

Running Head: GENDER AND MENTORING

A critical examination of mentorship and sponsorship as a pathway to advancement

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Abstract

In a field study of 641 Masters of Business Administration (MBA) graduates mentoring was associated with improved socio-emotional and career outcomes; however, male and female protégés' outcomes differed. Having a mentor was associated with greater financial compensation for both male and female protégés but mentoring was not associated with a reduction in the gender gap between men's and women's compensation. Additionally, male protégés experienced more promotions compared to female protégés. Despite these differences, female protégés experienced similar work satisfaction compared to male protégés, and female managers without mentors reported particularly low satisfaction with work. We discuss the implications of these findings for theory and work practices.

Keywords: Gender in Organizations, Mentors, Pay and Rewards

Mentoring and the Gender Gap:

Women's Satisfaction and Men's Career Advancement

More than 40 years after the passage of the Civil Rights Act which made it illegal to discriminate against women in the workplace and despite numerous affirmative action programs, female managers' careers still lag behind those of males (Blau and Kahn, 2006; Dreher and Dougherty, 1997; Glass Ceiling Commission, 1995). Marketplace data (Catalyst, 2007b; Cotter et al., 2004; Leonhardt, 2006; Women's Bureau of Department of Labor, 2006), analyses restricted to managerial and professional women holding other factors equal (e.g., Betz and Fitzgerald, 1987; Blau and Kahn, 2006; Marini, 1989; Stroh et al., 1992), and recent meta-analyses (Eby et al., 2008; Ng et al., 2005) consistently indicate that female managers do not achieve the same career outcomes as male managers in terms of either pay or promotions. For example, although women make up 46% of the nonagricultural workforce (Women's Bureau of Department of Labor, 2006), they hold only 16.4% of Fortune 500 corporate officerships, 14.7% of Fortune 500 board seats, and 1.6% of Fortune 500 CEO positions (Catalyst, 2007a). Moreover, college educated women between the ages of 21 and 30 earn 89% of what men earn (Roberts, 2007); and surprisingly, the gap in salaries between all men and women has widened slightly in the past decade (Cotter et al., 2004; Leonhardt, 2006). These statistics reflect and embody the *gender gap*, the disparity between men and women in both financial compensation and position in organizational hierarchies (Glass Ceiling Commission, 1995). The gender gap persists despite evidence that women have relatively similar capabilities to men—particularly when comparing men and women with similar educational backgrounds (Duckworth and Seligman, 2005; Hussar, 2006; Kimball, 1989; King, 2006; Mau and Lynn, 2001; Perkins et al., 2004; Peter and Horn, 2005; Pomerantz et al., 2002).

The goal of this study is to increase our understanding of the relationship between mentoring and the persistence of this gender gap with respect to male and female managers' psychosocial and career-related outcomes. Mentoring seems to be an ideal mechanism to address the gender gap because mentors by definition take an interest in protégés' careers and research suggests that in doing so they may facilitate protégés' psychosocial (Allen et al., 2004, 2008; Eby et al., 2008; Fagenson and Burke, 1989;

Simon and Eby, 2003) and career-related outcomes (Allen et al., 2006; Aryee et al., 1996; Dreher and Ash, 1990; Hunt and Michael, 1983; Scandura, 1992; Turban and Dougherty, 1994; Whitely and Coetsier, 1993; Whitely et al., 1991; Williams et al., 2009). However, there is some evidence that mentoring may not have a uniformly beneficial effect on men's and women's career and psychosocial outcomes (Arnold and Johnson, 1997; Aryee et al., 1996; Whitely and Coetsier, 1993). Although some studies find no significant gender differences in mentorship's benefits (Allen and Eby, 2004; Dreher and Ash, 1990; Whitely et al., 1991), others show that female protégés receive fewer benefits than male protégés (Lyness and Thompson, 2000).

This paper addresses the question of whether male and female managers receive differential benefits from mentoring. If mentoring helps women achieve promotions, compensation, and work satisfaction more than men, then mentoring should reduce the gender gap on these career outcomes and could be used in a proactive fashion by organizations to address gender inequality. In contrast, if mentoring helps men and women uniformly, and controlling for age, education, and experience, men have higher level positions and higher levels of compensation and satisfaction than women; then the evidence would suggest that mentoring helps both men and women, but will not resolve the career gender gap. In subsequent sections we develop hypotheses that propose that the impact of mentoring on male and female managers' careers is not uniform. We propose that with respect to pay and promotions mentoring may actually be associated with continued disparity between male and female managers. In contrast, with respect to subjective measures such as work satisfaction, we propose that mentoring may be associated with a reduced gender gap.

