine University's Graduate School of Education and Psychology. From this initial population, additional interviews were held based on the snowballing sampling method, which identified women leaders in corporate, academic, non-profits, and business entities. Snowballing is also known as nominated sampling, where participants in the study recommend other persons to be invited to participate (Richards & Morse, 2013). Specific populations were also added as research populations were included in the project. For example, a dissertation that focused on African American women who were striving to achieve work life balance centered on a specific population (Barge, 2011). The women represented a cross sample of racial/ethnic diversity, age ranges, socio-economic levels and many different occupations. These women ranged in age from 26 to 81 years old and are in diverse occupations. At the time of the original interview, these women were asked if they would be willing to participate in future research, allowing for the opportunity to request their participation in this study.

Because this database of women has grown and the data collected do not identify those who have experienced a significant mentor, targeted interviews for this research were not possible. Surveying the women with available email addresses resulted in data collected from women who had a mentor and those who had not experienced a mentor relationship. This dichotomy provided an opportunity to gather valuable data from both categories of women.

Demographics from the previous study were retrieved by collecting the participants' mothers' maiden names.

Definition of Data Gathering Instruments

This researcher used a web-based, open-ended, semi-structured survey process to collect data, using the questions in Appendix B and the demographic information from the original study. This survey was sent to those participants in the Digital Women's Project (Weber, 2011) who had email contact information available. This researcher used Qualtrics, which is a widely used electronic survey tool. The survey contained an initial page describing the study and requesting review of the consent form. Each participant was asked to continue once the consent form was reviewed; proceeding with the survey indicated her agreement to participate. Finally, she was asked to respond to the questions in Appendix B.

The survey contained a major branching strategy. In a survey of this type, an initial question branches to one of two sections of questions. The key question was used to identify those women who have had a mentor relationship that aided them with work life balance issues. For those who reported such a mentor, a series of additional questions that focused on the specifics of that relationship was asked. The women who did not report a mentor who played this role were asked to list specific areas in which they might have desired assistance from a mentor. Both categories of women were questioned about being a mentor themselves and about any mentor role they have played or are currently fulfilling. All women were asked to define mentorship.

Validity of Data Gathering Instrument

Quantitative researchers depend on the validity and reliability of an instrument used in their studies, whereas qualitative research relies on the ability and effort of the researcher.

Although some argue that the term validity is not applicable to qualitative research, others have argued for a design that considers quality and trustworthiness (Golafshani, 2003). Richards and Morse (2013) suggested two general rules for qualitative design validity. The first rule is to ensure the fit of the question, data, and method. This researcher documented specific observations of how the data collection and method worked during the research project. The second rule calls for proper accounting for each step in the data analysis. This accounting required documentation of each significant decision and interpretation of data; the documentation served as a justification for the validity of the process and the discovery. This researcher documented these decisions using capabilities in the automated tool NVivo.

This researcher applied additional safeguards to support the quality of the data collection and analysis. Survey content validity was established by reviewing the survey tool with two researchers who have significant experience in qualitative research. One researcher was a leader in a global marketing information services firm. The other researcher is a university Assessment and Accreditation Liaison Officer. In Appendix A, the four behavior dimensions established by Elder and Giele (2009) are mapped to the two major categories of mentorship functions outlined by Kram (1988). These frameworks aided this researcher in establishing themes once data were collected. Both frameworks have been used extensively in existing studies, as discussed in the literature review. The Elder and Giele (2009) framework outlined in Appendix A has been used consistently throughout the Digital Women's Project (Weber, 2011), resulting in several published dissertations. The variety of research topics displays the breadth of the qualitative methodology. Krymis (2011) was concerned with understanding women of faith and the impact of faith on balance issues. Barge (2011) was particularly interested in the competing priorities of African American women and the issues they faced as they sought to achieve work life balance.

Heath (2012) categorized the various strategies that women with children employed in achieving work life balance. Almestica (2012) explored the impact of work life balance issues on women that were employed in a male-dominated career. Jensen (2013) studied the role technology can play as Native American women strive for work life balance. Other studies from the project are currently in progress.

Because the interviewer was not present, interviewer bias was eliminated. The researcher documented the process of data collection, including issues such as access to participants, response rate, completeness of data, and efforts to collect sufficient data for analysis. The study conclusions were considered valid if the results accurately reflected the phenomenon and were considered reliable if coding was done consistently.

Reliability of Data Gathering Instrument

In qualitative research, validity and reliability are considered intertwined, and they relate to the trustworthiness of the study (Golafshani, 2003). One key to overall qualitative research reliability is building in ways to code consistently (Richards & Morse, 2013). Consistent coding can be facilitated by documenting definitions for particular codes and by noting any changes to codes during data analysis. This researcher coded the data for this study, thus avoiding inter-rater reliability issues. She also used the a priori framework outlined in Appendix C. The frameworks were based on the literature review, which enhanced the study's intra-rater reliability. The frameworks functioned as an initial coding scheme and allowed for the creation of additional codes that arose from the data.

Reliability for the survey process was determined by running a pilot survey that followed the same procedures as the follow-on research. This researcher identified four career women who are professionally employed and confirmed their willingness to take the survey and provide

feedback. Three are mothers and one is a stepmother. One woman was interviewed in-person and three women were sent the survey electronically. One of the four women was given the option of completing the survey in-person or online and she chose online because of the ability to complete the survey at her convenience. Each woman was presented with the consent information and asked the same questions: to respond to the survey questions and provide the researcher with feedback about their clarity. One online participant completed the survey quickly, providing brief responses as a result of anticipating a longer survey. The researcher corresponded with this participant asking how more in-depth responses might be solicited. The researcher suggested that clarity about how many questions were included in the survey could be added to the instructions. The participant agreed that adding information about the length of the survey would be helpful. The other participants provided positive feedback about the clarity of the questions and the length of the survey. The pilot survey was conducted while awaiting approval from the Institutional Review Board as allowed by university policy. The survey results and the interview aided the researcher in determining the length of time to complete the survey and the efficacy of the questions.

Data Gathering Procedure

This researcher used the following procedure to gather data for this study. First, she identified those participants in the Digital Women's Project (Weber, 2011) who had provided an email address. She then sent an email to each woman requesting their participation and outlining the focus of this research project. This email included a link for the Qualtrics instrument. The possible participants were requested to review the consent information, which is outlined in Appendix D, before proceeding with completion of the questions. If a woman proceeded, she had consented to participation in the study and was presented with the questions in Appendix B.

Once she completed the questions, the participant was asked for her mother's maiden name. The collection of this name provided a link to demographic data already collected as part of the Digital Women's Project (Weber, 2011). The participant was also asked if she would be willing to provide additional information for the study. If she was willing to provide additional information in the future, she was asked for her phone number. The participant was then thanked for her participation.

After 2 weeks, the researcher reviewed the response rate and response content and discussed the results with her dissertation chair. Prior to beginning the interviews, the researcher's planned procedure was if the original email requesting participation resulted in 15-20 completed responses, then data analysis would begin. If the number was under 15, a reminder email would be sent to those who had not responded, asking them for their participation. This reminder email was necessary and was sent 2 weeks after the initial email. Based on the additional responses from the reminder email, 17 total participants completed the entire survey and the researcher began data analysis.

Description of Data Analysis Processes

Data can be described as *made* instead of *collected* when using qualitative research methods (Richards & Morse, 2013). This researcher implemented a methodical approach to making data. Giorgi (1997) describes a three-step qualitative research procedure created by Husserl. These steps are reduction, description, and search for essences; they interlock and are applied iteratively. The first step, reduction, focuses on making the research findings more precise. A key consideration during this step is bracketing, which puts aside any past experience or interpretation. This practice of bracketing, although challenging, aids in rigorous interpretation. The second key consideration during reduction is recognizing that what the

participants describe as their experience is their interpretation, not necessarily an objective

observation. Description, the second step in the qualitative research procedure, encompasses a

process of articulating what is given during the interview process. Explanation or interpretation

is not sought during this step. The final step, search for essence, is the articulation of the

fundamental meaning of a phenomenon. These three steps describe Husserl's philosophical

method.

Giorgi (1997) presented a more scientific analysis than Husserl's method. His expanded

method, outlined in Table 3, includes five steps that apply to the specifics for this study. Because

Giorgi's five-step method is more scientific and better fit the needs of this study, it was used for

the process of analysis.

Table 3

Data Analysis Method

Steps of Method	This Study
Collection of data	A semi-structured survey captured a concrete and detailed description of the participants' experience.
Reading of the data	This was a first pass to gain a global sense of the data and establish topics.
Breaking the data into some kind of parts	In this step, meanings were being formed and identified in the reading of the data. Preliminary themes were documented.
Organization and expression of the data	This step encompassed the transformation of the data through a lens of the researcher's discipline to seek meaning and establish themes.
Synthesis or summary of the data to communicate to the scholarly community	This step was performed as part of the dissertation process.

The researcher used the NVivo software program to organize data and document notes

and themes. NVivo, a product of QSR International, is used to analyze qualitative data and

provides many specific functions to aid in coding. Coding was done based on the aforementioned Giorgi (1997) methodology, using this technological tool to enable the process.

Plans for IRB

This study was subject to the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at Pepperdine University. The researcher submitted the appropriate proposal to the IRB and received approval before proceeding with data collection as seen in Appendix E. The IRB process strives to protect participants and to ensure consent and privacy. As part of the online survey, participants were notified of the purpose of the study and asked for their consent to participate. The consent form is included in Appendix D and is modeled after existing consent forms in use by the researchers of the Digital Women's Project (Weber, 2011). The participants were asked if quotes could be used in the publication of survey results through the use of a pseudonym. All appropriate steps were followed to ensure the confidential nature of the data, and the participants were informed of the safeguards. All results from the surveys were stored electronically by the researcher and protected using a password. Upon achieving the planned number of participants, the data were exported to a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet. The identifying information was stripped from the spreadsheet and e-mail addresses were replaced with pseudonyms. The participants' maiden names were collected and used to gather demographic information from the original data collected in the Digital Women's Project. Participants were asked if they would be willing to be interviewed more extensively in the future concerning this area of mentorship. If they were interested, they provided a phone number. This information was also stripped from the spreadsheet to ensure the confidential nature of the data.

There was minimal risk to the participants. However, discussing one's challenges in achieving work life balance can lead to possible psychological risks, including anxiety. The

survey contained a section outlining human subject concerns and notified participants that they could stop at any time. Previous data in the Digital Women's Project (Weber, 2011) were collected and coded by a participant's mother's maiden name. This demographic information was used in this study, but was stored separately to protect privacy.

Summary

An existing project population was contacted to complete this semi-structured survey using an online tool. Data analysis proceeded using an existing methodology and facilitated by NVivo. Proper protection of the data and the privacy of the participants were in alignment with Pepperdine's IRB process. Chapter 4 presents the findings and Chapter 5 then presents a discussion of findings, conclusions, and recommendations for further study.

Chapter 4: Data Analysis and Findings

The purpose of this phenomenological, qualitative study was to explore the role of mentors in helping women achieve work life balance. Previous research investigated the connection between successful mentorship and increased organizational commitment and reduced turnover intention (Wanberg et al., 2006). Researchers have also connected work life balance with increased organizational commitment and reduced turnover intention (Eby et al., 2005). Both increased organizational commitment and reduced turnover intention indicate higher retention.

Data Set

This researcher surveyed women who had previously participated in the Digital Women's Project. The focus of this study was to investigate how the experience of having a mentor impacted women's achievement of work life balance. The Weber (2011) Digital Women's Project includes interviews with a diverse population of women who vary in age, ethnicity, socio-economic class, geographic location, and family composition. A key assumption is that these women have a variety of experiences with mentors, have differing levels of work life conflict, and experience differing levels of work life balance. The current study was limited due to the population selected. Only women were interviewed for the initial study, and that population was surveyed for this research study. E-mail addresses were not stored with the original data but were collected from previous researchers who interviewed participants for the Digital Women's Project. These e-mails were used to contact women in the study and request participation in this mentor-focused survey. Eighty women received the survey via e-mail, and over half of them opened the e-mail. Of the participants that opened the e-mail, 28 started the survey and 17 completed the survey.

Research Questions

The research questions that guided this study were:

1. How did the existence of a mentor impact women's experiences (identity, social relationships, motivation, and adaptive style) and enable them to meet the challenges of work life balance?

2. How did having a mentor impact their perceptions of organizational commitment and turnover intention?

3. How did the challenges of work life balance impact their perceptions of organizational commitment and turnover intention?

4. Did the mentorship functions experienced differ based on the characteristics of the mentor relationship?

Data Collection Procedures/Methodology

Selection criteria. E-mail addresses of women who participated in the Digital Women's Project (Weber, 2011) were collected and provided to this researcher by the sponsor of the project. No selection criteria were used to limit the population, only the availability of a valid e-mail address. If the participants chose to open the e-mail inviting their participation, they were presented with an online consent process outlined in Appendix D. They consented to participate by moving to the next screen of the survey and responding to the questions.

Population description. Due to issues with storage methods, not all of the demographic information was available for the 17 participants in this research project; however, the age range for those participants whose demographic information was available was from 36-74 years old, with an average age of 51. The participants were well educated, all reporting at least a bachelor's degree. Based on the reported salaries, these participants were upper middle class.

Ethnic groups represented were Caucasian, Asian, African American, and Caucasian/Asian. Not all women reported having children. Participants selected a marital status of married, divorced, or single.

Survey process. The survey was sent to the participants via e-mail, using Qualtrics software, with a reminder e-mail sent 2 weeks later. After the reminder e-mail, 17 surveys were completed and returned to this researcher. Upon achieving the planned number of participants, this researcher exported the data to a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet. The identifying information was stripped from the spreadsheet and e-mail addresses were replaced by pseudonyms. Once the spreadsheet was modified, it was imported into NVivo software for data analysis and coding.

Data analysis. The researcher used NVivo software to organize data and document notes and themes. NVivo, a product of QSR International, is used to analyze qualitative data and provides many specific functions to aid in coding. Data can be described as *made* instead of *collected* when using qualitative research methods (Richards & Morse, 2013). This researcher implemented a methodical approach to making data using Giorgi's (1997) five step expanded method. First, she sent a semi-structured survey to participants to capture a description of their experience with a mentor. Those who had a mentor were asked to respond to the questions on the survey. If the participants did not have a mentor, they were asked what type of assistance they might have hoped for from a mentor in managing work and life. Once the data were imported into NVivo, the researcher took a first pass to gain a global sense of the data and to start to establish themes. The next step included the establishment of nodes based on the a priori theoretical frameworks and presenting themes. Data were identified and placed in these nodes. Nodes were added as the data revealed additional themes. Finally, each node was reviewed and

themes were identified based on specific participant responses. These themes are described in the following section.

Findings

For some research questions, the survey contained specific questions that had been created to gather data. For other research questions, the findings were informed from data across the survey questions. In Table 2, alignment of the research and survey questions shows how data were collected for the findings.

Table 4

Alignment of the Research and Survey Questions

Research Questions	Survey Questions
1. How did the existence of a mentor impact women's experiences (identity, social relationships, motivation, and adaptive style) and enable them to meet the challenges of work life balance?	Have you had a mentor who helped you manage work and life? If Yes, 1. Describe the role an influential mentor played in your adult life. 2. How was this mentor relationship established? 3. What career outcomes could you attribute to this mentor relationship? 4. What personal outcomes could you attribute to this mentor relationship? 5. Did the mentor relationship aid in balancing work and life priorities? In what way? 6. Were there any negative outcomes from the mentor relationship? If No, If you were to have a mentor, what type of assistance would you hope for in managing work and life?
2. How did having a mentor impact their perceptions of organizational commitment and turnover intention?	Did having a mentor help with commitment to your work? If so, did it make you want to stay with your organization?

(continued)

Research Questions	Survey Questions
3. How did the challenges of work life balance impact their perceptions of organizational commitment and turnover intention?	Did the mentor relationship aid in balancing work and life priorities? In what way? Did having a mentor help with commitment to your work? If so, did it make you want to stay with your organization? In what area of work and life do you wish you would have had a mentor? If No, 1. If you were to have a mentor, what type of assistance would you hope for in managing work and life? 2. Have you been or are you currently someone's mentor? Describe that relationship.
4. Did the mentorship functions experienced differ based on the characteristics of the mentor relationship?	Describe the role an influential mentor played in your adult life. How was this mentor relationship established? Have you been or are you currently someone's mentor? Describe that relationship.
5. Other findings	How would you describe a mentoring relationship?

Data were coded using the a priori frameworks from both Elder and Giele (2009) and

Kram (1988) outlined in Appendix A. Nodes were initially created to capture responses

surrounding the frameworks and additional nodes were added as themes emerged. Outcome

nodes were created from the work of Kram and other research studies. Outcomes from

mentoring, both positive and negative, are identified in Chapter 2. The following nodes were

created to aid in data coding (see Table 5).

Table 5

Nodes Created

Nodes	Basis for Node
Quotable Quotes	Recommendation of NVivo trainer
Outcomes - Beneficial	Literature Review
Intrinsic/Subjective	
Extrinsic/Objective	
Outcomes – Negative	Literature Review
Psychosocial Functions	Kram (1988)
Role Modeling	
Acceptance and Confirmation	
Counseling	
Friendship	
Career Functions	Kram (1988)
Coaching	
Sponsorship	
Exposure and Visibility	
Challenging Assignments	
Protection	
Factors contributing to an Individual's	Elder & Giele (2009)
Behavior System	
Identity	
Social Relationships	
Personal Motives	
Adaptive Style	
Additional Nodes added	Based on Responses to Survey Questions
Areas wish had a mentor	
Definition	
Mentoring others	

Participants were grouped into two sets of respondents: those who reported having a mentor and those who did not. The survey, found in Appendix B, started with a branching question that asked the participants if they had a mentor who aided them with work life balance. This branching question allowed the researcher to gather data from both those who reported having mentors who helped with work life balance and those who did not report having experienced such a mentor relationship. Of the 17 responses, nine participants answered "yes" to the question, "Have you had a mentor who helped you manage work and life?" Eight

participants answered that they did not have a mentor who helped in this way. Based on the

response to this question, the participants were asked a series of follow-up questions. Data were

coded for themes that emerged in response to this study's research questions. All references to

names in this chapter are pseudonyms to protect the identity of participants.

Research Questions and Findings

Mentors' impact on women's experiences and work life balance. The responses this

researcher analyzed came primarily from the participants who stated they had a mentor who

helped with work life balance. Additional data came from the responses that reflected the

participants' desire to have mentors who aided them with work life balance. The following

outline is based on an analysis of the responses according to the four factors identified by Elder

and Giele (2009).

Identity. Identity is the first factor from the work of Elder and Giele (2009). Identity

includes those historical, social, and cultural qualities that influence how individuals view

themselves. Responses related to identity were coded to that node and reviewed for themes.

Three themes emerged as women established their unique identities as influenced by their

mentor relationship.

First, mentors aided participants in establishing priorities in their roles, particularly in the

role of family and motherhood. Several women mentioned the seasonality of priorities for both

their roles in the family and in their professions. When women discuss work life conflict, they

often mention the conflict of role expectations in work and life. Researchers define conflict as

the tension between time devoted to one role and the strain and specific behaviors required by

that role, making it difficult to fulfill requirements in other roles (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

Inter-role conflict arises when role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually

incompatible in some respect (McMillan et al., 2011). To address this conflict, women turned to

their mentors to help set priorities.

> Stephanie: The fact that I learned to not live my life all at one time. In the early years of having children I was able to be home with them and then gradually return to work part-time and then eventually full-time as they left home. I never regret the outcome of healthy and wonderful children whom I had and still have a great relationship with. Considering season in our lives is important especially if we want a healthy marriage and to be the mother of our children. My mentor encouraged that and made me feel I was not wasting my life nor my education to stay home with my children. Other women seem to think they must give their career everything for financial purposes and then find that they do not know how to be with their family and would prefer to hire someone else to do that. That is a sad example of what our culture is doing to young women. In all I did I never gave up my service to and through the church and my faith and I am so thankful for that.

> Tina: [My mentor] has helped me through my understanding of motherhood and how important that is.

Second, participants identified with their roles as supervisors and mentors to other

employees and direct reports. One participant was very specific about mentoring both genders

and a multi-racial group.