Gender, Mentorship, and Careers

Defining Mentorship

Mentoring has been defined broadly as someone who serves as a resource for protégés (Riley and Wrench, 1985) and more narrowly, as 'individuals who significantly affected or improved their [protégés'] career mobility' (Scandura and Ragins, 1993: 256); or who have 'advanced experience and knowledge and who are committed to providing upward mobility and support to their protégés' career'

(Hunt and Michaels, 1983; Murray, 2001; Ragins and Cotton, 1991; Ragins and Scandura, 1997: 948). In this study we purposefully did not define mentorship for participants, we simply asked them whether or not they had a mentor. Our reasoning was based on our research question as follows: Our hypotheses link mentoring with career outcomes and work satisfaction. Had we defined a mentor in terms of effectively providing career and socio-emotional support, we risked invoking a self-selection bias excluding respondents who perceived their mentors as not providing or ineffectively providing career and socio-emotional support. Such bias in turn could falsely increase the strength of the relationship between mentoring and career and socio-emotional outcomes. Our approach recognizes that not all mentors may be able to deliver or may not be perceived to deliver such outcomes. As Ragins put it, ‘mentoring is not an all-or-nothing relationship’ (1997: 484).

Gender, Mentoring, and Career Advancement

Mentoring may help women advance in their careers (Dreher and Dougherty, 1997; Kanter, 1977; Lyness and Thompson, 2000; Noe, 1988); yet, persistent biases in the workplace may prevent mentoring from closing the gender gap in pay and promotions. Many organizations remain what Kanter (1977) described as ‘gendered’ work environments; that is, they reflect and reward stereotypically male traits and values such as rationality, aggression, and emotional stability (Acker, 1990). Despite the fact that there is no hard evidence demonstrating any differences between men and women on these traits (Heilman et al., 1995), these gendered workplaces can create a more difficult career environment for women than for men. For example, 52% of senior women managers reported that their male colleagues’ stereotypes and gender role biases presented a major barrier to their career advancement (Catalyst, 1996). Gendered work environments may exclude women from the critical information networks that career advancement often requires (Arnold and Johnson, 1997; Burt, 1992; Chao et al., 1992; Fagenson and Burke, 1989; Feeney and Bozeman, 2008; Friedman et al., 1998; Higgins and Kram, 2001; Ibarra, 1992; Mehra et al., 1998; O’Leary and Ickovics, 1992). Women’s social networks within organizations compared to men’s are less likely to include key organizational decision makers. This may marginalize their access to organizational information that could enhance their performance and may impede their access to specific advice that

could help promote their careers (Ibarra, 1992; Kirchmeyer, 2005; Mehra et al., 1998). Furthermore, women's social network ties are often emotionally intense (strong) ties (Fischer, 1982), which tend to be good for emotional support but unproductive for career mobility and advancement (Granovetter, 1973).

We suggest that the gendered organization that excludes women managers from the critical information networks often required for career advancement may also inhibit mentors from facilitating women's careers as easily as they can facilitate men's careers. Thus, although both mentored men and mentored women experience career benefits relative to non-mentored men and women (see Allen et al., 2004 for a meta-analysis), our review of the literature suggests that mentoring is associated with different career outcomes for men and women. Specifically, we predict that mentoring is associated with more objective career advancement for men than women and more subjective satisfaction for women than for men.

Our reasoning is as follows: Although mentors may be interested in facilitating protégés' career advancement, they themselves may be embedded in a work environment that is biased against women (Kanter, 1977). That is, mentors themselves rely on organizations that are structurally biased to exclude and marginalize women (Burt, 1992; Ibarra, 1992). Therefore, it may simply be more challenging to mentor women's careers than it is to mentor men's careers. If so, then we expect gender will moderate the influence of mentoring on objective indicators of career advancement.

Hypothesis 1a: Gender will moderate the relationship between mentoring and promotions such that the relationship between mentoring and promotions will be more positive for men than for women.

Hypothesis 1b: Gender will moderate the relationship between mentoring and growth in financial compensation such that the relationship between mentoring and growth in financial compensation will be more positive for men than for women.

Gender, Mentoring, and Work Satisfaction

If mentors provide protégés with knowledge (Lankau and Scandura, 2002; Murray, 2001; Ostroff and Kozolowski, 1993), connections (Arnold and Johnson, 1997; Chao et al., 1992; Fagenson and Burke,

1989), and emotional support (Ford and Wells, 1985; Sandler, 1993), mentoring may enhance protégés' work satisfaction (Chao et al., 1992; Fagenson and Burke, 1989; Ragins et al., 2000). However, we are interested in the more specific question of whether mentoring is associated with different levels of satisfaction for women and men.

In a gendered work environment (Acker, 1990; Heilman et al., 1995; Kanter, 1977) where women may be marginalized (Ibarra, 1992; Mehra et al., 1998) and excluded (O'Leary and Ickovics, 1992) from important social networks (Feeney and Bozeman, 2008; Higgins and Kram, 2001), women may benefit more than men from mentors' psychosocial support in the workplace (Ragins and Cotton, 1999; Riley and Wrench, 1985). Women managers' status in gendered organizations may make them particularly receptive to receiving, acknowledging, and appreciating emotional support. Previous research indicates that mentors often provide this type of psychosocial and emotional support (Allen et al., 2004; Gibson, 2004), and importantly, they can do so on their own without the necessity of engaging the organization at large. If women appreciate workplace emotional support more than men (Cahill and Sias, 1997), and this is something that mentors acting on their own can supply, there should be an interaction between gender and mentoring on work satisfaction, such that mentoring relates more strongly to female managers work satisfaction than it does their male counterparts' satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2: Gender will moderate the relationship between mentoring and work satisfaction; such that the relationship between mentoring and work satisfaction will be more positive for women than for men.

If female protégés receive more psychosocial support (Allen et al., 2004; Cohen et al., 2000; Ford and Wells, 1985; Gibson, 2004; Ragins and Cotton, 1999; Riley and Wrench, 1985; Sandler, 1993) and male protégés receive more career advancement support, and if the psychosocial support compensates women protégés for their lack of career advancement, then the effect of mentoring on work satisfaction might be experienced by women regardless of any effect of mentoring on career advancement. This reasoning suggests that women may experience a stronger relationship between mentoring and work satisfaction than men, even when controlling for career advancement.

Hypothesis 3: Gender will moderate the relationship between mentoring and work satisfaction; such that the relationship between mentoring and work satisfaction will be more positive for women than for men regardless of the career advancement they experience.

Methods

Participants and Data Collection

We tested our hypotheses with data from 641 MBA alumni of a Midwestern business school. This dataset is particularly appropriate for testing our propositions because it is a relatively homogeneous sample in terms of education, career specialty (i.e., management), work experience, age, and socio-economic status. Nevertheless, we controlled for these variables to sharpen our focus on the gender differences in careers associated with mentoring.

Our procedures were as follows: first, alumni ($N = 4056$) of a Midwestern business school who had graduated between five and ten years prior to the study date were invited via email to participate in a survey addressing decisions people make regarding work and family. Those interested in the study were able to link to a confidential and secure web site to complete an anonymous survey. The response rate was 33.5% giving us 1005 respondents. We removed respondents with missing data on financial compensation, promotions, level of management or mentorship; those who reported no income; and those who were working less than 35 hours per week, because we were interested in studying the experiences of full-time employees. We also removed three outliers on the financial compensation variable because their total current cash compensation was more than one million dollars, which was 9.24 standard deviations above the mean. Removing respondents with missing data on these key variables provided our final sample of 641 respondents including 461 men (72.0%) and 180 women (28.0%).

To reduce common methods variance, questions regarding demographics, job experience, financial compensation, and promotions were interspersed throughout the ten-page survey. The survey was anonymous in order to reduce self-presentation biases, halo effects, and other demand characteristics of reporting promotions, financial compensation, and work hours (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986).

Dependent Variables: Career Advancement and Work Satisfaction

There were three dependent variables. Two dependent variables measured career advancement: promotions and growth in financial compensation. The third dependent variable measured work satisfaction.

Participants reported the number of promotions they had received in the five years prior to completing the survey. Since all of the participants were graduates of the same MBA program, we decided to consider the same five year period for all individuals. This controlled for periodic variations in economic conditions. The number of promotions varied from 0 ($n = 83$) to 8 ($n = 2$) with an average of 1.92 promotions.

We operationalized growth in financial compensation as the difference between current total cash compensation (salary plus bonuses), and total cash compensation five years previously. We ran all models with the raw difference measure and a log of it. As there were no differences in results, we report only the raw data.

We measured work satisfaction with 22 affect-toward-work items ranging from intrinsic work satisfaction and job involvement to organizational loyalty (see Appendix A). As we were interested in broad coverage of work satisfaction, and wanted to use a single variable to represent satisfaction in our model, we conducted a principal components analysis. The first component of the correlation matrix accounted for 36% of the variance among the 22 affect-toward-work items. No other component accounted for more than 10% of the variance. The coefficient alpha internal consistency reliability estimate for the linear combination of these 22 items was .91.

Independent Variables

We asked participants whether or not they had a mentor without defining mentorship for them, so as not to risk biasing hypothesis testing due to self-selection. The risk in allowing participants to self define mentorship was that male and female managers might define mentoring differently. To rule this out we conducted a pretest study of male and female managers' perceptions of the attributes and behaviors of mentors. The pretest used an independent sample of ninety-two male and forty-three female managers 5 –

10 years out of an MBA program different from the population surveyed for the main study. This survey asked the questions about mentors' attributes and behaviors listed in Appendix B. Using MANOVA with the list in Appendix B as the dependent variables and gender as the independent variables, we then tested whether there were any differences in how male and female managers described mentors. There were not ($F(1, 133) = 0.03, p = .87$), suggesting that male and female managers viewed the role of a mentor in the workplace very similarly. The results of this pretest suggest that in the main study any gender differences in the relationships between having a mentor and career and socio-emotional outcomes would not be due to inherent gender differences in definitions (mental models) of mentorship. Based on this pretest, we measured mentorship with a single question asking whether the respondent had a mentor (coded 1) or not (coded 0). In our sample of 461 men and 180 women, 30% of respondents (193) reported having a mentor.

Gender was a single question coded 1 for women and 0 for men. Women were not significantly different from men in their likelihood of having a mentor (women 28.3%; men 30.8%).