> Stephanie: Because of that [help from mentor] and the blessed outcome of a happy and lasting marriage and children who were making good decisions, I was then able to mentor others.

> Mary: I try to ask lots of questions and help them [mentees] think through issues so they can come up with their own solutions and next steps rather than trying to tell them what they should do.

> Ann: A few young professionals have told me they see me as a mentor, but I have not committed to that role with them -- mainly because they didn't ask! It seems like a role they see in me, but I'm just being me(!) and treating them like I would any employee or direct report - with respect and support, helping them maximize their skills and abilities within the context of larger career/job goals and aspirations.

> Amber: I supervise 15 associates directly, have supervised hundreds over the years and have nearly 1,000 associates who fall under my supervision umbrella. I like to think that I play a role in mentoring their growth in some capacity.

> Lydia: I mentor several early career men and women between the ages of 20 and 30. There are four women: one White, two African American, and one Hispanic. The men are both White. Two of the women came to work for me in clerical capacities hoping to

advance to professional positions. Each of them are single. They had overcome life circumstances to finish 4-year degrees, but they lacked the confidence to put themselves forward beyond the clerical level. I mentored each of them for a bit over a year - mostly trusting them with significant responsibility and providing coaching. Today they are both recognized as high-performing professionals in our field, and I continue to mentor them through their careers. The fourth woman I hired at an early career professional level. I invite her to participate in advanced, highly visible opportunities I would otherwise accomplish myself. She has very high potential and is more advanced professionally. I am attempting to pass along all that can help her succeed to the highest levels of our company. The first young man I also hired as an early career professional and am doing similarly. He is also very high potential. The second young man is interning for me. I am going beyond what is required by the company to help him.

Third, the participants also expressed the ability to overcome challenges and develop their voices with the aid of their mentors. They expressed caution in finding their unique voices in a challenging group such as a male-dominated leadership team.

> Denise: I did not feel prepared as a young woman to make the kind of life choices that one makes in selecting a husband and beginning a family. My mentor was very influential in my life because she valued the development of her juniors, their voices and the contributions of dialogue in developing my identity in both the professional and our personal relationship. It was her genuine and authentic approach that encouraged me to trust her and to be more expressive over time. As a professional woman who may be more guarded and cautious in my social interactions, I have learned to be more open to establish new alliances. In addition, I have learned to be much more of a mentor and champion of my juniors because of her example.

> Diane: There was also the added pressure of [being] a woman in a predominantly male leadership team that you had to work a bit harder.

In addition to discussing their own roles as supervisors and mentors, participants shared their experiences in setting priorities when at times these roles might be conflicting. They mentioned the role of their faith in helping them to maintain those priorities. As they were mentored, they developed skills as mentors in both formal and informal relationships. The women in this study recognized that challenges exist but found confidence by developing their own voices with the aid of a mentor.

Social relationships. The second factor analyzed was social relationships. These relationships are shaped by loyalties and social circles and are revealed by how an individual relates to others. Participants identified themselves and how they related to others in their personal and professional realms. Of particular interest to this researcher is the relationship between the mentor and mentee and how that relationship was established. Of the nine mentors, four of them were direct supervisors, one was a work colleague but not a supervisor, two were teachers, one was a leadership coach, and one was a family member. Participants mentioned how their relationships with their mentors built their ability to create and benefit from other relationships.

> Alice: The mentor helped me foster better relationships with the people I supervise. In a sense, I became a better mentor to them.

> Denise: Our sorority is a great source of comfort and we are always beginning our conversations with a genuine exchange about the health and wellbeing of our families, our children and ourselves. When it was new, I was frequently uncertain and felt sometimes that I was being "told what to do or how to do it. I learned over time that the dispensation of wisdom is a gift from trusted friends and I have learned to hear good counsel in that way.

> Susan: The mentor relationship was established because I sought guidance and help … whenever I was at a crossroad in my career and in my personal life.

Personal motives. Personal motives include the level and type of motivation in addition to the need for achievement, affiliation, and power. These motives were reviewed based on the participants' responses to professional and personal achievements and goals. Achieving work life balance was of particular interest for participants as they responded to survey questions. When the participants' responses were analyzed for motives, some comments were clearly work-focused, other comments focused on the role mentors played in their personal lives, and additional responses reflected how their mentors emphasized balance.

Work-focused motives, expressed across participants, included specifics such as promotions, but also more general success criteria.

- I was more successful in my role as I reported to this person because of her mentoring.

- [My mentor] encouraged me to participate at higher levels of academic discourse.

- My mentors have been professional only. I have intentionally avoided work/life mentors because of the possibility of bias.

- The mentors I had were all hard drivers, aggressive and focused on achieving results.

- I have grown from a program assistant to the Chief Clinical Officer in my company over the past 19 years because of the opportunities afforded to me.

- My VP status is truly my hard work and my mentor's mentorship.

- Work: Understanding, succeeding and advancing in the organization's culture.

- Having a person in your life who knows you well professionally and personally who might be able to see things about your career trajectory that you cannot see or look out for you in terms of opportunities for development or advancement.

In addition to work-focused motives, life-focused motives expressed by the participants often included family priorities.

- [I achieved] peace in my home life, because I see that my greatest job and blessing right now is to raise my children and that work and career goals come second place.

- My mentor encouraged that and made me feel I was not wasting my life nor my education to stay home with my children.

Along with work-focused and life-focused motives, mentors aided women as they sought balance in their lives.

- She is the first to remind me of the importance of valuing my own work and my need for rewards beyond my work. We have planned girl's nights/days off and we are always there for each other through the vicissitudes of life.

- The fact that I learned to not live my life all at one time. In the early years of having children I was able to be home with them and then gradually return to work part-time and then eventually full-time as they left home. Considering season in our lives is important especially if we want a healthy marriage and to be the mother of our children.

- I stayed in my career from part to full time but changed organizations when my husband's job moved. However, because of the priorities I had the transition was an even better enhancement to my career due to the fact that I was able to keep the balance and then move to full time.

- The mentor should have values in work, family, and faith that the mentee desires. Being mentored or counseled by someone who pulls one away from that is not a healthy mentoring relationship.

- [My mentor] recommended that I work hard, take care of myself, enjoy my hobby and try to become a happy and healthy person. I try to do that every day.

- I have also had two children during this time period and have been allowed flexibility in my work schedule to participate in their school and extracurricular events. I work hard and my job can be very stressful at times but it is balanced by the flexibility to work after my children go to sleep or on weekends, if needed.

- [My mentor] has a family, enjoys traveling and demonstrates a healthy lifestyle. If I take time off for vacation, she is always happy that I am doing so. She sometimes encourages me to take an extra day and seems interested in my life outside of work.

- Every time I would speak with [my mentor] about a frustration at work she would listen and tell me "so what fun things have you done with your daughter lately?" And just that question would bring me back into balance.

Adaptive style. Adaptive style is the last factor analyzed; it describes how participants respond to change, including the timing and adaptation to major life events and challenges. This factor reveals how individuals self-report flexibility and how innovatively or traditionally they respond to change and new experiences. Three themes emerged from the analysis of the participants' responses.

Several participants expressed confidence and success in adapting to life's challenges. When participants described their confidence, they attributed their success to the support they received from their mentors. They also recognized that their mentors provided techniques and strategies to help with work life balance.

Mary: [The mentoring relationship] definitely made my experience with the organization more positive as it helped me navigate some very difficult circumstances with the organization in a positive way and with such support from my mentor.

Susan: I am glad I listened to [my mentor's] advice and stayed in my job for as long as I have. Now I feel a sense of accomplishment and confident that I can take on any challenge my life will bring.

Alice: With the coaching and stress relieving techniques shared, I was better able to balance work and life.

Stephanie: I stayed in my career from part to full time but changed organizations when my husband's job moved. However, because of the priorities I had, the transition was an ever better enhancement to my career due to the fact that I was able to keep the balance and then move to full time.

In addition to recognizing successful techniques, participants expressed gaining confidence in balancing their careers and personal lives. They attributed this progress to what they had learned from their mentors.

> Alice: I learned how to accept myself and my faults, as well as strategies to relieve stress and be more productive, efficient and happy. While I was experiencing some personal challenges, my mentor was able to support me and impart lessons that I currently utilize.

> Sally: I learned to stick up for myself and others at work, not to be afraid that others [would] look down on me, but to ask for what is right.

> Denise: I began to believe I had the academic fortitude to make contributions to others because of my growth under [my mentor's] tutelage.

Participants recognized that although they might face change with increasing confidence, they still experienced challenges when adapting to new experiences. Two participants agreed that they did not always have a mentor who supported them during specific phases of their lives.

> Judy: I realized it comes down to motivation and the will to take chances.

> Stephanie: I think with cultural and historical changes it is more stressful to keep priorities.

> Alice: I wish I would have had a mentor through college.

> Diane: I wish I could have a senior female mentor early in my career to help with balancing stressful life issues (death in family), work load as one is climbing up the ladder and dealing with sexual harassment from male peers.

Three themes emerged from the analysis of this factor. First, women expressed confidence and success in meeting challenges in both work and life. Second, they recognized that adapting to change is an ongoing requirement, and they learned techniques and skills from their mentors to aid them. Finally, challenges still exist in adapting to major life events, and a mentor could have been valuable during specific phases of their lives.

In responding to this first research question, participants revealed elements of all four factors in the behavioral system pioneered by Elder and Giele (2009). As participants described

their mentor relationship, they revealed how the experience influenced their identity,

relationships, motivation, and adaptive style. The following research questions address specific

mentor outcomes and functions.

Mentor's impact on organizational commitment and turnover intention. The second

research question focused on the role a mentor plays in an employee's commitment to the

organization and the intent to stay with the organization. Women recognized the direct

connection between a mentor's influence and their commitment to their organization. The

participants mentioned both the direct guidance the mentors provided and the example the

mentors set as role models.

> Sally: [My mentor] helped a lot. Having her example and guidance and presence has been invaluable. I know she cares. I admire the way she has influenced the university in a loving way while helping it progress and grow in positive ways. I desire to continue her work and the work of others I've had the privilege to work with.

> Mary: I very much enjoyed my relationship with my mentor. It definitely made my experience with the organization more positive as it helped me navigate some very difficult circumstances with the organization in a positive way and with much support from my mentor.

> Denise: I have been encouraged to hold the big picture by my mentor and to not be too reactive when I felt marginalized or invisible. She has been great at reminding me of my victories and my strengths.

> Susan: In summary, my mother emphasized the importance of paying my dues and being patient in seeking other opportunities. She reminded always that unless I find something more exciting or rewarding, I should stay in my current job as long as I am having fun and making a difference.

> Diane: Absolutely, as you feel more motivated and willing to go the extra mile to satisfy not only yourself but your mentor. It definitely made you want to stay with the organization despite challenging issues or politics within.

> Tina: My mentor was promoted to a district manager and the fact that she cares about her employees wanted to make you work even harder to be and stay #1.

Participants described the connection between having a mentor and being committed to their organization with the intent to stay. The next research question also focused on the two outcomes of organizational commitment and turnover intention, but it connected the outcomes specifically to the antecedent of work life balance.

Impact of work life balance on organizational commitment and turnover intention. The third research question focused on the role that work life balance can play in employee commitment to the organization and on intent to stay with the organization. Responses from several survey questions connected work life balance and commitment. One participant explained how the lessons she learned from her mentor helped her even when she had to make a transition to a new organization.

> Stephanie: In the later years when I returned to graduate school I found a wonderful mentor who did help me with commitment to my work as well as maintaining my priorities to family and faith. I stayed in my career from part to full time but changed organizations when my husband's job moved. However, because of the priorities I had, the transition was an even better enhancement to my career due to the fact that I was able to keep the balance and then move to full time.

Another participant mentioned that both her mentor and the ability to achieve work life balance contributed to organizational commitment and reduced her intention to leave.

> Amber: Again, [my mentor] modeling a good work ethic, being responsive to my requests, supportive and recognizing my work. All of these things, along with the opportunity for continuous personal growth, have kept me at this organization.

Eight of the 17 participants did not have a mentor to help them with work and life. These participants were asked in what area they wished they had assistance from a mentor. Participants who did not have mentors made the connection between balancing work and life and being successful when they described an ideal mentor.

> Ann: Someone who would cheer me on! Someone one who could help me draw work/life boundaries -- especially in my mind! (e.g., taking work home every day in my

head is very cumbersome -- how to disconnect and departmentalize while remaining committed to the job/work)

Diane: I wish I could have a senior female mentor early in my career to help with balancing stressful life issues (death in family), work load as one is climbing up the ladder and dealing with sexual harassment from male peers.

Irene: I would want their advice/wisdom about setting goals in both these areas, about decision making in these areas, and maybe some very practical solutions that they have used or know others to have used.

Lydia: Work: Understanding, succeeding and advancing in the organization's culture. Addressing problems in the workplace.

Impact of mentorship functions. The mentorship functions the participants recorded as having experienced were coded based on the work of Kram (1988), who outlined two major groups of functions in mentoring. The first, career functions, focuses on those aspects of the mentoring relationship that enhance career advancement, including sponsorship, exposure and visibility, coaching, protection, and challenging assignments. The second set of functions, psychosocial functions, focuses on the interpersonal aspects of the relationship; these include role modeling, acceptance and confirmation, counseling, and friendship. When participants mentioned experiencing any of these mentorship functions, responses were coded to that category. The analysis of the responses is presented in two sections. The first section outlines the mentorship functions experienced by the participants. The second section reviews the characteristics of the mentor relationship.

Overall, the participants reported experiencing more psychosocial functions than career functions with the exception of coaching. Table 6 provides the number of references for each area of mentorship function. For all but one of Kram's (1988) functions, participants reported experiencing the benefits of being mentored. Following Table 6, the definition and participant reflections for each function are provided.

Table 6

Mentor Functions

Area of Function	Specific Function	Number of References
Psychosocial	Role Modeling	12
Psychosocial	Acceptance and Confirmation	17
Psychosocial	Counseling	12
Psychosocial	Friendship	6
Career	Coaching	12
Career	Sponsorship	3
Career	Exposure and Visibility	1 as a mentor
Career	Challenging Assignments	3
Career	Protection	1

Kram (1988) defined role modeling as a mentor's attitudes, values, and behaviors that

provide a model for the mentee to emulate. Several participants expressed very specific ways

their mentors served as role models.

> Denise: I have learned to be much more of a mentor and champion of my juniors
> because of [my mentor's] example. My mentor has always placed a high premium on
> family life and on the social support found in peer relationships with other professional
> women.

> Stephanie: [My mentor] was definitely a role model for me as I watched her balance
> work (achieving it part-time), her family priority including her marriage, and her service
> to her faith. Since she was older I could see the outcomes of her choices in keeping work
> and family and faith balanced.

> Amber: Yes, this mentor modeled a work life balance. She has a family, enjoys
> traveling and demonstrates a healthy lifestyle. She had a very hands off but supportive
> approach to her style. She demonstrated a very strong work ethic but also a commitment
> to her personal life and family.

Acceptance and confirmation are mentoring functions through which both the mentor and

mentee derive a sense of self from the positive regard expressed by the other member of the dyad

(Kram, 1988). This function had the most references from participants. They described this

function most often with the words *encouragement* and *support*.

> Denise: Initially, I attended a class she was teaching and she responded favorably to my
> written work and gently guided me towards more public discussions. She encouraged me

to continue past my master's degree and hired me as teacher over 12 years ago. It was her genuine and authentic approach that encouraged me to trust her and to be more expressive over time. Always, she encouraged me to participate at higher levels of academic discourse. Certainly, my teaching career as an adjunct professor and as a trainer is owed to her encouragement. I began to believe I had the academic fortitude to make contributions to others because of my growth under her tutelage.

Stephanie: She was always encouraging to me as I strove to achieve this balance and I admired the way she did it. My mentor encouraged that and made me feel I was not wasting my life nor my education to stay home with my children. The fact that we moved further from each other was hard but I strove to stay in touch and to seek others ahead of me in the lifespan so I could still receive the encouragement and direction I desired.

Women also recognized the importance of encouragement when offering their definition of a mentor relationship.

Susan: A good mentoring relationship is providing someone with encouragement and having the best interest at heart. A mentor also needs to understand the mentee very well. Without knowing the person one is mentoring very well, I do not believe a mentor can provide the best possible advice and guidance. A mentor needs to really understand what the strength and the weaknesses are in a mentee and provide the best possible advice under each circumstance.

Ann: The mentor has a sincere, genuine interest in the mentee. The mentor listens, provides feedback, and offers guidance. The mentee is comfortable seeking professional guidance and feedback from the mentor, a dependable relationship, positive and energizing, supportive and encouraging, realistic and visionary at the same time.

Counseling provides an opportunity for mentees to raise personal concerns that may interfere with a sense of self at work (Kram, 1988). In the mentoring relationship, they can openly discuss anxieties, fears, and other issues that might impact their work and life. Participants in this study recognized counseling as a valuable mentor function and reported that an ongoing relationship with the mentor was beneficial.

Diane: I maintained a friendship [with my mentor] throughout the years and often would reach out to have this person as a sounding board.

Mary: I would also talk with them about various work/life balance issues and they provided good insights through the years. A trusting relationship where significant issues

can be discussed and that provides insights and support for both parties in the relationship.

Stephanie: In the later years, when I returned to graduate school, I found a wonderful mentor who did help me with commitment to my work as well as maintaining my priorities to family and faith.

Sally: [My mentor] helped me gain perspective on life and see that there are seasons to life. Things I might desire in life now but cannot do now due to the constraints of balancing family and work life, I may have a chance to do later in life.

Kram (1988) defined friendship as the function that results in mutual liking and understanding. Exchanges between mentor and mentee include discussions about both work and life experiences. Several participants mentioned friendship when they described their relationship with their mentor. In some situations, this friendship was developed over time.

Stephanie: Through a class situation when she was my teacher and then remained a friend.

Susan: My mother has been very supportive of my marriage and my personal choices and life style. I could not ask for a better mentor, friend and confidant.

Diane: I never experienced any negative outcomes, in fact quite the opposite. I maintained a friendship throughout the years and often would reach out to have this person as a sounding board.

Mary: Developed a close friendship with my mentor over time. I have been fortunate to have good mentors or good friends who were willing to listen and provide insight in all areas of my life.

Tina: I have always had a mentor. As of right now my mentor and I work at different institutions. Sometimes I think of how nice it would be if she worked with me, I miss the coaching and mentorship I would get from her in the past, but I still call her and we are great friends.

Coaching was the most frequently referenced career category function in this study. Coaching provides knowledge and understanding to the mentee that enables her to navigate the work world (Kram, 1988). This type of mentoring is described as more directive in nature than

counseling. Participants recognized the value of coaching, particularly when they experienced

challenges or needed to make decisions.

> Mary: I very much enjoyed my relationship with my mentor. It definitely made my experience with the organization more positive as it helped me navigate some very difficult circumstances with the organization in a positive way and with much support from my mentor. Provided advice on difficult situations.

> Susan: The mentor relationship was established because I sought guidance and help from my mother whenever I was at a crossroad in my career and in my personal life.

> Diane: [My mentor] provided advice on difficult situations. Outcomes from mentor relationship: Better leadership skills. Improved business skills. Motivating a team and how to deal with challenging situations and problem employees.

Although Kram (1988) identified sponsorship as the most frequently observed career

function, that was not the case in this study. Sponsorship refers to the mentor's active support of

the mentee's advancement in an organization. Participants did recognize the direct connection

between mentoring and success in their career and pinpointed specific actions taken by their

mentors.

> Mary: I was more successful in my role as I reported to this person because of their mentoring.

> Denise: [My mentor] encouraged me to continue past my Master's degree and hired me as a teacher over 12 years ago.

> Amber: When it was time to do my doctoral internship, [my mentor] assisted to set up an internship to allow me to get the experience I needed while maintaining my salary.

Exposure and visibility involves a mentor assigning responsibilities that provide the

mentee potential for future advancement in the organization (Kram, 1988). Only one participant

discussed exposure and visibility in her response. In this case, she did not experience the career

function but provided it to her mentees.

> Lydia: The fourth woman I hired at an early career professional level. I invite her to participate in advanced, highly visible opportunities I would otherwise accomplish myself. She is very high potential and more advanced professionally. I am attempting to

pass along all that can help her succeed to the highest levels of our company. The first young man I also hired as an early career professional and am doing similarly. He is also very high potential. The second young man is interning for me. I am going beyond what is required by the company to help him.