Control Variables

We included a number of control variables that might influence our dependent variables (Ragins et al., 2000). These were work hours, respondents' perceptions of whether they had an effective network, age, management level, and industry. We controlled for work hours because work hours are an indicator of face time in organizations (Brett and Stroh, 2003) and may be rewarded with salary increases or opportunities for promotion if taken as an indicator of effort. Average number of *work hours* combining regular hours, weekend hours and evening hours was 55.9 per week. Although it may seem apparent that working longer hours will increase productivity and the value of the worker, some researchers have found evidence to the contrary (LaJeunesse, 1999). Longer work hours were unlikely to be directly compensated for in this population because MBAs usually enter careers exempted from laws regarding overtime; nevertheless, we included hours as a control, recognizing that some research has found a relationship between managers' hours and career advancement (Brett and Stroh, 2003).

Networks may influence career outcomes (Burt, 1992; Feeney and Bozeman, 2008; Ibarra, 1992) and provide emotional support (Fischer, 1982). Therefore, we added a *network* control variable in all of our analyses, in order to isolate the gender effects of mentoring on careers from effects associated with having a network. We asked participants: ‘Are you involved in a network that is likely to aid your career?’ Overall, 40% of respondents reported that they belonged to a beneficial network, and men reported belonging to such a network, 45.3% ($n = 209$) more often than women, 29.4% ($n = 53$), $\chi^2(1, N = 641) = 13.6, p < .001$.

We included *age* as a control variable because older managers may have fewer opportunities for promotions than younger managers since there are fewer job opportunities at higher levels of hierarchical organizations. We also included age as a control variable for compensation growth, reasoning that older employees may have a larger percentage of their compensation in fixed pay, and annual percentage increases will benefit them more than younger employees who may have a smaller proportion of their compensation in fixed pay. The average age was 39; the range was 30 to 63 years old. We replaced missing data for age with the mean age of all respondents.

We controlled for *management level* because there are fewer opportunities for advancement in upper levels of organizations. We asked participants whether they were in lower, middle, upper, or top management. Opportunities for advancement should be much greater in lower and middle management compared to upper or top management positions. With this in mind, we coded 1 for upper or top management and 0 for lower or middle management.

We controlled for *industry* because respondents came from a variety of different industries and pay levels, and promotion rates vary by industry. We coded six categorical variables: manufacturing ($n = 174$); utility and transportation services ($n = 45$); wholesale and retail trade ($n = 34$); finance, insurance, and real estate ($n = 179$); business services and consulting ($n = 84$) (engineering, accounting, research, and management services); and miscellaneous services ($n = 72$) (hotels, personal services, repair services, entertainment, health, education, legal, social services, and associations). We used miscellaneous service as the reference category.

Analyses

We tested hypotheses using moderated regression analyses following the procedure recommended by Cohen and Cohen (1983) to test for interactions. Promotions, financial compensation, and work satisfaction were regressed first on the control variables and then on gender and mentoring, and finally on the interaction between gender and mentoring. Table 1 includes the means, standard deviations, and correlations for all variables. A maximum significance level of .05 was used for all statistical tests.

 INSERT TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE

Results*Career Advancement*

Hypothesis 1a predicted that gender would moderate the relationship between being mentored and promotions such that male protégés' promotion rates would be more strongly related to mentoring than their female counterparts' promotion rates. As Table 2 Model 2 indicates, this hypothesis was supported. The interaction of mentoring and gender on promotions was significant ($\Delta R^2 = .008$), $\Delta F(1, 628) = 5.92, p = .02$. The sign of the coefficient representing the interaction was negative, $B = -.53, t(628) = -2.43, p = .02$, indicating that mentorship was more strongly associated with male than with female protégés' promotions. Female protégés received, on average, 1.94 promotions during the five-year window in which we measured promotions. This rate was no greater than that of their non-mentored female peers, who received, on average, 1.91 promotions. Mentored men received 2.27 promotions; non-mentored men received the lowest number of promotions, on average, 1.76. A chart of these results in Figure 1 indicates that all the promotional benefits of mentoring can be explained by the data for men, $B = .26, t(637) = 3.96, p = .0002$, for which the slope was positive and significant, rather than by the data for women, for which the slope was not significant, $B = .07, t(637) = 1.03, p = .31$. Our data indicate that mentoring was associated with promotions, but only when the protégés were men.²

 INSERT TABLE 2 ABOUT HERE

 INSERT FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE

Hypothesis 1b predicted that gender would moderate the relationship between being mentored and growth in financial compensation such that male protégés' financial growth would be more strongly related to mentoring than their female counterparts' financial growth. As Table 2 Model 4 shows, this hypothesis was not supported. The interaction of mentoring and gender for compensation growth was not significant, $B = \$9,066$, $t(628) = .67$, $p = .50$, ($\Delta R^2 = .001$), $\Delta F(1, 628) = .45$, $p = .50$. Instead, as Table 2 Model 3 shows, there was a main effect of mentoring on compensation growth, $B = \$16,580$, $t(629) = 2.68$, $p = .008$, ($\Delta R^2 = .01$), $\Delta F(1, 629) = 3.80$, $p = .02$. Both men and women with mentors experienced greater compensation growth than non-mentored men and women. This pattern of results indicates that mentoring neither exacerbated nor attenuated existing gender differences in compensation, instead mentoring preserved these differences.