Challenging assignments are similar to exposure and visibility but relate to the immediate work of the boss-subordinate relationship. This function includes performance feedback, training, and sharing of technical knowledge (Kram, 1988). One participant commented on shared technical skills as she described her mentor and shared how she was mentoring others.

> Diane: A manager who had the technical and leadership skills to coach and mentor me during my early days in a new position. Yes and I currently provide this coaching to 2 immediate direct reports and to 1 indirect report. The two direct reports look to me for technical, strategic and leadership skill guidance and growth. The indirect report uses me as a confidential sounding board for furthering her career.

Another participant described the teaching and skill sharing in the bi-directional nature of her definition of mentorship.

> Judy: [The mentor relationship has] got to be one where there is a reciprocal relationship. While the "mentor" will provide guidance, teaching, and life lessons, the "mentee" should also show growth, and even contribute back to the mentor, perhaps in a different area. It has to be a two-way street for both to benefit. The mentor needs to see changes occur as a reward, and the mentee should probably be thankful to have the help along the way and be able to learn from both successes and failures. Knowing someone has your back is so necessary, especially for women as leaders.

Protection is a function provided by the mentor when the mentee is new or inexperienced and exposure to other senior leaders in the organization might be damaging (Kram, 1988). Participants mentioned experiencing this function when they were learning skills or were new to a position.

> Diane: A manager who had the technical and leadership skills to coach and mentor me during my early days in a new position.

> Denise: My mentor was very influential in my life because she valued the development of her juniors, their voices and the contributions of dialogue in developing my identity in both the professional and our personal relationship. By asking me for my thinking and

my reasoning, she was gently guiding me in my critical skills and allowing me the opportunity to reflect upon and discuss my thoughts in a warm, caring and safe space.

The second part of research question 3 focused on the characteristics of the mentor relationship and how the functions might be experienced differently based on those characteristics. All but one of the participants who reported having a mentor characterized the mentor relationship as formal. However, the participants experienced more psychosocial functions overall. This researcher analyzed the most frequently used words and identified those words that were more work-focused and those that were more life-focused. Work-focused terms included *work, career, professional, job, organization*, and *company*. These work related terms were referenced 99 times in the data. Life-focused words included *life, family, personal, children, marriage, church, home, friendship*, and *husband*. The life-oriented terms were referenced 109 times in the data. In this analysis, participants recognized the benefits of both work and life emphasis in their concept of mentorship. This balance can be seen by the work frequency graph produced from NVivo for this study (see Figure 1).

Figure 1. Frequency graph.

Additional Findings

In addition to the information derived from the research questions that guided this study, additional findings emerged based on the participants' responses to the survey questions. Their stated outcomes from the mentoring relationship, both positive and negative, are presented based on the a priori categories listed in Appendix C. These lists of potential outcomes were derived from the literature review in Chapter 2. Participants were asked to describe a mentoring relationship, and those responses were included for analysis. All participants were asked if they were currently mentoring others, and the response was overwhelmingly positive. Finally, participants were asked what type of assistance they would hope for if they had a mentor assisting with the management of work and life. These additional findings are included in this section and serve to enhance the results of the study.

Positive outcomes. Mentoring can be associated with positive behavioral, attitudinal, health-related, relational, motivational, and career outcomes for protégés (Eby et al., 2008). Eby et al. (2008) found that in general, mentoring more easily influences attitudes than career outcomes. The mentee-focused studies outlined in Table 1 indicate support for potential positive objective or extrinsic outcomes, such as increased compensation and promotion (Allen et al., 2004), and subjective or intrinsic outcomes, such as relationship satisfaction (Ensher & Murphy, 2011). Outcomes include potential benefits from both career and psychosocial functions of mentorship. Organizational commitment and turnover intention, the focus of research questions 2 and 3, are addressed separately. Additional outcomes were noted by the participants and were compared to the a priori list in Appendix C.

Participants responded with outcomes based on specific questions in the survey and with other comments. Two specific questions in the survey solicited the most applicable responses:

What career outcomes could you attribute to this mentor relationship? What personal outcomes could you attribute to this mentor relationship?   Extrinsic or objective outcomes and intrinsic or subjective outcomes were coded separately.

Extrinsic outcomes, derived from a variety of research studies, were outlined as part of the research proposal in the a priori list in Appendix C. Participants' responses were coded to those outcomes, and the frequency of occurrence is documented in Table 7.

Table 7

Extrinsic/Objective Outcomes

Extrinsic/Objective Outcomes	Number of References
Increased compensation	No mention of compensation
Promotion	4
Increased job performance	5
Beneficial job assignments	2
Tenure in position	1

Increased job performance and promotion were the two most-referenced outcomes from the mentor relationships. Participants referenced specific positions achieved, such as "my VP status," "teaching career and trainer," and "Chief Clinical Officer." Participants also outlined specific job skills gained as the result of having a mentor.

Alice: I feel I have been a better coach and team member, which has facilitated positive relationships and credibility amongst peers and superiors.

Mary: Growth in my role where I reported to this person. Development of skills that helped me have other career and professional opportunities. In addition, I was more successful in my role as I reported to this person because of their mentoring.

Intrinsic or subjective outcomes, also derived from a variety of research studies, were outlined as part of the research proposal in the a priori list in Appendix C. Responses that reflected these types of outcomes focused on a sense of improved confidence and belief in the

mentee's abilities. Participants also expressed an improved sense of self-awareness and emotional maturity.

> Diane: The ability to have the confidence and humility to flex my style. Improved self-awareness. Development of my own personal emotional maturity.

> Susan: Now I feel a sense of accomplishment and confident that I can take on any challenge my life will bring.

> Denise: As a professional woman who may be more guarded and cautious in my social interactions, I have learned to be more open to establish new alliances. I began to believe I had the academic fortitude to make contributions to others because of my growth under her tutelage.

> Sally: I learned to stick up for myself and others at work, not to be afraid that others will look down on me, but to ask for what is right. Peace in my home life. She helped me gain perspective on life and see that there are seasons to life.

Negative outcomes. Although most research has focused on the benefits of a mentor relationship, Kram (1988) and Eby (2007) point out a potential dark side of mentorship. Potential negative outcomes were documented in Appendix C, and a specific survey question was asked to uncover negative outcomes.

Seven participants said they had not experienced any negative outcomes that they could recall. Overall, the participants with a mentor reported experiencing few negative outcomes. Of the few responses with a negative tone, all three participants turned the concern into a positive response. One participant talked about the difficulty experienced as the mentor relationship ended.

> Stephanie: The fact that we moved further from each other was hard but I strove to stay in touch and to seek others ahead of me in the lifespan so I could still receive the encouragement and direction I desired.

Another participant initially experienced what might have "felt" like manipulation but recognized that over time she appreciated the advice.

Denise: When it was new, I was frequently uncertain and felt sometimes that I was being "told" what to do or how to do it. I learned over time that the dispensation of wisdom is a gift from trusted friends and I have learned to hear good counsel in that way.

The participant who identified her mother as her mentor accepted that what might seem to be overly protective behavior was really a desire for her to have a good life.

Susan: At times my mother can be a bit overly protective, but that is expected. I believe that is only because she does not want to see me face too many disappointments in my professional career and my personal life.

Definition of mentorship. A specific survey question asked the participants to describe a mentoring relationship. This question was asked of those who have had a mentor as well as those who reported they had not had a mentor. The responses were consistent for both those who had a mentor and those who did not. Four themes emerged as the responses were analyzed.

First, several women mentioned the importance of a trusting relationship. The mentees said they wanted a relationship where they could be open and discuss significant issues without fear.

Mary: A trusting relationship where significant issues can be discussed and that provides insights and support for both parties in the relationship.

Alice: A mutually trusting relationship, in which the mentor listens, educates and supports and the mentee shares and is open to change.

Karen: I define a mentor as someone who I can depend on without fear of having to defend my positions in choosing a career path and life choices.

Diane: trusting, honest, high integrity and respect

Tina: caring, friendship, trust, honesty, ethical, fun

Denise: An unconditional commitment to another person's growth, development and stability with no expectation of a reward - just functioning as an altruistic companion who can be as a parent, teacher or friend in seamless ways that assist you in your career, education or life.

Second, participants recognized the importance of a mentor's ability to listen.

Sally: listening, growing, challenging, loving, praying, friendship

Ann: The mentor listens, provides feedback, and offers guidance.

Third, the responses reflected the recognition that a mentoring relationship is a two-way street and, hopefully, a mutually beneficial association. Participants identified the personal learning that the mentor experiences in a positive mentoring relationship.

Cindy: A mutually transforming relationship in which one party seeks wisdom and advice from another. It is important for a mentor to ask good questions of the mentee, similar to a Quaker "clearing session." Mentee is the initiator.

Judy: It's got to be one where there is a reciprocal relationship. While the "mentor" will provide guidance, teaching, and life lessons, the "mentee" should also show growth, and even contribute back to the mentor, perhaps in a different area. It has to be a two-way street for both to benefit. The mentor needs to see changes occur as a reward, and the mentee should probably be thankful to have the help along the way and be able to learn from both successes and failures. Knowing someone has your back is so necessary, especially for women as leaders.

Finally, participants expressed the need for the mentor to know the mentee well. This observation speaks to the need for the relationship to develop over time, particularly if it is a formal mentoring process assigned by the organization.

Susan: A good mentoring relationship is providing someone with encouragement and having the best interest at heart. A mentor also needs to understand the mentee very well. Without knowing the person one is mentoring very well, I do not believe a mentor can provide the best possible advice and guidance. A mentor needs to really understand what the strength and the weaknesses are in a mentee and provide the best possible advice under each circumstance.

Irene: Having a person in your life who knows you well professionally and personally who might be able to see things about your career trajectory that you cannot see or look out for you in terms of opportunities for development or advancement. Someone who might be able to speak to your strengths and weaknesses in an unbiased way, just for your own benefit or development.

Mentoring others. All participants were asked if they were currently mentoring someone and, if so, to describe the relationship. Of the nine participants who said they have had a mentor, all said they were currently mentoring someone else and even acknowledged that they had

learned to be a good mentor from being a mentee. Of the eight participants who had not had a mentor, five said that they were currently mentoring someone. One participant said that although she was providing support to someone, she would not describe the relationship as mentorship. Another participant described a co-mentoring relationship, and one woman responded that she was not currently mentoring anyone. Several women described specific strategies they use to mentor.

> Mary: I am. We meet periodically to discuss issues of interest to the mentee. I also try to serve as a mentor to those that report to me. I try to build a relationship of trust and openness so they know they can discuss any issues with me and that I will listen and help them work through issues. I try to ask lots of questions and help them think through issues so they can come up with their own solutions and next steps rather than trying to tell them what they should do.

> Judy: Yes. I have mentored several people, mostly students, but also young professionals looking for a career path. Mostly, it has been a source of joy to see them grow, and also to see them accept failure and move forward. My current mentee is seeking full-time employment as a teacher, and has had success in teaching at several schools. She did not get the full-time position at a school where she was an interim for three years. It was very hard on her, as we spent many hours preparing for the interview, but I think my experiences and education has helped her to accept it wasn't the right place for her. The sting of that experience will take some time to get over, but she is a strong woman and will be fine. She also wants to be sure she can either help me or be there for another young lady in the future and "pay it forward." That is success for me as a mentor.

> Alice: The mentor helped me foster better relationships with the people I supervise. In a sense, I became a better mentor to them. I am a supervisor for eight individuals and part of my role is to be a coach and mentor for them. I encouraged one person to get her Master's degree to further her career and she graduated this year.

Desired work and life areas for mentors. All participants were asked in what areas they wished to have a mentor. Four expressed the desire to have a mentor who would help with work and life, specifically in balancing the two areas. Three participants expressed the need for a mentor to help with life areas such as marriage and family. Three participants identified the need for a work related mentor to help them be successful and advance, particularly in specific phases of their careers. Several participants recognized the need for a mentor who could relate to them

and provide advice for situations they were facing, especially if the mentor had gone through similar issues.

> Cindy: [I desire] regular times to connect in person, by phone, or video call (i.e., Skype). Someone who can relate to similar issues (female, similar life and career experience but further along). Can ask probing and thought provoking questions, nonjudgmental, safe and accessible.

> Judy: Someone who had a similar upbringing, and could share the "If I knew then, I would have done this instead" type of things, that would help me to think about choices. I've never had a formal mentor, but have asked others who have had more experience how they got there, what they did in terms of education, and did they know that's what they wanted when they were young. I realized it comes down to motivation and the will to take chances.

> Irene: I would want their advice/wisdom about setting goals in both these areas, about decision making in these areas, and maybe some very practical solutions that they have used or know others to have used.

Summary

Participants shared their mentorship experiences and how that experience aided with work and life balance. The data gathered were from participants who had a mentor as well as from those who had not had a mentor who helped them balance work and life. The researcher created a series of a priori frameworks based on the literature review. The results of this study correlated well with the frameworks and provided responses to the study's research questions. Additional findings were also documented based on the participants' responses to the survey questions. Chapter 5 includes the relationship of these findings to the literature review, the limitations and assumptions of this study, the participants' demographics, the implications of the study, and recommendations for future research.

Chapter 5: Conclusions

Organizations need strategies to retain valuable employees, particularly as the job market improves and employees have opportunities to leave. Organizational leaders need to ensure that effective strategies are identified and implemented in order to avoid the cost of losing and replacing valuable employees. Research studies document the connection between mentoring and increased organizational commitment and reduced turnover intention (Wanberg et al., 2006), and other studies tie work life balance to increased organizational commitment and reduced turnover intention (Eby et al., 2005). However, very few studies focus on the role that mentoring can play in achieving work life balance (Nielson et al., 2001). This researcher identified a research gap that served as the basis for this study.

Summary of the Study

This study adds to the body of mentorship literature and to the strategies for achieving work life balance. Seventeen women completed an online survey that asked them to discuss their experiences with mentors and work life balance. Nine of the 17 women surveyed responded that they did have or had once had a mentor who helped them manage work and life. For the majority of these women, this mentor was their supervisor. The participants who had mentors experienced positive outcomes with little or no negative outcomes. The women surveyed made the connection between having a mentor and experiencing increased organizational commitment and reduced turnover intention. All but one of the participants was mentoring another person. Participants were consistent in their definition of mentorship and recognized the need for a mentor to aid in work life balance.

Relationship to Literature Review

The literature review served several purposes in this study. First, the literature review aided in defining mentorship in all its forms including both formal and informal relationships. Second, Chapter 2 provided a theoretical framework from which to analyze the findings and support the concept of the leader as a mentor. Third, mentorship outcomes were consolidated from a variety of studies; both positive and negative outcomes were used to create an a priori list for coding data. Two particular outcomes were a focus of this study, organizational commitment and turnover intention. Fourth, the literature findings indicated that mentorship can be tied to achieving work life balance based on the evolving concepts moving from work life conflict to work life harmony. The relationship between mentorship and achieving work life balance was the research gap that formed the basis of this study. Finally, mentorship and work life balance benefit the organization, the mentor, and the mentee. The benefits, as experienced by these women, contribute to the implications and recommendations from this study.

The traditional definition of mentor describes the relationship between a more senior individual aiding a younger adult. The mentor supports, guides, and counsels the younger individual (Kram, 1983). However, mentorship can take many forms, be formal or informal, involve senior and junior level employees, be part of a developmental network, or be a peer relationship. This study's participants had mostly supervisors as mentors. One woman did mention a co-mentoring relationship. All participants of this study were asked to define a mentor relationship. They recognized the need for a trusting connection but also expanded on the formal definition by recognizing that mentorship is a two-way affiliation and should be mutually beneficial. Participants also said that the mentor has the responsibility to listen and understand

him or her well in order for the relationship to be most beneficial. The participants were not asked to report their mentor's gender but the majority of mentors were women based on the data.

Frameworks from the work of Elder and Giele (2009) and Kram (1988) were used to code the data. The use of these frameworks as an a priori structure greatly aided this researcher in the development of themes. Elder and Giele identified four main factors that contribute to an individual's behavioral system. All four factors were analyzed in Chapter 4 and correlated to the participants' responses. Kram identified mentorship functions in two major categories. All of the functions were experienced by the mentees, and one function was identified by a participant in her role as mentor. In this study, the framework elements were identifiable in the participants' lived experiences.

Two underlying theories were discussed in the literature review, social learning and social exchange theory. Social learning theory recognizes that people learn by watching models, such as parents, teachers, supervisors, and observing the consequences of their behavior (Davis & Luthans, 1980). Participants recognized all three model categories as mentors and specifically acknowledged that their mentors helped them become better mentors to others. The participants in this study did not describe multiple mentors specifically, but social learning theory recognizes the need for multiple models. Social exchange theory states that social relationships are negotiated exchanges between parties (Blau, 1986). In many of the responses, participants identified the give and take of the mentor relationship, both in what they experienced and in what they would hope to gain from engaging with a mentor.

The literature review discussed transformational leadership, particularly the aspects of role modeling, seeking mutual benefits, and building trust and collaboration. The participants in this study shared all of these elements when they described their mentors or discussed how they

were mentoring others. One particular phrase from the literature review emerged as a theme in this study; mentorship is leadership training that goes beyond the classroom (Homsey, 2010).

Outcomes from the mentor relationship were discussed widely as part of the literature review. The participants in this study experienced many of the outcomes mentioned in the literature, but not all of the outcomes that were identified in previous studies. Outcomes can be grouped into two categories: extrinsic/objective and intrinsic/subjective. Responses described beneficial outcomes in both categories. The potential of negative outcomes from the mentor relationship was also discussed in the literature review. This study did not find negative outcomes reported by the participants, although a specific survey question was asked to solicit this information.

Of particular interest to this study were two outcomes: organizational commitment and turnover intention. The literature review outlined research studies that connected mentorship and work life balance to increased organizational commitment and reduced turnover intention (Wanberg et al., 2006). Participants in this study identified the connection in their own lives for these two specific outcomes of a mentor relationship.

The concept of work life balance has been an evolving conversation, which is documented in the literature review. Initially, authors discussing the concept identified it as a conflict between roles with limited resources (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Then the discussion recognized that balancing roles is a possibility, and recently authors have acknowledged that work roles and life roles can actually achieve harmony or contribute to the other (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Participants in this study still recognized that setting work and life goals and priorities can be challenging. In fact, during certain seasons of life, one area might need to take precedence in terms of allocating resources such as time and energy. Participants did understand

that they needed to set priorities but did not explicitly describe overt benefits derived between the two areas of work and life. They did recognize that peace could be achieved when roles were in balance with priorities.

One concept identified in the literature review was the continuum from completely integrated work and life roles to segmented roles (Powell & Greenhaus, 2010). Participants in this study discussed how they tried to integrate work and life but experienced the challenges of segmentation. One participant actually said she had not sought a mentor to help with both work and life because she had only focused on finding a career mentor.

Finally, the literature review outlined the benefits of mentoring for the organization, the mentor, and the mentee. A focus of the literature review was on a formal mentor program in an organization. None of the participants in this study referenced a formal mentor program as the source of her mentor relationship. However, most did identify their mentor as a supervisor or teacher. Although the mentor relationship was not formally assigned, it was part of a formal organizational structure. Much of the literature review applied to the lived experiences of these participants, particularly the positive nature of having a mentor and striving for work life balance.

Limitations and Assumptions

The study was limited due to the population selected. Only women were interviewed for the initial Digital Women's Project (Weber, 2011), and that population was resurveyed for this research study. Therefore, the results may not be generalized to males facing work life balance challenges. Only those women who were willing to complete an online survey were participants in this study. The online nature of the survey limited participation to those with an e-mail address and sufficient computer skills to complete the survey. Participants self-reported, and this

researcher assumes they offered honest and accurate descriptions of their experiences with mentors. Because the study was qualitative, the population was relatively small and results may not be generalized to larger populations. This survey did not define the term mentor, leaving it open to the respondents to determine how they define the role. The majority of participants who had mentors identified them as supervisors or teachers. Although this study was not an evaluation of a formal mentor program, the relationship for most women was a formal organizational relationship. The initial survey question also limited the definition of a mentor as one who helped the participants manage work and life. Other mentor relationships were not investigated due to the focus of this study.