As Table 3 indicates, there were no significant differences in the level of starting compensation of mentored and non-mentored male managers, $F(1, 459) = 1.88$, $p = .17$; or female managers, $F(1, 178) = .37$, $p = .54$. However, both mentored and non-mentored female managers' starting compensation was lower than their male counterparts, and their ending compensation was lower as well. Female protégés' total cash compensation (\$132,399) never grew sufficiently to equal that of their peer male protégés (\$167,724) or, incidentally, even non-mentored men (\$139,078) (See Figure 2).

 INSERT TABLE 3 ABOUT HERE

 INSERT FIGURE 2 ABOUT HERE

Work Satisfaction

Hypothesis 2 predicted that gender would moderate the relationship between mentoring and work satisfaction such that the relationship between mentoring and work satisfaction would be more positive

for women than for men. As shown in Table 2 Model 6, this hypothesis was supported, as the interaction of mentoring and gender for work satisfaction was significant ($\Delta R^2 = .007$), $\Delta F(1, 628) = 5.31, p = .02$. The sign of the coefficient representing the interaction was positive, $B = .24, t(628) = 2.30, p = .02$, indicating that mentorship was more strongly related to women's, than to men's, work satisfaction. Figure 3 illustrates this relationship, indicating that women without mentors were least satisfied with work while women with mentors were as satisfied as men with mentors. Thus, mentoring was associated with a narrowing of the gender gap in terms of work satisfaction.

 INSERT FIGURE 3 ABOUT HERE

Hypothesis 3 predicted that the effect of mentorship on women's work satisfaction would occur regardless of their experience with respect to promotions and compensation growth. We tested this hypothesis by including promotions and compensation growth in the final set of analyses that we report in Table 4. As Table 4 Model 8 indicates, the interaction term for gender and mentoring continued to be significant and positive with the addition of these two new controls, $B = .24, t(626) = 2.30, p = .02$, as was the change in F moving from Model 7 to Model 8 ($\Delta R^2 = .007$), $\Delta F = 5.29, p = .02$. These results indicate that when controlling for promotions and compensation growth, the relationship between mentoring and work satisfaction was still stronger for female than male managers.

 INSERT TABLE 4 ABOUT HERE

Summary of Results

The main findings of this study of 461 managerial men and 180 managerial women were the following: mentoring was more strongly associated with promotions for male than for female managers; mentoring was more strongly associated with work satisfaction for female than male managers; and mentoring was associated with higher compensation for both male and female managers but neither increased nor reduced the gender gap in compensation. It is important to recognize that these results were

significant in the context of a set of control variables: participants' age, which was negatively related to promotions and positively related to compensation growth; work hours, which were positively related to promotions, compensation growth, and work satisfaction; managerial level, which was positively related to all dependent measures; and perceptions of being part of a network at work, which was positively related to work satisfaction. Including the network control variable made for a particularly stringent test of our hypotheses, which focused on what having a mentor accomplishes with respect to career advancement and work satisfaction. Running the models without the network control made the mentoring effects stronger but did not change the results reported here. Thus, the moderating effect of gender on the relationships between mentoring and career and socio-emotions outcomes occurred regardless of the effects of the control variables. .

Discussion

The major contribution of this study is its finding of differential effects of mentoring for men and women. This result is consistent with prior research on the gendered workplace (Heilman et al., 1995; Kanter, 1977), on women's social networks at work (Feeney and Bozeman, 2008; Higgins and Kram, 2001; Ibarra, 1992), and on gender differences among female and male protégés and mentors (Allen and Eby, 2004; Ragins et al., 2000; Ragins and Cotton, 1999; Riley and Wrench, 1985). Our results indicate that in areas such as socio-emotional support where mentors can act alone, having a mentor helps women and closes the gender gap with men. However, in areas such as career progression and growth in financial compensation that require a mentor to interact with the broader organization to deliver outcomes, having a mentor benefits both men and women and does not close the gap between them. To be sure, women protégés earned higher ending salaries compared to non-mentored women and that alone argues for the advantage of mentoring for women. However, as Figure 2 shows, the gap in financial compensation between men and women was similarly wide regardless of whether individuals were mentored or not.

Strengths, Limitations, and Future Research Opportunities

Strengths of this research include the large sample size and the lagged dependent measures of promotions and compensation. Another strength was our discretely queried measure of mentorship which we independently pretested to ensure that both male and female managers described mentors similarly. We intentionally did not ask managers whether they thought their mentors had facilitated their careers to reduce the likelihood of contamination between independent and dependent variables.