Demographics and Findings

The women in this population were mainly graduate students and other women leaders. These participants may not represent the population of women in general and specifically across socio-economic classes. The age range for the participants was from 36-74 years old, with the average age of 51. The participants were well educated, all reporting at least a bachelor's degree. Based on the reported salaries, these participants were upper middle class. Ethnic groups represented were Caucasian, Asian, African American, and Caucasian/Asian. No Latina participants completed the survey. A variety of family configurations were reported, as not all women reported having children, and participants selected a marital status of married, divorced, or single. Participants did not specifically identify industries where they worked, but the data revealed the women worked in higher education and other for profit and nonprofit work settings.

The first finding came as the result of the structure of the survey. The survey started with the branching question that asked if the participant had a mentor who helped her manage work and life. The response to this question was "yes" or "no" and activated branching to a series of

other questions. The participants responded to this question based on their definition of a mentor and if they perceived a mentor had aided them in this way. Nine of the 17 participants reported having a mentor who helped them with the challenges of achieving work life balance.

For those who responded positively to that question and recognized they had experienced such a mentor relationship, they were asked to describe that affiliation and provide a series of responses characterizing the nature of the assistance and the outcomes of the mentorship. The mentors were mostly in a formal organizational relationship with the mentee: the mentor was either a supervisor or a teacher. No participants mentioned a formal mentor program but they did outline the initial relationship with the mentor. However, several participants described the relationship evolving into friendship over time and existing even when they no longer worked together or were in the original teacher-student dyad. Several participants described a longer-term relationship with their mentor.

The participants were asked to describe what role an influential mentor had played in their adult life. To analyze the response to this question and responses from other questions in the survey, this researcher used the factors from the work of Elder and Giele (2009). These factors contribute to an individual's behavioral system and include identity, social relationships, personal motives, and adaptive style. The major finding was that the participants were influenced by their mentors in all four factors. The women identified how their mentors impacted them, enabling them to meet the challenges of work and life. The participants did acknowledge that they had challenges as they balanced the expectations of multiple roles and provided some details about them.

Based on the women's descriptions of how they were mentored, this researcher coded the described life experiences by using the work of Kram (1988). The two main categories of

functions are psychosocial and career functions. Overall, the participants in this study experienced more psychosocial mentoring than career functions in their mentor relationships. Mentors did aid their mentees in evaluating their roles and setting priorities for potentially conflicting or demanding work and life expectations. Several participants described their ability to balance their roles and find harmony in them because of the guidance given and the example set by their mentors. Mentees recognized that during certain seasons of life, their priorities might change and that balance does not mean equality, but allocation of resources based on setting goals and recognizing capabilities.

Evaluating outcomes was a large part of this research study. Particularly, this researcher was interested in the impact that both mentorship and work life balance had on organizational commitment and turnover attention. The connection between these two outcomes and retention of valuable employees is an important consideration for organizational leaders. Specific questions in the survey solicited this information. In both cases, for mentorship and work life balance, participants made the connection with commitment to their organization and willingness to stay in their positions. Even when circumstances changed and one participant had to move to another organization, she mentioned that the skills she had learned went with her to new opportunities.

This researcher also coded and analyzed other outcomes mentioned by participants. Outcomes can be categorized into two major groups, which are discussed in Chapter 2 and documented in Appendix C. Participants reported experiencing outcomes that are described as intrinsic/subjective and other outcomes that are extrinsic/objective. Of the extrinsic outcomes, references were most frequent for increased job performance and promotions. Of the intrinsic/subjective outcomes, women described a sense of improved confidence and belief in

their abilities. They also expressed an improved sense of self-awareness and emotional maturity. Other studies have documented negative outcomes from mentor relationships (Eby & Allen, 2002; Eby et al., 2000; Ensher & Murphy, 2011). However, the participants in this study did not report significant negative outcomes. In fact, when a few challenges were mentioned, they described them as eventually creating a positive outcome.

One of the more recent discussions about work and life balance describes the individual's preference for segmented or integrated work and life (Powell & Greenhaus, 2010). Most participants described the need to integrate these two sets of roles, but other participants saw the need to segment the roles or focus on one set of roles for a season, particularly the role of mother. One participant specifically mentioned that she sought a mentor only for work roles and did not want a mentor who aided her in life roles. This finding has implications as organizations seek to create policies and programs to help employees with work and life. If employees want integration, then policies such as flex time and childcare might be seen as positive. If employees want segmentation, the same policies might be viewed as negative.

Both sets of participants, those who identified a mentor relationship and those who did not have a mentor, were asked three additional questions. First, the participants were asked what type of assistance they would hope for from a mentor in managing work and life. Second, they were asked if they have been or are currently someone's mentor. Finally, the participants were asked to describe what they saw as a mentoring relationship.

When asked what they would like from a mentor, four women expressed the need for assistance with balancing work and life. Three participants focused on the need for a mentor to help with life areas such as marriage and family. Three participants asked for just the opposite, needing a mentor to help them be successful in their career. Overall, participants described the

importance of the mentor relating to them well and providing advice for situations they might face, no matter what the area.

When participants were asked if they ever have mentored or are currently mentoring someone, the response was overwhelmingly positive. All nine of the participants who had mentors are currently mentoring others, and several credited their mentor as their role model. Of the eight who did not have a mentor, five are currently mentoring, one is providing support, one is in a co-mentoring relationship, and one woman responded in the negative. This finding is particularly encouraging as women are mentoring others and hopefully seeing the positive outcomes of a mentor relationship for the mentor, the mentee, and the organization.

All participants were asked to describe a mentoring relationship. The characteristics of a mentor were consistent both for those who had a mentor and those who did not report having one to aid in work and life. Participants wanted a trusting relationship, one that was a mutually beneficial two-way exchange. They wanted their mentor to know them well and to be willing to listen in addition to providing guidance and feedback.

The research gap identified as the basis of this study was the impact a mentor can play in aiding a mentee with work and life. Nine of the 17 women responding to this survey had such a mentor. Even those who did not have a mentor recognized that they could benefit from a mentor in this area. The participants were also mentoring others and had a well-defined sense of the characteristics of a good mentor relationship. For this population, the connection between mentorship and work life balance was experienced.

Implications of the Study

As organizational leaders consider strategies for retention of valuable employees, they should consider a culture that encourages mentorship and concern themselves with aiding

employees in balancing their roles at work and at home. This study, for these participants, found very positive outcomes from a mentor relationship that helped mentees manage work and life. Of particular interest were retention-related outcomes: organizational commitment and turnover intention. Few negative outcomes were mentioned by the participants, suggesting that these relationships were mutually beneficial.

The majority of mentors described played a formal leadership role for the mentees. Six of the nine mentors were supervisors or teachers. The implication for organizations is the need to train supervisors and other authority figures to be effective mentors. Experiencing a mentor relationship provides benefits to organizations, mentors, and mentees, as discussed in Chapter 2. If supervisors can mentor employees effectively, the beneficial outcomes can lead to retention. Supervisors can be trained specifically to understand the functions of mentors, the phases of the mentor relationship, the potential negative outcomes of mentoring, and how achieving work life balance can aid in improving organizational commitment and reducing turnover intention. This training could be included in new supervisory training or ongoing leadership training programs.

This researcher found the number of participants who were mentoring others very encouraging. The participants who had mentors described them as role models because they were mentoring others. However, even those who did not report having a mentor were playing a role by helping others prioritize their roles in work and life. Hopefully, this interest in giving back and aiding others is representative of a larger population.

Work life conflict was evident; participants did mention challenges of balancing expectations of themselves and others. However, they also discussed how they had found balance during specific phases of life. The women did state clearly that balance is not equality but the allocation of resources based on goals and capabilities.

Mentorship in the area of work life balance will continue to evolve and should continue to be studied and encouraged. Not all leaders are mentors and not all mentors are leaders (Godshalk & Sosik, 2007). However, those leaders and supervisors who are interested in mentoring can make a significant difference in the lives of mentees.

Recommendations for Future Research

Because the research gap exists, research that focuses on the role mentors play in aiding mentees with work life balance needs to continue beyond this study. Because this was a qualitative and phenomenological study, the number of participants was relatively small. The survey questions used in this study can be sent to other populations. Specific populations could be identified and studied and compared by gender, race, socio-economic class, or nationality.

The same questions in this online survey could be used in a face-to-face interview method to solicit potentially more in-depth responses. An interview method would allow for follow-up and clarifying questions. The women who were interviewed for this study were asked if they would be willing to provide more information. These women could be contacted and additional questions could be posed.

Specific types of mentorship in organizations could be studied, particularly those organizations that have a formal mentor program. One potential longitudinal study could interview or survey the mentees before and after they participated in a formal mentor program. Organizations could implement a mentor training program and evaluate the effectiveness of the mentor relationship or outcomes before and after the training. Specific industries or organizational types, such as nonprofits, could be the setting for future research.

Even though negative outcomes were not reported in this study, other studies have documented a dark side of mentoring (Eby & Allen, 2002; Eby et al., 2000; Ensher & Murphy,

2011). Participants who have experienced negative outcomes from a mentor relationship could be identified and studied. These recommendations for future research could continue to inform the mentor and work life balance literature and aid organizations with policy and program development.

Summary

Mentorship is leadership training that goes beyond the classroom (Homsey, 2010). Employees are seeking opportunities to effectively balance the responsibilities of work and life. Having a mentor who can help guide the mentees in this area can produce positive outcomes. Organizational leaders can build climates and cultures that encourage mentorship. Supervisors can be trained to understand the mentor relationship better and encouraged to provide mentorship functions. As mentees experience a positive mentor relationship, they can mentor others. The findings of this study reinforce the potential benefits of effective mentorship for mentees, mentors, and the organization.

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APPENDIX A

Elder and Giele's (2009) Four Behavior Dimensions Mapped to Kram's (1988) Two Major

Categories of Mentorship Functions

Main factors which contribute to an individual's behavioral system (Elder & Giele, 2009)	Mentorship Functions (Kram, 1988)
Identity (historical & cultural)	Psychosocial functions (role modeling)
Social Relationships – relationship style shaped by loyalties and social circles	Career functions (coaching)
	Psychosocial functions (acceptance and confirmation, counseling and friendship)
Personal motives – level and type of motivation (achievement, affiliation, power)	Career functions (sponsorship, exposure and visibility, challenging assignments)
	Psychosocial functions (acceptance and confirmation)
Adaptive Style – Timing and adaptation to major life events	Career functions (coaching, protection)
	Psychosocial functions (counseling and friendship)

APPENDIX B

Survey Questions

Initial Question:

Have you had a mentor who helped you manage work and life?

If Yes,

1. Describe the role an influential mentor played in your adult life.

2. How was this mentor relationship established?

3. What career outcomes could you attribute to this mentor relationship?

4. What personal outcomes could you attribute to this mentor relationship?

5. Did the mentor relationship aid in balancing work and life priorities? In what way?

6. Were there any negative outcomes from the mentor relationship?

7. Did having a mentor help with commitment to your work? If so, did it make you want to stay with your organization?

8. In what area of work and life do you wish you would have had a mentor?

9. Have you been or are you currently someone's mentor? Describe that relationship.

10. How would you describe a mentoring relationship?

If No,

1. If you were to have a mentor, what type of assistance would you hope for in managing work and life?

2. Have you been or are you currently someone's mentor? Describe that relationship.

3. How would you describe a mentoring relationship?

Mother's Maiden Name _____

Would you be willing to be interviewed to collect additional information for this study?

If so, please provide your phone number _____

APPENDIX C

A Priori Framework

Potential a priori list of beneficial outcomes from research studies

Intrinsic/Subjective Outcomes	Extrinsic/Objective Outcomes
Career/Job satisfaction	Increased compensation
Relationship satisfaction	Promotion
Organizational commitment	Increased job performance
Career commitment	Beneficial job assignments
Intention to stay	Tenure in position
Managerial aspirations	
Career goal clarity/planning	
Expectation for advancement	
Perceived career success	
Organizational socialization	
Reduced stress	
Increased self-esteem	

Potential a priori list of negative outcomes

Eby, McManus, Simon, & Russell's (2000) taxonomy of negative mentoring experiences based on Scandura's (1998) potential mentoring dysfunctions	Eby and Allen (2002) studied the implications of negative experiences for protégés
Negative relations	Distancing/Manipulative Behavior
Sabotage	Poor Dyadic Fit
Difficulty	Less job satisfaction
Spoiling	Higher stress
	Stronger intention to leave the organization

APPENDIX D

Consent Form

Project Title: Mentorship & Work Life Balance Study

Project Researcher:
Rhonda Allison Capron
Graduate School of Education and Psychology
Pepperdine University
XXX.XXX.XXXX
Rhonda.Capron@Pepperdine.edu

Project Director:
Dr. Margaret J. Weber
Graduate School of Education and Psychology
Pepperdine University
6100 Center Dr.
Los Angeles, CA 90045
310.568.5600

This is a consent form for contributing to the Mentorship & Work Life Balance Study. It contains important information about this study and what to expect if you decide to contribute. All contributions are voluntary. Please consider the information carefully. Feel free to email the Project Researcher before making your decision on whether or not to contribute. If you decide to contribute to the study after reading this document, we assume you have agreed to the terms of this consent form. This research project is being conducted by the project researcher in partial fulfillment of the requirements for a dissertation. Thank you for considering your participation in the study.

Purpose
Women are making important strides in education, careers, and influencing the global economy, while at the same time nurturing families. The purpose of study is to explore the role that mentors play in helping women to achieve work life balance. The results of this research study have significance for women and men, as well as for organizations, as we seek to understand more about the work-family life balance issues facing individuals and families today. The results could help in providing women with better understanding of coping strategies both for work and family life; aid organizations with family-friendly policy development; as well as contributing to the body of knowledge that supports women pursuing their dreams. Such an archive has great value as a historical, cultural, and educational record. We want to make it possible for women to contribute their experiences and have them recorded as part of this record.

Duration
We estimate that responding to the questions will take approximately 20 minutes depending on how much time you choose to take. Please complete the survey alone in a single setting.

Risks and Benefits

The potential risk in completing this information is recalling a prior situation that could be perceived as sensitive or provoke an emotional response. You can stop responding to the survey at any time. You can also choose not to complete any question by leaving it blank. Your information will be kept confidential. Any quotes used in published research will be attributed through the use of a pseudonym. After you complete this survey, only the Project Director and Project Researcher will have access to your name and e-mail address. This information will be used only to contact you about your submission and is stored separately from the survey responses.   The data will be stored in a secure manner for at least three years at which time the data will be destroyed. After two weeks, a reminder e-mail will be sent. Since the e-mail reminder will go out to everyone, I apologize ahead of time for sending you the reminder if you have already completed the survey.

Contributors' Rights

You are free to decide not to participate or to withdraw at any time without it affecting your relationship with any entity. Participants do not receive any direct benefit from their participation in the study.

An Institutional Review Board responsible for human subjects at the Pepperdine University reviewed this project and found it to be acceptable, according to applicable state and federal regulations and University policies designed to protect the rights and welfare of contributors.

Contacts and Questions

For questions, concerns, or complaints about the project, you may contact Dr. Margaret J. Weber, Graduate School of Education and Psychology, Pepperdine University, 6100 Center Dr., Los Angeles, CA 90045, 310.568.5600 or dwproject@pepperdine.edu.

For questions about your rights as a contributor to this project or to discuss other study-related concerns or complaints with someone who is not part of the research team, you may contact Dr. Yuying Tsong, IRB Chairperson at the Graduate School of Education and Psychology (yuying.tsong@pepperdine.edu or call at 310.568.5600).

Contributing to the Study

I affirm that I have read (or someone has read to me) this form, and I am aware that I am being asked to contribute to an archival project. I have had the opportunity to ask questions and have had them answered to my satisfaction. I voluntarily agree to contribute to this project.

APPENDIX E

IRB Approval

PEPPERDINE UNIVERSITY

Graduate & Professional Schools Institutional Review Board

May 9, 2014

Rhonda Capron

Protocol #: E0414D06
Project Title: The Role Mentors Play in Women's Work Life Balance

Dear Ms. Capron:
Thank you for submitting your application, *The Role Mentors Play in Women's Work Life Balance,* for exempt review to Pepperdine University's Graduate and Professional Schools Institutional Review Board (GPS IRB). The IRB appreciates the work you and your faculty advisor, Dr. Weber, have done on the proposal. The IRB has reviewed your submitted IRB application and all ancillary materials. Upon review, the IRB has determined that the above entitled project meets the requirements for exemption under the federal regulations (45 CFR 46 - http://www.nihtraining.com/ohsrsite/guidelines/45cfr46.html) that govern the protections of human subjects. Specifically, section 45 CFR 46.101(b)(2) states:

> (b) Unless otherwise required by Department or Agency heads, research activities in which the only involvement of human subjects will be in one or more of the following categories are exempt from this policy:
> **Category (2) of 45 CFR 46.101**, research involving the use of educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures or observation of public behavior, unless: a) Information obtained is recorded in such a manner that human subjects can be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects; and b) any disclosure of the human subjects' responses outside the research could reasonably place the subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the subjects' financial standing, employability, or reputation.

In addition, your application to waive documentation of informed consent has been approved.

Your research must be conducted according to the proposal that was submitted to the IRB. If changes to the approved protocol occur, a revised protocol must be reviewed and approved by the IRB before implementation. For any proposed changes in your research protocol, please submit a **Request for Modification Form** to the GPS IRB. Because your study falls under exemption, there is no requirement for continuing IRB review of your project. Please be aware that changes to your protocol may prevent the research from qualifying for exemption from 45 CFR 46.101 and require submission of a new IRB application or other materials to the GPS IRB.

A goal of the IRB is to prevent negative occurrences during any research study. However, despite our best intent, unforeseen circumstances or events may arise during the research. If an unexpected situation or adverse event happens during your investigation, please notify the GPS IRB as soon as possible. We will ask for a complete explanation of the event and your response. Other actions also may be required depending on the nature of the event. Details regarding the timeframe in which adverse events must be

reported to the GPS IRB and the appropriate form to be used to report this information can be found in the *Pepperdine University Protection of Human Participants in Research: Policies and Procedures Manual* (see link to "policy material" at http://www.pepperdine.edu/irb/graduate/).

Please refer to the protocol number denoted above in all further communication or correspondence related to this approval. Should you have additional questions, please contact Kevin Collins, Manager of the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at gpsirb@peppderdine.edu. On behalf of the GPS IRB, I wish you success in this scholarly pursuit.

Sincerely,

Thema Bryant-Davis, Ph.D.
Chair, Graduate and Professional Schools IRB

cc: Dr. Lee Kats, Vice Provost for Research and Strategic Initiatives
        Mr. Brett Leach, Compliance Attorney
        Dean Margaret Weber, Faculty Advisor

APPENDIX F

EDOL Course Integration

Fall 2011

EDOL 714 Organizational Behavior, Theory and Design   Dr. June Schmieder-Ramirez

EDOL 724 Ethics and Personal Leadership   Dr. Farzin Madjidi

EDOL 755 E-Learning: Theory and Practice   Dr. Elio Spinello

Spring 2012

EDOL 700 Leadership Theory and Practice   Dr. Farzin Madjidi

EDOL 763 Learning Design and Evaluation   Dr. Michael Patterson

EDOL 766 Research Design and Analysis   Dr. Doug Leigh

Summer 2012

EDOL 754A Economic and Political Systems   Dr. Farzin Madjidi

EDOL 754B International Policy Experience   Dr. Farzin Madjidi

EDOL 758A Consultancy Project   Dr. Andrew Harvey

Fall 2012

EDOL 734 Advanced Data Analysis and Interpretation   Dr. Thomas Granoff

EDOL 764 Consultancy Project   Dr. Andrew Harvey

EDOL 767 Qualitative Research Design and Analysis   Dr. Kay Davis

Spring 2013

EDOL 765 Strategic Leadership & Mgmt of Global Change   Dr. June Schmieder-Ramirez

EDOL 759 Law and Dispute Resolution   The Honorable John Tobin

EDOL 785 Contemporary Topics   Dr. Andrew Harvey

Summer 2013

EDOL 753 Leadership, Advocacy and Policy Development   Dr. Jack McManus

EDOL 757 Entrepreneurship							Dr. Vance Caesar

<u>Fall 2013</u>

EDOL 787 Comprehensive Exam Seminar			Dr. Jack McManus

<u>Spring and Summer 2014</u>

EDOL 791 Dissertation Research						Dean Margaret Weber, Ph.D.