It is always difficult to address causality with field research, even field research that looks at some dependent variables over a five-year time span. First, the interactions between having a mentor and gender on career advancement and work satisfaction indicate that even if reverse causality was operating, it was operating differentially for men and women. This indicates that the core finding of the paper—that the relationships between mentoring and career outcomes are limited by gender—holds regardless of causal order. Second, there were no significant differences in starting salaries between mentored and non-mentored male managers or between mentored and non-mentored female managers, providing additional evidence against reverse causality.

Our study suggests several avenues for further research on mentoring. One avenue for further research would be to identify special characteristics of mentors that may make them particularly helpful in facilitating female managers' promotions. There has been some research indicating that gender matching benefits male protégés in terms of promotions and female protégés in terms of psychosocial support (Allen and Eby, 2004; Ragins et al., 2000). Perhaps mentors who have been successfully mentored themselves in terms of career advancement and work satisfaction, are more capable of mentoring protégés' career outcomes and work satisfaction.

Recent attention has focused on sponsorship rather than mentorship as a vehicle for women's progress in the workplace (Hewlett, 20**). A sponsor is someone who is willing to put their own reputation on the line to champion a protégé for challenging assignments within the organization. We agree that this kind of activity that interfaces with the broader organization is likely to be beneficial (whether it is done by someone called a sponsor or someone called a mentor). Although recent work has

documented gains to both men and women if they have a sponsor, future research might look at the structural conditions under which sponsorship is most useful for female versus male proteges.

Conclusion

Regardless of the benefits of mentoring for all protégés, we found that mentoring was associated with a reduction of the gender gap only for work satisfaction and not for objective career-related outcomes. The gender gap remained unchanged for compensation and even widened for promotions. Mentorship benefited female managers more for socio-emotional outcomes than career outcomes.

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Appendix A

Work Satisfaction Scale Items (22 total items)

General work satisfaction (three item Likert-type scale ranging from 1 [Very Unhappy] to 5 [Very Happy]):

All things considered how happy are you with the following:
your job
your organization
your career

The remaining 19 items are a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree) and all refer back to this question: 'How do you feel about your current job, career, company?'

Satisfaction with the work itself (5 items):

The work is interesting.
The work is challenging.
The work is boring (reversed).
This job gives me the opportunity to develop my skills.
The problems I'm expected to solve are hard enough.

Satisfaction with your control (4 items):

My responsibilities are clearly defined.
I have enough authority to do my job.
I can see the results of my work.
I am given a lot of freedom to decide how to do my own work.

Job involvement (3 items):

The most important things that happen to me involve my work.
I am very much personally involved in my work.
I live, eat, and breathe my job.

Organizational loyalty (7 items):

If I had to choose all over again, I would take a job with this company.
I would recommend this company to a friend as a good place to work.
I would be willing to spend the rest of my career working for this company.
I would be willing to change companies for career advancement (reversed).
I find my values and the organization's values are very similar.
Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake (reversed).

Appendix B

Questions about Mentoring Pretest Study

Mentors can do many different things for protégés. What does your mentor do for you? (five point Likert-type scale from [*Strongly Disagree*] to [*Strongly Agree*])

helps me set career goals

is a friend

advises on career decisions

advises on business decisions

introduces me to people in the organization who are important for my career

introduces me to people in the organization who might provide social support

introduces me to people outside the organization for career support

introduces me to people outside the organization for social support

speaks positively about me to others

recommends me for task forces, jobs

intervenes in conflicts I'm involved in

provides advice about how to handle conflict

gives me feedback on my performance

provides emotional support during setbacks

advises me on non-work related issues

advises on how best to accomplish tasks

advises on how the system works in my career (may involve formal or informal rules of the game)

advises on how the system works in my organization (may involve formal or informal rules of the game)

advises on how to balance work and family

is willing to talk when I need it

gives me advice about an important function to attend

gives me advice about an important person to meet

has reviewed my overall career objectives/ career path

Endnotes

¹A search of the Nexis database including 343 magazines and newspapers in the United States' business press found that mentions of the words 'mentor' and 'mentoring' increased from zero mentions in 1975 to 203 mentions in 1990 to over 1000 mentions by 1998. In subsequent years, the number of mentions per year consistently has exceeded 1000.

²We tested our hypotheses regarding promotions using a hierarchical multiple regression method favored by previous mentoring researchers (Lyness and Thompson, 2000; Ragins and Cotton, 1991). Nevertheless, some scholars suggest examining count variables such as promotions using a Poisson analysis or a robust negative binomial regression analysis (Gourieroux et al., 1984; Hall and Ziedonis, 2001; Wooldridge, 2006). We performed these analyses and we obtained similar results that confirmed our hierarchical regression analyses.

Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations^a

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Age	39.03	5.20														
2. Work Hours	55.86	8.23	-.06													
3. Management Level	0.57	0.49	.12**	.20**												
4. Manufacturing	0.27	0.44	-.03	-.01	-.42											
5. Utility	0.07	0.26	-.02	-.01	-.02	-.17**										
6. Retail	0.05	0.22	.03	.01	.08	-.14**	-.06									
7. Finance	0.28	0.45	-.05	-.02	-.08	-.38**	-.17**	-.15**								
8. Services	0.11	0.32	.11**	-.03	.09*	-.22*	-.10*	-.08*	-.22**							
9. Consulting	0.13	0.34	-.02	.07	.06	-.24**	-.11**	-.09*	-.24**	-.14**						
10. Network	0.41	0.49	.01	.12**	.08*	-.06	.03	.04	-.02	.01	.01					
11. Gender ^b	0.28	0.45	.06	-.21**	-.16**	-.08*	-.01	-.06	.05	.17**	-.11**	-.14**				
12. Mentoring	0.30	0.46	-.16**	.06	.08*	.03	-.07	-.02*	.02	.01	-.03	.19**	-.02			
13. Promotions	1.92	1.23	-.37**	.10**	.06	.00	-.04	-.06	.04	.01	-.03	-.16	.00	.14**		
14. Compensation Δ^c	\$58,605	\$74,661	.23**	.23**	.24**	-.06	-.01	.02	.18**	-.02**	-.01	.10**	-.11**	.15**	.14**	
15. Work Satisfaction	3.62	0.56	.00	.14**	.25**	-.02	.03	.02	-.03	.04	-.03	.19**	-.10*	.22**	.04	.15**

^a $N = 641$. ^bFor the variable 'Gender' women were coded as 1. ^cChange in total cash compensation.* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 2^a

Regression Analyses for Promotions, Compensation Growth, and Work Satisfaction

Variable	Promotions		Compensation Growth ^b		Work Satisfaction	
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
Age	-.09** (.01)	-.09** (.01)	-1,049* (542)	-1,030 (543)	.00 (.00)	.00 (.00)
Work Hours	.01 (.01)	.01 (.01)	1,506** (346)	1,514** (346)	.00 (.00)	.00* (.00)
Management Level ^c	.23** (.10)	.22* (.10)	33,019** (5,795)	33,139** (5,800)	.22** (.04)	.23** (.04)
Manufacturing	-.21 (.14)	-.20 (.14)	12,856 (8,265)	12,595 (8,278)	.00 (.06)	-.03 (.06)
Utility	-.33 (.20)	-.34 (.20)	18,684 (12,104)	18,736 (12,110)	.12 (.09)	.12 (.09)
Retail	-.46* (.22)	-.43* (.22)	19,308 (13,444)	18,688 (13,481)	.02 (.10)	.00 (.10)
Finance	-.13 (.13)	-.12 (.13)	42,748** (8,134)	42,597** (8,142)	.01 (.06)	.00 (.06)
Consulting	-.30 (.16)	-.30 (.16)	11,544 (9,920)	11,449 (9,925)	.04 (.08)	.04 (.08)
Network	-.09 (.10)	-.08 (.09)	7,358 (5,759)	7,209 (5,766)	.14** (.04)	.14** (.04)
Mentoring	.19 (.10)	.33** (.12)	16,580** (6,187)	14,171* (7,148)	.22** (.05)	.16** (.04)
Gender ^d	.08 (.10)	.24 (.12)	-4,616 (6,439)	-7,264 (7,546)	-.03 (.05)	-.10 (.06)
Gender*Mentoring		-.53** (.22)		9,066 (13,454)		.24** (.10)
Adjusted R^2	.16	.16	.15	.15	.11	.12
$F(df)$	11.92** (11,629)	11.51** (12,628)	11.05** (11,629)	10.16** (12,628)	8.42** (11,629)	8.22** (12,628)
ΔR^2	.01	.01	.01	.00	.03	.01
$\Delta F(df)$	2.08 (2,630)	5.92** (1,629)	3.80** (2,630)	.45 (1,629)	10.77** (2,630)	5.31** (1,629)

^aThe change in R^2 in Models 1, 3, and 5 signifies the change when mentoring and gender are added to the regression when the controls are already entered. ^bAmounts for Compensation Growth are in dollars. ^cFor the variable 'Management Level' lower management was coded as 0 and upper management was coded as 1. ^dFor the variable 'Gender' women were coded as 1.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 3

Mean and Standard Deviations of Mentored and Nonmentored Men and Women on Promotions, Compensation and Satisfaction ^b

Mentor	Gender	Promotions	Start Compensation	End Compensation	5 Year Growth in Compensation	Satisfaction
No	Women	1.91 (1.29)	69,681 (30,880)	106,446 (53,678)	36,765 (38,537)	3.41 (0.59)
No	Men	1.76 (1.16)	82,011 (46,304)	139,078 (85,256)	57,067 (66,353)	3.59 (0.55)
Yes	Women	1.94 (1.17)	66,656 (27,180)	132,399 (12,178)	65,742 (117,543)	3.82 (0.49)
Yes	Men	2.27 (1.29)	88,389 (45,856)	167,724 (115,702)	79,336 (90,729)	3.79 (0.50)

^bCompensation amounts are in dollars.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 4^a

Regressions for Work Satisfaction with Promotions and Compensation

Variable	Work Satisfaction	
	Model 7	Model 8
Age	.00	.00
Work hours	.00	.00
Management Level ^b	.22**	.22**
Manufacturing	.00	-.01
Utility	.11	.11
Retail	.01	.00
Finance	-.01	-.01
Consulting	.04	.04
Network	.14**	.14**
Mentoring	.21**	.15**
Gender ^c	-.03	-.10
Promotions	.00	.00
Compensation		
Growth	.00	.00
Gender*Mentoring		.24*
Adjusted R^2	.11	.12
$F(df)$	7.25** (13,627)	7.16** (14,626)
ΔR^2	.00	.01
$\Delta F(df)$.86 (2,627)	5.29* (1,626)

^a The change in R^2 in Model 7 signifies the change when promotions and compensation growth are added to the regression when the controls and mentoring and gender are already entered. ^b For the variable 'Management Level' lower management was coded as 0 and upper management was coded as 1. ^c For the variable 'Gender' women were coded as 1.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Figure Captions

Figure 1: Number of promotions in last 5 years as a function of mentoring status

Figure 2: Financial compensation at end of survey as a function of mentoring status

Figure 3: Work satisfaction as a function of mentoring status (See Appendix A for the complete 1 to 5 point Likert-type scale)

Figure 1

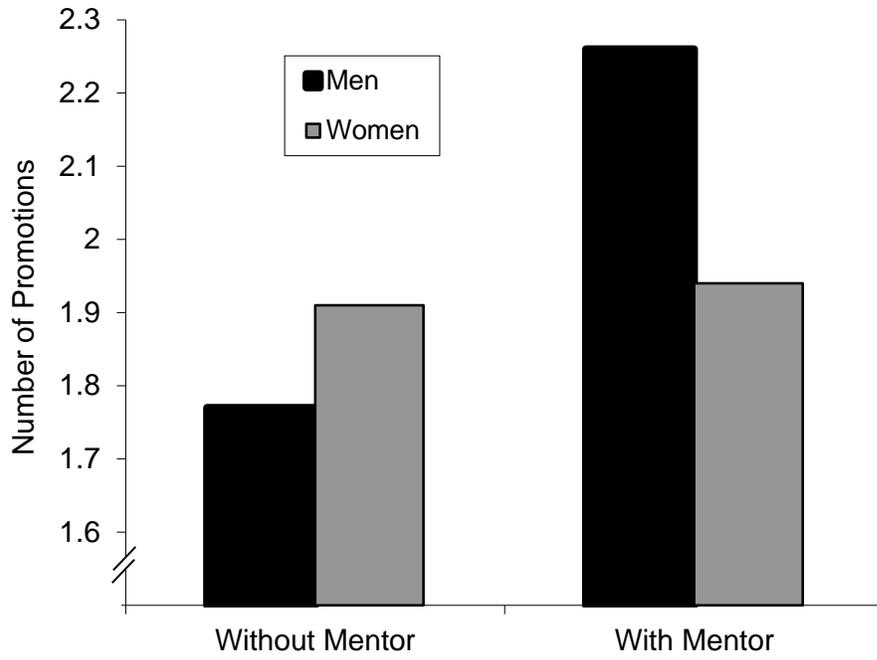


Figure 2

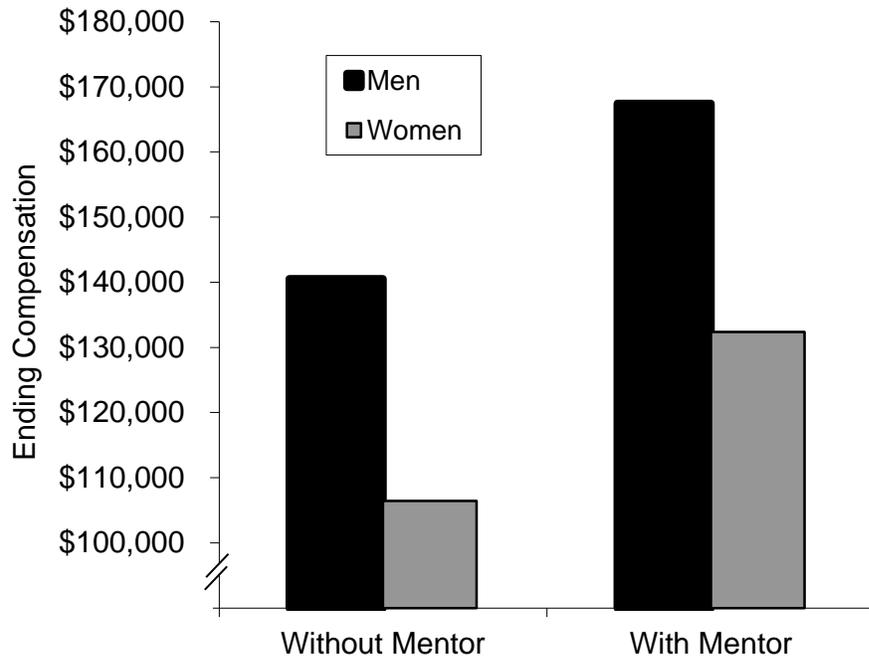


Figure 3

